PROMOTING SAFETY IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT: THE ROLE OF INTERNAL MARKETING

By

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VOORWOORD
“Die Here my God gee vir my krag. Hy maak my voete soos die van 'n ribbok, op hoë plekke laat Hy my veilig loop”

Habakuk 3:19

Ek dank die Hemelse Vader wat my in staat gestel het om hierdie studie te voltooi. Vir die moed, krag en deursettingsvermoë - sonder Hom sou ek dit nooit kon maak nie.


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Mariëtte Steyn

SYNOPSIS
The process of creating a safe working environment for all has proved to be one of the most complex facets within an organisation. This may be attributed to the fact that there are so many elements involved in ensuring occupational safety. Not only has the individual employee a responsibility towards safety, including his or her attitude and risk-taking behaviour, but also does the organisation contribute towards this hazard-free environment in providing a culture where safety is regarded as a priority or not. Furthermore, the role of internal marketing will have an impact on whether employees will buy into the concept of occupational safety. Internal marketing may be conveyed through management and how they communicate the importance of a safe workplace through elements such as training and motivation.

From the above it is clear that both individual and organisational factors play a crucial part in ensuring a hazard-free environment. The challenge is to link these factors together ensuring cooperation from both the employee and employer. If the idea of a safe working environment is not effectively marketed inside the organisation, the factors involved will be negatively influenced, leading to an unsuccessful implementation of safety in the organisation.

The purpose of this research study is to determine whether occupational safety can be promoted successfully through internal marketing. Unless there is an understanding of all the concepts related to a safe working environment, the benefits as a result of the implementation of occupational safety will not be fully grasped.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION  
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT  
1.3 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH  
   1.3.1 Primary objective  
   1.3.2 Secondary Objectives  
1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS  
1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY  
1.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH  
1.7 THE AUTOMOTIVE INDUSTRY  
1.8 INTERPRETATION AND VALUE OF RESEARCH  
1.9 CONCEPTUALISING OF KEY CONCEPTS  
1.10 STRUCTURING OF FUTURE CHAPTERS  

## CHAPTER 2: FACTORS INFLUENCING OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY

2.1 INTRODUCTION  
2.2 MANAGING THE RISKS OF HAZARDS IN THE ORGANISATION  
   2.2.1 Communicate and Consult  
   2.2.2 Establish the Context  
   2.2.3 Identify the Risks  
   2.2.4 Analyse the Risk  
   2.2.5 Evaluate the Risks  
   2.2.6 Treat the Risks  
   2.2.7 Monitor and Review  
2.3 STANDARDS AND REGULATIONS  
   2.3.1 The Legal Duty to Manage Health and Safety at Work  
   2.3.2 The Tort of Negligence  
   2.3.3 Compliance with Health and Safety Practice  
2.4 CULTURAL CHANGE
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE LITERATURE STUDY
   5.2.1 Factors Influencing Occupational Safety
   5.2.2 Enhancing Occupational Safety through Internal Marketing

5.3 EMPIRICAL CONCLUSIONS
   5.3.1 Profile of Respondents
      5.3.1.1 Position in the Organisation
      5.3.1.2 Years’ Experience
      5.3.1.3 Marketing Qualification
      5.3.1.4 Automotive Sector Representation
   5.3.2 Safety in the Workplace
      5.3.2.1 Organisational Culture
      5.3.2.2 Hazards
      5.3.2.3 Attitudes
      5.3.2.4 Risk-Taking
      5.3.2.5 Economical Implications of Occupational Safety
   5.3.3 Factors Supporting Occupational Safety
      5.3.3.1 Management
      5.3.3.2 Internal Marketing
      5.3.3.3 Communication
      5.3.3.4 Training
      5.3.3.5 Motivation
   5.3.4 Correlations between all Factors Discussed

5.4 THE LINK BETWEEN THE RESEARCH RESULTS AND THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES
   5.4.1 Research Objectives
5.4.2 Hypotheses 222
5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS 222
5.6 CONCLUSION 224

LIST OF REFERENCE 225
Appendix A
Appendix B
Appendix C
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Vehicle Sales in South Africa</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Performance Indicators of Safety Measurement</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Determining the Sample Frame and Sample</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Culture</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Attitude</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Section B – Safety in the Workplace: General</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Risk-Taking</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Financial Benefit</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>Section B – Management</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Section C – Internal Marketing</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Section C – Communication</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>Section C – Training</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>Section C - Motivation</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>Correlations</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**LIST OF FIGURES**

| Figure 2.1 | Risk Management Process | 19 |
| Figure 2.2 | Risk Analysis Matrix for Determining Level of Risk | 22 |
| Figure 2.3 | Extremes of Safety | 25 |
| Figure 2.4 | Stages of Safety Culture Improvement | 33 |
| Figure 2.5 | Cultural Framework | 41 |
| Figure 2.6 | Human Error | 45 |
| Figure 2.7 | Persuasion Process | 55 |
| Figure 2.8 | The Four Components of the Balanced Scorecard | 63 |
| Figure 2.9 | Effective Risk Control | 67 |
| Figure 2.10 | Total Loss Control Stages | 82 |
| Figure 3.1 | Framework of Chapter 3 | 89 |
| Figure 3.2 | A Model of Managerial Competencies | 115 |
| Figure 3.3 | Integration of Leadership and Management | 118 |
| Figure 3.4 | The Structure of the Training Evaluation Problem | 124 |
| Figure 3.5 | Fundamental Motivational Model | 129 |
| Figure 3.6 | Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs | 131 |
| Figure 3.7 | Reinforcement Process | 140 |
| Figure 3.8 | General Model of Interpersonal Communication | 149 |
| Figure 3.9 | Levels of Understanding for a Message from Top Management | 150 |
| Figure 3.10 | Approaches for Managing Internal Marketing Communications | 153 |
| Figure 3.11 | Framework of Chapter 3 | 158 |
| Figure 4.1 | Position in the Organisation | 174 |
| Figure 4.2 | Years’ Experience | 175 |
| Figure 4.3 | Marketing Qualification | 176 |
| Figure 4.4 | Automotive Sector | 177 |
| Figure 4.5 | Histogram of Safety in the Workplace | 178 |
| Figure 4.6 | Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual | 184 |
| Figure 4.7 | Histogram of Management | 185 |
| Figure 4.8 | Regression Analysis of Management and Safety in the Workplace | 187 |
| Figure 4.9 | Histogram of Internal Marketing | 188 |
| Figure 4.10 | Regression Analysis of Internal Marketing and Occupational Safety | 191 |
| Figure 4.11 | Histogram of Communication | 192 |
| Figure 4.12 | Regression Analysis of Communication and Safety in the Workplace | 194 |
| Figure 4.13 | Histogram of Training | 195 |
| Figure 4.14 | Regression Analysis of Training and Safety in the Workplace | 197 |
| Figure 4.15 | Histogram of Motivation | 198 |
| Figure 4.16 | Regression Analysis of Motivation and Safety in the Workplace | 200 |
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION
Most organisations operate in an environment of risks where the key to business success is locked up in the ability to reduce these risks to an acceptable level. Occupational health and safety represents one of the many risks to which organisations are exposed and are thus regarded as integral features of work and employment relations (Fairbrother, 1996: 5). The consequences of ill-health and hazards have an untold impact on employees, on their personal lives, on those who enter employment settings, and on the provision of products and services (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 86).

As a result of intensive research, it is reasonably well accepted that climate, attitude and culture play a crucial part in the occurrence of accidents (Harvey, Bolam, Gregory & Erdos, 2001: 617). Dilley and Kleiner (1996: 6) argue that an employee’s behaviour is caused by the hidden culture that exists in an organisation. For safety to be regarded as a priority in an organisation, Clarke (2006: 414) feels that the culture needs to change to reflect this importance of safe behaviour. Although management plays a vital role in leading this whole process, the onus is on each individual employee to realise that safe behaviour is their own responsibility (Hillston & Murray-Webster, 2004).

Behm, Veltri and Kleinsorge (2004: 22) claim that, apart from the human factors involved in providing a safe work environment, health and safety at work is also expensive. There are personal and social costs arising from the debilitating demands of stressful work situations, the dangers that are part of work, and the burden of deteriorating health (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 214). To meet standards as well as maintaining a reasonably able workforce, employers need to find a balance between the costs and benefits, both financial and social (Carchia, 1999).

The above will be made possible through the realisation that an organisation’s internal users are in fact their customers and that marketing inside the organisation is an essential part of delivering value to the organisation and ultimately to the end
consumer (Harrel & Fors, 1995). It may thus be argued that employees are the first market, and external customers the second (Keller, 2002: 649). For internal marketing to be successful, a few factors need to be kept in mind. Firstly, effective management is necessary to lead the concept of internal marketing and set an example to employees. Although safety is the responsibility of every individual employee, safety may be regarded as an acknowledged responsibility of management (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). However, because of natural human resistance to the safety concept, it may be debated that a leader, rather than a manager is needed to ensure the value of safety is understood.

Together with the marketing and management of why occupational safety is important, is the concept of training. The logical development of attitude, knowledge and skill patterns necessary for individuals to perform a given task or job adequately (Stranks, 1994a: 103). It may be debated that training is a key component in ensuring that all employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially harmful situations (Wilder & Sorensen, 2001: 13). However, no amount of marketing, management or training will ensure occupational success if the employee is not motivated. Motivation may be described as the energising force that activates behaviour (Romando, ND) and provides purpose and direction to that behaviour (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2001: 362). People may be described as complex with irrational behaviour, making it difficult to determine their motives behind their actions (Cronje, Du Toit & Motlatla, 2000: 161). The better management understands these motives of employees, the higher the chances are of influencing behaviour as to achieve organisational goals (Longnecker, Moore & Petty, 2003: 376). Furthermore, Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum and Staude (2001: 263) claim that individuals are different from one another in how they think, feel and behave. What motivates one, may be regarded as unimportant by another. Effective managers understand these individual differences that shape each employee’s unique view of work and use this understanding to maximise each employee’s effectiveness (Accel, 2007a). It is thus crucial to realise the importance of motivation as concept in order to secure occupational safety.

The final factor that will ensure successful implementation of internal marketing is the concept of communication. Effective communication may be regarded as the
lifeblood of any organisation (McDougall & Beattie, 1998: 288). If communication is missing, all individuals and the organisation as a whole will not be linked together (Guest & Conway, 2002: 22). The essence of communication is to share understanding between individuals (Ball, 2003). However, that implies more than merely informing the other party about certain facts, but also to make sure that the other party grasps the meaning of the information to real understanding (Lessing, Bredenkamp & Scheepers, 2004: 178).

With the above in mind, it is evident that an understanding of the way in which organisational, individual, and economical factors will influence occupational safety is needed. In this study it will be done with a dominant focus on the role that internal marketing plays in ensuring that employees understand the concept of occupational safety and realise that there is an individual responsibility towards safe practices in the workplace.

1.8 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Occupational safety may be described as every individual in the organisation’s responsibility. Of course it is the employees and their families who suffer most directly from work injuries. Therefore the mere fact that the law makes the employer responsible for ensuring a safe working environment for all employees, should not warrant the employees’ failing to look out for themselves and their co-employees. However, this employee self interest is a weak basis for management to expect an optimum safety performance.

Human factors have been widely recognised as playing a significant role in the safe performance of organisations. Initially, interest in the contribution to an organisation’s safety performance focused on physical design and its relationship to operators. However, it reached a stage where many organisations’ accident figures have been found to plateau at a persistent level with further improvements becoming seemingly impossible. As a consequence of this, new approaches were sought, and attention began to move towards safety attitude, climate and culture within organisations and the crucial part these factors play in the occurrence of accidents.
It may be argued that an employee’s behaviour is caused by the hidden culture that exists in an organisation. For safety to be regarded as a priority in an organisation, culture needs to change to reflect this importance of safe behaviour. Although management plays a vital role in leading this whole process, the success is dependent on various organisational factors. The employee’s perception towards a safe working environment may be influenced by elements such as training, motivation and communication. These organisational factors will provide the employee with the knowledge necessary to understand that safety is the responsibility of every individual.

The research will therefore focus on:

- An understanding of the individual and organisational factors that plays a crucial part in ensuring a hazard-free environment.
- To recognise the challenge of linking above factors together, ensuring cooperation from both the employee and employer.
- How to effectively market the idea of a safe working environment internally.

1.9 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH
The main focus of this study is the provision of a safe working environment for all. In order to achieve this, several objectives have been identified that will aid in the creation of occupational safety.

1.9.1 Primary objective
The primary objective is to determine whether occupational safety can be promoted successfully through internal marketing.

1.9.2 Secondary Objectives
Unless there is an understanding of all the concepts related to a safe working environment, the benefits as a result of the implementation of occupational safety will not be fully grasped.

Therefore the secondary objectives of the study are:

i. To establish the existence of a mutual influence between safety culture, safety attitude and risk perception;
ii. To identify financial opportunities if the organisation invest in a safe working environment;
iii. To determine the impact of management on internal marketing of safety;
iv. To determine the impact of training on internal marketing of safety;
v. To determine the impact of motivation on internal marketing of safety; and
vi. To determine the impact of communication on internal marketing.

1.10 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2003:674) define a hypothesis as a "yet-unproven proposition or possible solution to a decision problem that can be empirically tested using data that are collected through the research process". One will develop a hypothesis to explain a relationship between two or more variables or constructs.

The following hypotheses are formulated:

H$_1$: Occupational safety can be promoted through internal marketing.
H$_2$: Implementing safe practices will result in cost savings in the long-term.
H$_3$: Culture, attitude and risk influence the success of occupational safety

1.11 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research that will be used in this study will be of quantitative nature. Hair et al. (2003:680) describe this type of research as the collection of data using formalised, structured and standard questioning practices where the options of response have been predetermined by the researcher and administered to significantly large numbers of respondents.

The research procedure for collecting large amounts of raw data using question and answer formats are characterised as survey research methods (Zikmund, 2000: 794). The survey research method that will be used in this study will be a self-administered survey. Hair et al. (2003: 265) and Zikmund (2000:793) describe this technique of data collection whereby the respondent reads the survey questions and records his or her own answers without the presence of a trained interviewer. The type of self-administered survey will be Web-based Surveys. By using this method the questionnaire will be loaded on to the Internet. The researcher will send the URL address to the selected respondents, informing them of the procedure of completion.
This method allows the researcher to receive the data immediately after completion as the respondent submits the feedback electronically.

At the outset of this study, it is crucial that the population be defined correctly so that the proper sources from which data must be collected can be identified. For the purpose of this study, the sample will be a reflection of a probability sample. Due to the nature of this study, the most effective results will be gained by using systematic random sampling (SYMRS). Hair et al. (2003:353) describe SYMRS as “a probability sampling technique that requires the defined target population to be ordered in some way”. By selecting respondents from pre-existing lists, the disadvantage of hidden patterns will be reduced with the intent to eliminate. A sample of 151 respondents, representative of the Automotive Industry, has been chosen for this study. From the 151 questionnaires sent out, 51 were received back. This implies a response rate of 34%. For the purpose of this study, this response rate may be accepted on the basis of representation.

This industry occupies a leading position in the global economy, accounting for 9.5% of all world merchandise trade and 12.9% of world export of manufacturers. Worldwide, the Automotive Industry generates 60 million work positions, contributing greatly to local economies. The opportunity for occupational safety thus needs to be investigated to ensure that all 60 million employees return home safely after a day’s work.

1.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Due to the diversified spread of sectors in the Automotive Industry, it was very difficult to obtain a representative sample. Therefore the researcher restricted the sample to the two pre-existing lists of the accredited automotive associations. However, this resulted in a limited response rate. From this it is important to emphasise that the validity of generalisation from the empirical research cannot be guaranteed. This is mainly due to a variation in organisational structures and how occupational safety is perceived in general.

It is important to note that no single study is able to address all aspects related to the subject of discussion.
1.13 THE AUTOMOTIVE INDUSTRY

The global Automotive Industry is a highly diversified sector that comprises of manufacturers, suppliers, dealers, retailers, original equipment manufacturers, aftermarket parts manufacturers, automotive engineers, motor mechanics, auto electricians, spray painters or body repairers, fuel producers, environmental and transport safety groups, and trade unions (IOCA, ND).

The highlighted features of the global Automotive Industry may be explained as follows (Anon, 2008):

- Offers support to other industries such as iron, steel, rubber, glass, plastic, petroleum, textiles, oil and gas, paints and coatings as well as transportation industries;
- Rising foreign investments have led to the rapid growth in terms of automobile production and exports. Overseas organisations are making huge investments and are installing extensive production capacities in developing countries;
- Continuous investment in research and development has resulted in increased productivity and better quality vehicles, automotive accessories and parts;
- Increase in standards of living and purchasing power parity have resulted in the increase demand of vehicles; and
- Adequate infrastructural facilities in form of power supply, machinery, capital, ready availability of raw materials and labour help in the tremendous growth of this industry.

The South African geography is ideal for an intensive study in the Automotive Industry as it may be regarded as part of the backbone of South Africa's economy and a major provider of employment in South Africa (Dlungwana, Nxumalo, Noyana & Rwelamila, 2002: 4).

The Automotive Industry is the leading manufacturing sector in the South African economy. Aggregate employment in the vehicle manufacturing industry currently amounts to about 38 700 persons whilst employment in the component manufacturing industry is roughly 81 000 employees, including 6 000 in tyre manufacturing. Total employment in the trade area, namely in vehicle sales,
maintenance and replacement parts, currently amounts to about 200 000 persons (Naacam, 2008:3).

The following statistics highlighted the past in new vehicle sales (including Naacam’s estimate of unreported sales projections for 2008):

Table 1.1 Vehicle Sales in South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>ACTUALS</th>
<th>PROJ.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>CARS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Domestically Produced</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Sales</td>
<td>233 512</td>
<td>200 264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports (CBU)</td>
<td>8 976</td>
<td>100 699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Domestic Production</td>
<td>242 488</td>
<td>300 963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Car Imports</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAAMSA</td>
<td>7 246</td>
<td>100 889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-NAAMSA</td>
<td>15 059</td>
<td>26 500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Car Imports</td>
<td>22 305</td>
<td>127 389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import Market Share</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL LOCAL CAR MARKET</td>
<td>255 817</td>
<td>327 651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LIGHT COMMERCIALS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Domestically Produced</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Sales</td>
<td>127 363</td>
<td>123 467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports</td>
<td>6 356</td>
<td>9 360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Domestic Production</td>
<td>133 719</td>
<td>132 827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LCV Imports</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAAMSA</td>
<td>1 034</td>
<td>4 162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-NAAMSA</td>
<td>3 000</td>
<td>4 776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total LCV Imports</td>
<td>4 034</td>
<td>8 938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Import Market Share</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL LOCAL LCV MARKET</td>
<td>131 397</td>
<td>132 405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MEDIUM &amp; HEAVY COMMERCIALS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAAMSA sales (incl. Imports)</td>
<td>12 753</td>
<td>21 464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exports</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL MCV/HCV MARKET</td>
<td>12 753</td>
<td>21 464</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 1 clearly shows a unique market with a distinct opportunity of satisfying a safety adherence need. It may be argued that the Automotive Industry has a poor legacy of respect for people. Failure to provide a safe working environment for all may result in major economical implications. Aside from the direct compensation and medical cost associated with accidents, the costs to the economy are immense and include rework, lost time, damage to plant and equipment, disruption, productivity loss and the loss of skills to the economy. All of which could be prevented if occupational safety was regarded as a priority in the organisation. Considering all the implications, the need for occupational safety is solidly justified.

1.8 INTERPRETATION AND VALUE OF RESEARCH

Organisations with top safety records are characterised by a full cooperation from employees in safety matters, supported with regulations with teeth in them to ensure that unconvinced employees cannot demoralise the program. However, for safety to be regarded as a priority, a safety culture must be established (Yu & Hunt, 2004: 212). Through a safety culture, the employee will continuously be aware of the hazards around them, including those that they create themselves. Thus, culture announces to everyone whether safety is a key value and where it fits into the organisation’s priorities. For an organisation that sees safety as a priority, a cultural change is necessary.

Employee attitudes are one of the most important components of safety culture. The concepts of safety, culture and attitude may be interchangeably linked with one another. A change in one will bring about a change in the others. Although a safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude, current attitudes are viewed as an enduring disposition to consistently respond in a given manner. Apart from safety, culture and attitude that have an influence on one another, risk as concept may also be brought into this network of interdependence. It may be argued that the most critical success factor for effective risk management is the one most often lacking: an appropriate and mature risk culture supported by the attitudes of individuals to deliver what is promised (Turner & Keetelaar, 2005). Most organisations operate in an environment of risk and the key to organisational
success is to reduce this risk to an acceptable level. Although the prevention of injuries may be regarded as a first priority, operating cost reduction as objective broadens the basis for occupational safety. Determining the appropriate safety level can be a difficult decision to make. A cost benefit analysis may be used but when employee’s lives are at stake, it can become an ethical debate whose outcome might lie in a grey area. Furthermore, adding too much safety can sometimes be a costly matter. It is therefore not wise to make cost the prime purpose of safety, but rather a long-term by product of safety management (Carchia, 1999).

Although individual elements such as attitude and risk behaviour plays a major role in occupational safety, the way that the concept of safety is marketed to the employees will determine the success of their buy-in.

Internal marketing is more important than conventional external marketing and may be seen as the key to excellent service and successful external marketing. Internal marketing is thus simply the phenomenon of treating employees as customers (Keller, 2002: 649). With this goal in mind, it no longer makes sense to treat internal marketing as a specialist functional approach. In conjunction with this, is the role that management plays in ensuring a safe working environment. It may be debated that safety can only be achieved if top management realises their part in the process, if they consider it as important and commit themselves to lead an example of safe practice (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). In conjunction with effective marketing and management is training. Through training, people gain knowledge about their responsibilities towards safe practices. An alert, well trained, thinking individual will be able to realise when a hazard occurs and will intervene to prevent an accident from happening. Organisations often ignore the important role that training plays in work performance and efficiency. Employees need to understand why they receive training and how it will benefit their daily activities (Stranks, 1994a: 103). Also, it is necessary for managers to encourage the employees to implement learning and changes from their training.

The aim of a manager is to reach objectives through employees. For this to succeed, the manager must be able to motivate the employees (Carter & Kulbok, 2002: 316). To understand motivation, one must understand human nature itself.
Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. People may be described as complex with irrational behaviour, making it difficult to determine their motives behind their actions. The better management understands these motives of employees, the higher the chances are of influencing behaviour as to achieve organisational goals.

However, none of the factors mentioned will be successful without the aid of communication, an indispensable activity in the functioning of all processes in an organisation (McDougall & Beattie, 1998: 288). To communicate effectively, managers must tell employees where they stand, how the organisation is doing, and what the organisation’s plans are for the future. Organisations in which members have difficulty sharing thoughts and ideas, in conveying a truthful opinion, or in trusting colleagues to keep a confidence are anaemic and illness-prone. It may be claimed that sound team communication is important to ensure that everyone is aware and understands the objectives of the project, knows the direction to be taken, and can coordinate tasks and priorities with other team members. Without proper and clear communication, no organisation can survive (Guest & Conway, 2002: 22).

From the above, further studies in the field of occupational safety are thus necessary to understand how to satisfy the need of an organisation to be a safe working environment in a cost beneficial way.

1.9 CONCEPTUALISING OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following are key concepts of this study and may be explained as follows:

**Attitude:** Learned from personal experience, information provided by others, and market controlled sources. Attitudes are directed towards an object and are very specific reactions to that object (Feldman, 2001: 330).

**Balanced Scorecard:** A framework that views the organisation’s performance from four key perspectives, with regard to which organisations should articulate their core vision, strategy and goals before translating them into specific initiatives, targets and measures (Budde, 2007: 515).
**Communication:** A functional, dynamic and transactional process whereby two or more individuals deliberately try to share meaning and to promote understanding by sending and interpreting verbal and non-verbal messages (Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier, 2001: 8).

**Cost:** aside from direct compensation and medical cost associated with accidents, the costs to the economy are immense and include rework, lost time, damage to plant and equipment, disruption, productivity loss and the loss of skills to the economy (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 101).

**Hazard:** Anything which may cause injury or ill-health to anyone at or near a workplace is a hazard (CCOHS, 2005).

**Internal Marketing:** The application of marketing inside an organisation to instill customer-focused values, where the employee is treated as the customer (Strydom, 2004).

**Management:** A person who plans, organises, directs and controls the allocation of humans, material, financial and information resources in pursuit of the organisation's goals (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2001: 7).

**Motivation:** The energising force that activates behaviour (Romando, ND).

**Risk:** The likelihood that a hazard will cause injury or ill-health to anyone at or near a workplace. Furthermore, it is important to consider that the level of risk increases with the severity of the hazard and the duration and frequency of exposure (Greene, 2005).

**Safety Culture:** The enduring value and priority placed on employee and public safety by everyone in every group at every level of an organisation. It thus refers to the extent to which individuals and groups will commit to personal responsibility for safety; act to preserve, enhance and communicate safety concerns (Zhang, Wiegmann, Von Thaden, Sharma & Mitchell, 2002).
Training: The logical development of attitude, knowledge and skill patterns that is necessary for the individual to perform a given task or job adequately, often integrated with further education (Stranks, 1994a: 103).

1.10 STRUCTURING OF FUTURE CHAPTERS
Within the frame of future studies the focus will be on theoretical perspectives and related research to create a holistic image of all the different variables. In relation with the above-mentioned, hypotheses will be formulated, followed with the conduct of statistics, supported by a discussion of the results. To conclude, a compilation of a critical summary, possible implications for the marketing domain and recommendations for future research will follow. The layout may be explained as follows:

Chapter 2
This chapter will focus on a literature study of the way in which organisational, individual and economical factors will influence safety performance.

Providing a safe working environment seems to be a complex task, keeping in mind the many elements involved, some uncontrollable. The discussions will start by investigating hazards in the organisation. This will be followed by an in-depth overview of standards and regulations, relevant to the South African industry. The impact of organisational culture, individual attitudes and risk perceptions towards safety will be explored in detail, followed by investigating the role of the balanced scorecard in implementing safety in the workplace. The chapter will conclude with a discussion around the economical implications of occupational safety.

Chapter 3
Effective managers must recognise that their internal users are in fact their customers and that marketing inside the organisation is an essential part of delivering value to the organisation and ultimately to the end consumer.

Internal marketing will be the core of chapter three, supported by the factors of management, training, motivation and communication. It is important to note that, although the focus still lies with occupational safety, and should not be seen in
isolation from one another, the components will be discussed with a more general perspective. Safe practices can be enhanced by adopting a holistic view on safety matters.

Chapter 4
This chapter will be dedicated to the methodology and empirical results evolving from the research conducted.

Chapter 5
Chapter 5 focuses on the recommendations and conclusions of the study. This will either prove the hypotheses as valid or declare them as invalid.
CHAPTER 2
FACTORS INFLUENCING OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Health and safety are regarded as integral features of work and employment relations (Fairbrother, 1996: 5). The consequences of ill-health and danger have an untold impact on employees, on their personal life, on those who enter employment settings, and on the provision of products and services (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 86). People deal with these consequences in a variety of ways, suffer injury or ill-health, care for the victims, take up claims on behalf of the injured, testify against the dangers and worries at work, campaign for changes in legislation, and attempt to establish minimum standards on danger and hazards (Loewenson, 1996: 1).

Human factors have been widely recognised as playing a significant role in the safe performance of organisations (Abbott, 2003). Initially, according to Donald and Young (1996: 13) interest in the contribution to an organisation’s safety performance focused on physical design and its relationship to operators. However, it reached a stage where many organisations’ accident figures have been found to plateau at a persistent level with further improvements becoming seemingly impossible. As a consequence of this, new approaches were sought, and attention began to move towards safety attitude, climate and culture within organisations (Yu & Hunt, 2004: 212). As a result of the research it is now reasonably well accepted that climate, attitude and culture play a crucial part in the occurrence of accidents (Harvey et al., 2001: 617). Dilley and Kleiner (1996: 6) argue that an employee’s behaviour is caused by the hidden culture that exists in an organisation. For safety to be regarded as a priority in an organisation, Clarke (2006: 414) feels that the culture needs to change to reflect this importance of safe behaviour. Although management plays a vital role in leading this whole process, the onus is on each individual employee to realise that safe behaviour is their own responsibility (Hillston & Murray-Webster, 2004).

Behm et al. (2004: 22) claim that, apart from the human factors involved in providing a safe work environment, health and safety at work is also expensive. There are personal and social costs arising from the debilitating demands of stressful work
situations, the dangers that are part of work, and the burden of deteriorating health (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 214). To meet standards as well as maintaining a reasonably able workforce, employers need to find a balance between the costs and benefits, both financial and social (Carchia, 1999).

Providing a safe working environment seems to be a complex task, keeping in mind the many elements involved, some uncontrollable. The purpose of this chapter aims to explore the different elements that will contribute to a safe working environment. The discussions will start by investigating hazards in the organisations. This is followed by an in-depth overview of standards and regulations, relevant to the South African industry. The impact of organisational culture, individual attitudes and risk perceptions towards safety will be explored in detail, followed by investigating the role of the balanced scorecard in implementing safety in the workplace. The chapter will conclude with a discussion around the economical implications of occupational safety.

2.2 MANAGING THE RISKS OF HAZARDS IN THE ORGANISATION

Safety is not a good fit with a modern organisational image of risk taking, cost cutting and entrepreneurial spirit (Pybus, 1996: 2). However, unless safety management is really excellent, hazards will occur. Mills (2001: 245) expressed that the need for systematic management of hazards and the attendant risks applies to all organisations and activities and functions within an organisation (Tchankova, 2002: 290). It is important to distinguish between hazards, risk and exposure when undertaking risk management:

- **Hazard** is the potential for harm (Agius, 2006), adverse effect on an employee’s health. Therefore, anything which may cause injury or ill-health to anyone at or near a workplace is a hazard (CCOHS, 2005).
- **Risk** is the likelihood that a hazard will cause injury or ill-health to anyone at or near a workplace. Further it is important to consider that the level of risk increases with the severity of the hazard and the duration and frequency of exposure (Greene, 2005).
- **Exposure** occurs when a person comes into contact with a hazard (Comcare, 1999).
From the above definitions risk may be constituted as:

\[ \text{Risk} = \text{Hazard} + \text{Exposure} \]

It is accepted that the degree of hazards vary. Pybus (1996: 2) provides the following categorisation of hazards:

- **Relatively minor events**: this might be a slight injury from a fall or damage to a machine. Chances are that these hazards do not even result in injury or other damage and are only regarded as a near miss (Turner & Keetelaar, 2005).

- **Slightly more serious incidence**: in this instance the damage is enough to significantly interrupt normal operations (Gavin, 2003): a fire that damages processing equipment or a fractured wrist from a fall off a platform that reduces productivity of the operating team for a week or two. Because the normal workflow gets interrupted, these incidents get more attention.

- **More serious incidents**: a fire leading to a key production plant shut down for a few days or children suffering chemical burns from a leak of corrosive chemical which escapes outside the premises. Hoyos (1995: 233) felt that this type of incident can result in organisational disruption and constraints that will have a distinct effect on profitability and confidence amongst the communities in which the organisation is operating.

- **Disasterous occurrence**: Brooks (2001: 361) describes this as the chance in a million when something disastrous happens such as an explosion, fire or major release of harmful substance into the local community or environment. Pybus (1996: 2) argued that this is the type of accident from which an organisation may never fully recover and even close its doors.

The question that should be asked is whether the underlying causes of these incidents are significantly different from those resulting in minor incidents? What level of incidents do organisations regard as acceptable? Does an organisation treat minor incidents differently than major incidents on the basis of frequency rates? According to Pybus (1996: 2) it is important to realise that an organisation will never know for certain when an incident (minor or major) will take place. In any organisation, evidently, things are bound to go wrong. The challenge is to determine which hazards are regarded as minor and which are regarded as having a major influence on the organisation (Mills, 2001: 247).
CCOHS (2005) debated that, in general, safety depends upon recognising the known injury-causing factors. Where activities are not technical and complex and do not require much capital input the organisation would just go ahead and do it (Fairbrother, 1996: 6). Unfortunately, life is not always this simple. The consequences of things going wrong, especially where the interactions leading to the consequence are complex, are not always easy to figure out (DOE, ND), and the cost of doing something about those consequences may be very large (Mills, 2001: 245). Irrespective of the type of hazard, Abbott (2003) expressed that the involvement of human factors should always be kept in mind. According to Comcare (1999), individuals are different from one another and react differently in similar situations, often creating a hazard themselves.

Sharon (2005) indicated that it is critical for any organisation to identify not only the hazards currently present, but also to predict what hazards might occur. A major means to this end is through the collection of data following investigations and injurious events (Lewis, McNabb, Robinson & Wass, 2003: F568). The procedure for recognising and isolating injury sources may be as simple as noticing the cracked rung of a ladder, or it may be as complex as the determination of the cause of a chain sequence of injuries (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 107), each related to the other. When identifying hazards associated with operations, Tchankova (2002: 291) proclaims that it is quite often obvious where the main hazards lie, and what can be done to eliminate or very much reduce them, or at least control the current status.

From the above it is clear that safety cannot be practised if the organisation is not educated about the hazards that might occur (Anderson, ND). McCormick (2006) came to the conclusion that systematic risk management will assist the organisation to quantify uncertainty. Confidence comes from certainty, but in the absence of such certainty, confidence can be increased by knowing where the risks are coming from, how extensive the uncertainty is, and what the potential consequences are (Mills, 2001: 247). This includes a four step process where hazard-related data needs to be identified, assessed, controlled and reviewed (Comcare, 1999). This is defined as “the systematic application of management policies, procedures and practices to the tasks of establishing the context, identifying, analysing, assessing, treating,
monitoring and communicating risks” (Monash, 2005). Turner and Keetelaar (2005) concurred that this process enables continual improvement in decision making by providing management with a greater insight into organisational risks and their impact. Figure 2.1 illustrates these steps and how they link with one another.

**Figure 2.1 Risk Management Process**

Using figure 2.1 as foundation, the various steps in the risk management process for hazards are briefly discussed next.

**2.2.1 Communicate and Consult**

Communication and consultation aims to identify who should be involved in assessment of risk and it should engage those who will be involved in the treatment, monitoring and review of risk (Arvai, Gregory & Mc丹iels, 2001: 1065). Monash (2005) therefore argues that communication and consultation is ultimately one of the most important aspects of risk management and it is integral to the entire risk management process.
2.2.8 Establish the Context
Turner and Keetelaar (2005) argue that when considering risk management within the organisation, it is important to first establish the boundaries within which the risk management process will apply. This will include the external, internal and risk management context in which the rest of the process will take place (Lin, 2006: 222).

2.2.9 Identify the Risks
According to Tchankova (2002: 290) the aim of hazard identification is to identify possible hazards or risks that may affect, either positively or negatively, the objectives of the organisation and the activity under analysis. Eliminating or minimising workplace hazards needs a systematic approach (Grimaldi and Simonds, 1989: 130). It is essential to try and anticipate all possible hazards at the workplace. Authors such as Monash (2005), Anderson (ND) and Comcare (1999) acknowledged the following methods for the identification of hazards:

- Injury and illness records – a revision of employee’s compensation data together with data on incidences, mechanisms and agency of injuries.
- Staying informed on trends and developments in workplace health and safety.
- Reviewing the potential impact of new work practices or equipment introduced into the workplace in line with legislative requirements.
- Walk-through surveys, inspections or safety audits in the workplace to evaluate the organisation's health and safety system.
- Considering occupational health and safety (OHS) implications when analysing work processes.
- Receiving feedback from employees can often provide valuable information about hazards, because they have hands-on experience in their work area.
- Investigating workplace incidents and near miss reports - in some cases there may be more than one hazard contributing to an incident.
- Benchmarking against or liaising with similar workplaces.
- Consulting with employees, health and safety representatives and OHS Committee members.

According to Mills (2001: 248) the identification of hazards is an essential first step in risk management and is possibly the most difficult. The identification of each source
of hazards and the components allows the risk item to be separated from others (Monash, 2005). Secondly, it forces the attention of project management on the strategies for the control and allocation of risk (Holm & Laursen, 2007: 322).

2.2.10 Analyse the Risk

During the risk identification step, Arvai et al. (2001: 1065) argue that an organisation may have identified many risks and it is often not possible to address all. The risk analysis step will assist in determining which risks have a greater consequence or impact than others (Culp, 2002: 8). Risk analysis involves combining the possible consequences, or impact, of an event, with the likelihood of that event occurring resulting in a level of risk (Turner & Keetelaar, 2005). That is:

\[ \text{Risk} = \text{consequences} \times \text{likelihood} \]

The following matrix in figure 2.2 serves as an example of the above equation.

---

**Figure 2.2 Risk Analysis Matrix for Determining Level of Risk**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likelihood</th>
<th>Significant</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Minor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequent</td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possible</td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rare</td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
<td><img src="#" alt="Risk Level" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Level of risk</td>
<td>Medium level of risk</td>
<td>Low level of risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Turner and Keetelaar (2005)

It is important to note that this matrix was only included to serve as an example and should therefore only be used as a guideline for analysis of risk in the organisation.

2.2.11 Evaluate the Risks
Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 131) argue that after the risk or hazard has been identified and assessed, employers must either prevent the risk arising or, alternatively, control it. This control will depend upon the magnitude of the risk (Holm & Laursen, 2007: 322). In certain cases, the level of competence of operators may need to be assessed before they undertake certain work. A typical hierarchy of control, from high risk to low risk, was compiled by Stranks (1994b: 57) and Agius (2006) and is indicated below:

- Elimination of the risk completely, e.g. prohibiting a certain practice or the use of a certain hazardous substance;
- Substitution by something less hazardous or risky;
- Enclosure of the risk in such a way that access is denied;
- Guarding or the installation of safety devices to prevent access to danger points on zones on work equipment and machinery;
- Safe systems of work that reduce the risk to an acceptable level;
- Written procedures, e.g. job safety instructions, that are known and understood by those affected;
- Adequate supervision, particularly in the case of young or inexperienced persons;
- Training of staff to appreciate the risks and hazards;
- Information, e.g. safety signs, warning notices; and
- Personal protective equipment (PPE) e.g. eye, hand, head and other forms of body protection.

In many cases, it may be necessary to combine some of the above control methods. It should be appreciated that the amount of management control necessary will
increase proportionately for the controls lower down this list; in other words, the first item indicates no control is needed, whereas the last item requires a high degree of management control (Stranks, 1994b: 57). Bax (1995: 165) claims that successful risk management is ensured when the organisation makes time to evaluate risks, discipline and systems for controlling the identified risks they are capable of controlling and the acceptance of a certain amount of risk. This includes calculating the costs associated with the risk (Monash, 2005). According to CCOHS (2005) risk management is a continuous process that depends directly on the changes of the internal and external environment of the organisation. In reality the changes in the environment require continuous attention for the control of risks (Tchankova, 2002: 290).

2.2.12 Treat the Risks
Findings from Otway and Von Winterfeldt (1992: 83) indicated that risk treatment is about considering options for treating risks that were not considered acceptable or tolerable in step 5 (2.2.5). Risk treatment involves identifying options for treating or controlling risk, in order to either reduce or eliminate negative consequences, or to reduce the likelihood of an adverse occurrence (Lin, 2006: 222). It is often not possible or cost-effective to implement all treatment strategies. Turner and Keetelaar (2005) feel that an organisation should aim to choose, prioritise and implement the most appropriate combination of risk treatments.

2.2.13 Monitor and Review
Risk management is a continuous process (Arvai et al., 2001: 1065). Tchankova
(2002: 292) states that it is wrong to believe that it is a once-off activity, which is carried out when the organisation is established and the current risks are identified. Programmes are cyclical; once current workplace hazards are successfully controlled the process does not stop (Hoyos, 1995: 233). Systematic monitoring and reviews must be implemented because of the potential for new hazards to be introduced into a workplace (Mills, 2001: 247). Comcare (1999) identified the following as crucial for successful monitoring and reviewing:

- **Planning:** Effective forward planning is an integral part of monitoring and reviewing risk management. All issues need to be addressed before introducing new equipment and work procedures.
- **Record keeping:** Record keeping is an important part of monitoring and review. Systematic records will help to identify hazards and review the effectiveness of risk controls.
- **Achieving the desired results:** It is important to keep checking that solutions to workplace hazards are achieving the desired result.
- **Meeting best practice:** Good hazard management will result in compliance with set performance indicators.

The idea of integrating new risks into the risk management process highlights the opinion that the attempt of the organisation to systematically identify all risks, present and future, is in the organisation’s best interest (Otway & Von Winterfeldt, 1992: 83).

From the above steps it is clear that the success of operating a safety program will be influenced by injury data, assisting in identifying the factors that are most in need of correction (Mills, 2001: 246). It is necessary, therefore, for the program to include provision for recording and classifying the facts arising out of the organisation’s injury experience. Amis and Booth (1991) believe that this data will assist in comparing progress, for analysis of methods of approach, and will even be useful in the settlement of employee’s compensation or public liability insurance claims filed against the organisation.

Ansari and Modarres (1997: 389) found that in the past, the mindset of organisations towards safety simply was a matter of dealing with individuals. The aim was to create awareness of the individual’s own responsibility towards safety, acting in such
a way as to avoid injury. Pybus (1996: 17) debates that numerous failures of attempting to apply available preventatives has led to urging that physical hazards should be designed out of the user’s environment as to eliminate harms even if mistakes are made by the operators. The safety emphasis thus swung at times from a concentration on people to a concentration on engineering controls (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 160). However, the ideal optimum lies somewhere between the two extremes as indicated in figure 2.3.

**Figure 2.3  Extremes of Safety**

![Figure 2.3  Extremes of Safety](image)

*Source: Adapted from Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 160)*

The idea that safety essentially is a challenge between individuals and the environment is a carry-over from the time when the greatest threats were the natural hazards around them (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 389). However, as humans learned to make use of energy, they expanded the effects of natural hazards and created many of their own which not only threatened them but others in the community as
well. As it became clear that hazardous acts endangered not only the individual who committed it, but other as well, the community took steps to protect itself (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 161). Safety thus assumed a new dimension. The force of law emerged as an influence on its undertakings. Nevertheless, the aim essentially remained the same. Individuals continued to be the focal point. Pybus (1996:17) believes that by empowering the individual with knowledge and awareness, a flood of injuries was eliminated.

Keeping the above discussion in mind, it is important to remember that, although all uncertainty cannot be removed, systematic risk management improves the chances of hazards being proactively identified, with proper provision for safety and environmental issues (Mills, 2001: 246). In support of managing hazards in the workplace, the next section will focus on the legal aspects that organisations need to keep in mind to ensure a hazard-free working environment.

2.3 STANDARDS AND REGULATIONS
“Everyone who undertakes, or has the authority, to direct how another person does work or perform a task is under a legal duty to take reasonable steps to prevent bodily harm to that person, or any other person, arising from that work or task” (White, 2005).

Loewenson (1996: 1) claims that many of the hazards that South African employees currently face at work have long been identified and controlled in Europe and North America. Although there has been an active process of legal reform in occupational health and safety law in most of the South African regions (May, Beke, Ross, Kocks & Lowe, 1997: 343), safety legislation is still not enforced by many organisations. The purpose of this section is to address the safety legislation that forces organisations to provide a safe working environment. Aspects covered include the legal duty of management to ensure a safe working environment, the tort of negligence as well as compliance with health and safety.

2.3.1 The Legal Duty to Manage Heath and Safety at Work
All organisations need rules to function. Legislation and laws are those rules that provide people with the guidelines they need to be able to live together in a civilised manner (Fairbrother, 1996: 5). The common law position on health and safety at
work is that employers must do everything in their power to protect their employees from risk or foreseeable injury, disease or death at work (Behrbohm, 1975: 207). Thus, Pybus (1996: 47) argues that if an employer is aware of a health and safety risk or hazard to employees, the employer will be liable if an employee is injured or killed or suffered illness as a result of this risk or hazard, when the employer failed to take reasonable care (Stranks, 1994b: 15). Organisational policies and procedures relating to health and safety should be based on the appropriate legislation that is applicable to the workplace (Froneberg, 2006: 607). It is important for all employees to be conversant with workplace policies and procedures and be able to communicate those policies to team members (Anon, 2005).

The Occupational Health and Safety ACT (1993: 3) requires that all employers provide and maintain:

- A safe place of work with safe means of access and egress;
- Safe appliances and equipment and plant for doing the work;
- A safe system for doing the work; and
- Enforcing such necessary measures in the interest of health and safety.

According to Strank (1994b: 15) it is important to note that these duties apply even though an employee may be working away on third party premises, or where an employee has been hired out to another employer, but where the control of the task the employee is performing remains with the permanent employer. The test of whether an employee has been temporarily employed by another employer is thus one of control (Johnstone, Quinlan & Walters, 2005: 93).

In the reformulation of health and safety law, certain issues have emerged. Loewenson (1996:2) identified it as follows:

- Economic underdevelopment and competition for investment drives a wedge between what is technically known as safety and what is economically practical.
- Overcoming fragmentation of health and safety law demands reconceptualising the health issue of work, linking it to new environmental concerns and then overcoming historical administrative allocations to provide a more holistic and co-ordinated approach to regulation and enforcement.
- Achieving real demand skills and knowledge from the different parties in occupational health and safety, perception of mutual interest in implementing safe work practices, and legally empowered structures with responsibility and capacity to make changes in occupational health.
- An active professional environment should inform the development of law and practice.
- Economic changes in South Africa have increased the level of informal, casual and insecure employment and broadened the base of the largely unregulated small organisation.

Given the above obstacles, it is notable that many organisations in South Africa have begun to reform their health and safety laws (Loewenson, 1996:3).

### 2.3.2 The Tort of Negligence

Kagan (2006: 711) describes a tort as a civil wrong. The common law duties of employers are part of the general law of negligence and, as such, are specific aspects of the duty to take reasonable care. Low and Smith (1992: 63) define negligence as conduct that is culpable because it misses the legal standard required of a reasonable person in protecting individuals against foreseeable risky, harmful acts of other members of society. Negligent behaviour towards others gives them rights to be compensated for the harm to their body, property, mental well-being, financial status, or relationships (Nolan, 2007: 59). In contrast with this is the exercise of a ‘duty of care’ in relation to health and safety in the workplace. Duty of care ensures that the moral duty to anticipate possible causes of injury and illness, and to do everything reasonably practicable to remove or minimise these possible causes of harm, is legally enforceable (Anon, 2005).

OSHA (1993: 3) claims that organisations have a legal duty to manage health and safety activities and to show clear-cut documentary evidence of management systems. Evidence of documented health and safety procedures, together with clear evidence of these procedures being put into practice, will increasingly be required by the courts in order to show compliance with standards and regulations (Pybus, 1996: 47).
2.3.3 Compliance with Health and Safety Practice

According to Stranks (1994a: 21) there are mainly two factors that influence compliance with health and safety practices, namely:

- The interaction of individuals with their job and the working environment; and
- The influence of equipment and system design on human performance

The job and working environment’s design should be based on task analysis of the actions required by the operator (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 5). From a health and safety viewpoint, task analysis provides the information for evaluating the suitability of machinery, tools and equipment, work procedures and patterns, and the operator’s physical and social surroundings. On a national level, May et al. (1997: 343) believes that South Africa has seen the enactment of a number of statutes covering a wide range of hazardous exposures. The Occupational Health and Safety Act of 1983 is one example. The enforcement of this act adds new grounds to former reasons for the advancement of occupational safety. To the extent that the OHS Act stimulates the development of reliable means of assuring the application of safety knowledge, it can be expected to contribute to the fulfilment of safety in any area where harmful occurrences are a concern (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 3). Through this act the safety of employees is protected by keeping them informed of dangerous substances with which they are working (OSHA, 1993: 4). Section 14 of the OHS Act holds individuals criminally liable under the Act when it is shown that they knowingly and intentionally violated the Act (OSHA, 1993: 4).

However, legal requirements do not in themselves optimise safety (Anon, 2005). At best a climate for the study and enhancement of means to attain the desired objective is created. Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 4) express that the spirit and the letter of the law must be fulfilled for that to take place. In support of this, Fairbrother (1996: 5) argues that the greatest occupational health and safety challenge is perhaps not providing standards and regulations to enhance safety, but rather how this law will be enforced. This challenge is not unique to South Africa or to the occupational health law, as the same issue is being faced in all countries and with respect to all labour standards (Loewenson, 1996: 27).
Pybus (1996: 17) makes an interesting observation of organisations with a world-class safety performance in the seamless link between standards and people. On the one side, the standards are a good fit with the organisational culture and the way people work. On the other side, there are people who seek to improve the standards in a continuous cycle of dynamic growth (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 161). Evidently, many organisations fail to achieve this balance and synergy, focusing largely on the standards rather than creating an organisational culture of safety (Pheng & Shiua, 2000: 29).

To conclude the discussion on standards and regulations, it may be regarded as an important catalyst to guide the employer in providing a safer workplace. However, it must not be seen as the only method. Research from Zhang et al. (2002) claim that a poor safety culture may be linked to many accidents. Thus, although an organisation might adhere to safety legislation as enforced by the OSH Act, the current culture of the organisation might be negative towards safety, resulting in a poor safety culture (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 395). It is therefore necessary to explore not only culture, but safety culture in an organisation, focussing on the shared set of values and beliefs towards safety of a group of people (Beckmerhagen, Berg, Karapetrovic & Willborn, 2003: 216). Furthermore, a discussion is necessary around the components that will promote a positive health and safety culture.

2.4 CULTURAL CHANGE

If an organisation is going to spend money and energy on improving safety, why not do it in a way that creates sustainable improvement? This way a once off energy burst is necessary to make the improvement, needing much lower energy input to hold the gains (Pybus, 1996: 18). The answer to sustainable improvement lies in the organisational culture itself – the climate in which people operate, the values and beliefs that the organisation declares, the application of those values and beliefs by managers at all levels (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 395), the feeling amongst everyone that ‘this is the way we do things around here’ (Fleming & Lardner, 1999: 16).

Is cultural change easy? Unfortunately not. De Bruyn (2003: 168) believes that this is why many organisations get stuck on their individual area of stability, and waste unnecessary energy trying to move off it. Cultural change only succeeds when the
organisation’s top management actively support this change (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002: 33).

“Culture is the soul of the organisation – the beliefs and values and how they are manifested. I think of the structure as the skeleton, and as the flesh and blood. And culture is the soul that holds the thing together and gives it life force” (Mintzberg in Robbins & Langton, 2003). Safety culture is closely linked with organisational culture (IET, 2006) and may even be regarded as a sub-dimension of organisational culture (Van Sonsbeek, 2006). The presence of a safety culture implies an organisation where people share values, which will affect and influence the attitudes and behaviour of its members (Arezes & Miguel, 2003: 23). Embracing a safety culture is hard work. The employee needs to understand that safety performance is on the same level of importance as production or costs (Burtch, 2007). Once a safety culture becomes established, it will be clear that safety leadership at the management level is a key factor in allowing more employees to return home safe to their families every day, and for organisations to have greater confidence that strong safety performance drives organisational performance (Hopfl, 1994: 52). Culture is not simply an accumulation of the various, complex and often fraught interpersonal relationships of an organisation. It is the very expression of the organisation’s character (Pretorius, 2004). Together with the organisation’s mission, vision and strategy, the organisation’s culture constitutes an organisation’s identity. As the mission, vision and strategy express the outer purpose of the organisation, its work in the world, the organisational culture expresses its inner life and character, the way in which it pursues its work in the world (Soal, 2000).

Organisational culture may thus be a catalyst or an obstacle in strategy implementation (Pretorius, 2004). An energising culture adds significantly to the effectiveness of strategy implementation. When there is a lack of synergy between culture and strategy, managerial effort may be weakened and unsuccessful execution of strategy results in huge organisational frustration and eventual weakened culture and strategy failure (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 396). Dilley and Kleiner (1996: 6) estimate that it takes one to five years for a cultural change to take place where safe behaviour becomes second nature or embedded, but that specific behaviours can be changed in one quarter of the time through rewards or
disincentives (Fairbrother, 1996: 5). Often managerial goals and employee culture conflicts with one another, resulting in counter productivity. Furthermore, Fleming and Lardner (1999) argue that a large percent of all workplace injuries may be related to attitude, behaviour or culture. Therefore, the organisation needs to adopt a positive approach to discipline for creating a corporate safety culture characterised by high levels of trust and employee involvement. This is in line with a model of behaviour modification that focuses not only on employee’s safe and unsafe behaviours but also on attitudes, beliefs and values (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 6).

Keeping the above aspects in mind, it becomes clear that changing organisational culture is more difficult than maintaining it (De Bruyn, 2003: 168). According to SOI (2005) the reason for this difficulty is because culture is rooted in the collective history of an organisation, and so much of it is below the surface of awareness. The following steps can be identified in the process of cultural change:

- Uncover core values and beliefs. These may include stated values and goals, but they are also embedded in organisational metaphors, myths and stories, and in the behaviours of members (Bredenkamp, 2002);
- Acknowledge, respect and discuss differences between core values and beliefs of different subcultures within the organisation (Heathfield, 2007);
- Look for incongruence between conscious and unconscious beliefs and values and resolve by choosing those to which the organisation wishes to commit. Establish new behavioural norms that clearly demonstrate the desired values (Robbins & Langton, 2003); and
- Repeat these steps over a long period of time. As new employees become part of the organisation, assure that they are surrounded with clear messages about the culture they are entering. Reinforce this desirable behaviour (Gowland & Aiken, 2003: 43).

From the above organisational change may be defined as "the movement of people from a current state to a different, improved and desired new state through a set of planned and integrated interventions" (Meyer & Botha, 2000: 223 in Bredenkamp, 2002). When an organisation wants to change its current culture to a safety-orientated culture, the change may be made easier with the help of a model that illustrates the process. A three-stage model developed by an offshore operating
organisation has been adapted by Fleming and Lardner (1999). This model is useful as organisations can identify their current stage and identify actions to move them to the next stage. This process is illustrated in figure 2.4:

**FIGURE 2.4 Stages of Safety Culture Improvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Culture</th>
<th>Independent Culture</th>
<th>Interdependent Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accident Frequency Rate</td>
<td>Percentage of employees with positive safety attitudes</td>
<td>Extend to which employee share similar safety attitudes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Fleming and Lardner (1999)

Figure 2.4 clearly illustrates three stages, which will be described briefly:

In a dependent culture, Van Sonsbeek (2006) claims that the emphasis is on management control, with extensive use of discipline to enforce safety measures. There is a heavy reliance on written safety rules and procedures. Safety performance is dependent on the level of management commitment to enforcing rules and procedures (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). Safety performance improvement will reach an upper limit with this type of culture, because no matter how committed management is, it is not possible to be everywhere and observe all operations. If an organisation with a dependent culture wishes to progress, it needs to develop an independent culture (Fleming & Lardner, 1999). During this cultural
change, some difficulty may be experienced. Ogbonna and Harris (2002: 33) acknowledge that cost and time are the most important restrictions experienced. The more the organisational culture needs to change, the more expensive the internal and external campaigns will be, and the longer it will take to establish the new organisational culture (De Bruyn, 2003: 169).

At the second stage, the focus is on personal commitment to and responsibility for safety (Van Sonsbeek, 2006). Fleming and Lardner (1997) claim that this will involve all employees in developing their own personal safety standards and demonstrating their commitment by adhering to these standards. While there will still be safety rules and procedures, employees look after their own safety and make active choices to keep themselves safe (Van Sonsbeek, 2006). In an independent culture the focus on individual responsibility for safety may be indicated by statements such as ‘everybody is their own safety officer’ (Fleming & Lardner, 1999). Safety improvement will be limited by the extent to which there is homogeneity of the safety standards of individuals and the absence of people looking out for other people’s safety (Fleming & Lardner, 1999).

The final stage in this model of safety culture improvement is interdependent, where team commitment to safety is the dominant factor. As organisations move toward an interdependent stage, Burtch (2007) expressed that increased management involvement is experienced and employees take on good safety habits as a result of training. This type of culture is manifested by employees having a sense of responsibility for safety beyond their own work and by caring for the safety of others (Van Sonsbeek, 2006). Employees share a common belief in the importance of safety. According to Fleming and Lardner (1999) the movement toward ‘interdependent’ culture is difficult, as it relies on more than personal commitment; it requires shared perceptions attitudes and beliefs. In addition, employees must be willing to help others to adopt this belief system, not by sanction, but by persuasion (Fleming & Lardner, 1999). This argument is supported by Burtch (2007) who claims that achieving the interdependent safety culture requires prevention through observation and through practices and personal commitment that instil organisational pride and individual accountability.
In support of the above model, Bredenkamp (2002) believes that while this model describes the safety culture improvement process in three separate stages, it is likely that different parts of an organisation are at different levels at any one time. It will therefore be important for organisations to diagnose the stage that different parts of the organisation are at, before attempting to improve the safety culture (Betitci, Mendibil, Nudurupati, Turner & Garengo, 2004: 28). Furthermore, De Bruyn (2003: 170) expressed that it is important to realise that the new cultural strategy must not expect cultural change which is excessive and with which employees cannot identify themselves. On advice of Gowland and Aiken (2003: 43), the organisation’s environment, frame of reference and already established organisational culture should be considered in establishing the new organisational culture.

Improving safety culture is something which must be seen as a long term and systematic process, based on an initial assessment of the existing culture (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 6), determining priorities for change, the actions necessary to effect the change and then going on to review progress before repeating the process indefinitely (IET, 2006).

2.4.1 A Shift to Safety Culture

“Safety culture is like religion, either you believe it and you practice it always, or you do not. There are no in betweens” (O’Hara, 2003). Safety culture is not only about improving safety attitudes, but also about good safety management established by organisations with a holistic, whole of community, whole of life approach (Clarke, 2000: 65). Authors like Arezes and Miguel (2003: 23) and Cheyne, Oliver, Thomas and Cox (2002: 650) concurred that safety culture as term has often been used interchangeably with safety climate, although these concepts differ on what they reflect on. In a comprehensive review of the concept of safety culture, Zhang et al. (2002) identified commonalities between both safety culture and safety climate definitions.

The commonalities among safety culture definitions are as follows (Zhang et al., 2002):

- Safety culture is a concept defined at group level or higher, which refers to the shared values among all the group or organisation members.
• Safety culture is concerned with formal safety issues in an organisation, and closely related to, but not restricted to, the management and supervisory systems.
• Safety culture emphasises the contribution from everyone at every level of an organisation.
• The safety culture of an organisation has an impact on its members’ behaviour at work.
• Safety culture is usually reflected in an organisation’s willingness to develop and learn from errors, incidents, and accidents.
• Safety culture is relatively enduring, stable and resistant to change.

According to Zhang et al. (2002) the commonalities of safety climate definitions include:
• Safety climate is a psychological phenomenon, which is usually defined as the perceptions of the state of safety at a particular time.
• Safety climate is closely concerned with intangible issues such as situational and environmental factors.
• Safety climate is a temporal phenomenon, relatively unstable and subject to change.

By using the above commonalities as a guideline, Zhang et al. (2002) established the following definitions of both concepts:
• Safety culture: the enduring value and priority placed on employee and public safety by everyone in every group at every level of an organisation. It refers to the extent to which individuals and groups will commit to personal responsibility for safety; act to preserve, enhance and communicate safety concerns (Zhang et al., 2002).
• Safety climate: the temporal state measure of safety culture, subject to commonalities among individual perceptions of the organisation. It is therefore situationally based, refers to the perceived state of safety at a particular place and time, is relatively unstable, and subject to change depending on the features of the current environment or prevailing conditions (Zhang et al., 2002).
Despite the possible different focus points between these two concepts, the term culture will be used in this study as designating both concepts and may be defined as follows:

“…the product of individual and group values, attitudes, perceptions, competencies and patterns of behaviour that determine the commitment to, and the style and proficiency of, an organization’s health and safety management. …characterized by communications founded on mutual trust, shared perceptions of the importance of safety and by confidence in the efficacy of preventative measures” (Bastin, 2001: 3).

Several attempts of determining the factors which constitute a good safety culture, results in the identification of locus of control, sensation-seeking, risk attitudes, safety rules violation, workplace physical environment, commitment by both management and workforce, leadership style and communication, individual responsibility, management responsibility, job satisfaction, risk awareness and risk-taking (Arezes & Miguel, 2003: 23). It is important to note that some factors identified as relevant to safety culture, such as locus of control and sensation seeking (Clarke, 2000: 65) may represent personality rather than attitudinal variables. The implication might be an attitude change, which is not the case for personality factors. However Weiten (2001: 672) states that it is inherent in attitude theory that attitudes can be changed and thus the attitudinal and belief factors such as perceived management style, safety as a priority, communications and job satisfaction might be amenable to training or development interventions (Feldman, 2001:330).

In support of this, attitudes as constant inclination, are defined as the most complete and useful indicators of a safety culture (Rhoades & Waguespack, 1999: 398; and Robinson, 2004). Indeed, Fleming and Lardner (1997) found a significant correlation between safety attitudes and accident rates. It is therefore argued that attitudes may lead to a change in behaviour (Feldman, 2001: 352) and thus directly and indirectly affect safety culture and accident rates, such influence being greater or less depending on the milieu, or other psychological factors such as perception of risk (Weiten, 2001: 670). Dilley and Kleiner (1996: 6) believe that for an organisation to be able to develop and understand safety culture, it first needs to develop an understanding of how the employees perceive risks and their attitudes towards
safety. Clarke (2000: 65) supports this by claiming that it is of utmost importance, due to the significant effect that safety culture has on risk behaviour.

Apart from the link between safety culture and risk behaviour, safety culture will also have an influence in elements such as the conception of specific training programmes or as a safety performance measurement indicator of the organisations (Robinson, 2004). The measurement of safety culture can be done in several ways by using several tools. Nevertheless, there are some common dimensions in a great number of safety cultures. Arezes and Miguel (2003: 23) claim that it is possible to verify that the most frequent evaluated dimensions are related with management and managers (72 percent of the cases), OH&S management systems (67 percent) and risk control (67 percent), followed by less frequent subjects such as work pressure and work capacity. This conclusion confirms that management has a direct influence in establishing a meaningful safety culture in the working environment (Berrio, 2003; and Harvey et al., 2001: 616).

Although safety culture is measurable and may be used as an important indicator of safety performance (Clarke, 2006: 414), and despite the fact of the consensual recognition of an organisational culture concerning safety, its influence in safety performance is not so consensual. Safety culture is based on the assumption that it could have an influence in employees’ behaviour changing and, through that, influence the safety performance (O’Hara, 2003). However, it should be noted that this assumption is not always observed and consensual. Arezes and Miguel (2003: 22) verified that safety performance could be improved. Thus, it is possible to conclude that the safety culture of an organisation is an important factor in ensuring the effectiveness of risk control (Robinson, 2004). The OH&S management system has an important influence on the safety culture, which in turn impacts on the effectiveness of the OH&S management system. Fleming and Lardner (1999) believe that measuring aspects of the safety culture is therefore part of the overall process of measuring OH&S performance.

Mearns, Whitaker and Flin (2001: 771) came to the conclusion that creating a safety culture implies a continuous awareness by employees of the hazards present in the organisation, including the ones that they create themselves. It becomes part of the
daily routine to improve safety. Everyone shares the responsibility to enhance safety, not just management (DOE, ND). However, it must be realised that this is a long-term goal (IET, 2006). This is supported by the definition from the UK Health and Safety Commission that a safety culture is “the product of individual and group values, attitudes, perceptions, competencies, and patterns of behaviour that determine the commitment to, and the style and proficiency of, an organisation’s health and safety management” (Anon, 2007). Nevertheless, producing a safety culture requires clear, visible management commitment to safety from the most senior levels in the organisation (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). This commitment should not just be a formal statement, but be evident in the daily activities of the organisation (Stranks, 1994: 7). By leading with example, all members in the organisation will work together in creating and cultivating a safe workplace. Dilley and Kleiner (1996: 6) argue that this will lead to the realisation that safety is the responsibility of everyone in the organisation. In support of this, Berrio (2003) claims that the attitude of a strong personality at senior management level within the organisation may either have a beneficial or an adverse effect on the safety culture. Inevitably, junior employees will be influenced by this person’s example. Clarke (2006: 415) debates that if a system is absent whereby management is able to follow up on processes, safety procedures will fall into disuse. Where managers become aware of deficiencies in safety procedures, but fail to take action to remedy them, the workforce readily perceives that such actions are condoned (Stranks, 1994a: 7).

The following figure outlays a cultural framework that indicates the factors of cooperation, communication and competence within an overall framework of control. Strank (1994a: 189) declares that the process commences with a system for the communication of issues such as current legal requirements, standards and technical developments in the field of occupational health and safety, employee’s attitudes and behaviours, especially towards risks and hazards, deficiencies and rectification. The communication system is an essential feature of the control framework (Ball, 2006).

The framework is based on a process of consultation with employees, contractors and others involved in having a direct or indirect influence on health and safety procedures and systems (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 393). At this stage, the question
of individual competence of people like health and safety practitioners, trade union safety representatives, managers and others will arise and may indicate a need for training of such people (Wilder & Sorensen, 2001: 13). The principle objective is to bring about a state of understanding, commitment and ownership of health and safety at all levels (Pretorius, 2004). This state of ownership leads to cooperation on health and safety issues and shared values, which is the basis for a health and safety culture within the organisation (Clarke, 2006: 416).

Figure 2.5 Cultural Framework

- Consultation / Involvement
- Understanding
- Commitment
- Ownership
- Cooperation
- Shared Values
- Safety Culture
- Communication into the Organisation
  (Legislation, standards, technical developments)
From figure 2.5 it is clear that cooperation, communication and competence within a framework of control will promote a positive health and safety culture (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). Even though management facilitates the whole process, every employee needs to take part for success to be achieved (Pretorius, 2004). Ultimately, the employees need to realise that the responsibility for safety rests on everyone, including the individual self (Fleming & Lardner, 1999).

Ansari & Modarres (1997: 393) acknowledge that the primary responsibility for personal safety lies with the employee. In addition, vigilance is essential if the safety of other employees and the general public is ensured (Belscher, 2002: 47). Amongst other responsibilities, the employee needs to ensure that the appropriate procedures are followed without exception, to take on the responsibility for reporting unsafe practices, to refuse to perform procedures that are beyond current knowledge, or are beyond the capability of the equipment (Van Sonsbeek, 2006). This will happen in an environment that is safety conscious and responsible (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 6). In order to change the culture, De Bruyn (2003: 166) proclaims that it must first be determined what the current culture is. From there, a positive discipline approach can be used to change behaviour, shifting the focus on the individual and the individual's attitude towards safety (Fleming & Lardner, 1999).

When safety culture was defined, it was described as learned behaviour, and those beliefs in the necessity, practicality and effectiveness of controls, attitudes and risk perceptions which makes people think safely and trust in safety measures (Yu & Hunt, 2004: 212). Furthermore culture was described as characteristics and attitudes in organisations which result in safety issues being a priority (Fleming & Lardner, 1999). Typical measures of safety culture involve determining employee attitudes, noting that such attitudes are related to both safe and unsafe behaviours (Cheyne et al., 2002: 651).

2.6 ATTITUDES TOWARDS SAFETY
Feldman (2001: 330) believes that attitudes are learned, involve a tendency to act and are consistent and specific to particular stimuli. Therefore it can be debated that attitudes might reflect shared values and beliefs learned through interaction with the organisation, and that they, in turn, might determine behaviour (Weiten, 2001: 672). Ansari and Modarres (1997: 389) declare that a safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude, commitment and a sense of awareness and responsibility. Such an environment also results in higher quality and lower total production cost due to decreased rework, lost time, worker’s compensation and lost workdays (Mills, 2001: 247). Indeed, McLean and Schneck (1979: 392) found a significant correlation between safety attitudes and accident rates. Furthermore, attitudes may change behaviour and thus directly and indirectly affect safety culture and accident rates, such influence being greater or less depending on the context, or other psychological factors such as perception of risk (Harvey et al., 2001: 617).

In this vein, it may be argued that employee attitudes are one of the most important components of safety culture (Burns, Mearns & McGeorge, 2006: 1139). Employee attitudes towards safety, although only part of safety culture (Pidgeon, 1991), can thus provide an important indication of the nature of an organisation’s safety climate and underpinning safety culture (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 389). However, the architecture of attitudes to safety may be described as context-dependent. This is borne out by a comparison of safety attitudes across sectors, which indicated that the relationships between attitudes and safety differed depending on the industrial context or work environment. Swales and McClelland (ND) support this statement by claiming that attitudes occur within a situation and that the situation can, and will, influence the relationship between attitude and behaviour. Langford et al. (2000: 133) suggest that this may be explained by the fact that shared attitudes and beliefs relate to a shared safety culture. Perceptual differences of daily safety issues, on the other hand, might be a reflection of different organisational cultures (Weiten, 2001: 168).

From the above it is clear that safety, culture and attitudes as concepts may be interchangeably linked with one another. Not only will the culture of the organisation determine if safety is a priority in the organisation, but also will the attitudes of employees towards safety underpin the safety culture of the organisation. It is
therefore important to gain a clear understanding of attitudes as concept. The next section will include discussions on behavioural involvement towards safety, psychology linked with attitudes as well as attitude formation and development.

2.5.1 Attitudes as Human Factor

Human factors have been widely recognised as playing a significant role in the safety performance of organisations (Donald & Young, 1996: 13). People acquire attitudes and beliefs through daily activities and learning (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 190). These attitudes are usually viewed as an enduring disposition to consistently respond in a given manner to various aspects of the world, including persons, objects and events (Zikmund, 2000: 386). Furthermore, Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, Bem and Hilgard (1990: 702) debate that attitudes put people into a frame of mind of liking and disliking things, of moving away or towards them.

To link with the above, authors such as Swales and McClelland (ND); Feldman (2001: 330) and Weiten (2001: 672) identified the following characteristics of attitudes:

- Attitudes are learned from personal experience, information provided by others, and market controlled sources, in particular exposure to mass media;
- Attitudes are consistent. However, this does not imply that attitudes are permanent, attitudes can change;
- Attitudes are predispositions. A predisposition is an indication or tendency towards something. Also, attitudes have motivational qualities;
- Attitudes are directed towards an object and are very specific reactions to that object; and
- Attitudes have a relationship with behaviour.

In addition to attitudes, though, two additional, equally important factors result in behavioural intention (Atkinson et al., 1990: 703). Feldman (2001: 353) identifies subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as important behavioural factors. Subjective norms are perceived social pressure to carry out the behaviour (Atkinson et al., 1990: 520); and perceived behavioural control is the perceived ease or difficulty of carrying out the behaviour, based on prior experience (Anderson, ND) and anticipated barriers to performing it (DOE, ND). In sum, only by jointly considering a person’s attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural...
control relevant to the attitude, will behavioural intentions be understood, which in turn leads to actual behaviour (Feldman, 2001: 354).

Donald and Young (1996: 13) declare that by keeping actual behaviour in mind, personal factors such as attitude, motivation, perception, personality, training and the potential for human error are significant in any consideration of human factors and safety. “Human factors refer to environmental, organisational and job factors, and human and individual characteristics which influence behaviour at work in a way which can affect health and safety” (Shaw, 2002). People will always be prone to making errors (Kim, Jung & Ha, 2004: 1261). They are flexible and adaptable but not particularly reliable in terms of performance, especially under pressure or in complex situations (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND). What is clear is that the proportion attributed to human error has increased as the reliability of the hardware has increased (Abbott, 2003). Yu, Hwang and Huang (1999: 401) argue that human errors may be seen as natural phenomena and therefore seemingly inevitable, they are very hard to predict exactly and, most importantly, something new is revealed every time an accident occurs (Lardner & Scaife, 2006). Shown below is an uncomplicated anatomy of an adverse event that helps explain the contributions to a human error and its resulting adverse outcome:

**Figure 2.6  Human Error**

A person makes a mistake that causes an adverse outcome. Maurino (2004: 40) claims that the person involved had no intention to cause the adverse outcome – that is why it is called human error. Behind the human error are two manageable inputs
the system that is designed around the person and the person's behavioural choices in that system (Marx, 2007).

From the above, human error may be identified as the cause of a serious accident (Healthinfonet, 2007) but the real cause frequently is in the design of the system, in the operating procedures and in the expectations placed on the employees, or in the lack of appropriate training (Abbott, 2003). Human error is thus the opposite of human reliability and is related to the probability that an error will occur while the human operator is performing the allocated task (Chaali-Djelassi, Vanderhaegen, Cacciabue & Cassani, 2007). In support of this statement, Shaw (2002) claims that an understanding of employees' capabilities and limitations may indicate how the systems and organisations the employee work in, can contribute to their downfall. However, the general concept of human failure is a bit more complex because their actions can be either intentional or unintentional (Lardner & Scaife, 2006). In a study by Stranks (1994a: 29) attention was specifically being paid to human error, incorrect human action and the failure to act by people as causative factors in accidents of varying severity. This resulted in the identification of several kinds of unintentional human error:

- **Unintentional error:** These are typical slips frequently associated with carelessness or lack of attention to the task (Chaali-Djelassi et al., 2007).
- **Mistakes:** The individual realise the existence of a problem, but forms a flawed plan for solving it. Shaw (2002) claims that the employee will thus carry out, intentionally but erroneously, action(s) that are wrong and may entail hazardous consequences.
- **Violations:** This involves complicated issues concerning conformity, communications, morale and discipline. Abbott (2003) describes violations as an action that is deliberately carried out, contrary to some rule, which is organisationally required, such as an approved operating procedure.
- **Skill-based errors.** These arise during the execution of a well-learned, fairly routine task. They are amendable to prediction, either from laboratory experiments or from experience in other skilled tasks, even when the tasks are performed in different industries (Kim et al., 2004: 1261).
- **Rule-based errors.** Very difficult to predict from past statistics or experience, as they are dependent on time, individual cast of mind and on the temporary
physical, mental or emotional state of the person concerned. According to Yu et al. (1999: 401), these errors occur when a set of operating instructions or similar set of rules is used to guide the sequence of actions.

- **Knowledge-based errors.** Also called errors of general intention, these are errors that arise when a choice decision has to be made between alternative plans of action. They arise when the detailed knowledge of the system processed by the person and the resulting mental model of it is incorrect (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND). An analyst who possesses the insight to predict the form of this model can only forecast such errors, which are extremely difficult to predict.

Clearly, all individuals are different from each other, particularly in terms of their effectiveness in grasping a concept or understanding a task (DOE, ND). Pervin and John (2001: 6) associate these individual differences with characteristics passed on from parents and from a broad range of life experience situations, all of which are specific to each individual.

In endeavouring to bring about changes in behaviour, namely attitudes to safe working, an assessment as to which of the above five factors is significant must be made. Langford et al. (2000: 133) express that inappropriate motivation and incorrect assessment of probability are the factors that most need to be considered in the promotion of safe behaviour.

### 2.5.1.1 Behavioural involvement with accidents

Accidents are unplanned and unintentional events that result in harm or loss to personnel, property, production, or nearly anything that has some inherent value (DOE, ND). These losses increase an organisation’s operating costs through higher production costs, decreased efficiency, and the long term effects of decreased employee morale and unfavourable public opinion (Hoyos, 1995: 233). It is clear that the causes of accidents are many and varied. Findings from Abbott (2003) shows that there are both indirect and direct causes and results of accidents. To ensure that both individuals and the organisation achieve high standards of safety, the importance of a strong safety culture needs to be emphasised (Clarke, 2006: 416). The structural aspect of the safety culture comprises the organisation’s arrangements for safety, commonly described as the safety management system for the organisation (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND). When focussing on the involvement of
behaviours in accidents, this safety management system might include information feedback and goal setting (Beckmerhagen et al., 2003: 216). Modifying behaviour techniques proved to be of value in the enhancement of safety. Marsh, Robertson, Duff, Philips, Cooper & Weyman (1995: 6) showed that safety behaviour could be improved through systematic monitoring of safety-related behaviour and providing feedback in conjunction with goal setting and training.

From the research on the influence of behaviour on accidents, the following conclusions were reached:

- Without the use of managerial or supervisory resources, safety behaviour can be objectively and reliably measured, producing performance data that can be used in many different safety management strategies.
- Significant improvements in safety performance can be produced through goal setting and feedback, at least over a period of several months.
- The effectiveness of the goal setting and feedback approach appears to enhance the commitment of site management.

Well learned associations between external stimuli and observable responses are the building blocks of human development. Due to attitudes being such a central concept in social psychology, or because it is so pivotal (Feldman, 2001: 330), it is crucial to discuss the psychology underlying attitudes that will have a direct impact on safety.

### 2.5.2 Psychology Underlying to Attitudes

The psychological aspects of attitudinal safety will be a fascinating problem to explore for many more years before the desired solution is found, if it ever will be. It is a dynamic field, ideal for the continuous emerging of fresh knowledge. Related to this psychology is perception, a term referring to the awareness of objects, qualities or events stimulating a person’s sense organs (Atkinson et al., 1990: 184). This section will thus cover the topic of perception, supported by a discussion around both the physical and external factors contributing to the formation of attitudes towards safety.

#### 2.5.2.1 Perceptions
According to Feldman (2001: 44) perception is an important feature of human behaviour in that people behave in accordance with the way they perceive situations, places, people and the world in general. It is a process of receiving information or inputs through the sensory channels with the perceptual processes acting on this information to form it into the various areas of experience (Stranks, 1994a: 55). However, it may be argued that stimuli is not only interpreted (perceived), the individual’s behaviour also changes in response to these experiences. Many of the behavioural changes that occur are the result of learning. New attitudes, values and patterns of conduct are acquired by observing the behaviours and listening to the pronouncements of social models (Van Dick, 2001: 265).

Clarke (2006: 415) found that employees have fundamentally different perceptions relating to safety culture compared to managers. This will include negative views about communication, management commitment to safety and personal responsibility for safety. Management, on the other hand, tend to have more positive views of themselves, their commitment and responsibility for safety.

Both perceptual sensitisation and defence are important (Atkinson et al., 1990: 157) in terms of how people identify hazards. Fundamentally this implies that (Stranks, 1994b: 51):

- People do not see what is there, but see what they expect to see;
- People do not see what they do not expect to be present; and
- People do not see what they do not want to be there.

All the above factors directly affect the person’s perception of risk and the action to be taken to avert the risk (DOE, ND). Perception may also vary according to age, state of health and individual personality differences (Feldman, 2001: 46).

2.5.2.2 Physical Factors
When considering the possible causes of injuries there can be no dispute over the probability that some accidents are caused by unidentified physical deficiencies in the individual or physical maladjustment that are recognised but not allowed for (Healthinfonet, 2007). It is not uncommon to consider such factors within the area of psychological aspects since they may be detected, modified, and corrected through
that phase of the safety program that deals directly with the worker (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 498).

The factors found to contribute to accidents at work include the following:

- **Carelessness:** Perhaps the oldest and most inaccurate attribution for an accident is that it was caused by carelessness. Abbott (2003) claims that mental and emotional factors may not only influence a person’s reaction to the demands of society and the problems of living, but they may also make the individual more or less likely to have injuries. Carelessness is often emphasised as the most important of the causes that lie within the individual (Clarke & Robertson, 2008: 94).

- **Vision:** Studies conducted by Grandjean, McMullen, Miller, Howie, Ryan, Myers and Dutton (2006: 103) indicate a significant difference in the injury experience between the groups of workers who have eye defects and the others who do not.

- **Relationship between Perception and Muscular Responses and Injuries:** After investigations by Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 500), it was found that persons who tend to react more quickly than they perceive are more likely to have accidents than are those who perceive faster than they react. This can be enhanced through stress which can cause muscular deterioration and weakness (DOE, ND).

- **Relationship between Intelligence and Injury Experience:** It might be expected that a certain minimum intelligence is necessary if a person is to avoid having injuries (Shaw, 2002). Above the minimum level, it would be doubtful if any relationship existed between intelligence and injury experience (Heathinfonet, 2007). Mental ability tests might be useful, therefore, for identifying workers with extremely low mental abilities.

- **Hearing:** Reduced hearing acuity may have a definite influence on an individual’s injury experience (Williams, Purdy, Murray, LePage & Challinor, 2004: 115) when the hearing loss interferes with the ability to distinguish established warning signals or to recognise changes in the normal sound of certain machine operations that would presage impending hazard to the machine or its operator (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND).
• Age: Age would seem to have some relationship to accident experience (Grandjean et al., 2006: 103). Anderson (ND) reported a declining accident rate, for the groups of persons studied, as the age group’s years increased. It has been determined unequivocally that young males have an exceptionally high accident rate in automobiles. However, it is to be believed that for complex, specialised tasks, such as operating high-performance aircraft, the accident potential of older pilots increase (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 501).

• Emotional Instability: Although the employer has little control over the emotional states of employees, there are some implications for work safety (Healthinfonet, 2007). Firstly, the work environment should be controlled in such a way that there is a minimum possibility of arousing feelings of anger, fear and frustration from the employee. The second business implication of the connection between certain emotional states and increased susceptibility to injuries may be when an employee’s job requires a particular high degree of concentration, alertness and precision to avoid serious injury; considerations should be given to transferring the employee to other work temporarily when the employee is known to be under emotional strain (Clarke & Robertson, 2008: 94).

2.5.2.3 External factors

Keeping the implicitness of the attitude theory in mind, it is important to note that attitudes can be changed (Feldman, 2001: 330), and thus the attitudinal and belief factors such as perceived management style, safety as a priority, communications and job satisfaction might be amenable to training or development interventions (Harvey et al., 2001: 618). It is often assumed that employees who are more satisfied with the physical working environment are more likely to produce better work outcomes (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 389).

In a study conducted by Siu (2002: 218) there was a direct correlation between employees' satisfaction with their work environment and their job satisfaction. Apart from this an indirect correlation exists between organisational commitment and turnover intention. Research has demonstrated that the physical environmental quality affects job perception, attitudes, and job satisfaction (Lu, While & Barriball, 2007: 468). Performance of physical environment has been defined as the difference between the needs of individuals and their current diagnosis of their
environment. Lee (2006: 345) measured perceived differences between what an inhabitant needs and what the environment provides by examining the effects of constraints on human movement on productivity in an office environment. Thus, satisfaction with physical environment leads to job satisfaction, influencing and eventually changing attitudes and safety culture (Ansari & Moddarres, 1997: 395).

With the above in mind, it might be argued that external factors have an influence on the individual having a direct or indirect effect on hazard perception (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 504):

- **Fatigue:** While control of the personal factors that cause a feeling of fatigue may be difficult, Shen, Botly, Chung, Gibbs, Sabanadzovic and Shapiro (2006: 1) argue that it is possible to correct environmental factors, which may be responsible for causing the characteristic fatigue symptoms (i.e. poor lightning, noise and atmospheric conditions) (DOE, ND). An individual can get used to a certain stimulus, such as a light flashing, and if the significance of this stimulus is not reinforced, it ceases to command attention and, eventually, can be ignored – the process of habituation (Stranks, 1994b: 51).

- **Illumination:** Inadequate lightning can be an important cause of injuries (Healthinfonet, 2007). Employees who cannot readily see where they are going or what they are doing, or who are confused by glare or shadows may be expected to have injuries (Hausner, 1951: 1166).

- **Noise:** Although almost everyone probably has an opinion about noise and how it affects the individual, there is a relatively broad area of ignorance in the field of the psychological effects of noise (Kujala, Shkyrov, Winkler, Saher, Tervanjemi, Sallinen, Teder-Salejarvi, Alho, Reinikainen & Naatanen, 2004: 875). The possibility that noise may have an effect on the employee’s safety performance is indicated in studies that reported a relation between speed of response and accuracy of performance and accident causation. Viljoen, Nie and Guest (2006: 180) indicated a relationship between noise, speed and accuracy of performance in a carefully controlled investigation that reported that in the presence of noise a significant increase in the average response time, gross number of errors, and number of errors per unit of production occurred. The response time tended to be slower and the number of errors tended to be greater when the noise levels and frequencies were highest (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 505).
• Thermal conditions: employee performance is influenced by temperature extremes, which can often influence employee concentration. DOE (ND) acknowledges that extreme temperatures may also affect human control responses by requiring additional clothing or gear for protection.

• Atmospheric conditions: the properties of the workroom atmosphere may have an influence on the quality of an employee’s safe performance (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND). An individual who is concentrating heavily on a particular task may not perceive danger that is peripheral or secondary to the task currently being carried out (Healthinfonet, 2007). Also, routine, repetitive, boring and relatively low-skilled tasks produce a tendency to reduce attention to the task, resulting in day-dreaming, which can increase accident potential (Stranks, 1994b: 51).

• Altitude and depth: humans can experience physical functioning problems when performing at high altitudes and extreme depths; in general; humans also experience cognitive functioning decrements under both these conditions (DOE, ND).

There is no doubt that the organisation has a direct effect on human behaviour at work (Lee, 2006: 344). It endeavours to control both individual and group behaviour in many ways (Hoyos, 1995: 233). This may be through systems for supervision and control, training activities, management development systems, apprentice schemes, the reward structure of the organisation and rates of pay, including bonuses and overtime payments (Stranks, 1994a: 6).

“Creating the right mindset is not a strategy which can be effective in dealing with hazards about which employees have no knowledge and which can only be identified and controlled by management” (Anderson, ND).

2.5.3 Attitude Formations and Development
Knowing how attitudes are formed is the first step. However, with the purpose of creating a safe working environment, the organisation needs to know what elements are involved that will lead to the employee developing a positive attitude towards safety. The next section will briefly explain both concepts of attitude formation and change.
In section 2.5.1 it was argued that one of attitudes' characteristics was that it is learned. From this statement, Swales and McClelland (ND) argue that an individual moves from having no attitude about a certain concept (possibly because the individual has no knowledge or experience), to having an attitude, regardless of whether it is positive, negative or ambivalent. The more knowledge and information one has about an object of thought, the stronger one’s attitude about it tends to be (Weiten, 2001: 671).

Continuing experience of situations during a lifetime results in the formation of attitudes. The research of Feldman (2001: 347) proposes that attitudes are directly associated with:

- Self-image: the image that an individual wishes to project to the outside World;
- The influence of groups, and group norms, that is the standards upheld by a particular group and whereby members of the group entails sharing their attitudes and conforming with the norms; and
- Individual opinions, including superstitions, implying that nothing can be done in terms of preventing accidents.

Svensen, Neset and Eriksen (2007: 153) declared that people are always adopting, modifying and relinquishing attitudes to fit their ever-changing needs and interests. Even more so, people often try to change the attitudes of others (Bettinghaus & Baseheart, 1969: 227). Acceptance of new attitudes depends on who is presenting the knowledge, how it is presented, how the person is perceived, the credibility of the communicator, and the conditions by which the knowledge was received (Sakamoto, Hagihara & Sugiman, 2004: 263).

This process of persuasion of attitude change is illustrated in figure 27.

Figure 2.7  Persuasion Process
From figure 2.7 the process of persuasion boils down to who (the source) communicates what (the message) by what means (the channel) to whom (the receiver). Thus, four sets of variables influence the process of persuasion: source, message, channel and receiver factors (Weiten, 2001: 673). Farris (2007) supports this process by claiming that attitude change has to do with personality characteristics such as susceptibility to persuasion, intelligence, as well as readiness to accept change.

Despite overwhelming evidence to support such a change, Swales and McClelland (ND) concurred that people simply do not wish to change their attitude to a particular situation, partially because this change is really challenging. To be successful, attitude change must take place in a series of well-controlled stages (Beasley & Joslyn, 2001: 521). First, by attracting the attention of the individual to the fact that a change of attitude is needed, and second, by convincing this person that their current attitude is inappropriate or wrong (Stranks, 1994a: 36). Cognitive dissonance may be regarded as one of the barriers to attitude change. Feldman (2001: 347) describes this as a situation of conflict that results, when a person holds an attitude that is incompatible with the information presented. Ruiz and Tanaka (2001: 55) debate that people frequently display cognitive dissonance when required to work in a particular safe way that may be new to them, to use a specific safety device or when required to use some form personal protective equipment (PPE).

2.5.3.1 Factors in attitude change
When endeavouring in attitudinal change, specifically related to safe working practices there are many factors to be considered. The following six factors are regarded as most important:

1. **The Individual**
   - **Built-in opinion**: A particular opinion or viewpoint is frequently acquired during on-the-job training, particularly where the trainer is unaware of the inexperience of the trainee in terms of safe working (Stranks, 1994a: 37).
   - **Level of intelligence and education**: In framing attitudes, this must always be kept in mind. Well-educated and intelligent people may consider, for instance, that the safety precautions laid down are directed principally at those with poor intelligence and education and do not apply to themselves (Anders & Berg, 2005).
   - **Motivation**: The element of human behaviour that drives people forward (Weiten, 2001: G6), can have a direct effect on attitudes to safe practices.
   - **Credibility**: Attitudes are directly associated with the beliefs that an individual may have (Eysenck, ND). Credibility can be associated with an individual's rank or level of prestige within the organisation, so that people are more likely to consider changes in attitudes to, for instance, safe working practices if the messages are seen to be coming from a senior manager rather than a supervisor (Farris, 2007).
   - **Selective interpretation**: Selective interpretation of facts is one of the potential factors in freezing attitudes leading to employees resisting change (Smith, Fabrigar & Norris, 2008: 464).

2. **Attitudes currently held**
   - **Cognitive dissonance**: This barrier to attitude change (Beasley & Joslyn, 2001: 521) must be considered in the design of training programmes and other activities directed at changing attitudes.
   - **Financial gain**: People are known to modify their behaviour generally if some form of reward is offered (Anders & Berg, 2005). However, this short term change in attitude can be lost when the reward is removed.
   - **Self-image**: Self-image may be identified with a specific set of attitudes. As such, self-image can represent a further barrier to attitude change, and must be
taken into account in measures to improve or change attitudes (Feldman, 2001: 114).

- Opinions of others: An opinion lies somewhere between an attitude and a belief. People generally value the opinions of others for whom they have respect.
- Skills available: The skilled operator will frequently hold the attitude that their skills, acquired over many years, will automatically protect them from accidents or adverse situations (Stranks, 1994a: 40).

3. The Situation

- Group situations: Employees working together can develop a group attitude towards safe working practices that may be inappropriate. Any training directed at changing attitudes should therefore take place on group basis.
- Prestige: Increasingly, organisations are seeing health and safety and the procedures they adopt as a means of gaining prestige in the marketplace. The philosophy that a safe organisation is profitable, is increasingly finding favour as a means of promoting the image of the organisation (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 390). Whether or not this viewpoint necessarily brings about attitude change further down the company hierarchy is a matter for conjecture, but the integration of health and safety with quality management for instance, has gone some way to improving attitudes to the subject in many organisations.
- Climate for change: climate for change towards better and safer working practices, together with the establishment and development of a safety culture, linked with increased personal accountability for health and safety on the part of managers, can bring about change in attitudes at all levels provided (Bettinghaus & Baseheart, 1969: 227).

4. Management Example

According to Danielsson and Stubbs (ND), management is regarded as the strongest of all motivating factors in getting people to improve their attitudes to health and safety at work. If management fails in setting a possible example it may result in the loss of credibility of the safety procedures and systems (Handy, 1970: 37).

5. Conflict of Characteristics
Stranks (1994a: 42) claims that a person persuading another to change their attitude may have some characteristics that are favourable to attitude change and some that are not favourable. This can sometimes result in a conflict of characteristics in the source of the message.

6. Appeals to Fear

One way of persuading someone to change their attitudes is to make the receiver fear that something bad or undesirable could result if they disregard the message (Eysenck, 2005).

“In its simplest form, the problem of attitude change is the problem of the degree of discrepancy between one’s own position and the position advocated in a message; and the felt necessity of coping with that discrepancy” (Hallorah in Farris, 2007).

Directly related to safe attitudes, is the degree to which the individual is motivated to act in a safe behaviour. If the employee is not motivated enough, the necessity of safe practices in the work environment will not be realised. In support of this, Weiten (2001: 674) argues that stronger attitudes are more resistant to change. They tend to be anchored in networks of beliefs and values that might also require change.

The above research clearly articulated the importance of understanding the current attitudes of employees before implementing safety in organisations. Although a safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude (Ansari & Modarres: 1997: 389), current attitudes are viewed as an enduring disposition to consistently respond in a given manner (Zikmund, 2000: 386). When required to work in a particular safe way that may be new to the employees, cognitive dissonance may be displayed (Beasley & Joslyn, 2001: 521), making it extremely difficult for the employee to create a safe working environment that is supported by all.

Keeping the above discussion in mind, it may be argued that the most critical success factor for effective risk management is the one most often lacking: an appropriate and mature risk culture supported by the attitudes of individuals to deliver what is promised (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2004). The next section will focus on the concept of risk, completing the cycle of the interrelated relationship between culture, attitudes and risk.
2.6 RISK CONTROL

In sections 2.4 and 2.5 both the concepts of culture and attitude were discussed. From a risk perception Fuller and Vassie (2001: 414) propose that safety culture may be interpreted as a set of norms, roles, beliefs, attitudes and social and technical practices within an organisation which are concerned with minimising the exposure of individuals to conditions considered to be dangerous. Culture is the leading risk factor for compromising integrity and compliance in organisations today (Mills, 2001: 247). Yet, Gebler (2005) argues that many organisations are unable to implement a truly effective ethics and compliance programme because there is a lack of knowledge of how the culture can create vulnerabilities and risks.

A discussion of culture and attitudes will be incomplete if the association with risk is ignored. It is important to explore the issues involved with an organisation that adopted a risk management culture and employee attitudes in support of this.

2.6.1 Culture, Attitude and Risk

Risk taking is a standard attribute of human behaviour, but what is meant by risk? It is human nature for people to take risks in all sorts of situations for various different reasons such as financial gains or to save time and effort (Hoyos, 1995: 233). The presence of a complete knowledge of the risk among employees could be considered as being suggestive of the cultural influence on the risk behaviour (Hopfl, 1994: 55). In the absence of a strong risk culture offered by the organisation, the treatment of operational risk becomes a matter of personal interpretation and influence (Robinson, 2004). Therefore, risk awareness and risk-taking are closely related to safety culture, especially when risk indirectly affects intentions through subjective norms and attitudes associated with behaviour (Jeffcott, Pidgeon, Weyman & Walls, 2006: 1105). Sharon (2006) and Robinson (2004) identified the following tenets regarding a culture of risk:

- A strong risk culture reduces unplanned loss and benefits stakeholders;
- Risk culture flourishes untended, but rarely in the direction that the organisation chooses. Therefore, it needs constant attention, management and leadership;
- Awareness has to be nurtured. If no-one knows, nothing happens; and
Formal and informal groups exist in every organisation. Each has a potentially different attitude towards the risks they face, and together they set the risk culture.

Agius (2006) indicates that apart from cultural influences, there are many variables that have major influences upon individual risk-taking behaviour. In particular, the risk-taking nature of individuals may influence the effectiveness of strategies for intervention and prevention training (McCormick, 2006). Harvey et al. (2001: 617) believe that risk-taking has been associated with perceived control in that increased control of a situation is associated with a higher level of risk. On the other hand, a frequent by-product of risk-taking appears in the perception of fortune, primarily determined by negative outcomes that did not happen (DOE, ND). Therefore, people who engage in risk-taking behaviour do not necessarily try to reduce the riskiness of that behaviour but rather choose to ignore the dangers associated with it (Hillston & Murray-Webster, 2004). In addition to perceived control and fortune, an individual's state of temper also has an affect on risk-taking (Krueger & Dickson, 1994: 385). Positive moods being associated with lower levels of risk-taking than negative moods; (as either a threat or an opportunity) has a stronger impact on issue interpretation among people with negative than positive affect (Cooper, Agocha & Sheldon, 2000: 1059).

Therefore Sharon (2006) claims that experience of risk inversely depends on the level of knowledge and whilst it is possible to view all behaviour as risk-taking, since outcomes can never be guaranteed with certainty; clear implications exists for training and development interventions resulting in an increase of risk awareness and knowledge (Greene, 2005).

Risk may be seen as partly socially constructed justifying the role risk perception has in maintaining a particular way of life (Agius, 2006); therefore “top-down” management initiatives in relation to risk management might justify and maintain patterns of social relationships from which risky behaviours arise (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2004). The theory of this social construction of risk leads to the identification of patterns of social relationships, hierarchical and fatalist, where compliance to regulations and downward instruction is expected by management and where the employees may be characterised as being resigned to high levels of
prescription and with minimum collective participation (Mills, 2001: 250). Fatalist employees may experience the world as impulsive and unpredictable and thus attempts to avoid harm if they feel like it. On the other hand, Harvey et al. (2001: 617) suggest that hierarchical management may expect of employees to take ownership of what they have been told to do or how they have been told to behave. This social construction analysis is paralleled by the attribution theory, which would imply internal attributions by the management and external attributions by the employees in relation to management safety initiatives.

The clear conclusion is that people who take the thoughtful, well-considered risks have to be lauded, regardless of the outcome of the risk. McCormick (2006) believes that initiative and innovation can only be increased when failure is encouraged and embraced. A culture that punished less than ideal risk-related outcomes will stifle both initiative and outcome.

Some of the models of risk-taking, such as self-regulation theory (Kuhl, Kazen & Koole, 2006: 408) consider that behavioural responses contain cognitive and affective components of attitude which may generate separate action plans to deal with each, which may or may not be compatible. According to Feldman (2001: 330) the cognitive component is concerned with thoughts and knowing, such as perceiving, remembering, imagining, conceiving, judging, reasoning, the analysis of problems and decision-making processes. The affective component, on the other hand, is concerned with emotions or feelings of attraction or revolution (Stranks, 1994a: 35). Thus, risk-attitude may be defined as “chosen state of mind with regard to those uncertainties that could have a positive or negative effect on objectives” (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2004).

The attitude of individuals has a significant influence on whether risk management delivers what it promises (Turner, Rimal, Morrison & Kim, 2006: 130). The human element introduces an additional layer of complexity into the risk process, with a multitude of influences both explicit and covert. Harvey et al. (2001: 617) debate that these act as sources of bias, creating preferred risk attitudes which affect every aspect of risk management. Although the responses to positive and negative
situations suggest at first sight that environment or situation is the prime determinant of behaviour, in fact it is how the environment is being perceived by a person (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 390). This is because a situation that appears hostile to one may seem benign to another. This raises the question of what influences behaviour when the situation is uncertain. The important driver of behaviour is whether uncertainty is perceived as favourable, neutral, unfavourable or hostile. This reaction to uncertainty may be described as risk attitude (Turner et al., 2006: 130).

To review the above discussion, it may be argued that risk is in the eye of the beholder, reframing perceptions of risk to align with the organisation’s strategy usually takes a little time (Sharon, 2006). However, risk management should be viewed as a positive process and one of the most creative tasks of a manager (Haimes, Kaplan & Lambert, 2002: 383). Its aim is to generate realistic expectations and increase the control of the process. Additionally, it can open the way to finding innovative solutions that may not have otherwise been considered (Mills, 2001: 250). This may also be relevant for strategy implementation. Therefore the next section will focus on the balanced scorecard (BSC) as tool for implementation and how it is used as a measurement system for safety in the organisation.

2.7 BALANCED SCORECARD

“Great strategy, shame about the implementation”. (Okumus & Roper in Atkinson, 2006: 1441). This noteworthy statement captures the essence of the problem that strategy implementation suffers from a general lack of academic attention.

Budde (2007: 515) acknowledges that the balanced scorecard as framework views the organisation’s performance from four key perspectives, with regard to which organisations should articulate their core vision, strategy and goals before translating them into specific initiatives, targets and measures. De Bruyn (2003: 187) declares that this framework integrates traditional financial measures with operational and softer customer and employee issues, which are vital to growth and long-term sustainable competitiveness. Ahn (2005: 6) proposes that the financial perspective and customer perspective are external viewpoints.

These concepts may be visually illustrated through figure 2.8.
Ahn (2005: 6) believes that the balanced scorecard forced management to think in terms of those fundamental competitive issues which impact long-term, rather than short-term profitability. However, it is not just the measures themselves, which are important. De Bruyn (2003: 189) proclaims that each measure will have an impact on the other measures. When managers understand the linkage between the four perspectives they realise how advances in one can lead to lower performance in another measure (Atkinson, 2006: 1446).

A balanced scorecard should translate an organisation’s mission and strategy into tangible objectives and measures (Bremser & Barsky, 2004: 229). These objectives and measures represent a balance between the external measures and internal...
measures, which are the result of past efforts, and the measures that drive future performance (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 424).

Mearns and Havold (2003: 409) claim that “a company’s success for tomorrow rests as much on its ability today to measure the performance of less tangible assets such as customer relations, internal business processes and employee learning, as on its aptitude for monitoring traditional financial measures”. Due to its focus on organisational strategy, it is important to realise that the balanced scorecard is “a template, not a straight jacket” (Atkinson, 2006: 1448). It exists only to indicate the way to future action. This requires interpretation of what is good, what is bad and what needs changing (Sanger, 1998: 200). Therefore, there are principally no barriers to the idea of deriving an individualised balanced scorecard through the breakdown of mission and strategic statements (Ahn, 2005: 6). If safety is a focus area for an organisation then it should be included as a driver in the scorecard (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 409).

2.7.1 BSC Focussing on Occupational Health and Safety

During the last few years organisations’ management has widely agreed on the importance of the implementation and certification of structured management systems (Olivier, 2002) such as quality management systems, environment management systems (Beckmerhagen et al., 2003: 210) and recently, occupational health and safety (OH&S) management systems (Arezes & Miguel, 2003: 20). This will enable organisations to measure their results and achievements concerning each particular system. As a part of the OH&S management system, performance measure is as important as any other issue, such as financial, production or service delivery management (Olivier, 2002). The balanced scorecard was identified as a global measurement system of organisational performance (Atkinson, 2006: 1444) and can therefore be linked to the measurement of health and safety in the workplace (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 412).

HSE (2001) declare that managers most likely would use economic indicators such as liquid profit, return on investment or market share when measuring their organisation’s performance. A common feature of these indexes would be that they are generally positive in nature, reflecting achievement, rather than negative, which
reflects failure (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 424). If the same managers were to measure their organisation’s OH&S performance, chances are that they only expressed accidents and illness, or diseases, related statistics (HSE, 2001). While the general business performance of an organisation is subject to a range of positive measures, this is not always the case for OH&S (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 389). Negative measures such as lost time injuries, total injuries and lost workdays rates will evidently be reported (Alston, 2003: 16). Some organisations also report, as a performance measure, the OH&S compliance indicating, for example, how many citations and penalties or fines relating to safety issues the company had in the period being measured (Amis & Booth, 1991).

Research on the measurement of occupational health and safety is very restricted and limited sources could be found. The work of Mearns and Havold (2003) provided the best understanding of occupational health and safety measurement and is used in this research as foundation. Mearns and Havold (2003: 410) argue that the measurement of OH&S differs from many areas because success results in the absence of an outcome (accidents or illness) rather than a presence. A low accident or ill-health rate, even over a long time period, may not be regarded as a guarantee against risks of the exclusion of accidents in the future (Anderson, ND). This is relevant in organisations that pose a low probability of accidents in a very hazardous environment. In such circumstances the historical records of accidents and illnesses can be a deceptive indicator of safety performance (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 410). The ideal would be to have simple and low cost measures that cover all main areas of focus of an organisation (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 410). Unfortunately, research conducted by Beckmerhagen et al. (2003: 216) indicate that no single measure will be completely adequate when measuring health and safety. One reason for this may be that health and safety issues are dynamic in nature (HSE, 2001). Some theorists believe that an interaction between people and complex technology, results in safety problems and even the occurrence of accidents (Danielsson & Stubbs, ND).

Jeffcott et al. (2006: 1105) proposes that the implication of such a theory would be that risks can only be managed and never entirely eliminated. This implies that organisations must be aware of activities internal and external to the organisation to determine potential weaknesses in their health and safety management systems, in
order to keep risks as low as reasonably practicable (Shaw, 2002). The identification of the leading performance indicator, having an impact on health and safety performance in the future, will lead to an enhancement of the monitoring process (DOE, ND). The Health and Safety Executive (HSE, 2001) supports this argument and recommends a balanced scorecard (BSC) approach: “Organisations need to recognise that there is no single reliable measure of health and safety performance. What is required is a basket of measures or a balanced scorecard providing information on a range of health and safety activities”. Mearns and Havold (2003: 410) argue that this range of activities also needs to include the costs involved in incidents and accidents.

To conduct a complete accident investigation, the factors contributing to an accident, as well as the means to prevent accidents, must be clearly understood (Hoyos, 1995: 233). When measuring occupational health and safety, the HSE (Murthy, 1997: 319) recommends that performance measurements should be based on a balanced approach, combining three types of measurements.

This is illustrated in figure 2.9:

**Figure 2.9 Effective Risk Control**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Output</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncontrolled hazards</td>
<td>H&amp;S management system arrangements (level 1)</td>
<td>Controlled hazards / risks</td>
<td>- No injuries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 'hazard burden'</td>
<td>Risk control systems (level 2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>- No occupational ill-health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Workplace precautions (level 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>- No incidents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive H&amp;S culture</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Stakeholder satisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from HSE (2001)
To effectively measure the health and safety performance of an organisation, the measurement should cover all elements of figure 2.9. It should be based on a balanced approach which combines the following elements:

- **Input measures**: measures of the hazard burden. This refers to the nature and distribution of hazards as created by organisational activities (Burke, Sarpy, Tesluk & Smith-Crowe, 2002: 429). This type of measurement focuses on monitoring activities regarding the significance of hazards, variation of hazards across the organisation and variation of hazards over time (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 412). These measures also indicate the organisation’s ability in reducing or eliminating hazards and what impact changes in the business have on the nature and significance of hazards (HSE, 2001).

- **Process measures**: measures of health and safety management system and activities to promote a positive health and safety culture (leading indicators). Behn (2003: 586) indicates that organisational factors including policy, organising, planning and implementation, performance, operation, maintaining and improving the systems and the development of a health and safety culture are measured (Burke et al., 2002: 429). It may be done through audits, reviews and surveys (Anon, 2001).

- **Outcome measures**: measure of failures (lagging indicators). HSE (2001) describes reactive measurements as injuries and work related ill-health and other losses like damage to property, incidents, hazard and faults, weaknesses or omissions in performance standards or systems.

From the above, it is clear that an understanding of how to prevent or control accidents, requires an understanding of the sequence of events leading to an accident in order to identify and implement countermeasures that contain risks within acceptable limits (DOE, ND). In support of this, Amis and Booth (1991) compiled a list of indicators of performance in safety management. These indicators together with their advantages and disadvantages are illustrated in table 2.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Indicator</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accident Data</td>
<td>• Relatively easy to collect</td>
<td>• Measure of failure, not success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures of accidents</td>
<td>• Widely published in</td>
<td>• Tends to indicate results of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Standardised format                         | • Easily understandable  
• Used to identify trends  
• Used in safety discussions | • Decisions made some time ago  
• Difficult to use in staff appraisals  
• Doesn’t include cases of gradually developing occupational diseases  
• Poor predictor of future safety performance  
• Measures injury severity, not potential seriousness of accident |
| Near Miss Data                              | • Don’t require someone to be hurt before preventative action is taken  
• Good predictors of future accidents  
• May be used as safety discussion | • Difficult to collect  
• Because no accident happened, managers might not perceive the importance of the event |
| Safety Auditing                             | • It is a predictor  
• Amount of deterioration or improvement can be shown numerically  
• Comprehensive and covers all aspects of safety management, measuring it against a pre-defined standard  
• Requires a commitment from organisation to time and manpower  
• Well recognised management tool | • Cannot be performed too frequently as they lose their effectiveness  
• Safety audits are only one of a string of audits  
• Audits result in long lists of actions  
• Significant differences between scores recorded by different auditors  
• Tend to focus on management system on the site |
| Behaviour                                   | • Predictor of accidents, appears to be well correlated with accident performance  
• Feedback to employee is generally positive  
• Data is fairly reliable  
• Behavioural measurements can easily be integrated into appraisal system | • What to do needs to be identified and disseminated to employees  
• Observers need to be trained  
• Takes extensive time and commitment from management |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Attitudes</strong></th>
<th>Good predictor of safety performance</th>
<th>Attitudes and actions do not always coincide</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many accidents have human error as a cause, and the risk that one person is willing to take will be determined by the attitudes of the social group</td>
<td>Attitude measurement can be taken before and after an intervention</td>
<td>Attitude surveys cannot be performed regularly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety Inspections and Sampling</td>
<td>Change in behaviour could be measured directly</td>
<td>People participating are most likely only the ones who have strong views either way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety inspection is a scheduled inspection of premises</td>
<td>Attitude surveys measure the ‘soft’ areas of safety, i.e. communication, and perceived level of management commitment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety sampling is more specific where particular items are examined in a relatively short timeframe</td>
<td>Involves shop-floor staff, thus gives ownership of safety to the employees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extremely visible part of safety management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>May use in appraisals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can be carried out on a regular basis, giving quick feedback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time consuming process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To regularly done, may lead to overwhelming feeling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tasks not done yet, may lead to demoralising feeling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident free period</td>
<td>Instils a feeling of pride</td>
<td>Suppresses accident reporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hours, days or even years without a lost time accident</td>
<td>Continual reminder of safety</td>
<td>Accident free period give no indication of where the site is good or bad on safety matters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>May give a rise to cynicism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident costs</td>
<td>Powerful persuader, in a language that management understands</td>
<td>Difficult and time consuming to collect accurately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economical implication of accidents to the organisation</td>
<td>Help safety to be integrated into normal management systems</td>
<td>Some costs are impossible to measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Negative indicator</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Difficult to use in appraisals</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Continual focus on costs alone will start to devalue the moral issues in safety management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Difficult measure to sustain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Anderson (ND) claims that although a focus on personal injuries is important, it is proposed that the balance between resources addressing personal health and safety, and those addressing process safety is inappropriate. Too much focus on measures such as the above mentioned draws attention away from those aspects relating to major hazard safety (Behn, 2003: 586). With the above performance indicators in mind, Mearns and Havold (2003: 414) proposed a health and safety balanced scorecard where the change of learning and growth perspectives is facilitated as the organisation matures when facing new safety challenges. The components of this adopted balanced scorecard are:

*Financial:*
- Accident costs, i.e. loss costing;
- Investment in safety, e.g. safety training budget.

*Customer:*
- Levels of communication about health and safety issues;
- Workforce involvement and “ownership” of health and safety issues.

*Internal business:*
- Health and safety policies (i.e. meets legal requirements and best practices, up-to-date, is being implemented effectively).
- Organising for safety:
  - Control;
  - Communication;
  - Co-operation;
  - Competence.
- Demonstration of management commitment and workforce involvement in health and safety, including risk assessment and control.
- Health and safety auditing.
- Health surveillance and promotion.
- Learning and growth (best practice):
  - Testing employees knowledge on health and safety policy;
  - Visits by managing director or business unit manager to the installation, including face to face discussions with members of the workforce.
- High percentage of staff attending safety committee meetings once a month;
- Occupational health plan in place, high percentage of plan achieved and health promotion activities offshore;
- High percentage of corrective actions formally closed out against an agreed time scale of the past year.

Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 105) argue that a clear and cohesive performance measurement framework supportive of objectives and the collection of results, which is understood throughout the whole organisation, is needed. Clear, consistent, and visible commitment by senior executives and managers is a necessary part of a successful balanced scorecard (Anderson, ND), with senior management actively involved in both the creation and implementation of an organisation's system, including the articulation of the vision, mission and goals (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 424). Furthermore, management involvement in the distribution of both performance expectations and results throughout the organisation is needed (Atkinson, 2006: 1446). Immediate supervisors may foster a sense of involvement during day-to-day activities as well as the design of safety programs but in both cases evidence suggest that high involvement promotes safer work practices (Ahn, 2005: 6). Effective communication on both internal and external level (employees, process owners, customers, and stakeholders) is vital for the successful implementation of a balanced scorecard (Ball, 2003). Before initiating the program, the organisational safety objectives, policies, rules and regulations as well as the method of implementation should be communicated to all levels of the organisation (Atkinson, 2006: 1447). Results and progress toward programme commitments should be treated with transparency. As accountability is another key success factor, accountability for results must be clearly assigned and well understood. As noted by Mearns and Havold (2003: 421) the balanced scorecard is not implemented by an organisation as a data compilation measurement, but rather to provide intelligence for decision-makers.

The most successful performance measurement systems facilitate learning (HSE, 2001) enabling the organisation to identify what works and what does not so as to continue with and improve on what is working and repair or replace what is not
working (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 105). Organisations must never forget that by implementing the balanced scorecard, unanticipated hazards or interactions with hazards are eliminated. Higgins & Currie (2004: 297) suggest that organisations review their balanced scorecard periodically, evaluating whether the right things are being measured, if better decisions are being made and how measures can be improved to obtain needed information.

In conclusion, organisations always have to keep in mind that the balanced scorecard is only a vital tool to improve occupational health and safety (both short-term and long-term) if it is implemented and monitored continuously (HSE, 2001). Furthermore, it will force the organisation to become aware of the costs involved in incidents and accidents (Higgins & Currie, 2004: 297). Pybus (1996: 1) believes that organisations are starting to realise the ethical and moral implications of killing and injuring people at work. Although managers claim that this is the main motivator for ongoing efforts in providing a safer working environment, there is little doubt about the influence that accidents have on an organisation's present and future competitive success (Fuller & Vassie, 2001: 413). The last section of the chapter will thus be devoted to the economical implications of providing a safe working environment to all.

2.8. ECONOMICAL IMPLICATIONS OF OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY

“Significant savings both in human suffering and in profits are possible through effective safety efforts” (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 11).

In 1997 a report entitled The Costs of Accidents was published by the HSE in which they claim that incidents might account for as much as 37 per cent of annualised profits for a transport company, 8.5 per cent of the tender price for a construction site and 5 per cent of running costs for a hospital (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 410). But this was not the first time that the cost of safety was researched. Heinrich (1959 in Mearns & Havold, 2003: 410) started with the study of accident costs during the 1920’s, where the conclusion were reached that management repulsively underestimated the cost of injuries at organisations.

This section will address all issues related to the cost of safety in the workplace. This will include discussions on both direct and indirect costs. Furthermore, it will be
explored why it is important to know the cost of safety. To conclude, the concept of loss control management will briefly be examined.

### 2.8.1 Safety – Priority versus Profit

“The driving force behind a safety program is the cost of not having one” (Alston, 2003: 15).

Behm et al. (2004: 22) acknowledged that the prime purpose of safety is to prevent injuries and fatalities. Recognition of this purpose should not lead one to criticise the importance of cost reduction as a safety objective. Hoyos (1995: 233) experienced that a reduction of measurable injury cost and improvement of morale and efficiency are worthwhile objectives in themselves.

While second to the prevention of human injury, operating cost reduction as objective broadens the basis for safety work (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 390). Smith and Dardis (1977: 34) state that cost reduction, as a purpose brings the losses from property damage and interference with production as well as the purely injury aspects, all into focus. Therefore, Rhoades and Waguespack (1999: 399) argue that cost reduction may be regarded as a major purpose of the safety program, or it may be considered as a means of offsetting the costs of injury prevention activities that management might choose to carry on regardless of cost (Jeeves, Nabi & Greenwood, 2007: A70).

Mathis (1996) declares that a wise employer is thus aware of the threats that exists to employee safety, and recognises that violence at work has costs that directly affect profitability, including medical or disability benefits, psychological counselling for victims or survivors, and repair of property damage. Alston (2003: 15) debated that the prevention of injuries leads to intangible gains that do not yet appear susceptible to even approximate measurement. Improvements in cost of production, quality and quantity of output and volume of sales reflect the influence of safety (DOE, ND).

Even though cost may be used as a means of securing support from management and while the safety director should present cost data to management to show the
importance of safety work relative to profits (Dillon, Johnson & Pate-Cornell, 1999: 473), it is probably not wise to make cost reductions the prime purpose of safety (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 104), but rather a possible, long-term by-product of safety management.

2.8.2 Allocation of Costs
Money may be regarded as the ultimate measure of attainment in that it is understood and usually quantitatively available. Therefore, when contrasted with typical safety performance indicators, figures preceded by a Rand value, generally have a greater meaning (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 389). Nevertheless, the possibility of using safety-related costs to invigorate management’s attention frequently is not exploited (Burtch, 2007). This probably is due in part to accounting procedures, which, though they usually allocate casualty losses, do not ordinarily tabulate the full cost of casualty expenses (Behm et al., 2004: 22). Thus, the whole expenditure attributable to injurious occurrences is not often realised (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 191). Because of this absence of knowledge of injury costs the following section will focus on both direct and indirect costs of accidents, why it is important to be aware of these costs as well as loss control management.

2.8.2.1 The Cost of Accidents at Work
An organisation has a moral obligation to protect its people, but the driving force behind a safety programme is the cost of not having one (Alston, 2003: 73). Profits are at odds with safety. Carchia (1999) argues that although systems can be made safer the question may be raised whether this is cost justifiable. Behm et al. (2004: 23) claim that determining the appropriate safety level can be a difficult decision to make. A cost benefit analysis may be used (Jones-Lee, 1976) but when employees’ lives are at stake, it can become an ethical debate whose outcome may lie in a grey area (Smith & Dardis, 1977: 34). Furthermore, adding too much safety can sometimes be a costly matter. Hoyos (1995: 233) believes that for an organisation to be successful, a minimum level of profitability is essential. Thus, the prevention for losses is a key factor. According to Stranks (1994b: 94) all accidents, whether they result in personal injury, property and plant damage and / or interruption of the business activity, represent losses to an organisation. Managers frequently complain about the cost of safety. Ironically, the losses to the organisation as a
result of accidents are never considered (DOE, ND). Aside from money spent on litigation and lawsuits, the organisation’s name might be tarnished, hurting other aspects of the business (Clarke & Robertson, 2008: 94). For the organisation to be in a position where injury costs can be calculated an arbitrary system may be devised (Feber, Feldmeier & Crocker, 2003: 651). Either on the basis of the organisation’s own past experience or on the basis of an estimate provided by the insurance company, the approximate ratio of total claim settlement cost between that for all injuries of the doctor’s case type and that for those of the lost-days type may be prepared. Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 194) state that the total net annual premium cost for workers’ compensation insurance may be divided per ratio into an insurance cost for doctor’s cases and a cost for lost-time cases. The organisation will be able to calculate the average insurance cost per doctor’s case and per lost day case by taking the average number per year for the past two or three years of each of those two types of injuries in the company’s experience and dividing the average figures into the corresponding part of the total insurance cost (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 194).

There are two major classes of costs resulting from injuries and accidents, the insurance (or insured) cost and the uninsured cost (direct and indirect costs). Each is briefly discussed next.

2.8.2.1.3 The direct cost
Smith & Dardis (1977: 34) debate that direct costs, sometimes referred to as insured costs are largely concerned with an organisation’s liabilities as an employer and occupier of premises. Feber et al. (2003: 651) propose that organisations cover direct costs through premiums paid to an insurance company to provide cover against claims made by an injured party. According to Stranks (1994b: 94) other direct costs of accidents include claims by insured persons and users of products manufactured by the organisation, which are settled either in or out of a court, together with fines imposed by the courts for breached of health and safety legislation. Substantial legal defence costs may also be incorporated in this category (Dillon et al., 1999: 473). An important factor that has often been overlooked is the overhead costs of insurance (Alston, 2003: 17). This is the difference between the money paid out by an insurance company in settlement of claims from employees of
a concern and the total insurance premiums paid by that company for this employees’ compensation coverage (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 211). It is thus argued that direct costs are directly associated with the incident. On the other hand, indirect costs account for financial losses as a by-product of the incident (Alston, 2003: 16).

2.8.2.1.4 The indirect costs
As observed by Roades and Waguespack, (1999: 397) the indirect costs include the physical costs to the victim, the emotional costs to the victim's family and community as well as damage to social values like justice and solidarity. Therefore it may be argued that indirect costs are many and varied and are often difficult to predict in that it may be included, and thus hidden in other costs such as labour costs, production and administration cost (Stranks, 1994b: 94). It is common for indirect costs to be ignored owing to be difficulty experience in separating them from other costs (Smith & Dardis, 1997: 34). The ideal is a periodic report sent to the line of authority, indicating actual numbers of first-aid cases (Amis & Booth, 1991). Some indirect costs, however, are simply to quantify. From the research of authors like Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 214); Mearns and Havold (2003: 411); and Stranks (1994b: 94) the following list of indirect costs were composed:

- Costs to the state. These are difficult to quantify but can be enormous if surgery and a prolonged stay in the hospital results from the accident.
- Costs to the injured person. Loss of earnings, loss of total earning capacity, legal costs, in pursuing injury claim and possible legal costs in defending a prosecution for unsafe behaviour at work might be some of the costs to the injured party.
- Cost of wages paid for working time lost by employee who was not injured. Sometimes employees near the scene of an injury stop working to watch, offer assistance or to talk about what happened. On other occasions uninjured employees are unable to continue working for a time after an injury because of equipment damage in the accident or because they cannot get along without the output or aid of the injured worker.
- The net cost to repair, replace or straighten up material or equipment that was damaged in an accident. Property damage is an obvious cost. When replacements are necessary, however, some problems arise in the estimating of
the net loss incurred. The big difficulty is estimating the real worth of the machine / equipment.

- **Cost of wages paid for working time lost by injured employees, other than workers compensation payments.** Just as in the case of the employees who were not injured, the work the injured employee would have done during time lost must be regarded as ordinarily worth at least as much to the business as the amount of wages paid for that time. If this were not true, management would hire fewer employees.

- **Extra cost due to overtime work necessitated by an accident.** If production lost because of an accident is made up by working overtime, the accident should be charged with the difference between the cost of doing the work in overtime and the cost which would have been incurred if it had been done in regular hours. This cost ordinarily is the difference between normal wages and overtime wages for the time needed to make up lost production, plus any extra cost for supervision, heat, light, cleaning and other necessities by the overtime operation.

- **Cost of wages paid supervisors while their time is required for activities necessitated by the injury.** An organisation pays a foreman or supervisor no more salary for devoting two hours to adjusting the situation after an injury than if no time had been required.

- **Wage cost due to decreased output of injured employees after return to work.** Not infrequently an employee who has suffered an injury returns to work while not yet fully recovered. If the employee’s previous hourly rate of pay is continued, or if the employee is on incentive pay but the minimum guaranteed rate is high for the new temporary rate of output, the injury should be charged with the percentage of the employee’s pay which corresponds with the percentage reduction in the output.

- **Cost-of-learning period of new employee.** When an injury is serious, it is sometimes necessary that a new employee must be hired, or one transferred from another job. This often results in an added cost from the fact that during the time it takes the employee to learn the new job, the output is usually lower relative to the pay rate than the output of an employee experienced on that job would be.

- **Uninsured medical cost borne by the organisation.** This cost is usually for medical services provided at the plant dispensary. While it is not difficult to
estimate an average cost per visit for such medical attention, the question may be raised whether this expense should properly be termed a variable cost.

- Cost of time spent by higher supervision on investigations or in the processing of compensation application forms. This should not include the time spent for the primary purpose of preventing future injuries as contrasted with adjusting those that have occurred.

- Miscellaneous unusual costs. This category includes ex-grata payments, the validity of which must be clearly shown by the investigator on individual injury reports. Possible costs may include (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 219; and Mearns & Havold, 2003: 411):
  - Payments to a widow;
  - Replacement costs of personal items belonging to the injured person;
  - Public liability claims;
  - Cost of renting replacement equipment;
  - Loss of profit on contracts cancelled or orders lost if the accident causes a net long run reduction in total sales;
  - Loss of bonuses by company;
  - Cost of excess spoilage (above normal) by new employees, and demurrage;
  - Moral effect on co-employees; and
  - Difficulty to recruit employees when organisation has a negative reputation.

The cost factors listed in this miscellaneous group, as well as any others not suggested, would need to be well substantiated (Stranks, 1994b: 94).

Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 227) claim that the following formulas express the basic principle of the modern method of estimating the uninsured costs of work injuries and accidents:

Uninsured cost = \( A + B + C + D \)

Where \( A = \) number of lost workday cases with days away from work
\( B = \) number of doctor’s cases
\[ C = \text{number of first aid cases} \]
\[ D = \text{number of no injury accidents} \]

This covers the ordinary run of injuries and accidents. In the formula, \( A, B, C, \) and \( D \) are constants indicating, respectively, the average uninsured costs for each of the categories of cases. Injuries and accidents of catastrophic nature, together with additional costs involved, should be investigated independently (Dillan et al., 1999: 473).

With the above formula in mind, it is important to realise that any element that causes production costs to increase may cause a higher price to be charged for the product (Alston, 2003: 73), which, in turn, may bring a reduction in sales and consequently a loss of profit (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 377). Concerns might be indifferent to production costs if management could pass on all increases in cost to the consumer in the form of higher prices, without fear of its effect on sales or of trouble with a price control authority (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 220).

### 2.8.2.2 Importance of knowing costs

Anderson (ND) proposes that it is of utmost importance for the safety department to balance its favourable position with its activities on organisation’s profits. Hoyos (1995: 233) argues that when an organisation experiences financial constraints for any reason, thoughts about eliminating or contracting some of its staff departments is an obvious step to follow. Therefore, the safety department needs to demonstrate that the safety programme is not a financial drain and needs to continue even during times when business slows down (Behm et al., 2004: 23). Or they may be the only means of inducing management to embark on a serious safety program in the first place.

According to law, it is the organisation’s responsibility to ensure workplaces free of recognised hazards (OSHA, 1993: 3). This together with humanitarian reasons demands safety, but it is in the degree of effort to excel in this field that cost benefit analysis can play a part (Jones-Lee, 1976). Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 209) add to this by debating that compliance with legal requirements and social demands comes much more freely when it can be demonstrated that safety efforts make a
contribution to profits exceeding all or a significant part of their costs (Alston, 2003: 73).

When experienced safety specialists pay little attention to the costs involved with injuries and illness, one of three situations appear to exist (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 210):

- The organisation has been fully committed to safety for reasons no longer questioned by top management, so that cost is not a factor in safety decisions.
- The safety director is afraid to stress safety for fear of not being able to show it fully profitable and this might reduce automatic support.
- The organisation chooses to take the posture that it seeks safety regardless of costs, even though this is actually not quite the case.

The cost of safety weakens an organisation’s ability to conduct its mission and deliver its products (Alston, 2003: 73). In support of this, Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 221) observed that all of the following conditions must be present in order to ensure that there is a loss of profit on goods not produced as a result of accidents:

- A decrease in average rate of output over a considerable period of time must be caused.
- The resultant rate of output must be lower than what management find as desirable to maintain in view of the demand for its product and average and variable unit costs of production.
- This resultant rate of output must be sufficiently lower to cause a reduction in sales, due to inability to supply the goods.
- Sales lost during this period must not be recoverable at a later date.

2.8.2.3 Loss control management

Accidents and occupational ill-health represent substantial losses to an organisation in both direct and indirect terms (Smith & Dardis, 1997: 34). In the 1960’s a management system approach Total Loss Control (TLC) was developed with the aim of loss prevention (Stranks, 1994b: 130). It may be described as a programme designed to reduce or eliminate all accidents, which downgrade the system, resulting in wastage of the organisation’s assets (Bnet, 2007).
Stranks (1994b: 133) proposes that TLC is a long-term programme with various stages and is outlined below in figure 2.10:

Figure 2.10 Total Loss Control Stages

**Total loss control**
Control is taken of all insured and uninsured costs arising from any incident which downgrade the system. Aspects associated with ‘business interruption’ are included as well as the identification of possible tools and methods of measurement.

**Injury prevention**
The humanitarian and, to some extent, legal aspects of employee safety and employers’ compensation costs are addressed in this stage. This will include features such as machinery safety, cleaning and housekeeping procedures, health and safety training at all levels, PPE, joint consultation, the promulgation of safety rules, regulations and disciplinary procedures, and safety propaganda.

**Damage control**
This stage focuses on controlling accidents that cause damage to property and plant, and which might conceivably cause injury. Essential elements of this stage are damage reporting, recording and costing.

**Business interruption**
Control is taken over all situations and influences that downgrade the system resulting in business interruption. Business interruption can result in lost money, lost time, reduced production and lost sales, perhaps through delays in delivery.

**Total accident control**
In this stage accidents resulting in personal injury and/or property damage are prevented. Three steps towards total accident control are spot-checking systems, reporting by control centres and health and safety audits.

Source: Adapted from Stranks (1994b: 133) and Top (1991)

Figure 2.10 illustrates a process, through which sustained improvement would be delivered through the use of tools and techniques for eliminating waste and increasing value for the customer. Smith, Jones and Vickridge (1999) claim that many of these techniques can also be used to analyse safety failures, since health and safety is an integral part of the strategic framework of Total Quality Management (TQM).
By utilising the Total Loss Approach and applying control systems, which eliminate the underlying root causes of accidents, the chance of failure will reduce, providing proactive control of health and safety (Stranks, 1994b, 133). The traditional approach to safety management concentrates on the technical and managerial factors associated with hazards, not on the overall quality of the organisation, ensuring that it is inherently safer at every level (Smith et al., 1999).

Therefore, through risk management the TLC concept could be taken a stage further (Top, 1991). It may be defined in a number of ways:

1. The minimisation of the adverse effects of pure and speculative risks within an organisation.
2. The identification, measurement and economic control of the risks that threaten the assets and earnings of an organisation.
3. Risk identification and evaluation and the determination of the best financial solution for coping with the major and minor threats to an organisation’s earnings and performance.
4. A technique for coping with the effects of change.

Stranks (1994b: 149) indicated that risk management techniques aim at producing savings in insurance premiums by first defining and then minimising areas of industrial and other risk. Alston (2003: 16) argues that it seeks to promote the concept of insuring only what is necessary in terms of risk, rather than discrediting insurance arrangements. On this basis, Top (1991) states that the manageable risks are identified, measured and either eliminated or controlled, and the financing of the remaining or residual risks, normally by insurance, takes place at a later stage (Stranks, 1994b: 149).

Organisations tend not to assess their real needs for insurance cover and measure these needs against their own ability to take on the risks. Insurance are treated more like a tax which must be paid and never actually assess what they are buying (Feber et al., 2003: 651). Thus, the organisation buys insurance against probabilities or likelihood based, perhaps even on their previous history claims. Instead, it should really be covering unlikely or unforeseeable risks beyond the control of the
organisation (Top, 1991). Furthermore, organisations tend to examine only those risks, which insurance organisations traditionally cover such as fire (Alston, 2003: 16). Risks, which could be significant financially should they arise, are ignored, leading to the tunnel approach (Top, 1991). Successful risk management is ensured when the organisation makes time to consider and evaluate risks, discipline and systems for controlling the identified risks they are capable of controlling and the acceptance of a certain amount of covered risk (Turner & Keetelaar, 2005). In other words, purchasing insurance is no guarantee against the elimination of risks (Alston, 2003: 16). Management needs to examine all the risks, evaluate them and treat insurance as a secondary consideration rather than the starting point (Stranks, 1994b: 150).

To link with the above costs, is the concept of intellectual capital. A climate of doubt and insecurity is unlikely to encourage an atmosphere of openness and sharing (Byrne, 2001: 45). In providing a safe working environment lies a further hidden cost in the form of empowering the employee with safety knowledge. It is of benefit to any organisation to employ an individual that already developed knowledge (Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle & Collins, 2001: 49) of occupational safety. Not only because safety is enforced through legislation, but also because the employee’s attitude towards safety would already have been established. Furthermore, Mearns et al. (2001: 771) believe that an employee with a solid knowledge of safety will be able to assist in changing an organisation’s current culture to one where safety is regarded as a priority.

2.9 CONCLUSION
Safety has been described throughout the chapter as everyone’s responsibility. Of course it is the employees and their families who suffer most directly from work injuries. Therefore the mere fact that the law makes the employer responsible for ensuring a safe working environment for all employees, should not warrant the employees’ failing to look out for themselves and their co-employees. However, this employee self interest is a weak basis for management to expect an optimum safety performance. In the chapter it was proposed that all employees must rather regard safety regulations and instructions as part of the requirements of their jobs, not simply as suggestions.
Organisations with top safety records are characterised by a full cooperation from employees in safety matters, supported with regulations with teeth in them to ensure that unconvinced employees cannot demoralise the program. However, research from this chapter clearly illustrated that standards and regulations are not sufficient to ensure a safe working environment. For safety to be regarded as a priority, it was determined that a safety culture needed to be established. It was indicated that creating a safety culture implied a continuous awareness by employees of the hazards around them, including those that they create themselves. Thus, culture announces to everyone whether safety is a key value and where it fits into the organisation’s priorities. For an organisation that sees safety as a priority, a cultural change is necessary. However, it became clear that changing a culture is not easy. The reason for this is the involvement of individual attitudes leading to a certain behaviour. A positive discipline approach may be used to change behaviour, shifting the focus on the individual and his or her attitudes towards safety.

Apart from the above, it was discovered that employee attitudes is one of the most important components of safety culture. The concepts of safety, culture and attitude proved to be interchangeable linked with one another. A change in one will bring about a change in the others. Therefore, it became clear from the research that current employee attitudes and organisational culture need to be thoroughly investigated before implementing safety in the organisation. Although a safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude, current attitudes were viewed as an enduring disposition to consistently respond in a given manner. When required to work in a particular safe way that might be new to employees, cognitive dissonance may be displayed, making it extremely difficult for the employer to create a safe working environment that is supported by all.

Apart from safety, culture and attitude that have an influence on one another, risk as concept may also be brought into this network of interdependence. It was argued that the most critical success factor for effective risk management is the one most often lacking: an appropriate and mature risk culture supported by the attitudes of individuals to deliver what is promised. Most organisations operate in an environment of risk and the key to organisational success is to reduce this risk to an
acceptable level. Risk is in the eye of the beholder, reframing perceptions of risk to align with the organisation’s strategy usually takes a little time. However, it was emphasised that risk management should be viewed as a positive process, and one of the most creative tasks of managers. It was debated that it can open the way of finding innovative solutions that may not have otherwise been considered.

A discussion on culture, attitudes and organisational risk would not be completed if a measurement system was not addressed focusing on the implementation of the above. The balanced scorecard was chosen as the measure most successful in translating strategy into results. While the general business performance of an organisation is subject to a range of positive measures, this is not always the case for occupational health and safety. Negative measures such as lost time injuries, total injuries and lost workdays rates will evidently be reported. A health and safety balanced scorecard was proposed where the change of learning and growth perspectives were facilitated as the organisation matures when facing new safety challenges.

Lastly, the concept of economical implications of safety was discussed. Although the prevention of injuries may be regarded as a first priority, operating cost reduction as objective broadened the basis for safety at work. Determining the appropriate safety level can be a difficult decision to make. A cost benefit analysis may be used but when employee’s lives are at stake, it can become an ethical debate whose outcome might lie in a grey area. Furthermore, adding too much safety can sometimes be a costly matter. It is therefore not wise to make cost the prime purpose of safety, but rather a long-term by product of safety management.

The next chapter will focus on marketing inside the organisation as an essential part of delivering value to the organisation and ultimately to the end customer. Internal marketing will be the core of chapter three, supported by the factors of management, training, motivation and communication. It is important to note that, although the focus still lies with occupational safety, and should not be seen in isolation from one another, the components will be discussed with a more general perspective. Safe practices can be enhanced by adopting a holistic view on safety matters.
CHAPTER 3

ENHANCING OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY THROUGH INTERNAL MARKETING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Nearly every manager who heads a staff function has been challenged at one time or another to cut costs sharply and improve service or face the prospect of surrendering responsibilities to a more competitive outside source (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 18). Current trends toward vertical disintegration and outsourcing have left many managers wondering how best to respond to the requirements and expectations of their organisations (Ewing, 1999: 17). Today, effective managers must recognise that their internal users are in fact their customers and that marketing inside the organisation is an essential part of delivering value to the organisation and ultimately to the end consumer (Harrel & Fors, 1995).

The previous chapter focussed on various elements, controllable and uncontrollable, contributing to the successful implementation of safety in the workplace. A discussion around factors such as culture, attitudes and risk clearly illustrated the involvement of human factors in providing a safe working environment (Abbott, 2003). It may thus be argued that, if the idea of a safe working environment is not effectively marketed to the employee, the human factors involved will be negatively influenced, leading to an unsuccessful implementation of safety in the organisation.

The aim of this chapter is an in-depth discussion around factors that have an influence in the succession of the execution of occupational safety with a core focus on internal marketing.

When thinking of marketing, it is most likely that one will think of concepts such as selling and advertising (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 5). However, if marketing is viewed as a disciplinary synthesis for creating and delivering value to external markets, then it needs the support of the internal market (Ballantyne, 2000: 276). It may thus be argued that employees are the first market, and external customers the second (Keller, 2002: 649). This statement leads to an exhaustive discussion around the employee as internal customer. As the cornerstone of this chapter, this
section deals with various concepts around internal marketing, illustrating that safety will only be implemented successfully, once the internal customer sees it as a need that must be satisfied, something that will add value to the individual’s life.

Although safety is the responsibility of every individual employee, safety may be regarded as an acknowledged responsibility of management (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). Therefore, a detailed discussion around the concepts of management will be undertaken. This will lead to the next step in the study, focussing on the followers, or more specifically, the employees. As previously mentioned, for the employee to perceive occupational safety as valuable, the concept should be marketed to them in a desirable manner. One way of doing this is through training - the logical development of attitude, knowledge and skill patterns necessary for individuals to perform a given task or job adequately (Stranks, 1994a: 103). It may be debated that training is a key component in ensuring that all employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially harmful situations (Wilder & Sorensen, 2001: 13). For this reason, training was included into this chapter, as the employee will not only be aware of safety through effective management guidance, clever internal marketing attempts and successful communication messages, but rather be equipped with knowledge through training as well.

However, no amount of marketing, management or training will ensure occupational success if the employee is not motivated. The better management understands the motives of employees, the higher the chances are of influencing behaviour as to achieve organisational goals (Longenecker et al., 2003: 376). Motivation will be discussed in detail, followed by communication that will tie the chapter together. Effective communication may be regarded as the lifeblood of any organisation (McDougall & Beattie, 1998: 288). If communication is missing, all individuals and the organisation will not be linked together (Guest & Conway, 2002: 22).

From the above, figure 3.1 was put together as a framework for the following chapter.

**Figure 3.1 Framework of Chapter 3**
The chapter will discuss all the components of the figure in detail, starting with internal marketing in the organisation. It is important to note that, although the focus still lies with occupational safety, and should not be seen in isolation from one another, the components will be discussed with a more general perspective. Safe practices can be enhanced by adopting a holistic view on safety matters (Smallman, 1994: 35). For this to succeed a new approach from management is required – an approach where marketing is aimed at the employee as valued customer. Gilbert (2000: 178) acknowledged the essence of marketing as that of embracing an external customer for organisational success. However, to succeed in external marketing it is crucial to succeed in internal marketing (Mudie, 2003: 1261).

The first section of this chapter will focus on how to market safety as concept. The marketing method chosen is internal marketing where the customer is represented by the employee and the market refers to the actual organisation itself.
3.2 INTERNAL MARKETING OF THE SAFETY CONCEPT

“Work is a major part of everyday life. Many enjoy great status; more feel despair and dehumanisation. Throughout its history marketing has sought to foster and enjoy the company of the former. Now internal marketing seeks to embrace the latter” (Mudie, 2003: 1264).

With this perspective as foundation, this part of the chapter will investigate an often unknown part of marketing. The focus will be on the employee as internal customer of the organisation as market. This will be supported by a discussion around the critical elements necessary to ensure successful internal marketing. Safety is the intangible concept that is marketed to the employee and will be incorporated in the explanation of internal marketing.

3.2.1 A Shift to Non-traditional Marketing

When thinking of marketing, it is most likely that one will think of concepts such as selling and advertising. However, times are changing and marketing is more than ever the satisfying of customer needs (Keller, 2002: 49). It may be argued that this is not only applicable for the external environment, but may also focus on the internal environment of an organisation. In this instance Keller (2006) debates that the market is not only the ultimate consumer but also an individual, or a group of individuals, within the organisation. These internal consumers are potentially as important as the external consumers due to their impact on the organisation’s culture (Suter, 1995).

If marketing is viewed as a disciplinary synthesis for creating and delivering value to external markets, then it needs the support of an internal market (Ballantyne, 2000:276). Employees are in essence the first market, and external customers the second (Keller, 2002: 649). If products, services and external communication campaigns cannot be marketed to their internal target group, Strydom (2004) believes that marketing to the external customer cannot be expected to be successful either. Internal marketing is more important than conventional external marketing. Keller (2006) regarded it as the key to excellent service and to successful external marketing. These two views justify the exploration of the
marketing concept, thus, internal marketing within a business organisation (Hwang & Chi, 2005).

3.2.1.1 Internal Marketing – A Goal-orientated Process

Berry and Parasuraman (in Cahill, 1995: 43) define internal marketing as “attracting, developing, motivating and retaining qualified employees through job products that satisfy their needs. Internal marketing is the philosophy of treating employees as customers – indeed, wooing employees... and is the strategy of shaping job-products to fit human needs”. Strydom (2004) defines internal marketing as ‘the application of marketing inside an organisation to instill customer-focused values’. When thinking of internal marketing, it may be associated with an umbrella concept encompassing any and all activities, events and internal public relations, to reinforce the importance of customers and the employees who take care of them (Anon, 2006).

As with any type of strategy, managers all too frequently assume that their strategies can sell themselves to those who support it. Morgan (2004) views this assumption as simply naïve. Why then does it come as such a surprise when the context is altered and instead of a product, a strategy is considered and rather than to view the customer as external, an adjustment is made to envision a customer inside of the organisation (Dodd, 2006)?

A new employee relation or marketing orientation may well require managers to rethink their role, and to recognise the processes by which value is profitably created for internal and external customers (Davis & Nance, 2001: 121). Varey and Lewis (1999) have taken a more radical approach in urging managers to redesign their organisations around the notion of a free organisational market in which operating units freely compete with external suppliers for business within and without the organisation. This approach makes sense in that internal marketing requires the conception of a market in which the required competitive customer-supplier relationships can operate (Greene et al., 1994: 5).

Ballantyne (2003: 1242) suggests that organisational learning may merely be the rebirth of organisational development, in using team learning to encourage change from the bottom of the hierarchy of authority. McDougall & Beattie (1998: 288) argue
that this is needed to build effective teams, but does not recognise the growing need to transform organisations into entrepreneurial, democratic systems, which are able to learn about the current world by unlearning outmoded assumptions based on past experience. The parallel (or collateral) learning structure allows employees to work in a completely different way from that of the formal organisation (Strydom, 2004). It is specifically designed to solve problems, and allows change and innovation to be managed without disrupting the formal structures and mechanisms required for routine and repetitive tasks (Cahill, 1995: 44). Managers and employees are assigned to tasks within a different context. According to Varey and Lewis (1999) this provides workers with a chance to affect the formal organisation, leading to increased work satisfaction and task effectiveness. Bovaird and Rubienska (1996: 51) treat metamorphosis into a learning organisation as a prerequisite for internal marketing; alternatively, it may be seen as an outcome by treating internal marketing as a process for organisation development.

This broadened theory of internal marketing is further elaborated on by Rafiq and Ahmed (2000: 449), viewing it as a goal-oriented social process, and a conceptual system for continually creating rapid strategic organisational change in response to the macro-environment and the microenvironment. Schultz (ND) expressed this as the science of getting the employees to buy into programmes and processes needed to achieve organisational goals and objectives.

With this goal in mind, it no longer makes sense to treat internal marketing as a specialist functional approach. It really represents the convergence of a number of previously separate management technologies, such as human resource development, employee relations, strategic management, quality management, corporate communications and macro-marketing (Ballantyne, 2003: 1243). It is increasingly recognised that managing an organisation effectively requires the close integration of several functional specialists, and that management is a continual and complex process (Dodd, 2006) and cannot be seen as a sequence of discrete steps or a set of discrete functions (Greene et al., 1994: 6). It is proposed that the basic ideas, which have led to the proliferation of writing on internal marketing, are fundamentally sound. However, Strydom (2004) suggests that in order to take into account the real problems of achieving customer orientation, be it through marketing
orientation, or Total Quality Management, or some other managerial approach, there is a need for managers to develop generalist skills and competencies based on the application of sound macro-marketing principles throughout the organisation. Schultz (ND) claims that it is difficult, if not impossible, for senior managers to view internal marketing as anything more than another corporate program that demands corporate resources but provides few corporate returns. The process usually gets pushed to middle management level with all the inherent problems of turf, position, promotion and political situations that inhibit the region (Harris & Ogbonna, 2003: 483). It is therefore necessary to secure the buy-in from the senior management team. If they are not wholly in agreement about the aims, the chances of the exercise succeeding will be limited (Anon, 2003). Furthermore, Broady-Preston & Steel (2002: 384) believe that, if management does not understand the strategic role of internal marketing, money invested will not pay off. A form of internal marketing can provide the mechanism for the major re-orientation needed in so many organisations (Hwang & Chi, 2005). However, the view that internal marketing is solely the domain of marketing or human resource specialists applying a micro-marketing concept and associated tools is too narrow and does not take into account the needs of all internal stakeholders (Cahill, 1995: 45). In this respect, the current interpretations of the internal marketing concept are too product orientated, being based on the traditional marketing concept, rather than being marketing orientated (Varey & Lewis, 1999).

The role of internal marketing in achieving evolutionary or transformational change has been suggested as: “One of the best ways to overcome barriers to plan implementation is to involve many levels and departments in development of the plan” (Broady-Preston & Steel, 2002: 385). One way of doing this is to conduct internal research using professionals in order to develop a sense of the current mission and to gather insights of executives and staff (Nystrom, 1998: 122). Keller (2002: 650) proclaims that all organisation members pursue this in a planned manner, as a means to achieving differentiation of the organisation for the purposes of attaining sustainable competitive advantage. In considering the merits of adopting a strategic marketing management and total quality management approach as a response to change in the business environment (Strydom, 2004), internal marketing may be identified as perhaps having scope to deal with the philosophy and
behaviour necessary for attentive management (Varey, 1999: 40), which is committed to managing and which has a will to manage. Ansari and Modarres (1997: 20) experienced that the relationship between marketing and quality at a strategic level becomes clearer, but the problems encountered in implementation are a recurring theme. Greene et al. (1994: 6) argue that this is often centred on the question of attaining and maintaining effective communicative relationships between organisation members and between work groups and the development of a superordinate goal for co-operative working. The treatment of employees as customers should serve as a mechanism to enhance and develop the level of communication that takes place within the organisation leading to participation at every level of the organisation (Suter, 1995).

A number of current management issues that require strategic treatment can be treated with a broadened concept of internal marketing:

- The retention of skilled people in the organisation, by counteracting declining management standards and providing clear corporate and personal direction (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000:449);
- Relationships with the management team who share the objectives, experience and skills to build, release, and mobilise individual motivation for economic recovery (Ballantyne, 2000: 276);
- The proper understanding and need for quality in competitive service delivery in a changing economic, social, political, and technological environment (Keller, 2002: 650);
- Building a corporate brand which appeals to both customers and organisation members (Schultz, ND);
- Communication management with a clear strategy based on research and evaluation, and personal skills development and responsibility (Varey, 1995: 45); and
- Productivity through participation requiring leadership, processes and commitment from all (Morgan, 2004).

Thus, one of the main measures of a sound marketing strategy is that it must provide a customer offering which is positioned to satisfy the current and potentially future needs of the target market (Greene et al., 1994: 7). In order to meet and surpass
customer expectations, many organisations have developed new strategies emphasising the importance of three competitive priorities: quality, cost and cycle time (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 20). When internal marketing is viewed from a relational perspective the viewpoint of customers and suppliers becomes an important element to keep in mind (Morgan, 2004). In support of this, Broady-Preston and Steel (2002: 386) view internal marketing as a strategy that identifies a product, target customers and capabilities. The products are the jobs organisations offer to employees and are made up of the job specifications, remuneration and employee’s motivation, along with the work environment that influences employees, the target audiences (Strydom, 2004).

3.2.1.2 Internal Marketing – The Rebirth of the Employee

There is no great distinction in terms of marketing techniques between external and internal customers. What changes is the strength and type of the very different forces at work (Willson, 1995: 4). Given that the organisation seeks to successfully implement its own strategy and market this to its customers, then it appears entirely reasonable that it should consider how best to market this strategy to its internal customers (Greene et al., 1994: 7). Traditional marketing functions have been departmentalised, affecting the outcome of the product and service provided and, consequently, the customer perception of the organisation (Keller, 2002: 652). Morgan (2004) claims that as with traditional external marketing, an internal exchange of products and services takes place which means that marketing concepts, tools, techniques and methods become relevant to this same circumstance – internal marketing (Keller, 2006). Internal marketing was originally proposed as an approach which entailed the application of the traditional marketing concept and the associating marketing mix inwards (Schultz, ND), within an internal market, in which employees are treated as customers (Dodd, 2006) of the organisation in order to improve corporate effectiveness by improving internal market relationships (Varey, 1995: 46). In support of this statement, the employee may be regarded as a valued customer, emphasising the focus of the new discipline on internal marketing (Greene et al., 1994: 7). The same marketing tools used to attract customers can also serve to attract and retain the best employees (Morgan, 2004), who can be thought of as internal customers (Ahmed & Rafiq, 1995: 32).
The question may thus be asked how an employee can be a customer.

Strydom (2004) indicated that the intention of internal marketing is that employees as customers become more committed, cooperative and enthusiastic. Through changes in behaviour and attitude together with internal practices and procedures employees as customers will experience greater motivation and happiness (Anon, 2003). The customer has been the focal point of marketing, the very reason for its existence (Mudie, 2003: 1265). “Internal marketing is the management philosophy of treating employees as customers” (Broady-Preston & Steel, 2002: 395). The employee’s rank within the organisation notwithstanding, it is critical that top management is successful in making everyone in the organisation a customer in relation to others either inside or outside the organisation (Suter, 1995). In support of this, Varey and Lewis (1999) state that the most recent discussion in literature has shifted markedly to a managerial perspective. Thus, the focus is on how to perform internal marketing, rather than what it is and the core of its philosophical basis. Findings from Hwang and Chi (2005) showed considerable evidence of the need for a thorough reconsideration of the depth and breadth of the conceptual basis of internal marketing.

The adoption of a broadened concept of internal marketing, as a development of a model, has a number of implications for the management of an organisation. Internal marketing is dependent on supportive management styles, customer service training and marketing planning procedures (Strydom, 2004). Furthermore any internal marketing programme should adopt a holistic approach between human resources management and marketing and Ballantyne (1997) points out that internal marketing develops and influences customer consciousness among employees.

For this to be successful, communication will be seen as the mode of the organisation (Ball, 2003), rather than the means (Greene et al., 1994: 10). The achievement of goals will be seen as occurring within relationships rather than in discrete transactions of discrete individuals or groups (Schultz, ND). This interactional perspective will balance economic (monetary) and non-economic values through a co-operative management system. Above all, there will be a removal of the submissive, subordinate working relationship, at least at the local level (Davis & Nance, 2001: 123). Collaboration will mean the self-regulation of relationships and
obligations at work. Varey and Lewis (1999) state that people will no longer be required to work under the duress of directing, order-bestowing force and, because the system is ambition-driven, their work will be a free act of obedience to their own purposes, which will be widely understood and balanced with the collective purposes. Through internal marketing, employees are thus engaged for marketing and organisational success (Anon, 2006). The needs and wants of the individual can thus be met as the means in achieving the organisation’s success in conducting the business of the organisation (Varey & Lewis, 1999).

3.2.1.2.1 Need Satisfaction
Just like external customers, internal customers desire to have their needs satisfied (Ahmed & Rafiq, 1995: 33). Varey and Lewis (1999) state that the logic of this is that by satisfying the needs of internal customers, an organisation should be in a better position to deliver the quality desired to satisfy external customers. Implicit in this is the assumption that fulfilling employee needs enhances employee motivation and retention (Davis & Nance, 2001: 122), and as a consequence the higher the degree of employee satisfaction, the higher the possibility of generating external satisfaction and loyalty (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003). In order to satisfy the needs of the internal customer, Keller (2002: 652) believes that the organisation needs to identify similar marketing elements to the manner by which organisations seek to understand and satisfy the external customer. “To have satisfied customers, the firm must also have satisfied employees” (Rafiq & Ahmed, 2000). However, Dodd (2006) argues that the gap between customer needs and employee performance rewards indicate that the satisfaction of one must come at the cost of the satisfaction of the other. Therefore, internal marketing may be regarded as an interaction process between the organisation and its employees within a given organisational context (Suter, 1995). Internal marketing works at the level of creating precisely the right type of atmosphere and environment (Lavack, Magnuson, Deshpande, Basil, Basil & Mintz, 2007) in which employees are encouraged to create, co-ordinate and improve the whole organisation. This means that internal marketing works towards actions, interactions and adaptations that enhance customer satisfaction (Broady-Preston & Steel, 2002: 387). Creating an environment in which quality enhancing behaviours become a reflective part of employee action, engenders this (Ewing, 1999: 19).
Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) claim that this environment and the accompanying quality enhancing behaviours by employees are formulated as a fundamental source of competitive advantage. According to Varey (1995: 48) this implies the need to understand and manage all these internal relationships, functions and interactions in an effective and profitable manner so as to gain long-term competitive advantages. ‘Management should create, continuously encourage and enhance an understanding of, and an appreciation for the roles of the employees in the organisation (Keller, 2002: 653). However, at a higher level it is suggestive of the fact that employee perceptions of corporate programmes are affected by their perceptions of other elements of the corporate package (Schultz, ND). Employee motivation to do as the organisation bids is driven by what they are being offered, not just from the programmes they are being asked to implement, but also their perception of the whole organisation (Greene et al., 1994: 8). This higher-level interpretation indicates the need for organisations to establish a high contract partnership with employees along multiple dimensions.

3.2.1.2.2 Environment of Trust
Dunn and Giladi (1997) suggest that internal marketing works by establishing, developing and maintaining successful reciprocal exchange relationships within the organisation through:

- Understanding and intimacy;
- Trust; and
- Commitment.

Internal marketing cannot work without the presence of these key ingredients. To attempt internal marketing without these would be disastrous, ultimately leading to employee cynicism and disillusionment (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003). Furthermore, a necessary condition, from an employee's advantage is psychological safety. Chang and Lee (2001) define psychological safety as a state in which people feel safe to be candid in what they think and how they feel. Behaving in new ways and doing things differently can involve some degree of fear. Ballantyne (2003: 1247) claims that people act transparently and with integrity when they are psychologically safe from threat. According to Chaston (1994: 118) this implies that internal marketing processes must be conditioned in trust: trust in leadership, trust in the processes and system, and specifically, trust in the way that the organisation functions. In support
of this, Edmondson (2002) suggests that getting people to share their knowledge requires new processes but more importantly, it requires setting a new covenant between employer and employees. Because the program has buy-in from top managers, employees use the phrases without sarcasm and feel free to speak their minds. Obtaining the buy-in of such leaders, coupled with that of senior management, is crucial to the success of internal marketing programs. (Schultz, ND). In short, it involves treating the employees as partners in the organisation (Suter, 1995). Trust is a key ingredient for the achievement of effectiveness in interpersonal and marketing exchanges (Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000: 435). However, across a wide spectrum of studies there is a general understanding that trust is generally influenced by past experiences and chances of future interactions and the underlying conditions for trust are interdependence, risk and uncertainty (Andersen, 2005: 392).

To understand trust within organisations it is necessary to conceive organisations as dynamic, adapting and internally differentiated social systems (Burns et al., 2006: 1139). This requires a big shift from the current reality of organisational practice. A pertinent question here is to probe how many organisations have made this shift and how, as well as how well they have managed this change (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003).

Dodd (2006) proclaims that internal marketing is built on trust. When people trust that the organisation will do what it says, then it encourages behaviours within the organisation that allow for quality to be embedded through the entire supply-chain process (Mudie, 2003: 1263). To build trust and commitment an organisation must intimately know and understand its people and itself (Ballantyne, 2003: 1250). Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) claim that by systematically aligning interactions through explicit considerations to a full set of stakeholder needs, internal marketing helps in the development and growth of trust and commitment among parties. “Viewing employees as internal customers, viewing jobs as internal products, and then endeavouring to offer internal products that satisfy the needs and wants of these internal customers while addressing the objectives of the organisation” (Broady-Preston & Steel, 2002: 294). By satisfying the needs of the employees, internal marketing provides a clear signal to the internal market that the organisation values its employees (Cahill, 1995: 47). This begins the circle of reciprocity, when the organisation can demonstrate that it is committed to its employees (Keller, 2002: 35).
only then is it likely that its employees respond in kind and become committed to its success (Morgan, 2004).

3.2.1.2.3 Internal Marketing as Cross-functional Activity

Internal marketing is based on the understanding that no single management function is effective if it operates in isolation (Davis & Nance, 2001: 123). Multiple operations and people with different skill-sets have to be actively involved in creating and delivering products and services (Greene et al., 1994: 10). These cross-functional activities and the people who perform them all have a major influence upon the final outcome. Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) argue that the implication of the above mentioned is that managers must ensure that every employee in all parts of the organisation is involved in the delivery of quality throughout the customer-supplier chain.

Following on from the point above, Cahill (1995: 48) argues that twenty-first century organisations can no longer afford to maintain barriers between functions and departments. Treating frontline employees with respect and support similar to that given to external customers will lead to quality interactions between inter-functional departments. A positive relationship between a manager’s support of his / her employees and the manner by which the employees treat departments receiving their work output will evolve (Schultz, ND). If the focus of internal marketing is on the development of relationships between employees across internal organisational boundaries with the objective of adding value to external customers, Strydom (2004) claims that employees’ autonomy and know how should be combined to start an internal knowledge generating process which supports any internal activities that need to be changed. “Internal marketing is concerned with aligning, educating and motivating staff towards institutional objectives... the process by which personnel understand and recognise not only the value of the program but their place in it” (Varey, 1995: 50). This underpins the internal customer-supply chain, which is replayed in organisational interaction by every single employee, from top management to middle managers, all the way down to shop-floor workers (Greene et al., 1994: 10). Organisationally, this hierarchy results in a network of relationships within which different collaborations evolve as a consequence of a multiplicity of interaction episodes (Varey, 1995: 50). “In order to promote higher levels of trust
within the organisation it is important that employees experience positive outcomes as a result of their interactions with other employees and the organization” (Dodd, 2006). Each of these relationships and interactions can be managed, where appropriate, with a formal internal marketing strategy and internal marketing plan (Schultz, ND).

Ballantyne (2000: 277) feels that it is important that everyone in the organisation can see the linkage between what each individual does and the impact on the next customer. Therefore, creating and aligning internal relationships between departments, functions and employees inside the organisation is necessary to improve the performance of the organisation and its employees (Collier, 1991: 406). Internal marketing examines and manages the total set of relationships and interactions that bring about additional value-added elements (Greene et al., 1994: 10). Organisations must gain an understanding of how to develop and manage these internal relationships with individuals and groups of individuals (Broady-Preston & Steel, 2002: 294b). This extends not only to employees, but also to others who fall within the boundary of internal markets, such as suppliers and distributors. Davis and Nance (2001) declare that it is the management of these organisational sets of relationships that allow the delivery to what marketing has promised externally. In addition, Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) claim that overall job satisfaction is affected by an employee’s relationships with managers and co-workers. And the quality of these relationships trickles down to the bottom line where strong external relationships cannot be built without strong internal relationships (Anon, 2005).

It may thus be argued that management must first work to develop solid relationship within the organisation before external relationship marketing may fully be achieved (Keller, 2002: 655). Nurturing, objective listening, and quiet understanding set the stage for employees to feel equally willing to provide the same protection and empathy to fellow employees (Dunn & Giladi, 1997).

From the literature examined, it is clear that internal marketing is still a relatively new concept and may even be regarded as controversial. Before this concept is explored further, it is necessary to address a range of criticisms, which demonstrate limitations to the internal marketing theory, supported by the cost of internal marketing. This
will ensure that the rest of the section will be viewed with a greater level of objectivity.

3.2.1.3 Limitations of Internal Marketing

The adoption of the marketing concept for the new context of the internal markets of the organisation has been effected based on a number of assumptions that require challenging (Henning-Thurau & Hansen, 2000). Authors seem to have adopted the 4Ps “marketing mix” perspective. However, Sheth, Gardner and Garrett (1988) showed that the marketing mix perspective is but one of a number of schools of marketing theory. In recognition of a diversity of meaning and usage, Hales (1994) holds that internal marketing to date has had an ambiguous conceptual status. From this analysis, a number of limitations are identified which can be used more generally to reconsider the application of internal marketing:

- Internal marketing as a metaphor: Organisation jobs and employment conditions are “products” to be marketed and the manager is to think like a marketer when dealing with people (Strydom, 2004). But it is the employer who is both buyer and consumer in the employment relationship, rather than the employee (Ward & Lewandowska, 2005).

- Internal marketing as a philosophy: Managers hold a conviction that human resource management requires “marketing-like” activities, but this does not address the divergent employee needs and interests and organisation objectives (Ahmed & Rafiq, 1995: 35). This is especially the case if the “marketing” activities are actually promotional advertising and selling of management requirements.

- Internal marketing as an approach: There is an explicit symbolic dimension to human resource management practices – employee involvement and participation are indirect control – employment terms and conditions carry implicit messages about how employees are regarded in the organisation. A participative management style is required. Internal marketing shares a key contradiction with normative human resource management, between the desire for commitment and the desire for flexibility. Individualism contradicts teamwork, a service culture as defined by the management group that is at odds with employee flexibility and responsibility (Hales, 1994).
Internal marketing as a set of techniques: Human resource management adopts market research, segmentation, promotional communications and advertising in order to inform and persuade employees. But internal marketing as the manipulation of the 4P’s activities imposes a particular, unitary point of view – that of the prevailing power elite (Rafiq & Ahmed, 1993) and the single common purpose of the organisation. Therefore, it is employees who must change their needs or must understand the position of the employer as they respond to the market.

Whilst the above observations are extremely useful in reconsidering the nature and purpose of internal marketing, it is possible to discern a narrow thinking in this criticism.

Thus, internal marketing is identified when marketing organisations are conceived as dynamic, adapting, internally differentiated social systems. To conclude, the following elements were identified:

- Internal marketing motivates people, discounting the possibility that people may be self-motivated and internal marketing provides the environment in which their motivations are valued (Grugulis & Bevitt, 2002: 44);
- Internal marketing is aimed at the attraction, retention and motivation of service-orientated, customer-conscious, employees to aid the perceived service quality and effective external marketing of the organisation as a way of competitive advantage (Hales, 1994);
- Marketing management’s perspective is reactive, leading to a separation of external and internal markets (Boyer, 1990); and
- To achieve successful integrative management, open channels of communications are required (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 340).

The ability to justify decisions financially for the internal service is crucial to getting favourable buying decisions. This requires an understanding of how such justifications are developed by the organisation’s financial human resources and enlisting their support to prepare the necessary analysis.
3.2.1.4 The Cost of Internal Marketing

In the case of many internal services, it is only after preference is determined for a particular solution that managers actively seek financial justification (Glassman, 1997: 110). That is, the financial impact is not in itself a decisive criterion, but it is essential to acquire funds to carry out the decision. Many managers are uncertain of how to build effective justifications to satisfy the requirements of financial personnel, yet they recognise that these justifications are necessary to get funding (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003). In some instances, managers may take funds from other areas or miscellaneous accounts to enact a solution before receiving the actual approvals and allocations.

Health and safety professionals and those in other internal service functions can fulfil important marketing roles with regard to financial justifications. Glassman (1997: 110) claims that there is a clear need to assist management in developing justifications that are consistent with accepted corporate approaches to obtaining funding. At the same time, staff should recognise that stressing cost or benefits early in the problem-solving process might not always be an influential catalyst for management investment in staff functions. Such decisions often tend to be based on no financial criteria. In essence, managers determine what the right thing is to do and then build a financial case to support doing it. Thus, internal marketers must be aware of the stage in the decision process at which managers seek to justify investments financially. Furthermore, they must be able to work closely with financial managers to build a convincing case linking the investment to operational performance (Harrel & Fors, 1995).

From the above discussion, it became clear that marketing is not just applicable when focussing on external markets. Organisations may capitalise on the concept of internal marketing where the employee is regarded as the internal customer in an organisation. For a more objective viewpoint, the concept of internal marketing was supported by a discussion around the limitations and costs of internal marketing. To elaborate on the theory of internal marketing, the next section will address the elements necessary to contribute to the successful implementation of internal marketing.
3.2.3 Critical Elements for the Success of Internal Marketing

With the above theory of internal marketing and the importance of employee satisfaction, it is now necessary to discuss elements that will contribute to this need satisfaction.

3.2.3.1 Culture & Behaviour

Internal marketing is more than a strategy; it represents efforts to change the values and beliefs of an organisation by promoting the organisation and its products and services to employees (Suter, 1995). Internal marketing as a philosophy should be seen as a customer-orientated culture in which all employees understand the strategic intent and are motivated to participate in its implementation. Strydom (2004) argues that the integration of front and backstage activities depends on a shared understanding of the organisation’s objectives and the desired outcomes thereof. Best practice organisations truly believe that all employees are representatives of the organisation, its brand and vision. This belief is reflected in their corporate culture and philosophy. Internal marketing is crucial in conveying corporate philosophy and creating a uniform culture across the organisation (Schultz, ND).

When an organisation wants to implement a new strategy or change programme, it needs to align employees’ attitudes and behaviours to correspond with the vision (Redmond, 2006). To correctly motivate the workforce, this leads to a prerequisite for any organisation wishing to gain a competitive advantage through enhanced service levels, which, in turns, strengthens customer loyalty (Anon, 2003).

Internal marketing is seen as a concept concerned with creating, developing and maintaining an internal service culture that in return assists and supports the organisation’s goal and objectives (Suter, 1995). Organisations realise that cultural changes do not happen overnight and that they are difficult to implement. However, Strydom (2004) proposes that organisations also realise that change is imperative for the successful development of a new and more customer-conscious organisational culture. According to Kotler, organisations suffer from a built-in resistance to change. The greater the change, the more difficult it is to implement,
therefore Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 162) argue that the successful implementation of new plans and ideas depend on the active involvement of managers.

Through its focus on the employee, internal marketing helps the process of identifying current behaviours and probes why they are occurring. Ahmed, Rafiq and Saad (2003: 1225) experienced that, once specific employee behaviour patterns have been established, it is then possible to create specific internal marketing programmes to induce behaviours for enhanced implementation of change. Authors such as Salaheldin and Zain (2007) argue that internal marketing builds an understanding of the organisational environment, organisational hierarchy, organisational politics and structures. Through this understanding, internal marketing aspires to play an important role in the nurturance of the right environment for implementation (Dodd, 2007). Internal marketing's understanding must be shaped by descriptive anthropology of how individuals and their environment receive shape and meaning in their continuous mutual interactions (Lavack et al., 2007). This implies that internal marketing must examine the irrevocable relationship of employees to themselves, to other people, to the organisation and the world they live in (Collier, 1991: 406). Organisations which acknowledge their employees as internal customers, who should be treated with respect, can confidently use the organisation's internal culture, personality, skills and values to improve relationships with external customers (Plakoyiannaki, Tzokas, Dimitratos & Saren, 2007: 1).

Internal marketing places employees at centre stage in the equation of organisational success (Strydom, 2004). Because internal marketing links the employee to strategy, it takes implementation to the very core of its enabling agency - the employee (Keller, 2006). This direct link helps to cut through the layers that often act as multipliers of confusion, conflict, frustration and eventually inaction. Schultz (ND) claims that internal marketing links specific strategy programmes to developing competencies, which are in turn linked to each individual's intelligence, creativity, responsibility and experience. By so doing, Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) believe that internal marketing not only manages the individual, but also the collective that makes up the organisation. Internal marketing thus influences the formation of a corporate identity and collective mind. These influences set in place
foundations for an integrated organisation. Farzad (2006) argues that this means more than just putting together individual qualities and capabilities, however important each individual and personal contribution may be. Internal marketing works by bringing the individual into the collective (Dodd, 2006). It is in this combination that individual creativity is transposed to organisational effort and success.

3.2.3.2 Internal Communication

Davis and Nance (2001: 126) perceive communication as an indispensable activity in the functioning of all processes, but it is critical in highly cross-functional ones. Undoubtedly, one of the most common internal marketing applications is in the crafting of internal communication strategies (Greene et al., 1994: 11). When this is done in parallel with external marketing communications, advertised promises stand better chances of being fulfilled to the required level of performance because employees are better prepared to perform them (Swan & Allred, 2003: 485). In this respect, internal marketing should be seen as a communication process of developing a customer-conscious culture within the organisation (Guest & Conway, 2002: 22).

Ideally, internal marketing should be a two way communication process between employees and management used to initiate a broad based participation decision-making process through teamwork within the organisation (Anon, 2003). “The treatment of employees as customers should serve as a mechanism to enhance and develop the level of communication that takes place within the organisation leading to participation at every level of the organisation” (Suter, 1995). Strydom (2004) defined employees’ communication as a process that should ultimately influence the knowledge, attitude and behaviour of all targeted employees to improve work performances and achieve organisational objectives. Thus, the essence of internal marketing lies in the utilisation of activities that improve internal communication and enhance customer consciousness among employees to impact on external marketing performances. (Lavack et al., 2007).

In this respect, internal marketing, by creating messages and appealing to the emotions, can provide organisations with a rich source of advantage (McDougall & Beattie, 1998: 288). Moreover, since employee behaviour is socially constructed,
idiosyncratic and largely holistic, it calls for a richer analysis of the employee experience (Hoyos, 1995: 233). According to Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) this requires an immersion in the consumption experience of the employees. It is important to note that internal marketing itself needs to resort to ethnographic probes of the organisational milieu, otherwise it ends up constructing superficial messages based on superficial insight, resulting in a minimal impact (Lavack et al., 2007). Internal marketing forces organisations to be more empathic in the design of their communications to employees. If organisations do not appreciate the existence of different employee segments and their different needs they will continue to produce messages that hold little meaning for the targeted segments (Davis & Nance, 2001: 126). Broad and diffuse messages create distance between the employee and the organisation and in worst scenarios confusion in action (Ahmed & Rafiq, 2003). Thus, Swan and Allred (2003: 485) acknowledge that internal marketing should be recognised as a means of eliminating unnecessary levels in the organisation, a tool to improve communication between management, employees and business units. Due to the important role that communication plays in ensuring successful internal marketing, a separate section (section 3.6) is devoted to communication.

3.2.3.3 Employee Motivation

If organisations want a workforce that is both creative and committed they must think about and set about nurturing the types of relationships that make their business environments conducive ones (Dunn & Giladi, 1997). Grugulis and Bevitt (2002: 44) state that thus far, if all organisations have focussed on building relationships with employees, they have done so at a superficial level, often deploying crude rational inducements. Needs of employees are both rational and emotional. Lavack et al. (2007) argue that internal marketing must scrutinise the rational and emotional content to build pictures of the reality of the corporate environment. It should question the status quo and look at ways organisations can re-engage and motivate employees (Salaheldin & Zain, 2007).

Proponents of internal marketing also indicate that satisfied internal customers achieve higher performance. Keller (2006) argues that employees who identify with organisational values, and enjoy working for the organisation, should be motivated to perform in sufficient ways. In effect, this means that the organisation would treat
their employees as they would their customers, synchronising the internal and external brands in the process (Anon, 2003). Only in this way would the organisation be able to create offerings to meet the needs of employees fully. Internal marketing must be proposed as an emotionally intelligent philosophy (Strydom, 2004), one based on the understanding that it is through the application of subjective emotions and empathic awareness that employees are able to make judgements that may or may not end-up in the realisation of the long-term corporate interests. Farzad (2006) claims that the challenge of internal marketing is to force a rounded understanding of the organisational readiness for a particular new initiative by examining the full set of needs of the organisation in direct relation to the full set of needs and aspirations of the employee. Only when there is balance in both these demands do conditions become conducive towards motivated strategy implementation and therefore long-term prosperity (Hso & Chong, 2007: 279). Although incentives do not work in every case, they are important. Schultz (ND) believes that, ideally, at some point it should be possible to develop some type of employee-benefit-sharing program to reward the employees for their changed behaviours. It may thus be argued that the internal marketing programme needs to provides reciprocal value for all parties involved (Hales, 1994: 50). As with communication, motivation needs further exploration and will be discussed in more depth in section 3.5.

3.2.3.4 Competences

Internal marketing examines what needs to be done, and by whom. Furthermore, Harris and Ogbonna (2003: 483) proclaim that internal marketing can be used to identify the type of role that innovation agents need to play to execute strategies. These roles are contingent to organisational circumstance and situation. Which role is appropriate for whom, is dependent upon the individual's orientation towards the desired end-goal at that specific moment in time (Anon, 2006). According to Capaldo, Volpe and Zollo (1996: 231) this highlights the link between strategic implementation to the specific skills and capabilities of the individual. By implication, this necessitates first knowing the skills and capabilities of each employee before they can be usefully deployed (Strydom, 2004). Within internal marketing this assessment is made more visible (Greene et al., 1994: 11), because internal marketing looks at a deployment of individual competence from an opportunity-cost
point of view, which is taken from the organisational viewpoint as well as from the employee's perspective (Bogner, Thomas & McGee, 1999: 275).

To create outcomes from competencies, an organisation must target its competences in specific directions (Pavitt, 1991: 41). The problem is that most organisations hardly understand their real core competences (Ahmed et al., 2003: 1229). Many are aware of the concept but few are really able to pinpoint their core competences let alone deploy them (Grzed, 2005: 530). Even worse, fewer still know the source of their competence basin. Abraham, Karns, Shaw & Mena (2001) argue that internal marketing's role is to create an assessment of core competences, and plan for their nurturance and deployment. Internal marketing, by linking current competences to planned strategies, assesses the gap in competencies to realise the plans (Strydom, 2004). This creates a strategic dialogue which forces strategic competence planning, not just strategy planning (Farzad, 2006). Unfortunately, most organisations stop once they have made strategy plans. Nystrom (1998: 122) argues that organisations hardly ever successfully make the transition from strategy plans to strategic competences planning, which is at the heart of making actions occur and strategic plans to become realities.

From the above, it became clear that internal marketing should not be treated as a concept in isolation. Without a customer-orientated culture supported by a positive employee attitude, proper communication and the correct level of competence, internal marketing will not be effectively implemented in an organisation. To conclude the discussion around internal marketing, the next section will focus on how safety can be marketed internally.

3.2.4 Marketing of Health and Safety to Internal Customers

Like other internal staff functions, industrial health and safety decisions range from relatively inexpensive, routine purchases to major corporate investments where the solutions are complex and the outcomes uncertain (Pybus, 1996: 2). In this setting, the proper role of marketing is not simply one of promotion or demand generation. Cahill (1995: 49) argues that it requires an understanding of the expectations of managers as internal customers.
When compared with decisions about quality and cost reduction, it may be argued that health and safety provide interesting contrasts that highlight the impact of internal marketing on management decisions (ILO-OSH, 2001). Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 100) proclaim that health and safety decisions are among the most important, expensive and complex decisions that organisations make. However, Harrel and Fors (1995: 24) claim that these decisions command much less management attention than do areas such as cost and quality, and are thereby representative of many staff areas such as planning, employee education, research and others. These functions can benefit from internal marketing to advance their contribution to the organisation’s objectives and encourage the implementation of programmes (Greene et al., 1994: 7).

As expected, not all managers view this topic in the same light, although many similarities are evident. Yet, Stranks (1994b: 3) proposes that a vast majority believe their jobs would be much easier if health and safety personnel understood issues from a managerial perspective, and if they would work towards meeting their expectations with a more customer-oriented approach. Harrel and Fors (1995: 25) state that managers of staff functions first need to understand where their staff services stand relative to other decisions that command the organisation’s attention. They can then take steps to position the internal staff service appropriately with regard to management’s current priorities (Nwanko & Richardson, 1996: 46). Hence, while managers say that health and safety are highly important, they spend little time reflecting on these types of decisions. It seems paradoxical that health and safety rank high in importance when managers are asked about it directly, yet have low salience when all major decisions are considered (Behm et al., 2004: 23).

It follows that internal marketing should actively seek to establish tangible objectives and promote systematic tools and techniques to demonstrate the applications of their service in the working environment (Ward & Lewandowska, 2005). To accomplish this, acceptable expectations or performance standards should be understood. Health and safety personnel need to help managers identify and define relevant goals (Carter, 2004: 4) – one of the overriding topics in the marketing management perspective. This should include the development of internal audits to assess organisational performance critically with regard to the internal service and
determine where performance gaps occur (Wood, Glew & Street, ND). Marketers of internal services can use this self-assessment to consult with in-house customers and so target support services more effectively (Harrel & Fors, 1995: 25).

The common expectation is that health and safety personnel do not typically have the rigorous training that is fundamental to other line disciplines such as finance, engineering, or quality control (ILO-OSH, 2001). A related belief is that some union people are appointed to health and safety positions, not because of their technical competences, but because of their status in the organisation or for political reasons.

Proactive approaches require specific programmes and expertise that go beyond simply stimulating general awareness of health and safety’s importance. Yet, according to Harrel and Fors (1995: 26), managers indicate that this “halo of awareness” often characterises the thrust of health and safety promotion.

From the literature above, it is clear that organisations need to realise the important shift that must take place where the focus is on the employee as internal customer. However, for this to be successful, various factors must be taken into consideration. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to the most crucial factors supporting internal marketing, starting with an in-depth discussion around management.

### 3.3 MANAGEMENT

“Although every individual has a responsibility for their own safety as well as that of others whom their actions may affect, safety is an acknowledged management responsibility” (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162).

Where work is accomplished through the organisation of individuals, their safety becomes the obligation of management – in particular, the line of authority (Clarke, 2006: 415). The key to safety achievement is by holding the line accountable for the implementation of safety. “Indeed, responsibility and accountability are the brick and mortar of organised means of accomplishing work through others” (Grimaldi & Simonds, 1989: 162). Therefore, safety can only be achieved if top management realises their part in the process (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 5), if they consider it as important and commit themselves to lead an example of safe practice (Wiegmann et al., 2001: 12). Even if this seems obvious, there are still managers, however, who
seem prone to abandon their powers in favour of managerial aids (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 390). This can be seen particularly in the case of safety where management often relies exclusively on regulations, safety training and education, and the efforts of safety subordinates to carry the attack against injuries and damage (Smallman, 1994: 33). If a high level of safety is to be achieved, it must be regarded as a priority one objective and needs to win a share of managerial attention alongside such common stellar attractions as cost reduction, marketing, and productivity (Clarke & Ward, 2006: 1175).

Against this background it is evident that the implementation of safety in the workplace will only be successful if it is fully understood and supported by management. Management must not only lead by example, but also need to commit themselves to safe practices. Therefore an in-depth discussion around all the elements of successful management is necessary. Main areas of focus will include the definition of management, the difference between management and leadership, and safety management supported by issues such as the influence of personality and different leadership styles.

3.3.1 Management as Concept

Hellriegel et al. (2001: 7) describes a manager as a person who plans, organises, directs and controls the allocation of humans, material, financial, and information resources in pursuit of the organisation’s goals.

The success of the organisation therefore, depends greatly on the quality of management (Cronje et al., 2000: 102):

- Management will ensure that an organisation’s goals and objectives are met (Agashae & Bratton, 2001: 95). Without the input of management, the organisation will not be able to identify the correct direction to take (Rausch, 2003: 979);
- Management is necessary for a balanced micro-environment (Nissim, 2007). Factors contributing to this environment include human resources, financial resources, physical resources and information;
- Furthermore, management need to create a balanced macro environment (MI, 2002); and
Management will not only achieve objectives through a balanced micro and macro environment, but also through keeping productivity in mind (Nwankwo & Richardson, 1996: 46).

Effective leadership requires the ability to think analytically without getting bogged down in the details, making timely decisions without reacting impulsively, building consensus without compromising results and getting people to want to do what is requested from them (Wolfe, 2003). These abilities may be described as competencies - sets of knowledge, skills, behaviours, and attitudes that a person needs to be effective in a wide range of managerial jobs and various types of organisations (Abraham et al., 2001: 843).

Figure 3.2 indicates six competencies that are essential to managerial effectiveness.

**Figure 3.2 A Model of Managerial Competencies**

Source: Adapted from Hellriegel et al. (2001: 6)

These competencies are the result of behavioural research to identify superior performance in dynamic environments (Cockerill & Hunt, 2007). Knowing where one competency begins and another ends is difficult. One would seldom rely on only one at a time, so drawing sharp distinctions between them is valuable only for purposes of
identification and description (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 16). The competencies are briefly discussed next:

- **Communication Competency:** Refers to the effective transfer and exchange of information that leads to understanding between management and employees (Cronje et al., 2000: 110). Because managing involves getting work done through other people, communication competency is essential to effective managerial performance (Rausch, 2003: 979).

- **Planning and Administration Competency:** Involves deciding what tasks need to be done (Sims, 1997), determining how they can be done, allocating resources to enable them to be done, and then monitoring progress to ensure that they are done (Crawford, 2005: 14).

- **Teamwork Competency:** Accomplishing tasks through small groups of people (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater & Sprangler, 2004: 177) who are collectively responsible and whose work is interdependent requires teamwork competency (Svensson & Wood, 2005: 1001).

- **Strategic Action Competency:** Understanding the overall mission and values of the organisation (ITU, ND) and ensuring that the managerial actions and those of the people being managed are aligned with them involves strategic action competency (Cronje et al., 2000: 110).

- **Global Awareness Competency:** Carrying out an organisation’s managerial work by drawing on the human, financial, information and material resources from multiple countries and serving markets that span multiple cultures requires global awareness competency (Agashae & Bratton, 2001: 89).

- **Self Management Competency:** Taking responsibility for one’s life at work and beyond involves self management competency (Pearce, Sims, Cox, Ball, Schnell, Smith and Trevino, 2003: 277). Often, when things do not go well, people tend to blame their difficulties on the situations in which they find themselves or on others. According to Clarke and Wood (2006: 1175), effective managers do not fall into this trap.

The process of obtaining and organising resources and achieving goals through other people, that is, managing, is dynamic rather than static (Boxall & Gilbert, 2007: 95). People change, conditions change, technology change and rules change
Managerial thought changes too. Managing an organisation is not an easy task (Svennson & Wood, 2005: 1001).

“A widely held view amongst managers and management researchers alike is that management has a major impact on organisational effectiveness. Leadership is however the cause of effectiveness in organisations” (Svensson & Wood, 2005: 1001). It appears that through most of the century the concepts of management and leadership was used virtually interchangeably (Kent, Crotts & Azziz, 2001: 221).

It is therefore essential to explore leadership and identify how the concepts of leadership and management relate with one another.

3.3.2 Management versus Leadership

“It would not have been possible for Harry Oppenheimer to have built Anglo American into the world giant it is today had he not wisely surrounded himself with young executives with that special quality of leadership. Nor could Donald Gordon have built Liberty Life or Anton Rupert the great Rembrandt group without employing and empowering other leaders” (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 284).

Before the concept of leadership can be understood, it is important to determine the relationship between leadership and management. Leadership may be viewed by some as a subset of managerial activities, others see leadership and management as overlapping roles, yet others describe them as different processes (Jooste, 2004: 217).

More recently, though, clarity has evolved and authors have converged on the notion that management has to do with allocating and insuring the effective use of resources in the accomplishment of organisational goals (Young & Dulewicz, 2008: 17). Leadership on the other hand, is more related to the marshalling, energising and unifying of people towards the pursuit of a vision (Kent et al., 2001: 221). With new organisational paradigms including decentralisation of decisionmaking authorities to lower organisational levels, the development of leaders across all hierarchical levels has become a desideratum aimed at enhancing organisational success (Oshagbemi & Gill, 2004: 93). Crawford (2005: 6) supports this view by
stating that leadership must exist at all levels in an organisation, regardless of the size, for it to be considered a learning organisation. There is no excuse for leaders not to create an environment where everyone can participate in this process (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007: 46).

Keeping the above in mind, Cronje et al. (2000: 154) describes a manager as the one with power given by the organisation to orden and guide the activities of others. A leader, on the other hand, obtain achievements without force. This relationship may be explained through the aid of figure 3.3.

**Figure 3.3 Integration of Leadership and Management**

Successful leadership depends on the leader establishing trust, clarifying the direction in which people should be headed (Krishnan, 2004: 60), communicating so that people feel confident that they can make the right decisions, encouraging others to take risks and finally, have a source of power (Hellriegel, 2001: 284).

For the purpose of this study, all future references will be made to leaders. As Kotler states: "leaders and managers are not necessarily different persons, but rather
different roles” (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2007: 46). Because of the newness to the safety concept success will not be achieved if the employees are forced to accept safe practices. Rather, the manager must lead by example, illustrating that safe behaviour will result in a mutual beneficial situation. For this to happen, the personality of the leader will play a crucial part in motivating employees to take part in this shift of safety behaviour.

3.3.3 The Personality of a Leader

“Effective leadership requires being yourself, with skill” (Dulevicz & Higgs, 2005:105).

The personality of a leader greatly influences the exercise of leadership. Svensson and Wood (2005: 1001) proclaim that the leader’s personality must be harmonious with the exercise of the areas of effectiveness.

Higgs (Mller, 2005) created a model that allow for the exercise of leadership in different ways. The elements in this model comprise of:

1. Competence areas:
   - Envision: the ability to envisage a clear picture of the future. Wallace (1999) felt that this will inform the way in which people direct their efforts and utilise their skills.
   - Engage: finding the appropriate way for each individual to understand the vision and, hence, the way in which they can contribute (Dionne et al., 2004: 180).
   - Enable: acting on a belief in the talent and potential of individuals, and creating the environment in which these can be released (Pounder, 2003: 6).
   - Inquire: being open to real dialogue with those involved in the organisation and encouraging free and frank debate of all issues (Kelloway, Kelley, Comtois & Gatien, 2003: 169).
   - Develop: working with people to build their capability and help them to make the envisioned contribution (Dionne et al., 2004: 180).

2. Personal characteristics
   - Authenticity: being genuine, not acting in a manipulative way (Dulevicz & Higgs, 2005: 105).
Integrity: being consistent in what is said and done (Mller, 2005).
Will: a drive to lead, and persistence in working towards a goal (Kent et al., 2001: 227).
Self-awareness: a realistic understanding of the individual as well as how the individual is perceived by others (Pounder, 2003: 6).
Self-belief: a realistic evaluation of capabilities and a belief that requires goals to be achieved (Mller, 2005).

Although the model is not prescriptive, Dulevicz & Higgs (2005:106) emphasised that an important element of leadership is absent. For the last few decades literature on leadership has consistently ignored cognitive elements (Pearce et al., 2003: 277). To address this matter, research from Dulevicz and Higgs (2005:106) proposed that an effective leadership framework required a combination of behavioural, cognitive and personality factors. However, the relationship between the leader and the organisation may potentially be dynamic (Wallace, 1999). Oshagbemi and Ocholi (2006: 748) believe that leadership may be impacted by organisational factors such as strategy, culture, policies and practices as well as its ability to learn as an organisation. Yet, Politis (2001: 354) came to the conclusion that, being a mutual relationship, a change in leadership behaviour may also impact the organisation leading to a different strategic approach being adopted by the organisation. According to Agashae and Bratton (2001: 89), the essence is that changes in context require changes in the way in which leaders operate in the organisation.

3.3.4 Safety Management
In the past, most managers have not fully committed themselves, nor have they exercised their leadership in the creation of long-term safety improvement processes (Clarke & Ward, 2006: 1175). It should be apparent that the reasons that have influenced the industry to standardise assignments and distribute authority are similarly significant for safety accomplishment (Clarke, 1999: 189). Since the success of safety implementation is largely dependent on the efforts of management, it is essential that management find themselves in a position where their full cooperation in the prevention of injuries will redound to their credit (Ansari & Modarress, 1997: 393). Managers must not see safety just as an increase in cost and drag on production, but rather experience it as a way of increasing all-around
efficiency throughout the organisation (Smallman, 1994: 35). In addition, they must realise that safety is not a once-off concept. It is something that needs to become part of the daily routine of operating practices (Dilley & Kleiner, 1996: 5). Furthermore, management needs to realise the crucial part that they play in creating a safe working environment for all (Wiegmann et al., 2001: 12).

MacEachen (2005: 490) claims that management is involved with people at all levels of the organisation focusing on human behaviour, in particular personal factors such as attitude, perception, motivation, personality, learning and training (Oshagbemi & Gill, 2004: 65). Communication bring these various behavioural factors together (Ball, 2003). Stranks (1994b: 1) debates that health and safety management is no different from other forms of management in covering:

- The management of the health and safety operation at national and local level, setting of policy and objectives, organising, controlling, and establishing accountability;
- Measurement of health and safety performance on the part of the individual and specific locations; and
- Motivating managers to improve standards of health and safety performance in those areas under their control

Beckmerhagen et al. (2003: 216) claim that organisations with strong safety cultures will have effective safety management systems with the support and ownership of all employees. However, safety management systems have a broader role in that it provides a framework by means of which the organisation ensures good safety performance throughout the planning, control and supervision of safety-related activities (Clarke & Ward, 2006: 1175). At this stage it is important to note that approaches to safety vary considerably at all levels of management and may be categorised as follow:

- The legalistic approach: This classic approach implies to comply with the law, but nothing else. Smallman (1994: 36) argues that the organisation is prepared to do the minimum to keep out of the clutches of the enforcement agencies.
- The socio-humanitarian approach: People are regarded as an important asset of the organisation and, as such, need to be protected (Werthes & Boshold, 2005).
The financial-economic approach: Adequate financial resources are necessary to maintain a high standard of health and safety (Stranks, 1994b: 3). However, all accidents, incidents and occupational ill-health cost money. Most organisations are good at calculating the costs of health and safety improvement, but lack the ability to calculate the losses associated with accidents, sickness, property damage incidents and generally poor health and safety performance (Mearns & Havold, 2003: 410). These losses tend to get absorbed in the operating costs of the business. Accidents and sickness costing systems soon identify the costs to the organisation of poor health and safety performance, particularly when such identified costs are drawn against individual managers’ budgets (Bowles, ND). This can be the most significant motivator for bringing about improvement.

The human factors approach: A human factors approach makes it clear that there is often a number of factors which may contribute to accidents in the workplace (HSE, 2007). With the greater emphasis on the human factors approach to health and safety, there is a need to actually identify those organisational characteristics that influence safety-related behaviour. These include:

- The need to produce a positive climate in which health and safety is seen by both management and employees as being fundamental to the organisation’s day-to-day operations (Nwanko & Richardson, 1996: 46).
- The need to ensure that policies and systems which are devised for the control of risk from the organisation’s operations take proper account of human capabilities (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2004).
- Commitment to the achievement of progressively higher standards which is shown at the top of the organisation and down through successive levels (Stranks, 1994b: 3).
- Demonstration by senior management of their active involvement, thereby stimulating managers throughout the organisation into action (Cronje et al., 2000: 154).
- Leadership, whereby an environment is created which encourages safe behaviour (Swensson & Wood, 2005: 1001).
Although the above stipulated various approaches that might be followed by management, it will be fruitless unless management is truly committed towards safety. This commitment can be demonstrated as part of the process of encouraging a positive safety culture (Stranks, 1994b: 9).

Furthermore, it was highlighted that the personality of the leader will play a crucial role in motivating employees to take part in safe behaviour. In conjunction with this need is training. Through training people gain knowledge about their responsibility towards safe practices. Training will thus not only contribute to a safety culture but will help the employee to understand why a positive safety attitude is crucial in the working environment (Harvey et al., 2001: 615). The next section will therefore address various concepts of training, illustrating why training is regarded as critical in the success of any organisation who wants to achieve its goals and objectives.

3.4 TRAINING

‘A little learning is a dangerous thing, so it’s much safer to get a lot of it” (Pybus, 1996: 87).

According to McClelland (2002) the impetus for an organisation to maximise success is to offer training to all employees. Training benefits far exceed the cost seeing the impact on retention, growing talent pool, increase in staff morale and improvement in overall job satisfaction (Edwards, 2007). The knowledge economy with the focus on globalisation places organisations on the edge to continually improve employees’ skill set to remain competitive (Flannery, 1990). Training may thus be defined as the logical development of attitude, knowledge and skill patterns that is necessary for the individual to perform a given task or job adequately, often integrated with further education (Stranks, 1994a: 103). Skills and knowledge are regarded an operating asset (Pybus, 1996: 89). In any people-intensive organisation, employees are the most important operating assets: in tight markets, they are often seen as the competitive edge (Cooper & Cotton, 2000: 482).

Through training, the employee will be empowered with:

- Better communication skills (Nickols, 2000);
- Increased job satisfaction, morale and motivation (Edwards, 2007);
- Ensures consistent quality (Ansari & Modarress, 1997:395);
- Provides greater focus (Flannery, 1990);
- Produces more effective / productive efforts (McClelland, 2002); and
- Clarifies the concept of marketing as an organisational process (Flannery, 1990)

This is only a partial listing of the many benefits that result from training. Training that is appropriate to the needs of an organisation can add great value.

Most training takes place in an organisational setting, typically in support of skill and knowledge requirements originally in the workplace (Nickols, 2000). This relationship between training and the workplace may be illustrated as follows in figure 3.4:

**Figure 3.4  The Structure of the Training Evaluation Problem**

![Diagram](source: Adapted from Nickols (2000))

Using the diagram in figure 3.4 as a structural framework, one of the most popular methodologies for measuring training effectiveness can be explained. This model articulates the following four-step process:

- **Level 1: Reactions**
  At the first level the participant’s reaction to the programme is measured through the use of feedback (Harne, 2006). The analysis at this level serves as inputs to the facilitator and training administrator on the level of learner satisfaction (Palo & Padhi, 2003: 203). It enables them to make decisions on continuing the
programme, making changes to the content or methodology (Wickramasinghe, 2006: 227).

- **Level 2: Participant Learning**
  Changes pertaining to knowledge, skill and attitude are measured (Bangaruswamy, 2005). Facilitators utilise pre-test and post-test measures to check on the learning that has occurred (Lien, Hung & McLean, 2007: 35). However, it is important to note that learning at this level does not necessarily translate into application on the job (Harne, 2006).

- **Level 3: Transfer of Learning (Behaviour)**
  This step assesses the degree to which the knowledge, skills and abilities taught in the training room are being used on the job (Nickols, 2000). It is not easy to define standards that can be utilised to measure application of learning and there is always the question that preys on the minds of various people: “can all changes be attributed to training?” (Bangaruswamy, 2005).

- **Level 4: Results**
  This is the process of determining the impact of training on organisational productivity, increased customer satisfaction and the organisation’s strategic business plan (Wickramasinghe, 2006: 22). Many organisations would like to measure effectiveness of training at this level; the fact remains that it is not very easy to do, as it is improbable to show direct linkage (Palo & Padhi, 2003: 203). It is possible for organisations to measure effectiveness for all programmes at level one and two. This can be built into the design of the training programme (Lien et al., 2007: 35).

Training and education are key components in ensuring that all employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially unsafe situations (Wilder & Sorensen, 2001: 13). Organisations often ignore the important role that training plays in work performance and efficiency (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 392). Nevertheless, training may be expensive both in terms of production and wages (Harvey et al., 2001: 615). However, training is not effective if a real learning environment does not underpin it. Employees need to understand why they receive training and how it will benefit their daily activities (Nickols, 2000). Also, it is necessary for managers to encourage the employees to implement learning and changes from their training (Harvey et al., 2001: 615). Safety training programmes
are often conducted with only minimal measures of their effectiveness, usually only at the reaction level of evaluation (Cooper & Cotton, 2000: 483). Instead, safety training should be designed in such a way that everybody, from top management to employees, improves their knowledge of workplace safety (Ansari & Modarres, 1997: 392). When evaluating safety training programmes certain issues are often raised including the constitution of safety culture, safety attitudes and the perception of risk and also whether the training is attempting to change behaviour or attitudes or both (Harvey et al., 2001: 615). Additionally, the context in which the training takes place is likely to be a major determinant of the salience of safety and responses to it during and after a training programme (Nickols, 2000). It may thus be argued that safety culture, attitudes and the effectiveness of safety training is interchangeably linked. This is supported by the argument that the development of organisational culture has strong training and learning connections. What is organisational culture if not the sum of individuals’ attitudes and behaviours? Pybus (1996: 87) claims that the one cannot be modified without modifying the others.

Although both safety culture and attitudes are discussed in more detail in chapter 2 (section 2.4 and section 2.5) it is still necessary to briefly outline both concepts in this section to create a clearer image of how this will influence training in an organisation.

- **Safety culture:** “…the product of individual and group values, attitudes, perceptions, competencies and patterns of behaviour that determine the commitment to, and the style and proficiency of, an organization’s health and safety management. …characterized by communications founded on mutual trust, shared perceptions of the importance of safety and by confidence in the efficacy of preventative measures” (Bastin, 2001: 3).

- **Attitudes:** Attitudes, defined as stable predispositions, are the most comprehensive and useful indicator of a safety culture (Harvey et al., 2001: 615). Additionally, a significant correlation between safety attitudes and accident rates has been found. It is therefore argued that attitudes may change behaviour and thus directly and indirectly affect safety culture and accident rates (Fleming & Lardner, 1997), such influence being greater or less depending on the context, or other psychological factors such as perception of risk (Hillson & Murray-Webster, 2004).
Training to change attitudes and safety culture must be carefully designed to take into account the complex nature of risk and perception of risk, the need to involve the employees and reduce the possibility of latent failures. Attitudes have been shown to be determinants and correlates of accidents and safety behaviour, and measurement of attitudes can thus be used to evaluate the effectiveness of training to change safety culture (Abbott, 2003).

From the above, it may be debated that health and safety training should be seen as an ongoing process through an individual's career within an organisation. Management should assess the following training needs for the workforce and implement the various training processes:

- **Induction training:** Irrespective of status within the organisation, all employees should receive induction training (Wickramasinghe, 2006: 227).
- **Orientation training:** This form of training can take place for a number of reasons including the understanding of new duties, on the introduction of new technology, work equipment, substances and/or systems of work, prior to working in a new workplace (Lien et al., 2007: 35).
- **Refresher training:** All employees’ competence will decline if skills such as those used in emergency procedures are not used regularly. Cooper and Cotton (2000: 486) believe that training needs to be repeated periodically to ensure continued competence.

Health and safety training is a significant feature of the accident prevention process. Stranks (1994a: 114) believes that organisations that undertake regular health and safety training have a better health and safety record, better-informed employees and a reduced potential for disputes. Health and safety training of employees and others, is a legal requirement and should be a feature at all stages of an individual's career within an organisation (HSE, 2003).

To evaluate the success of training it must be set against objectives, which in turn determine the design of the programme. It is suggested that training should emphasise the technical aspects of health and safety and should include
demonstration and hands-on techniques. Integrated organisational support for the implementation of health and safety practices is critical (Harvey et al., 2001: 615).

Although training will equip the employee with knowledge about the importance of a safe working environment, it will be to no avail if there is no motivation for the employee to contribute to safe working practices. To understand motivation one must understand human nature itself (Cory, 2006). Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. An understanding and appreciation of this is a prerequisite to effective employee motivation in the workplace and therefore effective management and leadership (Accel, 2007a). The next section will focus on creating an in-depth understanding of motivation as concept.

3.5 MOTIVATION
A person has many needs at any given time. Some are biological, arising from states of tension such as hunger, thirst, or discomfort (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 262). Others are psychological, arising from the need for recognition, esteem, or belonging (Longnecker et al., 2003: 376). Most of these needs will not be strong enough to motivate the person to act at a given point in time. A need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity. Kotler and Armstrong (2001: 185) claim that a motive is a need that is sufficiently pressing to direct the person to seek satisfaction.

Motivation may thus be described as the energising force that activates behaviour (Romando, ND) and provides purpose and direction to that behaviour (Hawkins et al., 2001: 362). Linking with this description, Carter and Kulbok (2002: 316) define motivation as any influence that triggers, directs or maintains goal-directed behaviour. From these definitions motivation may thus be understood as “the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards organizational goals, and the ability of the quality and intensity of that effort to satisfy an individual’s needs” (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 404).

To add to this complexity, people may be described as multifaceted with irrational behaviour, making it difficult to determine their motives behind their actions (Cronje et al., 2000: 161). The better management understands these motives of
employees, the higher the chances are of influencing behaviour as to achieve organisational goals (Longnecker et al., 2003: 376). Furthermore, Janssen et al. (1999: 1360) claim that individuals are different from one another in how they think, feel and behave. What motivates one, may be regarded as unimportant by another. Effective managers understand these individual differences that shape each employee’s unique view of work and use this understanding to maximise each employee’s effectiveness (Accel, 2007a).

The individual motivational process may be illustrated as follows:

**Figure 3.5  Fundamental Motivational Model**

[Diagram of the motivational model]

*Source: Adapted from Cronje et al. (2000: 161)*

The process may be described as cyclic in nature, starting with inner motives that will drive people to obtain goals and objectives, satisfying their inner needs. After reaching the objectives, the individual will decide (consciously or unconsciously) whether the attempt was worthwhile. This decision will enforce or change behaviour to ensure continuous satisfaction of needs (Cronje et al., 2000: 162).

Figure 3.5 may be used as a foundation for this section’s discussion. Because of the complex nature, a brief overview of various motivational theories will be given, followed by ways in which motivation can take place. This will be supported by addressing means of enhancing motivation in organisations.

Although Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is probably the most known motivational theory, one will find various divergent theories from experts such as Herzberg,
Vroom and McClelland. Although extreme and sometimes somewhat contradictory, the theories discussed in this section will give a good indication of this complex instrument used to reach organisational goals. However, it is important to realise that in all theories, leadership and motivation goes hand in hand when influencing employees to obtain organisational goals (Janssen et al., 1999: 1360).

3.5.1 Motivational Theories

The term motivation theory is concerned with the processes that describe why and how human behaviour is activated and directed. Romando (ND) regards motivation as one of the most important areas of study in the field of organisational behaviour. For this reason it is important to spend some time focussing on various motivational theories. Carter and Kulbok (2002: 316) believe that it will emphasise the complexity of motivation and the need to realise that employees must be motivated individually (Cory, 2006).

3.5.1.1 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory is probably the best known theory of motivation (Romando, ND), but has limited applicability to an explanation of individual performance (Du plessis et al., 2001: 406). Maslow is the main founder of the humanistic school or the third force which holds that all the good qualities are inherent in people, at least, at birth, although later they are gradually lost (Accel, 2007e). Thus, Maslow proposes a motive hierarchy shared by all. Graig (1982: 113) propose Maslow’s theory as a good guide to general behaviour. It is important to remember that any given consumption behaviour can satisfy more than one need (O’Bryan & Pick, 1995: 18). It can therefore be argued that a man’s personality is the sum total of his works and that only his works survive a man at death (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 186). This is perhaps the essence of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, as it is more commonly known.

Maslow introduced five levels of basic needs (Allen, 1998):

- **Physiological needs:** Food, liquids, rest and shelter;
- **Safety needs:** Protection from bodily danger and psychological threats;
- **Esteem needs:** Recognition, self-confidence and appreciation;
- **Social needs:** Social needs (belonging, affection, love and group...
acceptance);

- Self-fulfilment: Self-actualisation, realising one’s potential and creativity.

These five levels of needs may be illustrated as follows in figure 3.6:

**Figure 3.6 Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs**

![Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs](image)

**Source: Adapted from Allen (1998)**

A person’s behaviour is seen as dominated by the unsatisfied needs and may therefore be described as a ‘perpetually wanting animal’, for when one need is satisfied, there is aspiration for the next higher one (Tikkanen, 2007: 724). This is, therefore, seen as an ongoing activity, in which the individual is totally absorbed in order to attain perfection through self-development (O’Bryan & Pick, 1995: 18). The highest state of self-actualisation is characterised by integrity, responsibility, magnanimity, simplicity and naturalness focussing on problems external to themselves (Kotler & Armtrong, 2001: 186). Maslow’s prescription for human salvation is simple, but not easy: ‘Hard work and total commitment to doing well the job that fate or personal destiny calls you to do, or any important job that calls for doing’ (Accel, 2007e).

3.5.1.2 McGuire’s Psychological Motives
McGuire has developed a motive classification system that is more specific than Maslow’s, used to account for specific aspects of behaviour. McGuire’s motives that are of most use to the field of marketing are briefly described next as identified by authors such as Hawkins et al. (2001: 363), Giacob (ND), Giglie (2007) and ICMR (2007):

- Need for consistency: a basic desire is to have all facets of oneself consistent with each other.
- Need to attribute causation: this set of motives deals with needs to determine who or what causes the things that happen to individuals.
- Need to categorise: individuals have a need to categorise and organise information and experiences in some meaningful yet manageable way.
- Need for cues: these motives reflect needs for observable cues or symbols that enable individuals to infer what they feel and know.
- Need for self expression: this motive deals with the need to express one’s identity to others.
- Need for ego defense: the need to defend identities or egos is another important motive.
- Need for reinforcement: people are often motivated to act in certain ways because they are rewarded for doing so.
- Need for affiliation: affiliation is the need to develop mutually helpful and satisfying relationships with others.
- Need for modelling: the need for modelling reflects a tendency to base behaviour on that of others.
- Need for novelty: people often seek variety and difference simply out of a need for novelty.
- Need for assertion: the need for assertion reflects an individual’s need for engaging in those types of activities that will bring about an increase in self-esteem as well as esteem in the eyes of others.

3.5.1.3 McClelland’s Learned Needs Theory
The learned needs theory of McClelland specifies that people acquire needs through interaction with the surrounding environment (Braden, 2000). In contrast with Maslow’s theory, McClelland did not view needs as a hierarchy through which people move (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 268). McClelland’s theory of needs states that an
individual's motivation could be derived from three important needs, as follows (Duplessis et al., 2001: 406):

- **The need for achievement (n-ach):**
  The n-ach person is achievement motivated and therefore seeks achievement, attainment of realistic but challenging goals, and advancement in the job (Allen, 1998). There is a strong need for feedback as to achievement and progress, and a need for a sense of accomplishment (Ratzburg, 2003).

- **The need for authority and power (n-pow):**
  The n-pow person is authority motivated. This driver produces a need to be influential, effective and to make an impact (Stahl, 1983: 775). There is a strong need to lead and for their ideas to prevail. There is also motivation and need towards increasing personal status and prestige (Ravichandran, Baker & Randall, 1989: 685).

- **The need for affiliation (n-affil):**
  The n-affil person is affiliation motivated, and has a need for friendly relationships and is motivated towards interaction with other people (Allen, 1998). The affiliation driver produces motivation and need to be liked and held in popular regard (Syque, 2002). These people are team players.

McClelland said that most people possess and exhibit a combination of these characteristics (Stahl, 1983: 775). Some people exhibit a strong bias to a particular motivational need and this motivational or needs mix consequently affects their behaviour and working / managing style (Braden, 2000). McClelland suggested that a strong n-affil 'affiliation-motivation' undermines a manager's objectivity, because of their need to be liked, and that this affects a manager's decision-making capability (Ratzburg, 2003). A strong n-pow 'authority-motivation' will produce a determined work ethic and commitment to the organisation, and while n-pow people are attracted to the leadership role, they may not possess the required flexibility and people-centred skills (Ravichandran et al., 1989: 685).

### 3.5.1.4 Herzberg’s Two Factor Theory

Herzberg describes needs in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Allen, 1998). According to this theory, people work first and foremost in their own self-enlightened
interest, for they are truly happy and mentally healthy through work accomplishment (Khawaja, ND).

People needs are of two types:

- Hygiene factors (animal needs):
  
  Hygiene factors are the non-task characteristics of the work environment that create dissatisfaction (Ratzburg, 2003). Siemens (2005: 413) claims that this include aspects of the environment that are closely associated with the job.

- Motivators (human needs):
  
  Motivator factors are aspects of the job and organisational context that create positive feelings among employees (Accel, 2007d). These factors determine whether a job is exciting and rewarding (Wall & Stephenson, 1970: 41).

Unsatisfactory hygiene factors can act as de-motivators, but if satisfactory, their motivational effect is limited (Herzberg, 2007). The psychology of motivation is quite complex and Herzberg has exploded several myths about motivators (Khawaja, ND). As typical examples, saying 'please' to employees does not motivate them to work hard. Herzberg regards this as hygiene factors, which, if satisfactory, animal needs but not human needs (Siemens, 2005: 413).

3.5.1.5 Victor Vroom's Expectancy Model

Vroom defines the central problem of motivation as: “the explanation of choices made by organisms among different voluntary responses” (Anon, 2002). To understand how these choices are made, three concepts are identified that work in conjunction to determine how people decide to act, given possible routes of behavior leading to possible outcomes:

- Valence: A term referring to a preference for one outcome over another (Ravichandram et al., 1989: 685). The valence of an outcome is directly related to its value for the person concerned (Arrod, 2003);

- Expectancy: A person’s behaviour, however, is affected not only by their preference for one outcome over another, but also by how likely they believe these outcomes to be. Expectancy may thus be defined as “a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome” (Anon, 2002).
Force: A person’s behaviour is the result of a field of forces, each of which has direction and magnitude (Harrel & Stahl, 1984: 52). Highest levels of force will be produced by actions with high levels of both valence and expectation (Clark, 2007).

Vroom's model may be summed up in the following equation:

\[ M = [\Sigma] (E \times V) \]

where \( M \) is the motivational force resulting from the sum of expectancy and valence, \( E \) is the expectancy measure reflecting the probability of a particular first level outcome and \( V \) represents the valence for the individual of a particular outcome (Barnet, 2006).

This leadership style should be tailored to the particular situation and to the particular group. In some cases it appears best for the manager to decide and in others the group arrives at a consensus. An individual should also be rewarded with what the individual perceives as important rather than what the manager perceives as important (Accel, 2007d).

Although not so well-known, the following theories also contribute greatly towards understanding motivation:

- **Goal-setting theory:** This theory states that clear and difficult goals lead to higher levels of employee productivity (Sharma, 1995). Difficult goals, when accepted, lead to higher performance than do easy goals, and similarly, feedback leads to higher performance than does non-feedback (Locke & Latham, 2006: 265). The theory assumes that the individual is committed to the goal, and has a high level of self-efficacy (Locke, 2007). Duplessis et al. (2001: 406) propose that a person with a high level of self efficacy believes that he or she is capable of performing a task.

- **Reinforcement theory:** According to Hoelscher (ND), behaviour is caused by environmental influences. This theory assumes that positive behaviours can be identified, and intervention can reinforce these positive behaviours (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 273). A limitation of the theory is that it ignores the inner state of the
individual and concentrates on the consequences of individual action (Scharff, 1999). Because of the relevancy of this theory in the workplace, it will be discussed in detail in section 3.5.2.1.

- **Equity theory:** The basic idea behind the equity theory is that employees, in an attempt to balance what they put in to their jobs and what they get from them, will unconsciously assign values to each of the various contributions (Chapman, 1995). The equity theory states that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards they receive for their efforts, but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive for their efforts, and then display behaviours directed at eliminating any inequities (Barnet, 2006). Money may be regarded as the primary motivating outcome for an employee, but it is not the only, and in some cases not even the most important factor. Power and status are also prime motivators, as are flexibility, perquisites and variety (Cory, 2006). According to the equity theory, the most highly motivated employee is the one who perceives rewards as equal to contributions. If the employee feels that he is working and being rewarded at about the same rate as his peers, then he will judge that he is being treated fairly (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2001: 406).

- **Reversal theory:** This theory is a complex one, but at its heart is a set of oppositions representing four pairs of opposing fundamental motives (Apter, 2003). Each of these motives represents a basic value, leads to the world being seen in a certain way, expresses itself through a particular style, and is associated with its own range of possible emotions (Lafreniere, 1993). In each pair, only one member of the pair can be active at a given time, but under various circumstances postulated in the theory a reversal can occur, meaning that the opposite state takes over at that moment (Heskin, 1997). Over time, two kinds of change will occur in normal people: alternation between the members of each pair, and changes in focus between the pairs themselves so that different aspects of the world come to the forefront of attention at different times (even though four motivational states, one from each pair, will be active simultaneously at any one moment) (Apter & Carter, 2002: 292).

Motivation theories are helpful in understanding and predicting individual behaviour. The next step is to understand how these theories may be applied in the work context to improve individual and ultimately organisational performance.
3.5.2 Successful Internal Motivation

Motivation occurs when an individual is intrigued by an incentive or an internal drive (Carter & Kulbok, 2002: 316). Simply stated, motivation is a personal and internalised state, unique to the individual. Janssen et al. (1999: 1360) debates that the employee is the only one having control over what is motivating to him / her. The only thing that a manager can do is to create a condition to which individuals will respond because they choose to, allowing them to be self-motivated (Potavin, 2006). Understanding motivations is not easy. Several motivations may be present in any situation, and they are often subconscious. However, they must be investigated in order for the marketing effort to be successful (Longnecker et al., 2003: 376). Management can boost employee morale and performance through its organisational climate, sales quotas and positive incentives (Greig, 1982: 113). Organisational climate describes the feeling that employees have about their opportunities, value and rewards for a good performance within the organisation (Rabey, 2001: 26). Not surprisingly, in organisations that hold their employees in low esteem, there is high turnover and poor performance. Where employees are held in high esteem, there is less turnover and higher performance (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 597).

The manager’s main task is therefore to develop a productive workplace, with and through those the manager is in charge of (Siemens, 2005: 413). The manager should motivate the team, both individually and collectively so that a productive workplace is maintained and developed and at the same time allowing employees to derive satisfaction from their jobs (Accel, 2007c).

This section started with a discussion on self-motivation. The question may now be asked whether people are born with the self-motivation or drive? The answer goes both ways. If negative, they can be motivated, for motivation is a skill which can and must be learnt. This is essential for any business to survive and succeed. (Accel, 2007a). Evans and Stroll (2004) experienced that organisations are under constant and heavy pressure to accomplish more and better with less. But what returns are employers getting from their salaries and wages account? (Rabey, 2001: 27):

- Output not what it could be?
- Meets requirements but not much more?
- Organisations perceive it as good?
- Is this what is needed for continuing marketplace success?

From the above, Evans and Stroll (2004) asked how organisations will achieve and maintain this if greater effort and better results are needed from the same resources?

“different things drive different people – pride, happiness, money..”. but all great employees have one thing in common: an unrelenting drive to excel. This strong internal drive can be shaped and moulded, but it cannot be taught (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 273). Individual behaviour is intensely personal and unique, yet organisations seek to use the same policies to motivate everyone (Rummel, 2002). This is mainly for convenience and ease compared to catering for individual oddities. Tailoring the policies for individuals is difficult, but far more effective and can pay handsome dividends (Alkire & Deneulin, 2000). Fairness, decisiveness giving praise and constructive criticism can be more effective than money in the matter of motivation (Staw, 2006). This section will thus address various ways in which the employee can be motivated to obtain organisational goals. Before throwing money at an apparent but unidentified situation (Accel, 2007b), the question should be asked whether the workplace meets the standards to generate high morale and to stimulate motivation. There are many options and an uninitiated manager may not even know where to start (Rummel, 2002). The Reinforcement Theory will be used as a foundation for selecting the most appropriate motivational strategy in a specific context.

3.5.2.1 Reinforcement Theory
This theory states that behaviour is a function of its consequences, implying that people do things because they know that other things will follow (Barnet, 2006). Reinforcement theory principles hold that behaviour followed by pleasant consequences is more likely to be repeated and that behaviour followed by unpleasant consequences is less likely to be repeated (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 273).
There are three rules of consequences of this theory. The three Rules describe the logical outcomes, which typically occur after consequences (WVU, 1996):

1. Consequences, which give Rewards, increase a behavior (Mortensen, 2007).
2. Consequences, which give Punishments, decrease a behavior (Janes, Gushue, Furneaux, Collet & Hicks, 2005).
3. Consequences which give neither Rewards nor Punishments extinguish a behavior (Blank, 2007).
Figure 3.7 illustrates that a person’s response to a stimulus results in specific consequences, which in turn shapes future behaviour. According to the reinforcement theory, a manager who wants to change an employee’s behaviour must also change the specific consequences of that behaviour (Smillie & Jackson, 2006: 47).

3.5.2.1.1 Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement creates a pleasant consequence by the use of rewards to increase the likelihood that a behaviour will be repeated (Jones, 1980: 162). Any reward that encourages an individual to repeat a behaviour can be classified as a positive reinforce (Balkin, ND). Some common positive reinforcers used by organisations are praise, recognition of accomplishment and promotion (Knippen & Green, 1997: 163). According to Peter Drucker ‘there is not one shred of evidence for the alleged turning away from material rewards... antimaterialism is a myth, no matter how much it is extolled. Economic incentives are becoming rights rather than rewards’ (Accel, 2007b). There is no doubt that people live in a money-motivated world (Evans & Stroll, 2004). Any amount of human relations cannot compensate for a lack of monetary reward. Insufficient monetary reward cannot be compensated by good human relations (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 597). Therefore, financial incentives may be categorised under positive reinforcement.

3.5.2.1.2 Punishment

Punishment is an attempt to discourage a behaviour by the application of negative outcomes whenever it does occur. (Janes et al., 2005). Punishment appears to have produced negative rather than positive results and has increased the hostility between management and employees (Blank, 2007).

3.5.2.1.3 Negative Reinforcement

When people engage in behaviour to avoid unpleasant consequences, they experience negative reinforcement (Villere & Hartman, 1991: 27). However, it is important to note that, whereas punishment causes a behaviour to occur less frequently, negative reinforcement causes the behaviour to be repeated (Mortensen, 2007).
3.5.2.1.4 Extinction

Extinction is the absence of any reinforcement, either positive or negative, following the occurrence of a behaviour (Barnet, 2006). Usually extinction occurs when the positive reinforcement that once normally resulted from the behaviour is removed (Balkin, ND). Because the behaviour no longer produces reinforcement, the employee stops engaging in it (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 275).

3.5.2.1.5 Guidelines for Managers

Positive reinforcement is the preferred approach for influencing work behaviour (Janes et al., 2005). However, an effectively designed and administered disciplinary system is usually necessary in organisations. Management can use positive reinforcement or punishment to improve efficiency, cut costs, increase attendance, and raise productivity (Smillie & Jackson, 2006: 47).

While Reinforcement Theory is a powerful influence tool, it does have several serious limitations. To use it effectively, authors like WVU (1996) and Mortensen (2007) claim that managers must be aware of the following difficulties in application:

1. It is difficult to identify rewards and punishments. Finding good rewards and punishments requires a great deal of experience and insight.
2. All sources of reinforcement need to be controlled.
3. Internal changes can be difficult to create.
4. Punishing is difficult to do well. Punishment is an extremely powerful consequence for all. The problem is that effective punishment demands certain requirements. The research clearly shows that effective punishment must be: 1) immediate, 2) intense, 3) unavoidable, and 4) consistent. If punishment cannot be delivered under these conditions, then the punishment is likely to fail.

From the above it is possible to create a manager’s toolkit for motivating employees. Some of the main motivating tools will include:

- Approval, praise and recognition (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 273);
- Trust, respect and high expectations (Clarke & Ward, 2006: 1175);
- Loyalty, given that it may be received (Accel, 2007c);
- Removing organisational barriers that stand in the way of individual and group performance (Carter & Kulbok, 2002: 316);
• Job enrichment (Rabey, 2001: 27);
• Good communications (Evans & Stroll, 2004); and

### 3.5.3 Enhancing Employee Motivation

Recruiting and retaining employees who are highly motivated is an important first step in maximising employee performance. Maximising employee performance through motivation requires several actions:

- **Design jobs with high motivating potential:** Fully enriched jobs may not be appropriate in all situations, but evidence indicates that enriched jobs tend to be more satisfying than un-enriched jobs (Ballew-Gonzales, 2001).
- **Clearly identify the behaviours and performance achievements that will be rewarded:** For employees to be energised by their work, they must have a clear understanding of what performing well requires (Hick, 2006). Too often, managers assume that employees understand how best to direct their efforts. More likely, employees feel uncertain about what is most important (Frank, 2006). By working with employees to set specific and measurable goals, managers can clarify their expectations for employees. These goals may include job-specific performance goals as well as behaviours that extend beyond job tasks but are necessary for the organisation to function effectively (Toupence, 2007).
- **Align rewards with what employees value:** To be motivated, rewards must be aligned with the things that employees value. Whenever possible, effective managers find ways to use various rewards to motivate a variety of employees (Barnet, 2006).
- **Provide plenty of feedback:** Feedback is essential to motivation, regardless of whether employees are performing well or poorly. Giving appropriate feedback can be difficult, however, inappropriate feedback may actually decrease motivation (Hick, 2006).
- **Provide equitable rewards:** Employees’ perceptions of whether rewards are equitable are affected by many factors, and managers must be aware of all of them (Ballew-Gonzales, 2001). Effective communication about rewards is essential. A well-designed reward system will have little motivational value if
employees misunderstand the system and rely on inferences and rumour when assessing whether the system is fair (Toupence, 2007).

- Diagnosing performance deficiencies: By clarifying performance expectations, linking performance to rewards that employees value, and paying attention to employee perceptions of equity, managers can increase motivation levels (Potavin, 2006).
- Assess whether employees have the necessary competencies: To perform well, people must know more than simply what is expected from them (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 597). That is, they must have the competencies required to translate their efforts into achievements. Motivated employees who lack the required competencies perform just as poorly as competent employees who are unmotivated (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 280).
- Verify that employees perceive their goals as feasible yet challenging: Managers who set specific goals help employees focus on the most important aspects of their jobs (Hick, 2006). In general, more difficult goals are more motivating than easy goals. But, if the goals are too difficult, employees will feel that they have no chance of achieving them and exert little or no effort trying (Evans & Stroll, 2004).
- Verify that employees believe that the performance desired by managers is what will be rewarded: To maintain or increase motivation, the link between rewards and performance must be clear. Toupence (2007) argues that, while managers often believe that good performance is rewarded, employees may feel that behaviour such as socialising with the boss or being agreeable, gets rewarded. When such perceptions are discovered, managers must do more than simply assert that employees are wrong, but rather uncover the roots of such perceptions and work to change them (Ballew-Gonzales, 2001).

Quite apart from the benefit and moral value of an altruistic approach to treating colleagues as human beings and respecting human dignity in all its forms, research and observations show that well motivated employees are more productive and creative (Alkire & Deneulin, 2000).

Essentially, there is a gap between an individual's actual state and some desired state and the manager tries to reduce the gap (Accel, 2007e). Motivation is, in effect, a means to reduce and manipulate this gap. It is inducing others in a specific
way towards goals specifically stated by the motivator (Rabey, 2001: 27). Naturally, these goals as well as the motivation system must conform to the corporate policy of the organisation. The motivational system must thus be tailored to the situation and to the organisation (Rummel, 2002).

With the above in mind, it is important that the organisation realises the value of motivation in creating a safe working environment for the employee. Behaving safely comprises of three elements: the knowledge of how to operate safely; (if necessary) the equipment to operate safely; and, the motivation to operate safely. Psychological interventions attempt to improve safety performance by focusing on the latter. When motivating people to improve levels of safety performance a few factors need to be considered:

- **Joint consultation:** Perhaps one of the greatest motivators from a health and safety viewpoint is consultation with operators. It is best undertaken through a health and safety committee with clearly defined objectives that is representative of all parties concerned (Stranks, 1994a: 51).

- **Attitudes held:** The attitude held by both management and workers are true indicators of the importance attached to health and safety. Cronje *et al.* (2000: 162) claim that it is important for both groups to be positively motivated towards improving standards of performance.

- **Communication systems:** Communication systems within the organisation should provide information that is comprehensible to all concerned. Many people become demotivated by communications that they find difficult to understand or interpret (Ball, 2003).

- **Quality of leadership:** Leadership, as with all areas of management, should come from board level if people are to be adequately motivated towards improved standards of health and safety performance (Ansari & Modarress, 1997: 393).

From the above discussion on ways to motivate the employee, it may be argued that incentive schemes may not be the most ideal motivator. They are apt to be successful only in the short term, as they do not necessarily encourage the internalisation of safe attitudes that lead to long-term improvements regardless of material reward. In addition, they are appropriate to discourage operatives from reporting accidents and near misses. The use of disciplinary action has shown
limited success, purely because punishment as negative reinforcement is consistently held to be less effective than positive reinforcement. It is often held that corners have to be cut if productivity is to be maximised, leading to conflicting rewards. Although the success of a safe organisation largely depends on positive attitudes towards safety from each employee, it is the responsibility of management to ensure safe working practices.

With the discussion around the employee as customer as a foundation, supported by the other factors influencing internal marketing, communication provides a platform for understanding almost every human process that takes place in an organisation. Verwey and Du Plooy-Cilliers (2003: 7) came to the conclusion that the social patterns and collection of networks that make up an organisation can exist only because of human communication. Organisations and communications are therefore interdependent, and this interdependence is the focus of the last section of this chapter.

3.6 COMMUNICATION

“Effective communication is the lifeblood of teams and organisations” (Stranks, 1994a: 92).

A key to a healthy organisation is effective internal communication, that is, getting managers and employees to talk with each other and openly share problems and ideas (McDougall & Beattie, 1998: 288). To some extent, the management hierarchy must be set aside so that personnel at all levels can speak freely with those higher up (Zeithamel & Bitner, 2003: 466). The result is two-way communication (Longenecker et al., 2003: 455). To communicate effectively, managers must tell employees where they stand, how the business is doing, and what the organisation’s plans are for the future (Guest & Conway, 2002: 22). While negative feedback may be necessary at times, giving positive feedback to employees is the primary tool for establishing good human relations. In short, Jeffcott, Pidgeon, Weyman and Walls (2006: 1105) summarised that an atmosphere of trust and respect contributes greatly to good communication.
Today organisations all over the world have to cope with many dramatic changes, ranging from fundamental restructuring to revolutionary shifts in traditional values (Farzad, 2006). This climate of change offers organisational communicators unique opportunities to affect short-term success as well as long-term survival and growth, of the organisation in which they operate (Verwey & Du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003: 2). For their part, it is up to organisational communicators to function as strategists and leaders and to involve a portfolio of internal communication that will add value to the organisation (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 340). However, an organisation characterised by a lot of communication does not make that organisation good at communicating (Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier, 2001: 8).

It is therefore essential to devote a part of this chapter to effective internal communication in organisations. It is important to go back to the beginning in understanding the communication process and the role that managers and employees play in making this process successful. Also, the barriers of communication must be addressed so that the organisation understands why communication sometimes fails. This will be supported by a discussion on how to overcome communication barriers. The importance of communication is often not regarded as a priority, and this section wants to demonstrate that this ignorance can be a costly error.

Organisations in which members have difficulty sharing thoughts and ideas, in conveying a truthful opinion, or in trusting colleagues to keep a confidence are anemic and illness-prone. Swan & Allred (2003: 485) claim that sound team communication is important to ensure that everyone is aware and understands the objectives of the project, knows the direction to be taken, and can coordinate tasks and priorities with other team members. Effective communication is also important to provide clear feedback about work performance and standards (Ball, 2003), to make informed decisions and resolve disputes, and to explain to stakeholders from inside and outside the organisation how the project is progressing and what has been achieved (Stranks, 1994a: 169). Thus, the essence of communication is to share understanding between people or groups of people. Lessing et al. (2004: 178) argue that it implies more than merely informing the other party about certain facts,
but also to make sure that the other party grasps the meaning of the information to real understanding.

Du Plooy-Cilliers and Olivier (2001: 8) define communication as “a functional, dynamic and transactional process whereby two or more individuals deliberately try to share meaning and to promote understanding by sending and interpreting verbal and non-verbal messages”. From this definition it is clear that communication involves certain components that function as a whole. This includes both a communicator, the originator of the message, and a receiver, the recipient of the message (Stranks, 1994a: 89). This is supported by key factors ensuring effective communication. Senders need to know what audience they wish to reach and what responses are wanted (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 310). Senders must be good at encoding messages that take into account how the target audience decodes the message. Messages must be sent through media that reach target audiences, and supported through the development of feedback channels so that the sender can assess the audience’s response to the message (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001: 519).

Although the above gives a clear image of how communication takes place, Du Plooy-Cilliers and Olivier (2001: 9) believe that it tends to oversimplify the process. Communication is a highly complex phenomenon and needs to be explained in detail. The following section will focus on the process of communication, illustrating the various ways in which an organisation can communicate with employees.

3.6.1 Components of the Communication Process

Although different components are involved, it should not be seen in isolation, but rather as a process occurring almost simultaneously. Figure 3.8 identifies the factors involved in the communication process.
Figure 3.8 General Model of Interpersonal Communication

Source: Adapted from Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier (2001: 9)

From figure 3.8 it is clear that a successful message depends on the ability of the sender’s encoding process to mesh with the receiver’s decoding process (Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier, 2001: 12). Thus, the best messages consist of words and other symbols that are familiar to the receiver. Kotler & Armstrong (2001: 519) concurred that the more the sender’s field of experience overlaps with that of the receiver, the more effective the message is likely to be. The selection of communication methods, tools and techniques is a function of many variables including the message that must be transferred, the target audience, and the person bringing the message (Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier, 2001: 8). The selection will differ between various projects, or could even differ from phase to phase in the same project. Lessing et al. (2004: 182) proclaim that a variety of tools may be worth considering, including verbal, electronic and written means.
The need for, and importance of good communication has been eloquently expressed as follows: “it’s a no brainer, you’ve got to talk, email and kibitz with employees. The speed with which information moves through a company is critical to how well the mechanism works. Information is the oil that turns the gears” (Longenecker et al., 2003: 455). Unfortunately, communication is not always a smooth process. One of the first steps in communicating more effectively is identifying barriers to the process. These barriers hinder the sending and receiving of messages by distorting, or sometimes even completely blocking, intended meanings (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 322).

3.6.2 Barriers to Communication

Channels of communication, both formal and informal, are largely determined by organisation design (Arenas, Diaz-Guilera & Guimera, 2001). Hierarchical organisations have more levels of authority and greater differences in status among their members (Baker, 2002). Flat organisations have relatively few authority levels and tend to be more egalitarian in terms of status. The degree of specialisation present in the organisation may also affect clear communication, as can the presence of conflicting goals (Hoffman & Zati, 1995). It is therefore arguable that the more levels in the organisation – and the farther the receiver is from the sender – the more difficult effective communication becomes.

Figure 3.9 Levels of Understanding for a Message from Top Management
Source: Adapted from Hellriegel et al. (2001: 324)

Figure 3.9 illustrates the loss of understanding as messages are sent downwards through a formal communication channel. To help reduce this problem, Hellriegel et al. (2001: 324) suggest that top managers may use live video presentations or videotapes to deliver the same message to employees at all the organisation's locations. In doing so, Zeithamel and Bitner (2003: 467) indicate that these managers use both verbal and non-verbal messages and cut out intervening receivers and senders to increase the probability that the original messages will be received intact.

Even when communicating with others at the same level of authority, status can interfere with the process. In flat, egalitarian organisations, authority levels may not interfere with communication, but status is likely to come into play (Hoffman & Zaki, 1995).

Poor communication leads to ineffective control, poor coordination and inevitably management failure (Ball, 2003). From the above, a number of barriers can arise at various points during the phases of the process which include:

- Barriers to reception: the uniqueness of an individual ensures that the way of communication and interpretation of messages will differ from the way the
other participants communicate and interpret messages (Hahn, 2005). Therefore reception of communication can be influenced by:

- The needs, anxieties and expectations of the receiver / listener;
- The attitudes and values of the receiver; and
- Environmental stimuli, such as noise.

**Barriers to understanding:** understanding a message is a complicated process and is affected by both encoding and decoding (Du Plooy-Cilliers & Olivier, 2000: 12). Reasons for misunderstanding may include:

- The use of inappropriate language, technical jargon;
- The extent to which the listener can concentrate on receiving the data completely, that is variations in listening skills;
- Prejudgements made by the listener;
- The ability of the listener to consider factors that may be disturbing or contrary to their ideas and opinions, that is the degree of open-mindedness that they possess;
- The length of communication; and
- The degree of knowledge possessed by the listener.

**Barriers to acceptance:** According to Nancy and Foster (ND), acceptance of a communication is affected by:

- The attitudes and values of the listener;
- Individual prejudices held by listeners;
- Status clashes between the sender and receiver; and
- Interpersonal emotional conflicts.

With the above in mind, it is clear that communication is not easy (Hansen, 2004). The method, context, structure, language, knowledge and an understanding of the needs of the recipient to whom the information is being transmitted are vital in understanding the importance of communication in organisations (Lessing et al., 2004: 182). However, without proper and clear communication, no organisation can survive (Ball, 2003).

### 3.6.3 Overcoming Barriers to Communication

From the above discussion, it is clearly explained that communication may be regarded as a complex and challenging process. Luckily, it is possible to overcome
barriers to effective communication (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 326). The next session will address possible means of doing so.

As discussed, internal marketing communications can be both vertical and horizontal (Arenas et al., 2001). Vertical communications are either downwards, from management to employees, or upwards, from employees to management (Hoffman & Zaki, 1995). Horizontal communications are those across functional boundaries in an organisation (Zeithamel & Bitner, 2003: 466).

Figure 3.10 illustrates the balance of various internal communications in an organisation.

**Figure 3.10 Approaches for Managing Internal Marketing Communications**

![Diagram showing Approaches for Managing Internal Marketing Communications]

Source: Adapted from Zeithamel and Bitner (2003: 466)

Communication across functional boundaries in an organisation must be facilitated to coordinate efforts for delivery (Hansen, 2004). This is a difficult task because functions typically differ in goals, philosophies, outlook, and view of the customer, but the payoff is high. Zeithamel and Bitner (2003: 467) argue that one important
strategy for effective horizontal communication is to open channels of communications between the marketing department and operations personnel.

To overcome barriers, people must be aware that various barriers exist and realise that they can cause serious organisational problems (Erven, ND). There needs to be a willingness to invest the effort and time necessary to overcome the barriers (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 326). Several ways of overcoming barriers to internal communication include:

- Regulate the flow of information: If too much information is received, one will suffer from information overload. Maggi (1989: 131) believes that, regardless of how much information is needed to create feelings of overload in individuals, every organisation is capable of producing that volume of information and more. Therefore a system should be set up that identifies priority messages for immediate attention (McNamara, 1997);
- Encourage feedback: It should be followed up to determine whether important messages have been understood (Nancy & Foster, ND). Feedback lets one know whether the other person understands the message accurately;
- Simplify the language of the message: Because language can be a barrier, people should choose words that others will understand (Cheng, 2004). In general, understanding is improved by simplifying the language used, consistent of course, with the nature of the intended audience (Ball, 2003);
- Listen actively: It is important to become a good listener as well as a good message sender (Hahn, 2005);
- Restrain negative emotions: Emotions can be conveyed when communicating, but negative emotions can distort the content of the message (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 327); and
- Use non verbal cues: non verbal cues should be used to emphasise points and express feelings. Ensure that actions reinforce words so that mixed messages are not sent (Erven ND).

From the above it is clear that overcoming barriers involve a two way communication process (Longenecker et al., 2003: 456) ensuring an ongoing commitment and support from all stakeholders in the organisation (Lessing et al., 2004: 183).
Communication not only leads to information sharing amongst different levels in the organisation (Baker, 2002), but may also be regarded as an important feature of health and safety management. Lack of communication is a contributory factor in accidents and other forms of adverse incidents (Stranks, 1994a: 101).

It may thus be argued that one of the keys to successful communication management is the ability to understand and apply modern management principles and techniques (Heller, 2006). Communication managers must develop an in-depth knowledge of past and present models, theories and processes in order to manage effectively and to facilitate the emergence of strategic communication thinking (Verwey & Du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003: 7).

Communication is an essential aspect of an organisation, one that can determine the success of the organisation (Heller, 2006). Nearly all activities associated with human organisations are communication activities (Baker, 2002). Furthermore, communication is needed to move people to achieve desired organisational goals. Good leadership and sound decision making are the cornerstones of effective organisations. However, in all these processes, communication is a key element (Longenecker et al., 2003: 455). Thus, as the organisational design changes, so must the communication design (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 340).

Having established the strategies for transition to safety in the workplace, it is crucial for an organisation to communicate effectively to everyone in the organisation (Lessing et al., 2004: 178). Ansari & Modarrres (1997: 394) claim that the purpose of this internal communication includes:

- To publicise the implementation of the new safety programme in the organisation;
- To demonstrate the commitment of the organisation to the new safety programme;
- To report the importance of the new safety programme for the organisation, employees, customers and the community; and
- To improve employee awareness of and participation in the implementation of the new safety programme.
Thoroughly planned, internal communication has a vital part to play in health and safety as a participative process, but what is the right kind? The following aspects of communication are significant:

- **Safety propaganda:** The use of posters, films, exhibitions and other forms of repetition of a specific message are important features of the safety communication process (Yoon, 2007). Posters are one of the simplest techniques to focus employees’ attention on the need for safe practices. It does not mean much to put up a set of posters and let it go at that, however. Posters are only one link in the chain of communication. To be effective, the posters should be situation or context specific and changed frequently (Stranks, 1994a: 97). Additional to that, Grimaldi and Simonds (1989: 188) claims that a newsletter, weekly or monthly, distributed to all employees is another means of communicating safety. It may carry news of injuries and other severe occurrences, of hazardous situations that have been corrected, of relative standings in a safety contest, of safety records, or of suggestions for improvement (Yoon, 2007). To give the newsletter a more personal and appealing touch names or pictures of individual employees and references to particular practices or work centers may be used (Anon, 2005).

- **Safety incentive schemes:** various forms of planned motivation directed at rewarding good safety behaviour on the basis of formally agreed objectives and criteria have proved successful (Hellriegel et al., 2001: 274).

- **Effective health and safety training:** health and safety communications featured in training exercises should incorporate sincerity, authority, confidence, accuracy, and humour. Training of speakers and trainers in the various aspects of presentation can be helpful in making training more effective (Harvey et al., 2001: 615).

- **Management example:** The most important means of inspiring employees for safety are through direct contact from management level (Du Plessis et al., 2001: 340). There are numerous ways in which to wreck the safety program or make it work. The leader is a walking example (Ansari & Moddaress, 1997: 393). If the manager is always careful and follows safe practices, this positive attitude will generate a respect for safety from the employees (Marsh et al., 1995: 9). This is perhaps the strongest form of non-verbal communication and has a direct effect on attitudes to health and safety held by operators (Stranks,
Management should openly display and promote, where appropriate:

- A desire to attain a common goal, such as clearly identified and agreed safety objectives;
- Insight into ever-changing situations, particularly in the case of potentially hazardous operations;
- Alertness to the needs and motives of others;
- An ability to bear responsibility with regard to health and safety procedures;
- Competence in initiating and planning action to bring about health and safety improvements;
- Social interaction aimed at promoting the health and safety objectives of the organisation;
- Communication, both upwards and downwards, through a wide variety of communication activities;
- Clear identification by senior management with the health and safety promotional activities undertaken by the organisation; and
- By setting an example to staff, visitors and others at all times on health and safety-related procedures.

Contests: This is another form of maintaining interest. Contests may be among organisations, or among departments within an organisation (Jicosh, 1999). Placing this record in a prominent place and keeping it up to date has been considered effective in arousing and maintaining employee interest. One of the dangers in this procedure is that of a possible letdown and ill feeling when a serious injury finally occurs (Scmit, 2007).

Using the above mediums of communications as platform, the following five communication factors may be regarded as essential in effective team performance to enhance safety in the workplace, namely:

1. Supportive leadership: a leader who is a sound, credible communicator provides clear direction, keeps the team informed about developments in the organisation, liaises comfortably with key constituencies, and provides accurate and timely feedback to team members (Verwey & Du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003: 76).
2. Communication safety: a team in which communication between members is open and constructive (Fletcher, 1999: 155).

3. Team reflexivity: a team in which members spend time thinking about what they are doing and how they are working together as a team (Stranks, 1994a: 171).

4. Task communication: a project that has clear and agreed objectives as well as clear signposts for successful performance (Ball, 2003).

5. Boundary spanning: good lines of communication between the team and various stakeholders and constituencies with an interest in the project (Erven, ND).

Through open channels of communication, people related to the organisation, both internally and externally, are informed of the safety status of the organisation. Communication enables people to share their ideas and views towards safety, facilitating the need to create bigger safety awareness.

3.7 CONCLUSION
In the previous chapter, the focus was on elements that have an influence on the individual's role towards occupational safety. In this chapter the role that the organisation plays in creating a safe working environment was discussed. A diagram was used in the beginning of the chapter to indicate the key factors described. Although all five factors were linked to one another the focus was on internal marketing. After an in-depth discussion, around all the factors, the diagram may be adjusted by illustrating the interdependence of the factors on one another. However, it is important to note that internal marketing stays at the core of the discussion.

Figure 3.11 Framework of Chapter 3
Marketing was defined as a social and managerial process whereby individuals and groups obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products and values with others. From this, it was argued that if products, services and external communication campaigns cannot be marketed to their internal target group, marketing to the external customer cannot be expected to be successful either. Internal marketing is more important than conventional external marketing and may be seen as the key to excellent service and successful external marketing. Internal marketing is thus simply the phenomenon of treating employees as customers. With this goal in mind, it no longer makes sense to treat internal marketing as a specialist functional approach. It really represents the convergence of a number of previously separate management technologies, such as human resource management, employee relations, strategic management, quality management, corporate communications and macro-marketing. All organisational members need to pursue this in a planned manner, as a means to achieving differentiation of the organisation for the purpose of attaining sustainable competitive advantage. In considering the merits of adopting a strategic marketing management approach as a response to change in the business environment, internal marketing may be identified as having scope to deal with the philosophy and behaviour necessary for attentive management, which is committed to managing and which has a will to manage.
It may thus be argued that management must first work to develop solid relationships within the organisation before external relationship marketing may fully be achieved. Nurturing, objective listening and quiet understanding set the stage for employees to feel equally willing to provide the same protection and empathy to fellow employees.

In the previous chapter, safety has been described as everyone's responsibility. However, this chapter discussed the role that managers play in ensuring a safe working environment. It was argued that safety can only be achieved if top management realises their part in the process, if they consider it as important and commit themselves to lead an example of safe practice.

While exploring this topic, the issue of leadership versus management was discovered. Whereas a manager may be described as the one with power given by the organisation to orden and guide the activities of others, a leader obtain achievements without force. Through a detailed investigation, it was decided that, for the purpose of this study, all future references would be made to leadership. From the leadership literature there is an emerging consensus that a single prescription for effective leadership does not exist. This depends on both the individual's personality and the context in which leadership will be practiced. It became evident that safe practices can be enhanced by adopting a holistic view on safety matters. For this to succeed, a new approach from management is required, an approach where marketing is aimed at the employee as valued customer.

In conjunction with effective marketing and management is training. Through training, people gain knowledge about their responsibilities towards safe practices. An alert, well trained, thinking individual will be able to realise when a hazard occurs and will intervene to prevent an accident from happening. From the literature, it became evident that training is a key component in ensuring that all employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially unsafe situations. Organisations often ignore the important role that training plays in work performance and efficiency. Employees need to understand why they receive training and how it will benefit their daily activities. Also, it is necessary for managers to encourage the employees to implement learning and changes from their training.
The aim of a manager is to reach objectives through employees. For this to succeed, the manager must be able to motivate the employees. To understand motivation, one must understand human nature itself. Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. A section of this chapter addressed the concept of motivation focusing on different motivational techniques applicable to different individuals.

People may be described as complex with irrational behaviour, making it difficult to determine their motives behind their actions. The better management understands these motives of employees, the higher the chances are of influencing behaviour as to achieve organisational goals. Furthermore, individuals are different from one another in how they think, feel and behave. What motivates one, may be regarded as unimportant by another. It was discovered that effective managers need to understand these individual differences that shape each employee’s unique view of work and use this understanding to maximise each employee’s effectiveness. This finding was supported by discussions on various motivational theories, explaining the various approaches towards motivating an individual. Individual behaviour is intensely personal and unique and it became clear that organisations need to realise that the same policies cannot be used to motivate everyone.

The last section of this chapter was devoted to communication, an indispensable activity in the functioning of all processes in an organisation. To communicate effectively, managers must tell employees where they stand, how the organisation is doing, and what the organisation’s plans are for the future. Organisations in which members have difficulty sharing thoughts and ideas, in conveying a truthful opinion, or in trusting colleagues to keep a confidence are anemic and illness-prone. Sound team communication is important to ensure that everyone is aware and understands the objectives of the project, knows the direction to be taken, and can coordinate tasks and priorities with other team members.

Effective communication is also important to provide clear feedback about work performance and standards, to make informed decisions and resolve disputes, and to explain to stakeholders from inside and outside the organisation how the project is progressing and what has been achieved. Thus, the essence of communication is to
share understanding between people or groups of people. That implies more than merely informing the other party about certain facts, but also to make sure that the other party grasps the meaning of the information to real understanding. Poor communication leads to ineffective control, poor coordination and inevitably management failure. Therefore, a number of barriers to communication were discussed, followed by ways of overcoming those barriers. Clear communication is not easy. The method, context, structure, language, knowledge and an understanding of the needs of the recipient to whom the information is being transmitted are vital in understanding the importance of communication in an organisation. However, without proper and clear communication, no organisation can survive.

The next chapter will address the research methodology, the empirical research results and the analysis thereof.
CHAPTER 4
THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of this chapter is the achievement of the objectives set in chapter one. The research hypotheses are critically examined in terms of the degree to which they are accepted or rejected. Although the focus of the study remains the scientific conclusions of the hypotheses stated, the need for reporting the general findings of the study is evident.

This study may be characterised by a well-designed research plan that forms the basis of the entire research process. The research conducted may be described as a practical activity whose purpose is to find out things in a systematic way. It is a process of designing, gathering, analysing and reporting information to uncover opportunities and reduce the risks of decision-making (Caldwell & Herbst, 2003: 10).

Research was distinguished from information gathering and decision-making by three distinct characteristics. Firstly, the research was based on an open thought system without any hidden agendas. Secondly, the researcher examined the data critically; therefore the focus was not on the agreement or disagreement with statements but rather on the evidence that was used to draw conclusions. The interpretation and understanding of the data was based on the researcher’s knowledge of existing theory and literature in the fields of internal marketing as well as personal experience and perspective. Thirdly, the researcher generalised and specified limitations to theory generalisation. Generalisation can be established most effectively through the development of explanatory theory, as it is the application of theory that turns fact-finding into research.

The purpose of this chapter is two-folded. In section 4.2 the chapter will describe in detail the methodology, namely the research design, the choice of population, questionnaire design, data collection and the analysis of the data that was followed by this study. It is not the purpose of this chapter to provide a detailed description of the relevant theory but rather to describe and motivate the methodology followed.
Section 4.6 will focus on reporting the results of the empirical research. This will be through a combination of detailed tables (tabular) and summary tables (semi-tabular). These tables report the data and reflect the responses acquired through the questionnaire to address the research objectives. Although the tables provide the frequency results, they reflect an accurate picture of the data gathered. To enhance some of the tables, graphic illustrations are used, as they are easier to understand and convey more information in a concise manner.

4.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The objectives of the study as described in chapter one form an integral part of the research design. These objectives ensure that appropriate information is collected, help to determine the sources of the information, determine the technique for data gathering, specify the sampling methodology and influence the schedule and cost of the research project (Zikmund, 2003: 58).

According to Burns and Bush (2002: 129), each research problem is unique. It is therefore critical that the research methodology is well structured to ensure that the study is relevant to the problem as well as economically viable. Because the concept of internal marketing is so new, it is important to obtain reliable information that can be used successfully in decision-making, therefore this study follows a conclusive research design. The major emphasis of conclusive research is to evaluate and establish reliability of the relevant data. Conclusive research seeks data that can be expressed in numbers, therefore, it can be analysed using a quantitative process. The findings from conclusive research are obtained from a survey or a census. A conclusive research design will aid in establishing priorities, increasing familiarity with the problem and providing clarity on the decision-making process of internal marketing as suggested by Boyce (2002: 37).

With the above in mind, it is important to take elements into consideration such as the choice of population, the questionnaire design, the data collection as well as the analysis. These concepts will be discussed briefly in the next section.

4.2.1 The Choice of Population
The results of an effective study are largely dependent on the representativeness of the population; however, population definition is far from easy. A precise definition of the target population is given by Dillon, Madden and Firtle (1990: 265) as “that set of people, product, firms etc. that contains information that is of interest to the researcher”. Furthermore, a sample is a “subset of the target population from which information is gathered to estimate something about the population”. At the outset of the study it is crucial that the population is defined correctly so that the proper sources from which data must be collected can be identified (Zikmund, 2000: 419).

The key in defining the target population is the ability to translate the objectives of the study into a definite statement specifying who should or should not be included in the sample (Hair et al., 2003: 334).

The following requirements as stated by Gilbert and Churchill (2001: 448) were considered and adhered to:

- The chosen population was relevant to the study, containing individuals or other units that possess the information sought by the survey.
- Any other qualities that respondents should have in order to be included (or excluded) in the sample, was clearly specified.
- All decision rules for inclusion or exclusion of respondents from the survey was clearly explained.

These requirements are discussed in more detail below:

4.2.1.1 The Target Population

The population for this study has been identified as all major role players in the Automotive Sector of South Africa. As already briefly indicated in chapter one (section 1.6), the global Automotive Industry is a highly diversified sector that comprises of manufacturers, suppliers, dealers, retailers, original equipment manufacturers, aftermarket parts manufacturers, automotive engineers, motor mechanics, auto electricians, spray painters or body repairers, fuel producers, environmental and transport safety groups, and trade unions (IOCA, ND).

The Automotive Industry is the leading manufacturing sector in the South African economy. Aggregate employment in the vehicle manufacturing industry currently
amounts to about 38 700 persons whilst employment in the component manufacturing industry is roughly 81 000 employees, including 6 000 in tyre manufacturing. Total employment in the trade area, namely in vehicle sales, maintenance and replacement parts, currently amounts to about 200 000 persons (Naamsa, 2008:3).

4.2.1.2 Other Qualities that Respondents Should Have
From the literature, with specific reference to chapter three, it became clear that management plays a vital role in the creation of a safe working environment. However, the difference between leadership and management was also addressed, as it became apparent that a leader, rather than a manager, is more likely to create cooperation from others (section 4.6.3). The questionnaire therefore devoted a section on management, one of the questions specifically focussing on the level of management.

4.2.1.3 Decision Rules for Inclusion and Exclusion of Respondents
The categories most representative for the Automotive Industry as set out in the questionnaire are Manufacturing; Supply; Dealerships; Original Equipment Manufacturing; Aftermarket Part Manufacturing; and Motor Mechanics.

4.2.2 Sampling Frame and Sampling Procedure
Sampling refers to the process of identifying a relatively small number of elements from a larger defined group of elements (target population) so that the information gathered from the smaller group allows one to make judgements about the larger group of elements (Hair et al., 2003: 682).

In this study, the sample will be a reflection of a probability sample as described by Zikmund (2000: 474) as a technique whereby each member of the population will have a known, non-zero probability of selection. This sampling method will allow the researcher to judge the reliability and validity of raw data collected as to be representative of the population as a whole. Due to the nature of this study, the most effective results will be gained by using systematic random sampling (SYMRS) which is a “probability sampling technique that requires the defined target population to be ordered in some way” (Hair et al., 2003:353). The Automotive Industry has two
very prominent associations, namely the National Association of Automotive Component and Allied Manufacturers (NAACAM) and the National Association of Automobile Manufacturers of South Africa (NAAMSA). For this study, the membership lists for these two associations were used to capture the sample frame of the Automotive Industry as a whole.

In the case of NAACAM and NAAMSA, the sample consisted of 151 elements (See Appendix C). Each of the elements was relatively easy to access due to the availability of the member lists with detailed information for both associations. It was also important that every member who fit the criteria of the sample be given a chance to take part, as the outcome of the study will reflect on the experience and expectations of employers and employees in the Automotive Industry.

4.3 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect and record primary research data. Because it is very seldom possible to repeat the survey if the researcher finds out afterwards that the questionnaire was not complete, or that some important topic was omitted, the focus was on the compilation of a well-designed questionnaire.

The following considerations, as identified by Dillon et al. (1990: 379), were kept in mind when questions were asked:

- The questions were clear and precise;
- Response choices did not overlap;
- Natural and familiar language was used;
- Words or phrases that show bias was not used;
- Double-barrelled questions were avoided;
- Explicit alternatives were stated; and
- Questions met the criteria of validity and reliability.

From the above it is clear that the questionnaire should be satisfactory in respect of reliability and validity. These concepts will be described briefly in the next section.

4.3.2 Validity
A question is valid if it measures what the questionnaire intends it to measure; therefore validity can only be measured if the purpose or intentions of the question is known. A valid question will always be reliable but a reliable measure does not guarantee the validity of the question (Webb, 2002: 108).

In this study face validity applied to all questions. Due to the fact that all factors have already been confirmed in both theory and practice, content validity is not applicable at this stage.

4.3.2 Reliability
Reliability refers to the fact that a question evokes the same set of responses each time it is asked in similar circumstances, thus focusing on accuracy (Shao, 2002: 242). A popular approach in measuring reliability is the Chronbach coefficient α (alpha). It is one of the most commonly accepted methods for assessing the internal consistency of a multi-item measurement scale (Dillon et al., 1990: 371). The method has been applied in this study and will be reflected later.

4.3.3 Questionnaire Format and Content
The questionnaire for this study was prepared in electronic format for the purpose of accuracy and time efficiency during data collection. A cover letter was sent to the respondent via e-mail whereby the purpose of the study was explained (See Appendix A). Also, the e-mail contained the hyperlink to the questionnaire that opened directly when activated.

The questionnaire consisted of three sections (85 questions in total). The sections were divided as follow:
Section A: General Information
Section B: Safety in the Workplace
Section C: Factors Supporting Occupational Safety
In section A, questions 1 to 5, the respondents were asked general information, such as their position in the organisation, years’ experience in marketing, formal marketing qualifications, gender, and sector representativeness. This was used to establish a respondent profile. Section B and C consist of 80 statements and required that each respondent indicate their perception and expectation about the statements included
in the questionnaire. All the questions in section B and C were closed questions which have the following advantages:

- Easy to answer,
- Reduces skewing in answers,
- Eliminates confusion, and
- Easy to process.

The statements were structured as simply as possible, in wording and language that was perceived as intelligible by all the elements included in the population as validated on face valence as mentioned in section 4.3.1 and explained in section 4.3.5.

4.3.4 Choice of Scale
Several types of scaling techniques have been employed to measure a person’s overall evaluation of an object. Four popular scaling techniques are used in questionnaires namely; single-item formats, Likert scales, the semantic differential scale and the Staple scales (Dillon et al., 1990: 362).

In this study the Likert scale procedure is used, using a multiple item format. The process begins with generating a large number of items that are statements of beliefs or intentions. Each item is then judged according to whether it reflects a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the objective in question. Ambiguous and neutral items are eliminated. Respondents are then asked to rate the attitude object on each item in terms of a five-point labelled scale (Hair et al., 2003: 675).

The questionnaire in Appendix B demonstrates this scale.

4.3.5 Pre-Testing of the Questionnaire
The purpose of pre-testing is to highlight the weak areas and is an indispensable aid for developing a good questionnaire (Boyce, 2002: 534).

Through pre-testing, the researcher was able to determine whether:
Every question is fully understood by the respondent.
The question sequence is logical.
The language and wording is clear and easy to understand.
The instructions to the respondents are clear and easy to understand and follow.
The introduction to the questionnaire is clear and effective.

The questionnaire was tested on 5 employees related to the Automotive Industry. Based on face validity, careful consideration was given to the language, logic and sensitivity of the questions. After corrections were made to language and logic, the questionnaire was tested again. No further changes were deemed necessary.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION
The choice of the data collection method is of great importance and the advantages and disadvantages of the method should be taken into consideration before a choice is made. Because of the fact that systematic random sampling was conducted within an attainable environment, a self-administered survey was considered the most appropriate data collection method. This may be described as a data collection technique in which the respondent reads the survey questions and records his or her own answers without the presence of a trained interviewer (Hair et al., 2003: 265).

The advantages of this type of survey were:
- Low costs per survey;
- Less interviewer bias;
- Were able to reach ‘hard-to-interview’ people; and
- Respondents were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire at a time that was convenient for them.

The disadvantages experienced with this type of survey were:
- The chance of misunderstood or skipped questions;
- Initial low response rate.

The questionnaire was sent to 151 respondents and 51 were completed and returned. The reasons why a 100 of the questionnaires were not completed or sent back are due to organisations that could not be contacted, respondents not available
and respondents not interested in the completion of the questionnaire. This may be summarised in table 4.1:

**Table 4.1 Determining the Sample Frame and Sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calculation</th>
<th>Description per Segment</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Respondents as per Naamsa and Naacam</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minus</td>
<td>Organisations that could not be contacted</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minus</td>
<td>Respondents not available</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>Respondents included in sample frame</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minus</td>
<td>Respondents not interested</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>Respondents that agreed to be included in sample</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.5 ANALYSIS**

After data collection, the emphasis of the research process focuses on the analysis of the data collected. The analysis of the data collected by this study was done by STATKON, the statistical consultancy service of the University of Johannesburg. Standard statistical methods were used, as well as a formal test of a statistical hypothesis, reliability and correlation analysis (Crohnbach Alpha) as well as a regression analysis.

**4.5.1 Crohnbach Alpha Technique**

The popular technique used to calculate the reliability of an item is known as the coefficient alpha (Crohnbach Alpha). Coefficient alpha is calculated to determine internal reliability of the items that determine each factor. According to Dillon et al. (1993: 399) the coefficient alpha is a good indication of internal correlation that exists between a set of variable (items). If the alpha of a factor is low then it suggests that some items underlying the factor do not relate to it. Such items must then be considered to be left out of the factor. The criteria used to determine whether an item needs to be dropped or not, is the ‘item-to-total correlation’, that will increase the coefficient alpha value of the factor if left out.

**4.5.2 Regression Analysis**
According to Van Staden (2004: 176), if the research goal is to reveal the relation between a specific dependent variable and a number of continuous independent variables, multiple regression analysis is applied. This relation has a simultaneous use for predictive purposes. Multiple regression is applied to a data set to find a best fit line between the dependent and independent variables. The best fit line or prediction equation will be in the form

\[ Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \ldots + b_kX_k \]

In fitting the above linear regression or best fit line, a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variable was assumed. The data of this study however lends itself to such linearity.

Since it is quite possible that one or perhaps a subset of the independent variables does not contribute significantly to the prediction, a stepwise multiple regression may be applied to identify the best and eliminate unnecessary predictors. In stepwise multiple regression the remaining available independent variables at each step are considered for entering the model. At each step that variable which contributes most to the prediction capability based on the increase in $R^2$ is entered into the model. This procedure continues until all the variables are entered into the model or when no further variables can contribute to a significant increase in $R^2$.

The first part of this chapter described the research methodology that was used by this study to achieve results. A description of the conclusive research was presented as well as justification for the choice of population. The measuring scale used in this study was the Likert scale, and a self-administered questionnaire that was sent via e-mail containing the hyperlink to the questionnaire, was the choice of survey for data collection. The method of data analysis of the data was also identified and discussed. The next part of this chapter will focus on summarising and presenting the results of the statistical analysis.

4.6 EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS
The goal of this study is to determine whether occupational safety can be promoted successfully through internal marketing. However, the intention of the empirical research was to:

- Establish the existence of a mutual influence between safety culture, safety attitude and risk perception;
- Identify financial opportunities if the organisation invest in a safe working environment;
- Determine the impact of management on internal marketing of safety;
- Determine the impact of training on internal marketing of safety;
- Determine the impact of motivation on internal marketing of safety; and
- Determine the impact of communication on internal marketing.

The results of the empirical study are discussed by referring to the respondent's profile, safety in the workplace as well as the factors contributing to internal marketing of occupational safety.

4.6.1 Section A: Profile of Respondents
Section 4.2 addressed the selected sample, indicating that it is members of both the NAACAM and NAAMSA associations (see Appendix C). However, it is important to devote a section of this chapter to a brief discussion around the profile of the respondents. This will be done through the aid of graphs.

Firstly, it was necessary to determine the position held in the organisation. Due to sections dedicated to marketing and management, it was important to get feedback, relevant to the study.

Figure 4.1 Position in the Organisation
Source: Question 1

From figure 4.1, it is clear that more than half of the respondents (22, 43%) did not represent the marketing field. A quarter of the respondents were on management level (12, 24%). It is important to note that the ‘other’ (22, 43%) may contain respondents on management level, but not in the field of marketing. Respondents in this category included areas such as SHEQ (Safety, health, environment and quality), Risk as well as Human Resources.

To link with the above element, is the issue of experience. Figure 4.2 will illustrate the spread of years’ experience of the respondents.

Figure 4.2 Years’ Experience
Figure 4.2 clearly illustrates a wide spread relative to years of experience. Twenty one percent (11) of the respondents have less than a year's experience. On the opposite side, there are 28 percent (14) of the respondents with more than ten years experience in the field of marketing. The other 50 percent (24) of respondents are spread between 1 to 10 years of marketing experience. Two respondents did not complete this question.

The level of experience directly correlates with the respondent's marketing qualification as set out in figure 4.3.

Source: Question 2

Figure 4.3 Marketing Qualification
Source: Question 4

The amount of respondents that do not have any marketing qualification is dominant with 43 percent (22). Marketing related qualifications make up the rest with the highest percentage in Diplomas (12, 24%). One respondent did not complete this question.

To gain a better understanding of the representativeness of the sample throughout the Automotive Industry as a whole, figure 4.4 will give an indication of the spread of sectors within the Automotive Industry.

Figure 4.4   Automotive Sector
The majority of respondents represented the Manufacturing sector with a percentage of 31 (16). The Supplier and Original Equipment Manufacturing sectors were next in line, equally representing 18 percent (9) of the total market. The ‘other’ category represented 12 percent (6). Respondents in this category include sectors such as the Automotive Soft Trim, Fastening systems, as well as respondents from Automotive Head Office. Aftermarket Parts Manufacturer and Motor Mechanic sectors represented 2 percent (1) individually.

The above discussion on the demographic profile assists in interpreting the empirical results in the remaining sections.

4.6.2 Section B: Safety in the Workplace

In this section (Section B of questionnaire) the focus will be on safety in the workplace as a whole, rather than to address all individual factors contributing to occupational safety (including culture, attitude, risk and economical savings of occupational safety).

When testing the reliability on the whole section B which included 28 items, a Crohnbach Alpha result of 0.836 was achieved. Although the section contains many items which must be taken into account as it will influence the outcome of the
Crohnbach Alpha, the question contained in this section can still be regarded as reliable.

When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements in section B of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.5 in histogram format.

**Figure 4.5 Histogram of Safety in the Workplace**

The mean is indicated by an average response rate of 3.8284 with a standard error of 0.04776. This implies that the average feeling towards this section of the questionnaire was positive, the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 3.13 (neutral towards statements) in comparison with the maximum rate of 4.68 (strongly agree with statements) with a median of 3.8214. From these a range of 1.57 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.34109 was reported, with a variance of 0.116. If the
histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a symmetrical acceptable distribution histogram, with a positive skewness of 0.196. This may be interpreted positively, as response will tend to the right, implying a stronger agreement with the statements. The outlier to the right is noted.

It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study, as depicted in table 4.2 to 4.6.

Table 4.2 Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation image of risk-taking portrays a culture of safety.</td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3.9%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisational treat minor accidents differently than major accidents on the basis of frequency rates.</td>
<td>Count 8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 15.7%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety depends upon recognising the known injury-causing factors.</td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3.9%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety cannot be practiced if our organisation is not hazard-orientated.</td>
<td>Count 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 12.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By empowering the individual with awareness, injuries are eliminated.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>54.9%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By empowering the individual with knowledge, injuries are eliminated.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>39.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation have a well established safety culture.</td>
<td>Count 6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 11.8%</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety culture is related to organisational culture.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>52.9%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace injuries are related to safety culture.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>54.9%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety culture could lead to change in employee's behaviour.</td>
<td>Count 4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 7.8%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating a safety culture implies creating a continuous awareness of the hazards present in the organisation.</td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% 3.9%</td>
<td>60.8%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When testing the respondent’s perceptions and feelings towards the concept of organisational culture and more specifically, safety culture, a positive feeling in general was noted. **Thirty nine (76.5%)** respondents could identify their organisational image of risk taking as portraying a culture of safety. This is supported by a response rate of **88.3 percent (45)** who agreed that their organisations have a well established safety culture. An overwhelming **46 (90.2%)** respondents agreed that safety culture is related to organisational culture. Furthermore, **92.2 percent (47)** of respondents agreed that workplace injuries are related to safety culture and that safety culture has an influence in changing employee behaviour. **Forty eight (96.1%)** positively reacted towards the statement of creating a safety culture implying the creation of a continuous awareness of the hazards present in the organisation. On this note, it is interesting to observe that **41.2 percent (21)** of respondents disagreed with the statement of treating minor accidents differently than major accidents on the basis of frequency rates. **Eleven (21.6%)** were neutral towards the same statement while only **37.3 percent (19)** agreed. When addressing the element of hazards, **94.2 percent (48)** of respondents agreed that safety depends upon recognising the known injury-causing factors, **76 percent (38)** felt positive about the fact that safety cannot be practised if the organisation is not hazard-orientated. However, **10 (20%)** disagreed with this statement. **Ninety two percent (47)** of respondents agreed that by empowering employees with both awareness and knowledge, injuries are eliminated.

**Table 4.3  Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Attitude**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workplace injuries are related to safety attitude.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace injuries are related to safety behavior.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, accident rates are associated with employees’ attitudes towards safety.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation were</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
successful in changing attitudes towards occupational safety.  

| %     | 5.9% | 35.3% | 52.9% | 5.9% | 100.0% |
---|---|---|---|---|---|

On the note of attitude, the majority of statements were viewed as positive. When evaluating the statement that workplace injuries are related to safety attitudes, 49 (96.1%) agreed with this while 98.1 percent (50) agreed that injuries relate to safety behaviour. Forty one (80.4%) agreed that a safe working environment contributes to positive employee attitude while 70.6 percent (36) agreed that incident rates can be associated with employee attitudes. However, 23.5 percent (12) had a neutral view about this statement.

**Table 4.4 Section B – Safety in the Workplace: General**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Everyone in our organisation shares the responsibility to enhance safety, not just management.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees have fundamentally different perceptions relating to safety culture compared to management.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some accidents are caused by unidentified physical deficiencies in the individual (eg age, hearing, vision).</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fifteen (29.4%) respondents disagreed with the statement that employees’ perception of safety culture differs from that of management. Nine (17.6%) observed the statement in a neutral view while 53 percent (27) agreed. When evaluating the statement that some accidents are caused by unidentified physical deficiencies in the individual, 28 (54.9%) respondents either disagreed or had a neutral feeling towards this statement.

**Table 4.5 Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Risk-Taking**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation effective risk management is the sum of a</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
mature risk culture supported by the attitudes of individuals to deliver what is promised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In our organisation risk-taking is a standard attribute of human behaviour.</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Risk awareness is important for safety culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk-taking are closely related to safety culture.</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>26</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The attitude of individuals has a significant influence on whether the management of risks are controlled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situations characterised by high risk are thoroughly thought through before a risk is taken.</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>29</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When focussing on risk-taking as element, **40.8 percent (20)** disagreed that risk-taking is a standard attribute of human behaviour. Very interesting is the fact that **50 (98.1%)** agreed that risk-awareness is important for safety culture, but only **66 percent (33)** agreed that risk-taking is closely related to safety culture. However, **72.6 percent (37)** agreed that situations characterised by high risk are thoroughly thought through before a risk is taken.

**Table 4.6 Section B – Safety in the Workplace: Financial Benefit**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Our focus on safety have let to significant savings in profits.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profits are at odds with safety.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>39.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportionally, accidents represent a large part of losses to our organisation.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety in our organisation are balanced against our profits.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
<td>25.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our organisation is cognisant of the cost of safety versus the cost of accidents.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>64.7%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 4.6 it is very interesting to note that all the statements regarding the financial benefit of occupation reflected very strong opinions of disagreement. The respondents were thus not convinced that an organisation may benefit financially if a hazard-free environment is offered. **Twenty six (51%)** respondents were neutral towards the statement of a focus on safety having led to significant savings in profits. **Nineteen (37.3%)** disagreed with the fact that profits are at odds with safety while **12 respondents (23.5%)** had a neutral feeling towards this with only **39.2 percent (20)** of respondents agreeing with the statement. **Twenty eight (54.9%)** respondents disagreed that accidents represent a large part of losses to their organisation while **39.2 percent (20)** disagreed that safety is balanced against profits. **35.3 percent (18)** of respondents were neutral towards this, with only **13 (25.5%)** agreeing with the statement. Lastly, **25.5 percent (13)** of respondents disagreed or had a neutral opinion about the fact that their organisations are cognisant of the cost of safety versus the cost of accidents. However, **74.5 percent (38)** of respondents agreed with this statement.

From the above it was possible to conduct a regression analysis to determine the correlation between the concepts of safety. Figure 4.6 illustrates the regression.

---

**Figure 4.6** Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
The graph above is a visual interpretation of linear regression analysis where the ideal would be for \( x \) (the observed cumulative probability) and \( y \) (expected observed cumulative probability) to be equal. From the above, it may be claimed that there is a very strong relationship between the observed cumulative probability of safety in the workplace and the expected cumulative probability of safety in the workplace.

The next sections will focus on the interpretation of results of the individual factors in section C of the Questionnaire.

4.6.3 Section C: Management

This section will address management as the first part of section C in the questionnaire. The focus of the questions on management included the role that management plays in occupational safety as well as the issue around leadership versus management. When testing the reliability of the 10 items of management, a Cronbach Alpha result of 0.804 was achieved. This is a very high result and may be interpreted positively. The reliability of scales for this section of the questionnaire may thus be confirmed.
When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements of management in section C of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.7 in histogram format.

**Figure 4.7 Histogram of Management**

The mean is indicated by an average response rate of 4.1960 with a standard error of 0.06074. This implies that the average feeling towards this section of the questionnaire was positive, the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 3.40 (neutral towards statements) in comparison with the maximum rate of 5.00 (strongly agree with statements) with a median of 4.2000. From this a range of 1.60 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.42950 was reported, with a variance of 0.184. If the histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a uniform distribution histogram, with a minimum positive skewness of 0.025. This may be interpreted
positively, as response will tend to the right implying a stronger agreement with the statements in general.

It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study.

Table 4.7 Section B - Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management accepts responsibility for safety.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management commit themselves to safe practices.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
<td>32.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success of occupational safety depends on the involvement of management.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management is dynamic.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership exists at all levels.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>54.0%</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders and managers in our organisation may be the same people, but in different roles.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>36.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective leadership depends on the personality of the leader.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee performance are influenced by leadership.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An individual's personality influences their style of leadership.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers in our organisation have commit themselves to the creation of long-term safety improvement processes.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The section on management reflected an overwhelming positive response towards the individual statements. Out of the ten statements, five were noted with an 'agreed' response rate of 90% (45+) or more. These included statements such as the fact that management accepts the responsibility for safety (47, 94%), management commit themselves to safe practices (47, 94%), success of occupational safety depends on the involvement of management (49, 98%),
employee performance is influenced by leadership (98%) and an individual’s personality influences their style of leadership (49, 98%). These results clearly indicate the important role that management plays in creating a safe working environment. However, it is also important to note that 13 (26%) respondents either had a neutral opinion or disagreed with the statement that leadership exists at all levels.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and management. The linear relationship between the independent variable (management) and the dependent variable (Safety in the workplace) may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.8:

**Figure 4.8 Regression Analysis of Management and Safety in the Workplace**

Figure 4.8 may be interpreted optimistically. Although the elements are scattered, a positive correlation between management and safety in the workplace may be noted.
According to the Pearson Correlation scale, the level of correlation is 0.58 implying a strong positive correlation between the two elements.

4.6.4 Section C: Internal Marketing

Internal Marketing will address the second part of section C in the questionnaire. The focus of the internal marketing questions varied from treating the employee as valued customer, the role of trust in marketing, the role of marketing in creating a uniform organisational culture and marketing as a two way communication process. When testing the reliability of the 14 items of internal marketing, a Crohnbach Alpha result of 0.935 was achieved. This is a very high result and may be interpreted positively. The reliability of scales for this section of the questionnaire may be declared as certain.

When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements of internal marketing in section C of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in histogram format in figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9 Histogram of Internal Marketing

![Histogram of Internal Marketing]

The mean is indicated by an average rate of 3.8700 with a standard error of 0.08104. This implies that the average feeling towards this section of the
questionnaire was positive, the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 1.71 (strongly disagree to disagree) in comparison with the maximum rate of 5.00 (strongly agree) with a median of 3.9286. From these a range of 3.29 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.57301 was reported, with a variance of 0.328. If the histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a distribution skewed to the left, with a negative skewness of -1.060. This may be interpreted as negative, seeing that the responses may shift to neutral from agree. The outlier to the left is noted.

It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study.

Table 4.8  Section C – Internal Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The success of external marketing in our organisation depends on the success of internal marketing.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing involves treating employees as customers.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing involves the application of marketing inside an organisation.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>64.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing involves effective internal supplier-to-customer relationships.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>54.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing is an essential part of delivering value.</td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>64.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The same marketing tools used to attract customers can also be used to attract the best employees.</td>
<td>Count 6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction of customers are linked to the satisfaction of employees.</td>
<td>Count 4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust plays a role in the success of internal marketing.</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>54.0%</td>
<td>32.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The intention of internal marketing is that employees as customers become more committed towards marketing.</td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing is viewed as</td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As discussed previously, the average response rate for the section on internal marketing was relatively high, indicating that the majority of respondents agreed with the statements. It is reported that 14 (28%) either were neutral or disagreed with the statement that internal marketing involves effective internal supplier-to-customer relationships. However, 36 (72%) respondents agreed with this statement. Furthermore, 82 percent (41) of respondents felt that internal marketing is part of delivering value. Thirty six (72%) respondents agreed that the employees can be attracted the same way as customers. Forty three (86%) respondents regard trust as a key component in the success of internal marketing. Seventy six percent (38) of respondents regard internal marketing as a two-way communication process, while 9 (18%) has a neutral feeling towards the statement.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and internal marketing. The linear relationship between the independent variable (internal marketing) and the dependent variable (Safety in the workplace) may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>management's philosophy of treating employees as customers.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2.0%</th>
<th>38.0%</th>
<th>46.0%</th>
<th>14.0%</th>
<th>100.0%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing is crucial in creating a uniform culture across the organisation.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing helps the process of identifying current behaviours in our organisation.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing regards the employee as the core of our organisation.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>12.0%</td>
<td>66.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing is a two-way communication process between employees and management.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.10 Regression Analysis of Internal Marketing and Occupational Safety
From figure 4.10, it may be argued that a correlation does exist between internal marketing and safety in the workplace. However, even though it may be regarded as a positive correlation, the relationship is not very strong. If the Pearson Correlation is used to measure the level of correlation, an average of 0.44 is obtained implying a moderate positive correlation between the two elements.

4.6.5 Section C: Communication

Communication was selected as the third concept to be represented in section C of the questionnaire. This part reflected statements such as communication that is the lifeblood of an organisation, an atmosphere of respect contributes to good communication, lack of communication is a contributory factor of accidents as well as the fact that the levels of management may hinder communication. When testing the reliability of the 10 items of communication, a Crohnbach Alpha result of 0.714 was
achieved. From this, it may be argued that a positive level of reliability existed amongst the scales of communication statements.

When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements of communication in section C of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in histogram format in figure 4.11.

**Figure 4.11 Histogram of Communication**

The mean is indicated by an average response rate of 3.8811 with a standard error of 0.05879. This implies that the average feeling towards this section of the questionnaire was positive, the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 2.89 (neutral towards the statements) in comparison with the maximum rate of 4.78 (very strong agreement towards the statements) with a median of 3.7778. From this a range of 1.89 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.41574 was reported, with a variance of 0.173. If the histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a symmetrical distribution histogram, with a minimum skewness of 0.078. This may be interpreted positively, as response will tend to shift to the right, implying stronger agreement with the statements.
It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study.

Table 4.9  Section C - Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication is the lifeblood of teams and organisations.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>58.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An atmosphere of respect contributes to good communication.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have various communication processes in place.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The levels of management hinders communication.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of communication is a contributory factor in accidents.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearly all leadership activities associated with our organisation</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are communicating activities.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication has a vital part to play in health and safety as a</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participative process.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of the internal marketing communications are vertical and</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not horizontal.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication supports internal marketing campaigns.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statements around communication reflected interesting results. Five of the statements achieved an agreement rate of 80 percent (40) and higher. Respondents tended to agree very strongly that communication may be regarded as the lifeblood of organisations (46, 92%), that good communication is enhanced through an atmosphere of trust (49, 98%) and respect (48, 96%). Furthermore 44 (89.8%) respondents agreed that communication plays a vital role in health and safety, and that communication supports internal marketing campaigns (41, 83.7%). Very interesting was the results on the statement of management levels’ impact on communication – 50 percent (25) of respondents disagreed with the fact that
management levels hinders communication. 8 (16%) was neutral which left only 34 percent (17) to agree with the statement. Thirty four percent (17) of respondents also were either neutral or disagreed with the fact that a lack of communication contributes to accidents. Eighteen (36.7%) respondents disagreed or had a neutral opinion around the statement that nearly all leadership activities are communication activities. An overwhelming 61.2 percent (30) of respondents disagreed or were neutral towards the fact that most of the internal marketing communications are vertical and not horizontal.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and communication. The linear relationship between the independent variable (communication) and the dependent variable (Safety in the workplace) may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.12:

**Figure 4.12 Regression Analysis of Communication and Safety in the Workplace**

Figure 4.12 illustrates the correlation between communication and safety in the workplace. According to the Pearson Correlation scale, the level of correlation
may be reported as 0.58. It may thus be argued that there is a positive correlation between the two elements stated above.

4.6.6 Section C: Training

The fourth part of section C in the questionnaire was devoted to training. The questions around training reflected issues such as the benefits of safety training that exceeds the costs, training will aid in positive safety attitudes, and the fact that health and safety training is a significant feature of the accident prevention process in the organisation. When testing the reliability of the 8 items of training, a Crohnbach Alpha result of 0.690 was achieved. Although it is lower than the rest of the elements reliability levels, it is still close enough to be regarded as reliability.

When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements of training in section C of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in histogram format in figure 4.13.

Figure 4.13 Histogram of Training

The mean is indicated by an average response rate of 4.1352 with a standard error of 0.04888. This implies that the average feeling towards this section of the
questionnaire was positive, the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 3.50 (neutral towards agree with statements) in comparison with the maximum rate of 5.00 (strongly agree) with a median of 4.0000. From this a range of 1.50 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.34217 was reported, with a variance of 0.117. If the histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a combination between symmetrical distribution histogram and uniform distribution histogram, with a positive skewness of 0.432. This may be interpreted positively, as response will tend to the right, implying a shift towards stronger agreement with the statements.

It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study.

Table 4.10 Section C - Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees gain knowledge about their responsibilities towards safe practice through training.</strong></td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 4.1%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>75.5%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Training helps the employees to understand why a positive safety attitude is necessary in the working environment.</strong></td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>79.6%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety training benefits far exceeds the cost.</strong></td>
<td>Count 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 6.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>61.2%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Training is a key component in ensuring that employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially unsafe situations.</strong></td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 4.1%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Our organisation ignores the important role that training plays in work performance.</strong></td>
<td>Count 15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 30.6%</td>
<td>53.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety training should be designed in such a way that all improves their knowledge of workplace safety.</strong></td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 4.1%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Health and safety training should be seen as an ongoing process through an individual’s career within our organisation.</strong></td>
<td>Count 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 2.0%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Health and safety training is a significant feature of the accident prevention process in our</strong></td>
<td>Count 2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% 4.1%</td>
<td>73.5%</td>
<td>22.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As with management (section 4.6.3), the results towards the statements of training are very high. Out of eight statements, seven reached the **80 percent (41)** mark with the highest as **98 percent (50)**. The respondents thus fully agreed with the importance of training in providing occupational safety. However, one statement reported an **83.7 percent (41)** average of disagreement towards strong disagreement with the statement of organisational ignorance towards the role that training plays in work performance.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and training. The linear relationship between the independent variable (training) and the dependent variable (Safety in the workplace) may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.14.

**Figure 4.14 Regression Analysis of Training and Safety in the Workplace**

![Graph illustrating the correlation between training and safety in the workplace.](image)

Figure 4.14 illustrates the level of correlation between training and safety in the workplace. From this, it is debatable if a correlation exists between the two elements. The Pearson Correlation scale reports a correlation of 0.42, which represents a moderate positive correlation between the two elements.
4.6.7 Section C: Motivation

The last element to be part of section C of the questionnaire was motivation. In this part, statements around employee motivation were made. It was stated that satisfied employees achieve higher safety performance but to understand motivation, one must understand human nature itself. When testing the reliability of the 7 items of motivation, a Crohnbach Alpha result of 0.830 was achieved. This implies a strong level of reliability of the scales of items in this section of the questionnaire.

When reflecting on the response rate towards all statements of motivation in section C of the questionnaire, the results may be illustrated as follow in histogram format in figure 4.15.

Figure 4.15 Histogram of Motivation

![Histogram of Motivation](image)

The mean is indicated by an average response rate of 4.0787 with a standard error of 0.07511. This implies the respondents tended to agree with the statements in general. The minimum rate was captured as 2.14 (disagree with the statement) in comparison with the maximum rate of 5.00 (strongly agree with the statement) with a
median of 4.1429. From this a range of 2.86 could be determined. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 0.52575 was reported, with a variance of 0.276. If the histogram is evaluated in totality, it may be described as a symmetrical distribution histogram, with a skewness of -0.897. This may be interpreted negatively, as response will tend to shift to the left, implying a neutral feeling towards the statements. The outlier to the left is noted.

It is necessary to highlight results of some individual statements for an objective view towards the study.

Table 4.11  Section C - Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied employees achieve higher safety performance.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>73.5%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To understand motivation one must understand the human nature itself.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In our organisation, people seek the need for satisfaction.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation is the energising force that activates safe behaviour.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different people are motivated differently.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives are used to motivate individuals.</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation involves aligning rewards with what employees value</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of seven statements, six reported an agreement rate of 78 percent (38) and higher. Forty six (93.9%) respondents agreed that satisfied employees achieve higher safety performance. Forty four (89.8%) agreed that one must understand human nature to understand motivation while 79.8% (39) of respondents agreed that people seek the need for satisfaction. Although 41 (83.7%) agreed that motivation is the energising force that activates safe behaviour, 5 (10.2%) had a neutral feeling towards the statement while 3 (6.1%) disagreed. An overwhelming 98 percent (48)
of respondents agreed that people are motivated differently. Interesting enough, did only 65.3 percent (32) agree that incentives are used as motivation tool. On the other hand, 34.7% (17) either disagreed or had a neutral feeling towards the statement. Eleven (22.5%) disagreed or felt neutral about the statement that motivation involves aligning rewards with what employees’ value. However, 38 (77.6%) agreed with this statement.

A regression analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and motivation. The linear relationship between the independent variable (motivation) and the dependent variable (Safety in the workplace) may be illustrated as follow in figure 4.16.

Figure 4.16 Regression Analysis of Motivation and Safety in the Workplace

From figure 4.16, it is possible seen motivation and safety in the workplace. However, the relationship is moderate positive as noted in the Pearson Correlation scale that reported an average correlation of 0.40.

4.7 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ALL FACTORS DISCUSSED
The above sections addressed the issue of correlation between the concept of safety in the workplace and the concepts of internal marketing, management, communication, training and motivation. The following section will give a brief summary, in table format, of the levels of correlations between all factors discussed. This will be based on results achieved from the Pearson Correlation method.

### Table 4.12 Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Safety in the Workplace (section B)</th>
<th>Mean Management (Section C1)</th>
<th>Mean Internal Marketing (Section C2)</th>
<th>Mean Communication (Section C3)</th>
<th>Mean Training (Section C4)</th>
<th>Mean Motivation (Section C5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Safety in the Workplace</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.60</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.44</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.60</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.42</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Management (Section C1)</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.60</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.23</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.36</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.44</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Internal Marketing (Section C2)</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.44</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.70</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.23</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Communication (Section C3)</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.60</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.36</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.30</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Training (Section C4)</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.42</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.44</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.23</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Motivation (Section C5)</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.40</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.33</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.70</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.70</td>
<td>Correlation of 0.144</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4.12, it may be argued that correlations exist between the factors contributing to occupational safety. The two factors of interest are safety in the workplace (section B) and internal marketing (section C).

### 4.8 CONCLUSION
This chapter was devoted to two focus areas, the first one being an in-depth discussion around the research methodology used in this study, followed by an empirical investigation into the results of the research conducted. Specific attention was given to concepts such as the choice of population and method of sampling, the questionnaire design including elements such as the format and content, the choice of scale, pre-testing, data collection and analysis.

This was followed by an investigation and discussion around the empirical results of the questionnaire in the second part of the study. The results were discussed based on the six sub-sections of the questionnaire (one in section B and five in section C). This was done with the aid of the Crohnbach Alpha that tested the level of reliability, a regression analysis that tested the level of correlation between the various elements as well as statistical descriptives that gave an objective perspective of the individual elements and how the respondents agreed with the individual statements.

The next chapter contains a summary of the literature study, followed by the main findings of the empirical investigation as well as conclusions and recommendations based on above-mentioned findings.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION
The process of creating a safe working environment for all has proved to be one of the most complex facets within an organisation. This may be attributed to the fact that there are so many elements involved in ensuring occupational safety. Not only has the individual employee a responsibility towards safety, including his or her attitude and risk-taking behaviour, but also does the organisation contribute towards this hazard-free environment in providing a culture where safety is regarded as a priority or not. Furthermore, the role of internal marketing will have an impact on whether employees will buy into the concept of occupational safety. Internal marketing may be conveyed through management and how they communicate the importance of a safe workplace through elements such as training and motivation.

From the above it is clear that both individual and organisational factors play a crucial part in ensuring a hazard-free environment. The challenge is to link these factors together ensuring cooperation from both the employee and employer. If the idea of a safe working environment is not effectively marketed inside the organisation, the factors involved will be negatively influenced, leading to an unsuccessful implementation of safety in the organisation.

The purpose of this research study was to determine whether occupational safety can be promoted successfully through internal marketing. Unless there is an understanding of all the concepts related to a safe working environment, the benefits as a result of the implementation of occupational safety will not be fully grasped.

This study consisted of an empirical investigation as well as a literature study that clarifies internal marketing by identifying and explaining the important concepts contributing to successful internal marketing of occupational safety.

The literature review was introduced in chapter 2 which put occupational safety in perspective by highlighting key factors - organisational, individual and economical of nature. Although these factors play a crucial part in enhancing safety in the workplace, it is the way that occupational safety is marketed to the employees, that counts. Internal marketing was the core of chapter 3, explaining the benefits of treating the employee as customer. This was supported by four crucial elements, namely management, training, communication and motivation. Together these
elements interact with one another to ensure that the employee understands the individual role played to create a safe work environment. In chapter 4, the research methodology was discussed and the empirical results were interpreted.

In the first part of this concluding chapter a brief overview will be given of the literature study, followed by a summary of the empirical investigation. This will be supported with empirical recommendations that may serve as a guideline of improving occupational safety through internal marketing.

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE LITERATURE STUDY
The results of the study from a literature perspective can be divided into the factors influencing occupational safety as well as the role that internal marketing plays in enhancing occupational safety.

5.2.1 Factors Influencing Occupational Safety
Chapter two was based on the argument that safety is not a good fit with a modern organisational image of risk taking, cost cutting and entrepreneurial spirit. However, unless safety management is really excellent, hazards will occur (section 2.2). Irrespective of the type of hazard, it is important to realise that the involvement of human factors should always be kept in mind. Individuals are different from one another and react differently in similar situations, often creating a hazard themselves. It was therefore proposed that systematic risk management will assist the organisation to quantify uncertainty. Confidence comes from certainty, but in the absence of such certainty, confidence can be increased by knowing where the risks are coming from, how extensive the uncertainty is, and what the potential consequences are. This included a four step process where hazard-related data needs to be identified, assessed, controlled and reviewed.

In support of managing hazards in the workplace, the chapter allocated a section to the standards and regulations that forces organisations to provide a safe working environment (section 2.3). The common law position on health and safety at work is that employers must do everything in their power to protect their employees from risk or foreseeable injury, disease or death at work. Thus, if an employer is aware of a health and safety risk or hazard to employees, the employer will be liable if an
employee is injured or killed or suffered illness as a result of this risk or hazard, when the employer failed to take reasonable care. However, legal requirements do not in themselves optimise safety. At best a climate for the study and enhancement of means to attain the desired objective is created. The spirit and the letter of the law must be fulfilled for that to take place. In support of this, it was argued that the greatest occupational health and safety challenge is perhaps not providing standards and regulations to enhance safety, but rather how this law will be enforced.

With the above in mind, the question was asked why an organisation is willing to spend money and energy on improving safety if not in a way that creates sustainable improvement. This way a once off energy burst is necessary to make the improvement, needing much lower energy input to hold the gains. The answer to sustainable improvement lies in the organisational culture itself – the climate in which people operate, the values and beliefs that the organisation declares, the application of those values and beliefs by managers at all levels. It was discovered (in section 2.4) that safety culture is closely linked with organisational culture and may even be regarded as a sub-dimension of organisational culture. The presence of a safety culture implies an organisation where people share values, which will affect and influence the attitudes and behaviour of its members. However, embracing a safety culture is hard work. The employee needs to understand that safety performance is on the same level of importance as production or costs. Once a safety culture becomes established, it will be clear that safety leadership at the management level is a key factor in allowing more employees to return home safe to their families every day, and for organisations to have greater confidence that strong safety performance drives organisational performance.

To support the discussion of safety culture, it was argued (in section 2.5) that employee attitudes are one of the most important components of safety culture. Employee attitudes towards safety, although only part of safety culture, can thus provide an important indication of the nature of an organisation’s safety climate and underpinning safety culture. However, the architecture of attitudes to safety may be described as context-dependent. This is borne out by a comparison of safety attitudes across sectors, which indicated that the relationships between attitudes and safety differed depending on the industrial context or work environment. It was
discovered that attitudes occur within a situation and that the situation can, and will, influence the relationship between attitude and behaviour. This could be explained by the fact that shared attitudes and beliefs relate to a shared safety culture. Perceptual differences of daily safety issues, on the other hand, might be a reflection of different organisational cultures. The literature research clearly articulated the importance of understanding the current attitudes of employees before implementing safety in organisations. Although a safe working environment creates a positive employee attitude, current attitudes are viewed as an enduring disposition to consistently respond in a given manner. When required to work in a particular safe way that may be new to the employees, cognitive dissonance may be displayed, making it extremely difficult for the employee to create a safe working environment that is supported by all.

Keeping the above discussion in mind, it was argued (in section 2.6) that the most critical success factor for effective risk management is the one most often lacking: an appropriate and mature risk culture supported by the attitudes of individuals to deliver what is promised. From a risk perception it was proposed that safety culture may be interpreted as a set of norms, roles, beliefs, attitudes and social and technical practices within an organisation which are concerned with minimising the exposure of individuals to conditions considered to be dangerous. Culture is the leading risk factor for compromising integrity and compliance in organisations today. However, apart from cultural influences, there are many variables that have major influences upon individual risk-taking behaviour. In particular, the risk-taking nature of individuals may influence the effectiveness of strategies for intervention and prevention training. It is believed that risk-taking has been associated with perceived control in that increased control of a situation is associated with a higher level of risk. On the other hand, a frequent by-product of risk-taking appears in the perception of fortune, primarily determined by negative outcomes that did not happen. Therefore, people who engage in risk-taking behaviour do not necessarily try to reduce the riskiness of that behaviour but rather choose to ignore the dangers associated with it.

A discussion on culture, attitudes and organisational risk would not be complete if a measurement system was not addressed focussing on the implementation of the above (section 2.7). The balanced scorecard was chosen as the measure most
successful in translating strategy into results. While the general business performance of an organisation is subject to a range of positive measures, this is not always the case for occupational health and safety. Negative measures such as lost time injuries, total injuries and lost workdays rates will evidently be reported. A health and safety balanced scorecard was proposed where the change of learning and growth perspectives were facilitated as the organisation matures when facing new safety challenges. Organisations always have to keep in mind that the balanced scorecard is only a vital tool to improve occupational health and safety (both short-term and long-term) if it is implemented and monitored continuously. Furthermore, it will force the organisation to become aware of the costs involved in incidents and accidents.

Chapter two concluded with a discussion around the economical implications of occupational safety (section 2.8). It is believed that organisations are starting to realise the ethical and moral implications of killing and injuring people at work. Although managers claim that this is the main motivator for ongoing efforts in providing a safer working environment, there is little doubt about the influence that accidents have on an organisation's present and future competitive success. While second to the prevention of human injury, operating cost reduction as objective broadens the basis for safety work. Cost reduction, as a purpose brings the losses from property damage and interference with production as well as the purely injury aspects, all into focus. Therefore, it was argued that cost reduction may be regarded as a major purpose of the safety program, or may be considered as a means of offsetting the costs of injury prevention activities that management might choose to carry on regardless of cost. According to law, it is the organisation’s responsibility to ensure workplaces are free of recognised hazards. This together with humanitarian reasons demands safety, but it is in the degree of effort to excel in this field that cost benefit analysis can play a part. Furthermore, compliance with legal requirements and social demands comes much more freely when it can be demonstrated that safety efforts make a contribution to profits exceeding all or a significant part of their costs.

5.2.2 Enhancing Occupational Safety through Internal Marketing
Nearly every manager who heads a staff function has been challenged at one time or another to cut costs sharply and improve service or face the prospect of surrendering responsibilities to a more competitive outside source. Current trends toward vertical disintegration and outsourcing have left many staff managers wondering how best to respond to the requirements and expectations of their organisations. Today, effective managers must recognise that their internal users are in fact their customers and that marketing inside the organisation is an essential part of delivering value to the organisation and ultimately to the end consumer. With this perspective as foundation, this chapter investigated an often unknown part of marketing (section 3.2). The focus was on the employee as internal customer of the organisation as market. This was supported by a discussion around the critical elements necessary to ensure successful internal marketing. Safety is the intangible concept that is marketed to the employee and was incorporated in the explanation of internal marketing.

If marketing is viewed as a disciplinary synthesis for creating and delivering value to external markets, then it needs the support of an internal market. Employees are in essence the first market, and external customers the second. Internal marketing is more important than conventional external marketing. It may be regarded as the key to excellent service and to successful external marketing. These two views justify the exploration of the marketing concept, thus, internal marketing within a business organisation. A new employee relation or marketing orientation may well require managers to rethink their role, and to recognise the processes by which value is profitably created for internal and external customers. In support of this, internal marketing may be viewed as a strategy that identifies a product, target customers and capabilities. The products are the jobs organisations offer to employees and are made up of the job specifications, remuneration and employee’s motivation, along with the work environment that influences employees, the target audiences.

The intention of internal marketing is that employees as customers become more committed, cooperative and enthusiastic. Through changes in behaviour and attitude together with internal practices and procedures employees as customers will experience greater motivation and happiness. The customer has been the focal point of marketing, the very reason for its existence. The employee’s rank within the
organisation notwithstanding, it is critical that top management is successful in making everyone in the organisation a customer in relation to others either inside or outside the organisation.

From the above, the role of management was regarded (in section 3.3) as crucial in enhancing safety through internal marketing. Safety can only be achieved if top management realises their part in the process, if they consider it as important and commit themselves to lead an example of safe practice. Since the success of safety implementation is largely dependent on the efforts of management, it is essential that management find themselves in a position where their full cooperation in the prevention of injuries will redound to their credit. Managers must not see safety just as an increase in cost and drag on production, but rather experience it as a way of increasing all-around efficiency throughout the organisation. In addition, they must realise that safety is not a once-off concept. It is something that needs to become part of the daily routine of operating practices. Furthermore, management needs to realise the crucial part that they play in creating a safe working environment for all.

One of the elements that managers can use as tool to enhance occupational safety amongst employees, is training (section 3.4). Through training people gain knowledge about their responsibility towards safe practices. Training will thus not only contribute to a safety culture but will help the employee to understand why a positive safety attitude is crucial in the working environment. It was argued that an impetus for an organisation to maximise success is to offer training to all employees. Training benefits far exceed the cost seeing the impact on retention, growing talent pool, increase in staff morale and improvement in overall job satisfaction. The knowledge economy with the focus on globalisation places organisations on the edge to continually improve employees’ skill set to remain competitive. Training may thus be defined as the logical development of attitude, knowledge and skill patterns that is necessary for the individual to perform a given task or job adequately, often integrated with further education. Skills and knowledge are regarded an operating asset. In any people-intensive organisation, employees are the most important operating asset, in tight markets; they are often seen as the competitive edge.
Training and education are key components in ensuring that all employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially unsafe situations. Organisations often ignore the important role that training plays in work performance and efficiency. Nevertheless, training may be expensive both in terms of production and wages. However, training is not effective if a real learning environment does not underpin it. Employees need to understand why they receive training and how it will benefit their daily activities.

Although training will equip the employee with knowledge about the importance of a safe working environment, it will be to no avail if there is no motivation for the employee to contribute to safe working practices (section 3.5). To understand motivation one must understand human nature itself. Human nature can be very simple, yet very complex too. An understanding and appreciation of this is a prerequisite to effective employee motivation in the workplace and therefore effective management and leadership. Motivation occurs when an individual is intrigued by an incentive or an internal drive. Simply stated, motivation is a personal and internalised state, unique to the individual. It was therefore debated that the employee is the only one having control over what is motivating to him / her. The only thing that a manager can do is to create a condition to which individuals will respond because they choose to, allowing them to be self-motivated. Understanding motivations is not easy. Several motivations may be present in any situation, and they are often subconscious. However, they must be investigated in order for the marketing effort to be successful.

With the discussion around the employee as customer as a foundation, supported by the other factors influencing internal marketing, communication provided a platform for understanding almost every human process that takes place in an organisation. Organisations and communications are interdependent, and this interdependence was the focus of the last section (section 3.6) of this chapter.

It was argued that a key to a healthy organisation is effective internal communication, that is, getting managers and employees to talk with each other and openly share problems and ideas. To some extent, the management hierarchy must be set aside so that personnel at all levels can speak freely with those higher up.
The result is two-way communication. To communicate effectively, managers must tell employees where they stand, how the business is doing, and what the organisation’s plans are for the future. While negative feedback may be necessary at times, giving positive feedback to employees is the primary tool for establishing good human relations. In short, it was summarised that an atmosphere of trust and respect contributes greatly to good communication.

It was debated that communication is not easy. The method, context, structure, language, knowledge and an understanding of the needs of the recipient to whom the information is being transmitted are vital in understanding the importance of communication in organisations. However, without proper and clear communication, no organisation can survive. Nearly all activities associated with human organisations are communication activities. Furthermore, communication is needed to move people to achieve desired organisational goals. Good leadership and sound decision making are the cornerstones of effective organisations. However, in all these processes, communication is a key element. Thus, as the organisational design changes, so must the communication design. Through open channels of communication, people related to the organisation, both internally and externally, are informed of the safety status of the organisation. It was concluded that communication enables people to share their ideas and views towards safety, facilitating the need to create bigger safety awareness.

The discussion on the theoretical findings forms a basis on which to continue a discussion of empirical results. The research results indicated in chapter four therefore forms the focus of the following section, with acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses identified in chapter one, being identified and fully discussed. Discussions are provided regarding figures and tables presented in chapter four, with the ultimate explanation of research hypotheses being provided at the end of the chapter.

5.3 EMPIRICAL CONCLUSIONS
The following discussion focuses on the empirical results presented in chapter four. Each section will be dealt with separately and in greater detail, highlighting the
specific results that are applicable to the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses established.

5.3.1 Profile of Respondents
The findings with regards to the respondent profiles are as follows:

5.3.1.1 Position in the Organisation
More than half of the respondents did not represent the marketing field (43%). A quarter of the respondents were on management level (23%). 18% of the respondents represented the general marketing field while 16% of respondents did not report on their position in the organisation. It is important to note that the ‘other’ may contain respondents on management level, but not in the field of marketing. Respondents in this category included areas such as SHEQ (Safety, health, environment and quality), Risk as well as Human Resources (Figure 4.1).

5.3.1.2 Years’ Experience
A wide spread relative to years of experience were reflected. 22% of the respondents have less than a year’s experience. On the opposite side, there are 28% of the respondents with more than ten years experience in the field of marketing. The other 50% of respondents are spread between 1 to 10 years of marketing experience. Two respondents did not complete this question (Figure 4.2).

5.3.1.3 Marketing Qualification
The amount of respondents that do not have any marketing qualification is dominant with 43%. Marketing related qualifications make up the rest with the highest percentage in Diplomas (23.5%). One respondent did not complete this question (Figure 4.3).

5.3.1.4 Automotive Sector Representation
The majority of respondents represented the Manufacturing sector with a percentage of 32%. The Supplier and Original Equipment Manufacturing sectors were next in line, equally representing 18% of the total market. The ‘other’ category represented 12%. Respondents in this category include sectors such as the Automotive Soft Trim, Fastening systems, as well as respondents from Automotive Head Office.
Aftermarket Parts Manufacturer and Motor Mechanic sectors represented 2% individually (Figure 4.4).

5.3.2 Safety in the Workplace
Determining which factors contribute to safety in the workplace formed the focus of this section in the study. Although safety in the workplace was regarded as a focal point, the questionnaire addressed elements including culture, attitude, risk and economical savings of occupational safety. The following research findings are evident:

5.3.2.1 Organisational Culture
Culture was defined as the climate in which people operate, the values and beliefs that the organisation declares, the application of those values and beliefs by managers at all levels. It was necessary to discover if a relationship between organisational culture and safety culture exists and how it relates to the elements of attitude and risk-taking. Furthermore, it was necessary to determine if safety culture could be linked to hazards in the organisation.

The following research findings are evident (table 4.2):

- Organisational image of risk taking may be portrayed as a culture of safety (76.5%), supported with the fact that the majority of organisations have a well established safety culture (88.3%).
- Based on the response for safety culture, it is evident that safety culture is related to organisational culture (90.2%). Furthermore, it may be argued that workplace injuries are related to safety culture and that safety culture has an influence in changing employee behaviour (92.2%).
- The creation of a safety culture implies the creation of a continuous awareness of the hazards present in the organisation (96.1%).
- It cannot be stated for certain that employees’ perception of safety culture differs to that of management (53%).

From the above, the following assumption could be made:

Organisational culture is related to safety culture. Furthermore, safety culture is related to workplace injuries.
5.3.2.2 Hazards
Determining an organisation’s view towards hazards in the workplace was the main focus of this section of the study. The following results emanated from the research (Table 4.2):

- It cannot be stated that all organisations treat minor accidents differently than major accidents on the basis of frequency rates (37.3%). In addition to that, it is still debatable if some accidents are caused by unidentified physical deficiencies in the individual (45.1%).
- When addressing the element of hazards, it may be argued that safety depends upon recognising the known injury-causing factors (94.2%). In addition, safety cannot be practised if the organisation is not hazard-orientated (76%).
- Through empowering employees with both awareness and knowledge, injuries are eliminated (92.2%).

Thus, the following assumption can be made:

For safety to succeed, it is necessary that the organisation must be hazard-orientated. This may include the empowerment of all employees with awareness and knowledge about hazards that may occur.

5.3.2.3 Attitudes
On the note of attitude, the aim of this section was to establish if a link exists between employee attitude and occupational safety. The following results were presented (Table 4.3):

- Workplace injuries are related to safety attitudes (96.1%) as well as safety behaviour (98.1%).
- A safe working environment contributes to positive employee attitude (80.4%)
- Incident rates can be associated with employee attitudes (70.6%).
From the above, the following may be assumed:

5.3.2.4 Risk-Taking
Possible correlation between the elements of risk, culture and attitude required further investigation. The following research findings are evident (Table 4.5):

- Risk-awareness is important for safety culture (98.1%).
- Risk-taking is closely related to safety culture (66%). In addition, situations characterised by high risk are thoroughly thought through before a risk is taken (72.6%).
- It is still debatable if risk-taking is a standard attribute of human behaviour (59.2%).

Thus, the following assumption can be made:

5.3.2.5 Economical Implications of Occupational Safety
The relationship between occupational safety and accidents implies a financial consideration, either positive or negative. The financial benefits drawn from occupational safety was the main focus of this section of the study. The following results emanated from the research (Table 4.6):

- It is very interesting to note that all the statements regarding the financial benefit of occupation reflected very strong opinions of disagreement. The respondents were thus not convinced that an organisation may benefit financially if a hazard-free environment is offered. It is thus debatable if a focus on safety will lead to significant savings in profits. However, organisations are cognisant of the cost of safety versus the cost of accidents (74.5%).
From the above, it may be assumed that:

Organisations are not yet convinced that occupational safety will lead to a financial beneficial position for the organisation.

5.3.3 Factors Supporting Occupational Safety
Determining which organisational factors contribute to occupational safety formed the focal point of this section in the study. The section can be divided into five main focus areas, namely management, internal marketing, communication, training and motivation. The following research findings are evident:

5.3.3.1 Management
Although safety may be regarded as the responsibility of every individual in the workplace, it will be management that ensures the enforcement of occupational safety. The role that managers play in enhancing a safe working environment was the focus point of this section of the study. The following results emanated from the research (Table 4.7):

- Management accepts the responsibility for safety (94%).
- Management commit themselves to safe practices (94%)
- The success of occupational safety depends on the involvement of management (98%).
- Employee performance is influenced by leadership (98%) and an individual’s personality influences their style of leadership (98%).

From the above, the following may be assumed:

The involvement and commitment of management will determine the level of success of occupational safety.

5.3.3.2 Internal Marketing
Internal marketing is regarded as the main focus for the study as a whole. Therefore it was important to determine the perceptions of the concept including respondents
understanding of the term. The following research findings may be reported (Table 4.8):

- Internal marketing involves effective internal supplier-to-customer relationships (72%).
- Internal marketing is part of delivering value (82%).
- Employees can be attracted the same way as customers (72%).
- Trust may be regarded as a key component in the success of internal marketing (86%).
- Internal marketing may be regarded as a two-way communication process (76%).

With regards to internal marketing, the following may be assumed:

5.3.3.3 Communication

Communication may be regarded as a central component in ensuring organisational success. Without communication no organisation is able to survive. Determining the role that communication plays in enhancing safety in the workplace was the focus of this section of the study. The following results emanated from the research (Table 4.9):

- Communication may be regarded as the lifeblood of organisations (92%).
- Good communication is enhanced through an atmosphere of trust (98%) and respect (96%).
- Communication plays a vital role in health and safety (89.8%), and it may be argued that communication supports internal marketing campaigns (83.7%).
- It cannot be stated for certain that management levels hinder communication (34%). In addition, it is also debatable if a lack of communication contributes to accidents.
- Most of the internal marketing communications are horizontal rather than vertical (61.2%).

From the above, it may be assumed that:
5.3.3.4 Training
The focus of this section of the study was on the role that training plays in enhancing occupational safety. The following findings may be presented (Table 4.10):

- Employees gain knowledge about their responsibilities towards safe practice through training (89.8%).
- Safety training benefits far exceed the cost (89.8%).
- Training is a key component in ensuring that employees are aware of potential risks before finding themselves in potentially unsafe situations (89.8%).
- Safety training should be designed in such a way that all improves their knowledge of workplace safety (95.9%).
- Health and safety training should be seen as an ongoing process through an individual's career (91.9%).
- Health and safety training is a significant feature of the accident prevention process (95.9%). In support of this, it may be claimed that the majority of organisations (83.7%) are not ignorant towards the role that training plays in work performance.

Thus, the following assumption can be made:

Health and safety training plays a significant part in broadening the employee's knowledge and awareness of occupational safety.

5.3.3.5 Motivation
The degree to which an employee must be motivated in order for occupational safety to be enhanced, was the main focus of this section of the study. The following research findings are evident (Table 4.11):

- One must understand human nature to understand motivation (89.8%).
- People seek the need for satisfaction (79.8%).
- Motivation is the energising force that activates safe behaviour (83.7%).
- People are motivated differently (98%). In addition to this it may be argued that motivation involves aligning rewards with what employees’ value (77.6%).
- Incentives may be used as motivation tool (65.3%).

From the above, the following can be assumed:

If an organisation understands what motivates their employees, safety behaviour might be influenced positively.

5.3.4 Correlations between all Factors Discussed
The above sections gave a summary of the research findings as stated in chapter four. The following section will give an overview of the levels of correlations between all factors discussed, based on results achieved from the Pearson Correlation method. It may be argued that correlations exist between the factors contributing to occupational safety (section 4.7). The two factors of interest are safety in the workplace (Section B) and internal marketing (Section C2). The correlations for these two factors are identified as follows:

- Safety in the Workplace (Section B) is in correlation with:
  - Management: Tend to a strong positive correlation
  - Internal Marketing: Tend to a moderate positive correlation
  - Communication: Tend to a strong positive correlation
  - Training: Tend to a moderate positive correlation
  - Motivation: Tend to a moderate positive correlation

- Internal marketing (Section C2) is in correlation with:
  - Safety in the workplace: Tend to a moderate positive correlation
  - Management: Tend to a weak positive correlation
  - Communication: Tend to a strong positive correlation
  - Training: Tend to a weak positive correlation
  - Motivation: Tend to a strong positive correlation
5.4 THE LINK BETWEEN THE RESEARCH RESULTS AND THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The statements in the questionnaire addressed both the research objectives as well as the hypotheses. This section will focus on linking the objectives and hypotheses with the results obtained from the empirical research.

5.4.2 Research Objectives

- **Objective:** To establish the existence of a mutual influence between safety culture, safety attitude and risk perception.
  
  **Result Reported:** A mutual influence exists between the concepts of safety culture, safety attitude and risk perception (section 4.6.2).

- **Objective:** To identify financial opportunities if the organisation invests in a safe working environment.
  
  **Result Reported:** If an organisation invests in a safe working environment, financial opportunities cannot be guaranteed (section 4.6.2).

- **Objective:** To determine the impact of management on internal marketing of safety.
  
  **Result reported:** The role that management plays in enhancing occupational safety is significant. However, the correlation between management and internal marketing is positive but not very strong (section 4.7).

- **Objective:** To determine the impact of training on internal marketing of safety.
  
  **Result Reported:** Although the correlation between training and internal marketing is positive but weak, safety in the workplace will be enhanced through training (section 4.6.6).

- **Objective:** To determine the impact of motivation on internal marketing of safety.
  
  **Result reported:** The impact of motivation on internal marketing of safety is significant (section 4.6.7).
**Objective:** To determine the impact of communication on internal marketing.

**Result Reported:** Communication is key in ensuring the success of internal marketing (section 4.6.5).

With the above secondary objectives as foundation, the primary objective was reached. From the results it may thus be claimed that occupational safety can be promoted successfully through internal marketing.

### 5.4.2 Hypotheses

- **H\(_1\):** Occupational safety can be promoted through internal marketing.

**Result Reported:** With the support of additional elements, including management, communication, training and motivation, safety in the workplace will be successfully marketed internally (section 4.6.4).

- **H\(_2\):** Implementing safe practices will result in cost savings in the long-term.

**Result Reported:** Respondents that participated in the study, were not convinced that safe practices will result in cost savings in the long-term (section 4.6.2).

- **H\(_3\):** Culture, attitude and risk influence the success of occupational safety

**Result Reported:** Safety culture, the attitude of employees and the employee’s behaviour towards risk-taking has a definite impact on the success of occupational safety (section 4.6.2).

For the environment in which the study was conducted in, it may be stated that the first and last hypotheses may be accepted as valid. However, the second hypothesis was rejected based on the research results in this study.

### 5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research results presented in the above sections, the following recommendations could be made:

- Occupational safety is a fairly new concept and employees do not necessarily understand or realise that they too, play an important part in enhancing a safe
working environment. Organisations must thus from the start, create a culture that portrays safety as a priority in everything that is done.

- It was established that an organisation which pays attention to hazards, has a better safety record. However, organisations need to realise that hazards are not just the obvious injury-causing elements. Unidentified physical deficiencies must get more attention as this may be a huge cause of accidents. This will include aspects such as the age, hearing ability or vision of an employee.

- The attitude of employees has a direct influence on the level of occupational safety. This may be true for both positive and negative attitudes. It is thus recommended that an organisation pays attention to negative attitudes as this will cause other employees to also become negative, leading to a decrease in the success rate of safety.

- Organisations need to investigate the concept of risk-taking as a standard attribute of human behaviour, as risk-taking plays a major role in occupational safety.

- Although the literature study proved occupational safety to be cost beneficial for an organisation, the empirical results showed otherwise. Further investigations into this concept are necessary to be certain that safety does not offer an economical incentive. It might just be the selected target population that felt this way.

- The role of management in providing a safe working environment is significant. However, the role between a manager and a leader needs further clarification in this context as this will influence how occupational safety will be enforced in the organisation.

- Because of the newness of the concept, it is important to investigate internal marketing as term. Limited research could be found to justify statements made.

- Without communication, no organisation can survive, however, it was stated that lots of communication does not necessarily imply good communication.
Organisations need to establish what to communicate and how to do that in the most efficient way, keeping hierarchical structures in mind.

- One way of broadening the knowledge about safety to employees is through training. Still, training will not add any value if it is not supported by a learning environment. Organisations must ensure that the employee understands why training is received and how the new trained skills can be applied to ensure that safety is enhanced.

- Safety in the workplace will never be supported if the employee does not understand his or her part in it. If no value can be gained from the employee’s side, occupational safety will not succeed. Thus, the organisation must motivate the employee towards a state where occupational safety is perceived as a priority. For this to happen, organisations must realise that employees are not all the same, and will thus not be motivated with the same incentives.

5.6 CONCLUSION
This chapter was dedicated to the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the theoretical and empirical research. The first section of the chapter focused on the theoretical findings of all the factors contributing to safe working environment, followed by a detailed discussion of the empirical research conclusions. The chapter concludes with recommendations as well as indicating future research areas.

The research study has endeavoured to explore the role of internal marketing in enhancing occupation safety. Several findings were similar to previous research conducted. Both the concepts of internal marketing and the element of safety as cost-saver, however, provides a basis for future research due to the significant value of these findings to marketers and researchers alike. The value of researching the concept of internal marketing should therefore not be discarded, as the researcher is of the opinion that knowledge regarding this aspect will dramatically influence the way that organisations will approach and treat employees in the future.
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