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Impact of individual resilience and safety climate on safety performance and psychological stress of construction workers: A case study of the Ontario construction industry

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: The construction industry has hit a plateau in terms of safety performance. Safety climate is 19 regarded as a leading indicator of safety performance; however, relatively little safety climate research has 20 been done in the Canadian construction industry. Safety climate may be geographically sensitive, thus it is 21 necessary to examine how the construct of safety climate is defined and used to improve safety performance 22 in different regions. On the other hand, more and more attention has been paid to job related stress in the 23 construction industry. Previous research proposed that individual resilience may be associated with a better 24 safety performance and may help employees manage stress. Unfortunately, few empirical research studies 25 have examined this hypothesis. This paper aims to examine the role of safety climate and individual resilience 26 in safety performance and job stress in the Canadian construction industry. Method: The research was based 27 on 837 surveys collected in Ontario between June 2015 and June 2016. Structural equation modeling (SEM) tech- 28 niques were used to explore the impact of individual resilience and safety climate on physical safety outcomes 29 and on psychological stress among construction workers. Results: The results show that safety climate not only 30 affected construction workers' safety performance but also indirectly affected their psychological stress. In addi- 31 tion, it was found that individual resilience had a direct negative impact on psychological stress but had no 32 impact on safety outcomes. Conclusions: These findings highlight the roles of both organizational and individual 33 factors in individual safety performance and in psychological well-being. Practical applications: Construction 34 organizations need to not only monitor employees' safety performance, but also to assess their employees' 35 psychological well-being. Promoting a positive safety climate together with developing training programs focus- 36 ing on improving employees' psychological health – especially post-trauma psychological health – can improve 37 the safety performance of an organization.

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51 1. Introduction

52The construction industry plays an important role in Ontario's economic growth and employment. Since 2003, the Ontario government 53invested nearly \$3 billion in the residential sector, which created 545560,000 jobs (Ontario, 2014). However, safety remains one of the biggest challenges in construction (Becerik-Gerber & Siddiqui, 2014). Over the 56 10 year period from 2004 to 2013, the construction sector accounted 5758for 26.6% of all workplace traumatic fatalities in Ontario, the highest 59percentage of any industry (WSIB, 2013). Meanwhile, the fatality rate in the Ontario construction has shown little improvement since the 60 1990s, as shown in Fig. 1. 61

Between 1965 and 1995, there was a steady decrease in the fatality 62 rate. The decrease was due in part to the enforcement of an increasingly 63 more comprehensive construction safety act that brought about greater 64 safety awareness. After 1995, however, the industry continued to expefrience approximately 5 fatalities per 100,000 construction workers per 66 year. The plateau phenomenon in safety performance can be observed 67 in other jurisdictions as well, such as New Zealand (Guo, Yiu, & 68 González, 2016) and Australia (Lingard, Cooke, & Blismas, 2010). Similarly, the rate of safety improvement in other countries, such as the 70 United States, has been slowing (Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), 71 2014; Mendeloff & Staetsky, 2014; National Institute for Occupational 72 Safety and Health (NIOSH), 2001).

In addition to the physical safety outcomes, herein safety outcomes 74 refer to unsafe outcomes (e.g., eye injuries and pinch), job related stress 75

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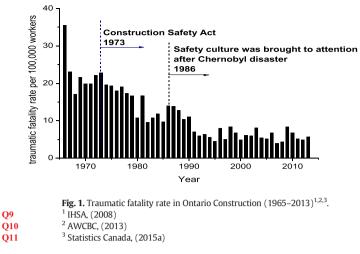
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in the construction industry is attracting more and more attention. The 76 relatively dangerous work environment, intense job demand, group 77 work style, and interpersonal relationships, etc., increase construction 78 79 workers' risk for adverse psychological outcomes (Goldenhar, Williams, 80 & Swanson, 2003). Stress, if not properly managed, affects both employees' performance and their health (Cattell, Bowen, & Edwards, 81 2016). The geographical distribution of 46 papers published between 82 1989 and 2013 about work related stress in the construction industry 83 (Leung, Chan, & Cooper, 2015) indicated that half of the work on work 84 85 related stress was from Hong Kong (50%), with the remaining research distributed between Europe (22%), Australia (15%), Africa (11%), and 86 87 United States (2%). More research on job stress in North America may 88 identify local factors that are associated with psychological stress of 89 workers, and thus may uncover ways to escape the safety plateau.

90 Safety culture has been shown to improve safety performance. Safety culture is a set of beliefs, norms, attitudes, roles, and social and 9192technical practices focused on minimizing the exposure of employees to dangerous conditions (Pidgeon, 1991; Turner, Pidgeon, Blockley, & 93 94 Toft, 1989). It is an abstract phenomenon and therefore challenging to 95 measure. One indicator of safety culture is safety climate, which refers to the shared perception of people toward safety in their work environ-96 ment (Dov Zohar, 1980). Measuring safety climate gives insight into 97 safety culture in its current state (Cox & Cheyne, 2000; Glendon & 98 99 Stanton, 2000). In addition, individual resilience is associated with higher coping abilities (Wanberg & Banas, 2000); thus, it is believed 100 that individual resilience is associated with lower job stress and better 101 102 safety performance. The remainder of Section 1 discusses the dimensions of construction safety climate, defines individual resilience, and 103 104 proposes four hypotheses.

105 1.1. Safety climate dimensions

Safety climate has been widely recognized as a leading indicator of 106 107 safety performance, in contrast to lagging indicators, such as lost time in-108 jury rates (Flin, Mearns, O'Connor, & Bryden, 2000). Although there is no agreement on the dimensions of safety climate, management commit-109ment to safety is a widely acknowledged organizational level safety cli-110mate factor that applies to most industries. For example, perceived 111 112 management attitudes toward safety was originally proposed as a leading safety climate factor based on surveys from 20 industrial organiza-113 tions (Zohar, 1980). More recent work used four factors to measure 114 safety climate: management commitment to safety, return to work 115 policies, post-injury administration, and safety training (Huang, Ho, 116 Smith, & Chen, 2006). In addition to management commitment to safety 117 (Cigularov, Lancaster, Chen, Gittleman, & Haile, 2013; Dedobbeleer & 118 Béland, 1991; Gillen, Baltz, Gassel, Kirsch, & Vaccaro, 2002; Guo et al., 119 2016; Hon, Chan, & Yam, 2014; Tholén, Pousette, & Törner, 2013), a set 120121 of dimensions have been proposed for construction, mainly including work pressure focusing on the balance between production and safety 122 (Cigularov et al., 2013; Glendon & Litherland, 2001; Guo et al., 2016), 123 support from supervisors and/or coworkers (Cigularov et al., 2013; Guo 124 et al., 2016; Kines et al., 2010), and, safety equipment or knowledge 125 needed to have control over safety (Cigularov et al., 2013; Gillen et al., 126 2002; Glendon & Litherland, 2001; Guo et al., 2016). Categorization of 127 these factors is challenging as two scales with the same name may use 128 different statements to define them and the same statement may be used toward different factors. For instance, statements reflecting safety 130 communications may be included under the scale of management commitment to occupational health and safety (OHS) and employee involvement (Hon et al., 2014), while other researchers may use a separate scale of safety communication (Tholén et al., 2013).

1.2. Safety climate and safety outcomes

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The relationship between safety climate and safety outcomes in 136 construction safety research is evident worldwide. Safety climate was 137 negatively related to near misses and injuries in the Hong Kong construction industry (Fang, Chen, & Wong, 2006; Hon et al., 2014) and positively 139 related to safety behavior in Queensland (Mohamed, 2002). Safety climate was also found to be inversely related to underreporting of workplace injuries and illnesses in the United States (Probst, Brubaker, & 142 Barsotti, 2008). Moreover, safety climate may be affected by a country culture (Ali, 2006), and decisions on safety management may be influenced by cultural norms. From this point of view, aspects of safety climate may vary geographically and there is a clear value in assessing the safety climate in different regions. Here, the authors investigate the Canadian construction safety climate and explore its relationship with safety outcomes. 148

H1. safety climate is negatively related to safety outcomes. 149

1.3. Individual resilience, safety outcomes, and psychological stress 150

Individual resilience (IR) is "the capacity of individuals to cope 151 successfully in the face of significant change, adversity, or risk. This 152 capacity changes over time and is enhanced by protective factors in the 153 individual and environment" (Stewart, Reid, & Mangham, 1997). It is 154 regarded as one type of positive psychological capacity for performance 155 improvement (Luthans, 2002; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). To extend an 156 individual's physical and psychological resources, IR may help individuals 157 deal with stressors that are inherent in the work environment but cannot 158 be changed (e.g., work pressure; Cooper & Cartwright, 1997). Thus, it 159 may improve employees' performance by reducing counter-productive 160 behaviors and help manage their work related stress (Avey, Reichard, 161 Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). Several studies found evidence to support its 162 positive role. For example, IR was found to be directly related to job sat- 163 isfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment (Youssef & 164 Luthans, 2007). It was associated with less work irritation, and weaker intentions to quit given that IR is associated with higher change acceptance 166 (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). IR was also negatively related to depressive 167 symptoms of frontline correctional officers (Liu, Hu, Wang, Sui, & Ma, 168 2013). It is further believed that positive psychological resource capaci- 169 ties may facilitate safety focused behaviors (Eid, Mearns, Larsson, 170 Laberg, & Johnsen, 2012). However, the authors were unable to find 171 any empirical studies that have examined if IR is associated with better 172 safety performance and lower job stress in the construction industry. 173

H2. IR is negatively related to safety outcomes. 174

H3. IR is negatively related to psychological stress. 175

1.4. Injuries and psychological stress

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Serious injuries, exposure to actual or threatened death, and other 177 traumatic experiences may result in post-traumatic stress disorder 178

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