



The Organisation

Core Body of Knowledge for the
Generalist OHS Professional

Second Edition, 2020

10.1



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The Manager, OHS Body of Knowledge

Australian Institute of Health & Safety, PO Box 2078, Gladstone Park, Victoria, Australia, 3043

Manager@ohsbok.org.au.

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Cornerstone Integral is a boutique consulting organisation, focused exclusively on providing integrally based, scalable solutions to the complexity and challenges of organisational life.

(www.cornerstoneintegral.com)

Bibliography

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Authors of first edition

The first edition of this chapter was developed from a moderated round-table discussion.

Discussion participants:

Emeritus Professor Andrew Hopkins (School of Sociology, Australian National University)

Professor John Toohey (Graduate School of Business and Law, RMIT University)

Dr Robert Stacy (Zero Harm, Downer)

Professor Dennis Else (then University of Ballarat; Brookfield Multiplex)

Moderators:

Associate Professor Susanne Tepe (RMIT University)

Dr David Borys (VIOASH Australia, then University of Ballarat)

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Authors of this edition

Debra Burlington, Principal Consultant, Enhance Solutions

Michael Griffiths, Director, Cornerstone Integral Solutions

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The Organisation

Debra Burlington BSW, GradDipOHS, GradDipBusMan, FAIHS

Principal Consultant, Enhance Solutions

Email: deb@enhancesolutions.com.au

Debra has worked in occupational health and safety for more than 30 years. In a range of organisations in Australia and internationally, she has focused on developing safety leadership capability as well as overall safety culture. Debra is a Fellow of the Australian Institute of Health & Safety and is actively involved in the development of a strong mentorship capability within the Institute.

Michael Griffiths BAPsych, GradDip(SocPsych&SportSci), MAPsych, MAPS

Director, Cornerstone Integral Solutions

Email: mgriffiths@cornerstoneintegral.com

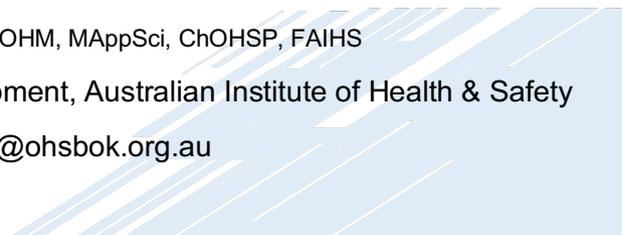
Michael has more than 30 years' experience as an organisational and leadership development consultant for organisations in a variety of industries, including mining and construction. He has a background in psychology and safety leadership consulting, and expertise in applying Integral Theory to organisational issues. Michael is founder and director of Cornerstone Integral Solutions, a boutique Melbourne-based organisational development consultancy.

Content Editor

Pam Pryor AO BSc, BEd, GDOHM, MAppSci, ChOHSP, FAIHS

Manager, OHS Body of Knowledge Development, Australian Institute of Health & Safety

Email: manager@ohsbok.org.au



The Organisation

Abstract

Generalist Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) professionals need to work within organisations and contribute to overall organisational goals rather than attempt to impose OHS change from outside the organisational context. This chapter discusses the complexity of organisations and the scope of relevant theory before exploring three 'lenses' – metaphorical, structural and integral – which OHS professionals can apply to assist their understanding of organisations. Implications for OHS practice are considered and an appendix containing an excerpt from the 2012 edition of this chapter provides relevant perspectives on organisational health and safety.

Keywords

organisation, safety, health, professional, complexity, metaphor, integral

Contextual reading

Readers should refer to 1 Preliminaries for a full list of chapters and authors and a synopsis of the *OHS Body of Knowledge*. Chapter 2, Introduction, describes the background and development process while Chapter 3, The OHS Professional, provides context by describing the role and professional environment.

Terminology

Depending on the jurisdiction and the organisation, terminology refers to 'Occupational Health and Safety' (OHS), 'Occupational Safety and Health' (OSH) or 'Work Health and Safety' (WHS). In line with international practice, this publication uses OHS with the exception of specific reference to the Work Health and Safety (WHS) Act and related legislation.

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1 Introduction

Generalist Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) professionals operate within organisations of varying nature and size. The complexity of organisations is reflected in an extensive body of literature, the recognition of 'organisational behaviour' as a discipline, and the inclusion of this discipline in many programs of study.

The International Network of Safety and Health Practitioner Organisations (INSHPO, 2017) described the OHS professional as a “key advisor, strategist and pilot to the organization’s leadership in fully integrating the management of OHS risk into sustainable business practice at all levels” (p. 10) and identified that an important role of OHS professionals is to “lead and support key influencers, including managers, on strategies to foster an organizational culture that prioritizes OHS” (p. 23). This centrality of the organisation in OHS practice is reflected in the conceptual structure of the *OHS Body of Knowledge* (Figure 1).¹

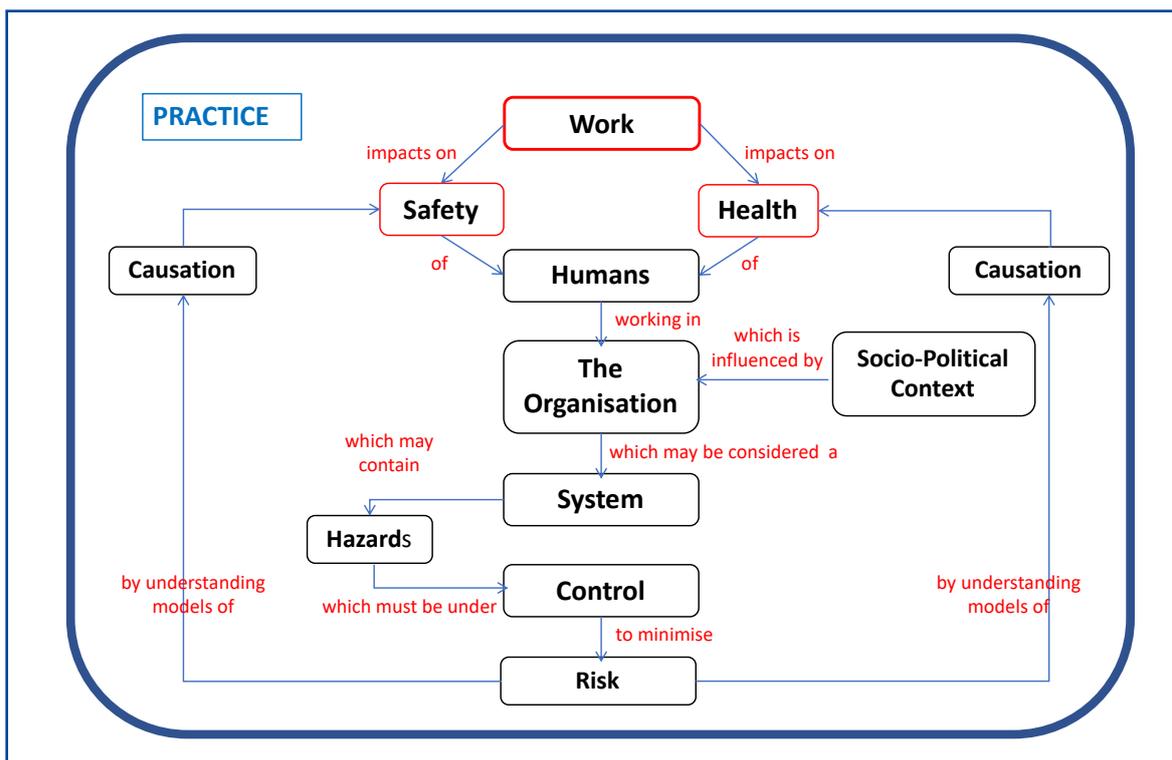


Figure 1: The *OHS Body of Knowledge* framework²

¹ For more information on the conceptual structure of the *OHS Body of Knowledge*, see *OHS BoK 1.3 Synopsis*.

² *OHS BoK 1.3 Synopsis*, p. 4.

It is vital that OHS professionals have an understanding of ‘the organisation’ as the context for their work. The importance of such an understanding was highlighted during the round-table discussion that informed the 2012 edition of this chapter. At the time, discussion participant John Toohey observed:

I think one of the reasons that OHS has failed to have greater impact on corporate thinking is that we have not positioned ourselves well in the discussion. We are passionate about safety, health, wellbeing, rehabilitation, etc., and expect others to be. However, many managers and board members see these as impediments to business and profitability – things to be worked around or grudgingly lived with. We need to get to the front of the pack – supporting our organisations to incorporate ‘OHS thinking’ into profitability and corporate goal achievement. The discussion is not about OHS development; it is about industry development and how OHS thinking can contribute to this main game. The approach should be ‘What business are we in (public, private, not-for-profit)?’ and ‘How do we contribute to that business?’ The challenge is to get on the right foot and talk to managers and board members in their language, but with our orientation. We need to ask ‘What is the business doing and how do we contribute to that?’

These comments are still relevant. However, understanding organisations – being able to ‘read’ them – is not easy; organisations are complex, constantly changing, usually reactive and often unpredictable.

With an in-depth examination of organisational behaviour being beyond the scope of the *OHS Body of Knowledge*, this chapter aims to provide OHS professionals with some alternative ways of ‘viewing’ their organisation to facilitate understanding of how they ‘fit’ within the organisational context and thus how they can influence the integration of OHS within the organisation’s daily functioning.

After a brief review of some definitions of ‘the organisation,’ context for this chapter is provided by section 2 – a summary of the evolution of management theory – followed by discussion of the complexity of organisations in section 3. Section 4 explores three types of ‘lenses’ – metaphorical, structural and integral – through which organisations can be viewed to gain insight into their operation. Consideration of implications for OHS practice is followed by a chapter summary. The appendix – an excerpt from the 2012 edition of this chapter – presents relevant perspectives on health and safety and the organisation.

1.1 Defining ‘the organisation’

In 1964, Caplow defined the organisation as “a social system that has an unequivocal collective identity, an exact roster of members, a programme of activity, and procedures for replacing members” (Caplow, 1964, p. 1). A few years later, Schein (1970, p. 9) described the organisation as “the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some explicit purpose or goal, through division of labor and function, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility.”

Many subsequent definitions have accentuated the complexity of the organisation as a social system with a distinctive culture. For example, shared meanings and organisational discourses are fundamental in the following two definitions.

Organizations exist as systems of meaning which are shared to varying degrees. A sense of commonality, or taken for grantedness is necessary for continuing organized activity so that interaction can take place without constant interpretation and re-interpretation of meanings. (Smircich, 1983, p. 64)

[A]n organization is a dynamic system of organizational members, influenced by external stakeholders, who communicate within and across organizational structures in a purposeful and ordered way to achieve a superordinate goal. With this definition, an organization is not defined by its size, purpose, or structure. Rather, an organization is defined by the linguistic properties that reside in its internal and external communication interdependencies (Deetz, 1992; Weick, 1979). An organization can change its physical location and replace its members without breaking down because it is essentially a patterned set of discourses that at some point were created by the members and codified into norms and practices that are later inherited, accepted, and adapted to by newcomers. (Keyton, 2011, pp. 9-10)

A change in emphasis from organisational structure to dynamic system, as in Keyton's definition above, was evident as theorists recognised organisations as complex open systems. The following definition was offered in 1973:

The complex organization is more like a modern weapons system than like old-fashioned fixed fortifications, more like a mobile than a static sculpture, more like a computer than an adding machine. In short, the organization is a dynamic system. (Leavitt, Dill & Eyring as cited in Scott & Davis, 2007, p. 385)

Scott and Davis (2007, p. 387) identified a proliferation of process and relational (as opposed to structural) definitions of the organisation including, for example, Jensen and Meckling's 1976 'organizations as a nexus of contracts,' Czarniawska's 1997 'organizations as ongoing narratives of conversations among participants' and Powell's 2001 'organizations as a fluid network of treaties.'

Obviously, there are many other definitions of 'the organisation' within and across disciplines. Recently, Stowell (2020) stressed the difficulty of defining the abstraction that is 'organisation':

Those seeking to understand the working of an 'organisation' are confronted by the challenge of making sense of its processes. This is no trivial undertaking as the way in which it functions has many dimensions so thinking in terms of a fixed model or a 'solution' based upon an 'ideal' case from past success is deficient. ... An organisation is a system set up for a particular purpose and managed through its formal structures from which policy and operational processes emanate. But it is the informal infrastructures through which individuals interpret and operationalize the formal 'rules' that are important if these rules are to work.

2 Historical context

Since the late 19th century, the evolution of management theory – driven by efforts to increase organisational efficiency – has had a profound impact on management practices. Jones and George (2003) described the overlapping theories of scientific management, administrative management, behavioural management, management science and organisational environment that have influenced organisational behaviour and now inform current approaches. This chronology of theories is summarised and updated in Table 1.³

Table 1: Evolution of management theory (adapted from Jones & George, 2003)

Theory Characteristics	Prominent Theorists/Researchers	Contemporary Relevance
<i>Scientific Management Theory (c.1890s–1930s)</i>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The systematic study of relationships between people and tasks for the purpose of redesigning the work process to increase efficiency” (p. 36) • Evolved towards the end of the Industrial Revolution as factory owners/managers found themselves unprepared for large-scale mechanised manufacturing • Common result: “Managers tried to initiate work practices to increase performance, and workers tried to hide the true potential efficiency of the work setting to protect their wellbeing” (p. 40) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adam Smith (1776): job specialisation, division of labour • Frederick W. Taylor (1911): principles of scientific management • Frank and Lillian Gilbreth (e.g. 1909): time and motion studies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management of production systems • Lean production • Total quality management (TQM)
<i>Administrative Management Theory (c.1900–1970s)</i>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The study of how to create an organizational structure that leads to high efficiency and effectiveness” (p. 40) • Principles of a bureaucratic system of administration: a manager’s formal authority, people occupying positions on the basis of merit and performance, clear specifications of tasks and authority of positions, a hierarchy of positions, and a system of rules and standard operating procedures • Management principles: division of labour, authority and responsibility, unity of command, line of authority, centralisation, unity of direction, equity, order, initiative, discipline, remuneration, stability of tenure, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Max Weber (1922): principles of bureaucracy • Henri Fayol (1916): fourteen principles of management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refined versions of Weber and Fayol’s principles provide the foundation for contemporary management theory

³ The last category in Table 1 – ‘Meta-theories of Management’ – has been added to Jones and George’s (2003) theoretical categories. See, for example, Bhaskar, Esbjörn-Hargens, Hedlund & Hartwig (2016).

Theory Characteristics	Prominent Theorists/Researchers	Contemporary Relevance
subordination of individual interests and esprit de corps		
Behavioural Management Theory (c.1920s–1980s)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “The study of how managers should behave in order to motivate employees and encourage them to perform at high levels and be committed to the achievement of organizational goals” (p. 43) • Studies at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago indicated that worker performance was influenced by a manager’s leadership behaviour; human relations training for managers evolved • Juxtaposition of management assumptions that workers are ‘inherently lazy’ (Theory X) or ‘not inherently lazy’ (Theory Y) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mary Parker Follett (1918, 1924): worker empowerment; authority based on knowledge and expertise • Abraham Maslow (1954): hierarchy of needs • Elton Mayo (1933): Hawthorne effect • Douglas McGregor (1960): Theory X and Theory Y 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-managed, cross-departmental project teams • Human relations movement • Importance of the ‘informal organisation,’ i.e. group norms • Managers who assume workers are motivated to help an organisation reach its goals can decentralise authority
Management Science Theory (c.1940s–2000s)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “An approach to management that uses rigorous quantitative techniques to help managers make maximum use of organizational resources...a contemporary extension of scientific management” (p. 47) • Developed during World War II as governments and scientists sought to maximise efficient deployment of resources • Includes quantitative management, operations management, total quality management (TQM) and management information systems (MIS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • W. Edwards Deming (1982): TQM 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tools and techniques to inform decision making
Organisational Environment Theory (c.1950–)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consideration of “the set of forces and conditions that operate beyond an organization’s boundaries but affect a manager’s ability to acquire and utilize resources” (p. 48) • Evolved from the development of open-systems theory (with organisational input, conversion and output stages) and contingency theory (‘there is no one best way to organise’) • Juxtaposition of mechanistic (centralised authority, clearly specified tasks and rules, close supervision) with organic (decentralised authority, looser control, reliance on shared norms) structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Katz & Kahn (1966): open-systems theory • Burns & Stalker (1961): mechanistic/organic structures • Lawrence & Lorsch (1967): contingency theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Synergy as an organisational objective • Organisations that operate as closed systems (i.e. ignore the external environment) experience entropy • Managers in organic structures can react faster to changing environments
Meta-theories of Management (c.1990–)		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Integral approaches are ‘meta-paradigms,’ or 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wilber (2000): 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aids understanding

Theory Characteristics	Prominent Theorists/Researchers	Contemporary Relevance
<p>ways to draw together an already existing number of separate paradigms into an interrelated network of approaches that are mutually enriching” (Wilber as cited in Esbjörn-Hargens, 2009, p. 1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Holistic, people-centric approaches • “...complex twenty-first-century problems and the metacrisis at large demand frameworks that go beyond the proliferating fragmentation of knowledge and ‘grasp the big picture’...” (Bhaskar et al., 2016) 	<p>integral theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Laloux (2014): next stage of consciousness • Porvaznik (2011): holistic management • Morin (2008): paradigm of complexity • Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey (2007): complexity leadership theory 	<p>of relationships and responding to complexity</p>

3 Complexity in organisations

Organisations have been described as ‘complex adaptive systems’ (Schneider & Somers, 2006). A *system* is a “set of elements or parts that is coherently organized and interconnected in a pattern or structure that produces a characteristic set of behaviours, often classified as its ‘function’ or ‘purpose’” (Meadows, 2008, p. 188). *Complex adaptive systems* are “systems containing agents [people or materials] that have a drive toward adaptation; where the agents adapt their strategies for operating within the system to increase their chances of success” (Holland as cited in Lizier, 2018, p. 10).

Complexity within organisations is increasingly an area of scholarly interest (e.g. Moldoveanu, 2004; Olmedo, 2010; Lizier, 2018). In studying organisations, it is important to differentiate between complex and complicated. *Complicated* systems have many component parts that operate in patterned predictable ways whereas *complex* systems have many component parts that are interdependent and continuously interacting, often with unpredictable outcomes (Sargut & McGrath, 2011). Complexity within organisations makes it hard to make sense of what is happening as the scope of interactions cannot be viewed by any one person and our cognitive limits inhibit our ability to fully understand the effects of people’s interactions (Sargut & McGrath, 2011).

The complexity of organisations is compounded by the environments within which they operate. These environments exhibit – to a greater or lesser extent – volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (sometimes referred to as ‘VUCA’).

Volatility: Volatility refers to the speed of change in an industry, market or the world in general. It is associated with fluctuations in demand, turbulence and short time to markets...The more volatile the world is, the more and faster things change.

Uncertainty: Uncertainty refers to the extent to which we can confidently predict the future. Part of uncertainty is perceived and associated with people's inability to understand what is going on. Uncertainty though, is also a more objective characteristic of an environment. ...

Complexity: Complexity refers to the number of factors that we need to take into account, their variety and the relationships between them. The more factors, the greater their variety and the more they are interconnected, the more complex an environment is. ...

Ambiguity: Ambiguity refers to a lack of clarity about how to interpret something. A situation is ambiguous, for example, when information is incomplete, contradicting or too inaccurate to draw clear conclusions. More generally it refers to fuzziness and vagueness in ideas and terminology. (Kraaijenbrink, 2018).

The four characteristics are distinct elements, but also related; for example, the more complex and volatile an industry is, the more uncertainty and ambiguity will arise (Kraaijenbrink, 2018).

Stowell (2020) observed that the rapid adjustment of organisations to accommodate working-from-home practices in response to the coronavirus pandemic has created new dynamics that add further complexity to organisations.

Because internal and external complexity make it difficult to 'see' and understand all component parts and their interactions within an organisation, section 4 presents three ways of viewing organisations that can assist OHS professionals to take a third-person or 'fly on the wall' perspective of how an organisation functions. This can enable them to step back and evaluate the organisational dynamics, the complexities of interactions and the nuances that can impact the success or failure of interventions being recommended. Such 'lenses' can help OHS professionals gain insight that increases their capacity to understand the organisation and to integrate OHS into its strategic and day-to-day operation.

4 Some 'lenses' for viewing organisations

This section explores three lenses – metaphorical, structural and integral – through which OHS professionals can view and analyse organisations to gain insight into their operation.

4.1 Metaphorical view

A metaphor is a figure of speech that makes an implicit comparison between two things that are unrelated, but which share some common characteristics⁴ and so “provides an efficient means of capturing a lot of possibly disconnected information and crystallizing it into a meaningful set of ideas and relationships” (Aita, McIlvain, Susman & Crabtree, 2003, p. 1424).

Use of metaphors is ubiquitous (Drake & Lanahan, 2007). By facilitating “understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 5), metaphor is a natural way of making sense of the world. For example, during conversations at work it is possible to hear statements such as ‘she’s a night owl’, ‘he’s an ever-ready bunny’, ‘they’re kids in a candy shop.’

There is a significant body of metaphorical research on organisations (Tohidian & Rahimian, 2019).

[M]etaphors are fruitful in that they help us to understand organizations, make sense of their structure, style of leadership, management behavior, and control through attaching meanings to them...[D]ue to the multidimensional nature of metaphors, multiple aspects of organizations are emerged, giving rise to the expansion of our knowledge, views, and visions. (Itkin & Nagy as cited in Tohidian & Rahimian, 2019, p. 6)

In *Images of Organization*, first published in 1986, Morgan maintained that use of metaphors encourages new ways of thinking and acting, and that “Skilled leaders and managers develop the knack of reading situations with various scenarios in mind and of forging actions that seem appropriate to the understandings thus obtained” (Morgan, 2006, p. 3).

Morgan (2006) presented eight metaphors for organisations: machines, organisms, brains, cultures, political systems, psychic prisons, flux and transformation, and instruments of domination. Three of these metaphors – machines, organisms and political systems – are described below as examples of metaphors relevant to OHS practice. These are supplemented with a description of McCabe’s (2016) *organisations as Wonderland* metaphor, which he presented as a ‘non-rational’ alternative to Morgan’s metaphors.

⁴ Literary Devices. (2020). Metaphor. Retrieved from <https://literarydevices.net/metaphor/>.

Organisations as machines

The *organisation as machine* metaphor draws on our tendency to think about organisations as “a state of orderly relations between clearly defined parts that have some determinate order” (Morgan, 2006, p. 13).

Organisational life is often routinized with the precision demanded of clockwork. People are frequently expected to arrive at work at a given time, perform a predetermined set of activities, rest at appointed hours, and then resume their tasks until work is over. In many organizations, one shift of workers replaces another in methodical fashion so that work can continue uninterrupted twenty-four hours a day every day of the year. (Morgan, 2006, p. 12)

In this view, organisations are bureaucracies with many layers of rules and documented processes. Morgan illustrated this metaphor with descriptions of: factories assigning workers to tasks in the chain of actions required to produce the outcomes; ‘office factories’ of insurance companies and government agencies processing large volumes of paper work; and fast-food chains aiming to provide customers with the same experience no matter which store they purchase from.

Organisations as organisms

The *organisation as organism* metaphor is “built on the idea that individuals and groups, like biological organisms, operate most effectively only when their needs are satisfied” (Morgan, 2006, p. 35). This view challenges the *organisation as machine* metaphor’s preoccupation with goals, structures and efficiency, and acknowledges that workers have needs that must be met for them to be truly effective in the workplace. Key parallels drawn between organisations and organisms are that both exist in a wider environment, both are open systems with lifecycles impacted by the wider environment, and both have species focused on survival (e.g. organisations can be small business, manufacturing, multi-national) (Morgan, 2006).

In contrast to the ‘closed’ machine view, this open-systems view emphasises the importance of the environment in which the organisation operates. Just as an organism responds to changes in its environment, an effective organisation implements strategies to keep in touch with the external environment and adapts according to feedback from customers, competitors, suppliers, government, etc.

Another characteristic of this open-systems view is that organisations are constructed of interrelated subsystems:

[O]rganizations contain individuals (who are systems on their own account) who belong to groups or departments that belong to larger organizational divisions. And so on. If we define the whole organization as a system, then the other levels can be understood as subsystems, just as molecules, cells and organs can be seen as subsystems of a living organism... (Morgan, 2006, p. 39).

From the perspective of this metaphor, it can be seen that everything within an organisation is interrelated.

[E]verything depends on everything else...[Organisations] are best understood as ongoing *processes* rather than as collections of parts. Using the image of an organism in constant exchange with the environment, we are encouraged to take an open and flexible view of the organization...The metaphor emphasises survival as the key aim or primary task facing any organization...Survival is a process, whereas goals are often targets or end points to be achieved. (Morgan, 2006, pp. 39, 65)

Organisations as political systems

The *organisation as political system* metaphor invites consideration of the politics of an organisation and how it employs a system of 'rule.'

By recognizing that organization is intrinsically political, in the sense that ways must be found to create order and direction among people with potentially diverse and conflicting interests, much can be learned about the problems and legitimacy of management as a process of government... (Morgan, 2006, p. 150).

This view may provide an opportunity to discuss more openly organisational aspects that people may be aware of but rarely broach in public (Morgan, 2006). It challenges the tendency for 'politics' to be considered a dirty word:

This is unfortunate because it often prevents us from recognizing that politics and politicking may be an essential aspect of organizational life...It is useful to remember that in its original meaning the idea of politics stems from the view that, where interests are divergent, society should provide a means of allowing individuals to reconcile their differences through consultation and negotiation. (Morgan, 2006, p. 150)

Provision of a platform for consultation and negotiation is exactly what we are attempting to achieve for health and safety. With a focus on relations between interests, conflict and power, diversity in organisational politics can be resolved in different ways, including:

- Autocratically (*We'll do it this way* – no consultation or negotiation)
- Bureaucratically (*We're supposed to do it this way* – rule bound)
- Technocratically (*It's best to do it this way* – some flexibility)
- Democratically (*How shall we do it?*) (Morgan, 2006).

Whatever their organisation's 'mode of political rule,' OHS professionals need to recognise that the reality of politics is an inevitable feature of organisational life. An organisation may seem to stress "the importance of rational, efficient, and effective management;" however, questions to be asked include "...rational, efficient, and effective for whom? Whose goals are being pursued? What interests are being served?" (Morgan, 2006, p. 203).

Without awareness of the alternative paths of action likely to be taken by an organisation with respect to negotiation, day-to-day 'wheeling and dealing', decision making, conflict,

power, etc., an OHS professional may feel ‘out of the loop’ and be more likely to make ‘political’ mistakes and lack influence. Also, it is worth noting that use of the *organisation as political system* metaphor may reveal a mismatch between organisational practice and an OHS professional’s preferred style of working.

This lens can equip OHS professionals with insight that assists them to make sense of important, but often ignored or hidden, organisational aspects. It encourages a view of organisations as “loose networks of people with divergent interests who gather together for the sake of expediency (e.g. making a living, developing a career, or pursuing a desired goal or objective) [rather than] integrated rational enterprises pursuing a common goal” (Morgan, 2006, p. 161). It can facilitate understanding of the apparent chaos that may occur within an organisation as well as the many divergent approaches to leadership.

Organisations as ‘Wonderland’

The *organisation as Wonderland* metaphor was designed to counter Morgan’s metaphors, which are grounded in rationality and manageability. McCabe (2016) contended that “if we think about organizations through metaphors that emphasize stability, order, rationality and manageability, then much of organizational life is left out” (p. 946). He argued that metaphors such as Morgan’s machine and organism “lead us to think *within* the rationality of the present system and *not* to question it” (p. 947).

McCabe (2016) drew on Lewis Carroll’s 1865 novel, *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland*, to construct a metaphor of absurdity, irrationality, uncertainty and disorder in order to highlight the ‘strangeness’ of organisations:

The Wonderland metaphor is different in that it urges us to question and interrogate the rational order: to examine its shortcomings, weaknesses and failures as a condition of what happens when people attempt to organize themselves in particular ways. It does not argue that rationality must be abandoned...Instead, it aims to illuminate neglected features of organizational life... (p. 947).

The Wonderland metaphor embraces and expects ‘out-of-the-way things’...things which we do not expect to happen may well happen. If this is applied to organizations it could lead to greater tolerance for things going wrong and might mean that managers are less ‘shocked’ when people resist their interventions. It could also lead to more caution when introducing change. Such thinking might also prepare the ground for people to resist when it is expected that previous organizational actions, promises or discourses may be contradicted. And yet, from this perspective, the outcomes of resistance must also be understood to be uncertain. (pp. 962-963)

Using examples from *Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland*, McCabe (2016) foregrounded ten interrelated aspects that are often neglected or marginalised in organisations and that should be considered when planning and working within a complex system:

1. expect the unexpected
2. anticipate the unpredictability of objects/people

3. recognize the limits of knowledge
4. appreciate that the future is uncertain
5. examine unintended consequences
6. interrogate claims to rationality
7. explore contradictions
8. question a top-down understanding of power
9. investigate dishonesty, deviance and misconduct
10. identify confusion/misunderstanding/ambiguity (p. 967).

The organisation as Wonderland metaphor invites us to question the rational model. “[I]t recognizes that we do not always know or fully understand the world we inhabit, and it urges us to investigate how this applies to practice and to those in organizations” (McCabe, 2016, p. 963).

4.1.1 Application of metaphor

Various researchers have demonstrated the capacity of metaphors to reveal components of organisational life. For example, Aita et al. (2003) used metaphors to clarify assumptions, values and motivators related to cancer-prevention services at 18 health care practices. Aita et al. (2003) did not set out to use metaphors in their analysis; rather, metaphors emerged from the language they used to describe the practices:

Metaphors were vital and generative in their ability to provide us with continually fresh insights, like little treasure chests that we unlocked again and again to extract their valuable content and meaning. Eventually, we became aware that these metaphors were the keys to understanding much more than the structure and function of practices. ... They held the essence of the practice and helped us to look critically at positive and negative assumptions that [people] within practices held, the values and motivators that shaped behaviour, and the internal and external factors that influenced practice variables, adaptation and change. (p. 1421)

Practice metaphors identified included the ‘franchise’, the ‘mission’ and the ‘family’. For each metaphor, Aita et al. (2003) constructed ‘practice maps’ that helped them make sense of characteristics of the health care practices. The accuracy of the values and assumptions that had been unlocked by metaphor and mapped to the practices was subsequently confirmed by practice participants.

Aita et al. (2003, p. 1430) concluded that their use of metaphor as an innovative analytic tool proved “especially well suited for exposing implicit values, meanings, and assumptions of individuals, groups, and organizations, tasks not easily accomplished by other quantitative or qualitative methods typically used in primary care research.”

In another interesting use of metaphor, Stowell (2014, 2020) suggested thinking of soft power (i.e. “the ability to ‘convert’ some to adopt a course of action at variance with their original inclination”) in terms of the metaphor *Commodity* because it encourages knowledge exchange rather than imposition of opinion. The mnemonic PEARL (Participants,

Engagement, Authority, relationships and Learning) has proved useful in the application of the *Commodity* metaphor to elucidate power in organisations, as it can clarify situations and encourage thinking of capital-A-Authority and lower-case-r relationships as ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ power, respectively:

The lower case ‘r’ is an attempt to clearly differentiate ‘soft’ power from formal ‘hard’ power as represented by the upper case ‘A’. By surfacing the use of Soft power we can generate an exchange of ideas as a means of gaining an *Appreciation* of the situation of interest. (Stowell, 2020)

4.1.2 The challenge of metaphor

Although a useful tool for making sense of aspects of organisational life, taking a metaphorical view is not without its challenges. Morgan (2006, p. 4) acknowledged that use of metaphor “always produces a kind of one-sided insight. In highlighting certain interpretations, it tends to force others into a background role.” Furthermore, “Metaphor is inherently paradoxical. It can create powerful insights that also become distortions, as the way of seeing created through a metaphor becomes a way of not seeing” (Morgan, 2006, p. 5).

To illustrate, Morgan pointed out that the *organisation as machine* metaphor is biased towards foregrounding the importance of structure and routine while downplaying the human element. It emphasises the importance of documented processes being followed by everyone in the organisation and underplays the salience of the skills, strengths and needs of the people who work there. Consequently, an organisation may see the importance of documentation, processes, clearly defined steps to undertake tasks, but may be blind to the needs of individual workers.

Many researchers and commentators attest to the usefulness of the metaphorical lens; however, some have taken issue with Morgan’s choice of metaphors, challenging their applicability and value (e.g. Tinker, 1986; Reed, 1990; McCourt, 1997). Others have extended Morgan’s metaphors or, like McCabe (2016), proposed alternative metaphors. In 2015, three decades after he published *Images of Organization*, Morgan stated that new metaphors were needed to appropriately reflect changed organisational aspects and environments, including flat networks, big data and the digital revolution (e.g. *organisation as global brain*, *organisation as media*): “So it’s clear that *Images of Organization* is not about the eight metaphors, but it’s about that type of thinking that can help us...deal with this world a bit faster than we otherwise would” (Morgan as cited in Oswick & Grant, 2015, p. 4).

4.2 Structural view

A structural lens can be applied to organisations to reveal aspects of organisational design. Organisational structure has been described as a diagram or map that gives information on four key organisational features:

- The line of authority or who reports to whom (chain of command)
- The number of subordinates a person manages or the breadth of reporting (span of control)
- The number of people authorised to make final decisions (centralisation or decentralisation)
- How work is organised (departmentalisation) (Devaney, 2019).

Traditionally, organisational structures were represented by vertical and horizontal lines on an organisational chart, or organigram. However, the last few decades have seen organisational structures depicted in many different ways (e.g. upside-down pyramids, a series of concentric circles, networks of people and matrix-style charts). Irrespective of presentation, an organisational structure should provide clarity on who is accountable to whom, what they are accountable for within their role, and how their role relates to other roles both vertically and horizontally. As an organisation grows, complexity increases.

In 1961, Burns and Stalker conceptualised a continuum of organisational structures with two extremes:

- *Mechanistic*, or bureaucratic, structures with specialised role differentiation, emphasis on hierarchy and chain of command, and clear policies and rules.
- *Organic*, or flat, structures with less specialisation, overlapping role responsibilities, opaque chains of command, and behaviour governed by values and goals rather than rules (Burns & Stalker, 1961).

Where an organisation sits on the mechanistic–organic continuum has been linked to the degree of uncertainty in its organisational environment, with mechanistic structures more suited to stable environments and organic structures more conducive to innovation and agility (Jewczyn, 2010). While decisions may be made more quickly in organisations with organic structures, there may be confusion around responsibility and accountability.

An organisation's position on the mechanistic–organic continuum and an OHS professional's position within that structure will impact the way in which the OHS function interacts with and influences decision makers.

4.3 Integral view

Use of metaphor and an understanding of organisational structure can provide insight into organisational complexity to inform OHS practice. However, a deeper understanding of the complex adaptive systems that are organisations may be achieved with integral analysis.

Wilber (2000) outlined a conceptual model of the world that he referred to as *Integral Theory*, and proposed that an integral framework is required to understand almost any phenomenon:

The word integral means comprehensive, inclusive, non-marginalizing, embracing. Integral approaches to any field attempt to be exactly that: to include as many perspectives, styles, and methodologies as possible within a coherent view of the topic. (Wilber as cited in Esbjörn-Hargens, 2009, p. 1)

Integral Theory is a meta-theory that categorises other theories and concepts in order to provide a holistic and comprehensive view of any human phenomena (Wilber, 2000). Although Integral Theory has its critics (e.g. Falk, 2006; Meyerhoff, 2010; Erdmann, 2017), various authors have demonstrated its value for understanding organisations (e.g. Cacioppe & Edwards, 2005; Fuhs, 2008; Drago-Severson, McCallum & Nicolaidis, 2010) and it has been successfully applied to describing safety leadership (Abu Bakar & Ismail, 2016).

Central to Wilber's Integral Theory is a four-quadrant framework – All Quadrants, All Levels (AQAL) – with 'individual-collective' and 'interior-exterior' axes.

[A]ll individuals have some form of subjective experience and intentionality, or *interiors*, as well as various observable behaviours and physiological components [capabilities], or *exteriors*. In addition, individuals are never just alone but are members of groups or collectives [or teams]. The interiors of collectives are known generally as intersubjective cultural realities whereas their exteriors are known as ecological and social systems... (Esbjörn-Hargens, 2009, pp. 2-3)

The intersections of the axes create the four quadrants that represent dimensions that can be examined when attempting to understand any issue or aspect of reality (Esbjörn-Hargens, 2009). Change in one quadrant will always affect the functioning of the other three quadrants (Cacioppe & Edwards, 2005). Roe (2010) highlighted the meta aspect of Integral Theory by linking the quadrants to fields of academic investigation: thinking (psychology); behaviour (biology, anatomy); culture (sociology); systems (anatomy of structures, processes, rules). All four quadrants (depicted in Figure 2 and explained in Table 2) should be considered when analysing an organisation, and each dimension should be addressed for effective change to take place.

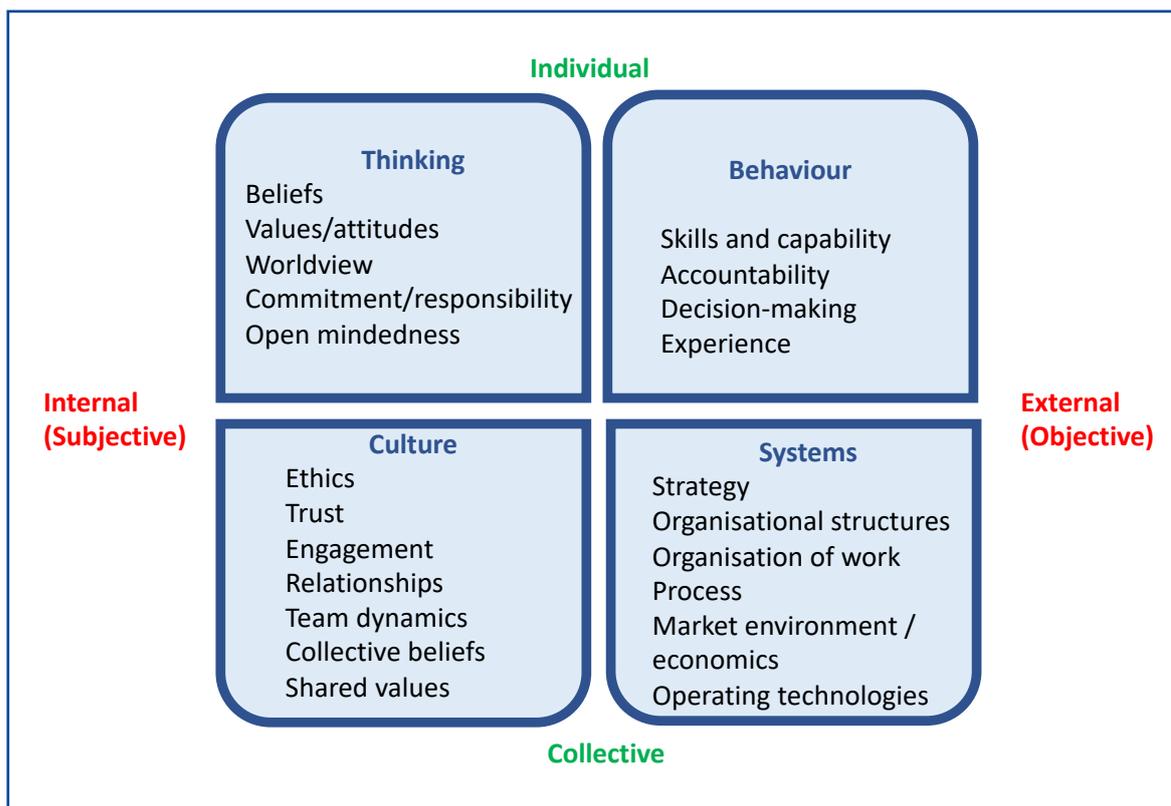


Figure 2: Adaptation of Wilber's four-quadrant model (based on Roe, 2010)

Table 2: Integral framework quadrants explained (based on Roe, 2010) with relevance for OHS

Quadrant	General Description	OHS Perspective
Thinking Subjective or internal individual factors (Psychology)	'Self landscape,' the internal world of the individual; the attitudes, mindset and values individuals bring to the organisational context.	Individual workers and managers need to be willing to establish a personal mindset for OHS and to look after themselves as well as the health and safety of others they work with. This personal perspective implies a worldview of workers always returning home in the same condition as when they went to work. There needs to be alignment of individual perspective regarding OHS with collective organisational culture so that all individuals are engaged with OHS objectives and strategy.
Behaviour Objective or external individual factors (Biology, anatomy)	'Nature landscape,' the external world of the individual that we can see and examine. The capability and behaviour of individuals within the organisation; the tasks they perform and	An individual's external world includes their knowledge, skills and experience and so their capability to use the systems and processes to perform their role in a safe manner. For example, it may include commitment to completing safety inspections, hazard identification and risk management activities in a manner that reflects recognition of the importance of these tasks to the health and safety of themselves and others. Such

Quadrant	General Description	OHS Perspective
	how they are held accountable.	behaviour is indicative of an effective OHS strategy, culture and individual mindset.
Culture Intersubjective or internal collective factors (Sociology)	‘Culture landscape,’ the internal world of the collective that is inferred rather than observed. Group values and norms; ‘the way we do things around here.’	Organisational culture receives a lot of attention in OHS literature and professional discussion. ⁵ “The safety culture of an organisation 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. Organisations with a positive safety culture are characterised by communications founded on mutual trust, by shared perceptions of the importance of safety and by confidence in the efficacy of preventive measures.” (HSC, 1993, p. 23)
Systems Interobjective or external collective factors	Collective ‘nature landscape,’ the external world of the collective that includes organisational structures, systems, processes, strategies and environmental interactions.	The external collective world includes organisational structure, corporate and OHS vision, objectives and strategic plan, and the systems and processes put in place within the organisation for delivering on its strategic objectives. It also includes organisational metrics, monitoring, accountability and response processes.

Appendix 1 includes relevant discussion of organisational leadership and culture, and external OHS drivers that influence organisational strategy summarised from the 2012 edition of *The Organisation*.

5 Implications for OHS practice

As stated in section 1, OHS professionals function as key advisors, strategists and pilots working within organisations to integrate OHS risk management into sustainable business practice (INSHPO, 2017). In providing advice, strategy and guidance, they need to recognise and understand the complexity of organisations. By applying different lenses, OHS professionals can increase their capacity to ‘make sense’ of organisations and gain insight into organisational dynamics.

⁵ See *OHS BoK* 10.2.1 Organisational Culture: A Search for Meaning and 10.2.2 Organisational Culture: Reviewed and Repositioned.

No one lens, or interpretive aid, will provide complete insight into an organisation and the interactions within it. By becoming skilled in the use of a range of lenses, OHS professionals may discover ways of seeing, understanding and shaping situations when organising, implementing and influencing safety within their organisations.

Lenses such as the ones described in this chapter are tools for understanding organisational context. They will assist OHS professionals to work within the system, rather than attempting to bolt on something that does not quite fit. Also, use of lenses will help OHS professionals maintain flexibility in their approach to problem solving, rather than having a 'one solution to every problem' mindset. We can sometimes get stuck in our own way of doing things and, based on previous success, try to apply what has worked before to a new problem, situation or organisation. By applying lenses to keep fresh eyes on problems, OHS professionals can remain up to date, flexible and responsive to what is required in the current situation, rather than defaulting to what has been tried in the past.

Metaphorical view

Appropriate use of metaphor can provide OHS professionals with shorthand insight into the essence of their organisation, an aspect of their organisation or values held by others, and so inform their advice and how it is framed. It can help them draw on language that can encourage a shared understanding of a certain situation or organisational aspect.

Also, effective metaphors can bring disparate factions within an organisation together by moving away from the personal to create a broader frame of reference for problem solving. Metaphors allow a degree of space around a problem, and offer a way of bringing a 'third party' or different view to a situation that may be sensitive. This may help to deflate or avoid an emotional situation, and to keep discussion on a level that allows negotiation and resolution.

For example: A group of health and safety representatives (HSRs) describe their committee as a toothless tiger kept in a zoo. This metaphor can be explored, the meanings extrapolated and a course of action taken that will be meaningful to those sharing the metaphor. The HSRs could be asked to generate a metaphor that depicts the committee as they would like it to operate, and develop strategies to achieve this.

OHS professionals may find that they can utilise language already common in the workplace to 'carry' the safety message. For example, in a company with values that include 'we are a family' and 'achieving success together,' the OHS professional could ensure that the safety message has greater resonance within the organisation by embedding it within the *organisation as family* metaphor.

Structural view

Understanding organisational structure – both its formal representation and its informal reality – is vital for OHS professionals. The design of the organisation as represented by its structure can indicate where an organisation sits on the mechanistic–organic continuum, and provide OHS professionals with insight into roles, decision-making and relationships that will impact the development and implementation of OHS strategy.

For example: For an OHS professional who is working within a highly bureaucratic organisation, it is important for them to know who the heads of each department are and the best way to communicate with them. It is not uncommon to hear of an OHS professional in a new role completely putting a whole department offside because they spoke with someone without going through ‘the right channels.’

In a flatter structure, it is especially important for the OHS professional to understand who the ‘informal’ influencers are, as these people can be more difficult to identify and, therefore, to engage.

Integral view

By applying an integral, four-quadrant approach, OHS professionals can gain a holistic view of the complexity of an organisation. Analysis of the four dimensions as they pertain to an organisation, or part of an organisation, can reveal areas to be addressed, including potential barriers, when planning the design and implementation of a strategy.

For example: You are an OHS professional planning for an upcoming strategy meeting and there are some key elements that you want to see embedded in the strategy. What do you need to consider to increase your chance of success?

- What might be the views and attitudes of individuals in the meeting? (thinking)
- How effective might individuals be in presenting their views and influencing others? (behaviour)
- How might the group dynamics play out during the discussion? What are the unwritten norms that define how group members work together? (culture)
- What organisational factors will influence the group? (systems).

5 Summary

Effective OHS professionals position themselves as strategic advisors within organisations and seek to integrate OHS practices into the organisation’s strategy and day-to-day operations. This requires an understanding of the complexity of organisations generally and of their organisation in particular. Developing this understanding is facilitated by the use of

cognitive aids, or lenses, which can expand an OHS professional's capacity to assess a situation and determine the best course of action given the current variables in terms of organisational structure, priorities, political landscape and culture.

This chapter described three cognitive aids – metaphorical, structural and integral lenses – that can assist OHS professionals in viewing and understanding their organisation. Use of such lenses can provide OHS professionals with valuable insights to inform their organisational interactions and enhance their OHS capabilities and overall practice.

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Appendix 1: Perspectives on health and safety and the organisation, 2012

The following is an excerpt from the 2012 edition of this chapter, which aimed to identify organisational parameters that impact OHS practice.

With an in-depth examination of organisational behaviour being beyond the scope of the *OHS Body of Knowledge*, this chapter takes the approach of a ‘round table’ discussion with an expert panel of four people who approach the organisation from different perspectives:

- An academic specialising in business management and leadership – Professor John Toohey
- An OHS researcher who investigates major disasters – Professor Andrew Hopkins
- An OHS educator with strategic business experience – Professor Dennis Else
- An OHS professional operating at the executive level of a global organisation – Dr Robert Stacy.

... To support the OHS professional in understanding and working ‘within’ the organisation, this chapter addresses the dynamic nature of organisations, what drives organisations and the opportunities available to OHS professionals to influence organisational strategy. It considers the interaction between culture and leadership, and how managers influence culture by what they pay attention to as reflected in the things that the organisation monitors, measures and manages.

Understanding ‘the organisation’

Understanding organisations is made more complex by their dynamic nature. Many authors refer to the ‘lifecycle’ of an organisation and draw on biological science concepts to highlight organisational evolution and maturation processes (e.g. Lester, Parnell & Carraher, 2003). Corporate governance parameters have been linked to strategic thresholds in an organisation’s lifecycle (Filatotchev, Toms & Wright, 2006), and the maturity of organisations has been associated with readiness for change (Zephir, Minel & Chapotot, 2011) and performance across a range of functions (Belt, Oiva-Kess, Harkonen, Mottonen & Kess, 2009).

Organisational evolution and maturity

Knowledge of an organisation’s lifecycle position or level of maturity can aid managers in understanding the relationships between maturity and strategy and performance (Lester, Parnell & Carraher, 2003). Hudson and colleagues have mapped OHS parameters to develop a framework of organisational maturity in OHS (Hudson, Parker, Lawrie, van der Graff & Bryden, 2004; Lawrie, Parker & Hudson, 2006; Parker, Lawrie & Hudson, 2006). The Hudson (2001) maturity model for OHS culture (Figure 1) has informed the work of various researchers (e.g. Guldenmund, 2008) and OHS professionals. Detailed descriptors of OHS maturity are provided by Parker, Lawrie and Hudson (2006). Also, the concept of organisational maturity as it relates to OHS has been applied more specifically in, for example, the area of Safe Design (Sharp, Strutt, Busby & Terry, 2002).

Strategy

In the introduction to this chapter, the OHS professional was challenged to understand and work within the organisation rather than to try to impose OHS from outside. It was suggested that OHS professionals should initially ask themselves ‘What business are we in?’ A brief answer to this may be located in the organisation’s *mission* – its reason for existence. According to Abell (1980), an organisation’s mission should reflect its customer groups, customer needs and the distinctive competencies possessed by the organisation. Ideally, the mission should reflect the values espoused by the organisation; these values have implications for how managers intend to conduct themselves, how they intend to do business and the kind of organisation they want to build. Typically, an organisational mission statement is accompanied by a *vision* statement – a forward-looking view of where the organisation wants to be. Methods of achieving this vision are usually described in the organisation’s *strategy* – the set of actions that the organisation takes to achieve its goals.

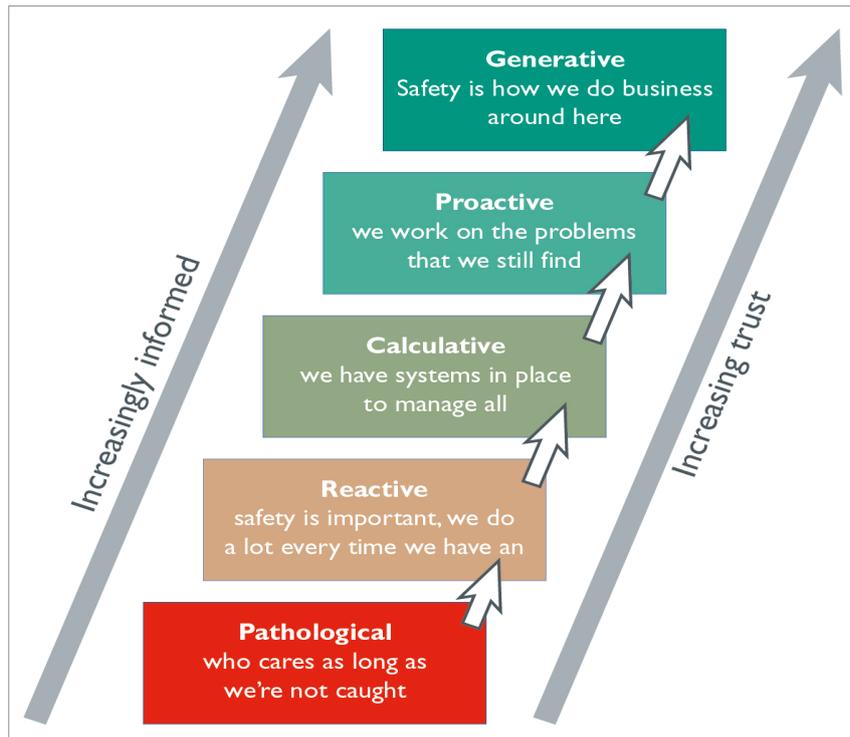


Figure 1: The evolutionary model of safety culture (Hudson, 2001, p. 30)

Generally, strategy development involves top management describing how they will achieve their goals using internal capabilities to respond to drivers in the external environment (Hill & Jones, 2001). The strategy may be rational, well described and articulated, or it may be emergent and evolve in response to changes in the external environment (Hill & Jones, 2001). The organisational strategy is manifest in the actions taken by the organisation and, in turn, by individual managers.

There is extensive theory relating to how organisations formulate and articulate visions and strategies to achieve their visions. Porter (1979) identified five competitive forces that influence business strategy:

- Jockeying for position among current competitors [which is influenced by:]
- Bargaining power of suppliers
- Bargaining power of customers
- Threat of new entrants
- Threat of substitute products or services.

Grove (1996) added a sixth competitive force:

- Availability of 'complementors' (companies that produce products that enhance the value of your own, e.g. companies that develop 'apps' for a smart phone enhance the value of the phone).

Hill and Jones (2001) located Porter's forces in the broader macroeconomic, technological, social, demographic and political/legal environments, all of which can influence each competitive force (Figure 2). Strategy, therefore, is derived from an organisation's decisions about what actions to take, given these external forces.

An effective OHS professional will work 'within' an organisation in a manner consistent with its mission, vision and strategy to make OHS part of the business. Furthermore, an effective OHS professional will look beyond these corporate position statements to identify the 'drivers' of the business and its managers to help the organisation achieve its strategic, not just OHS, goals.

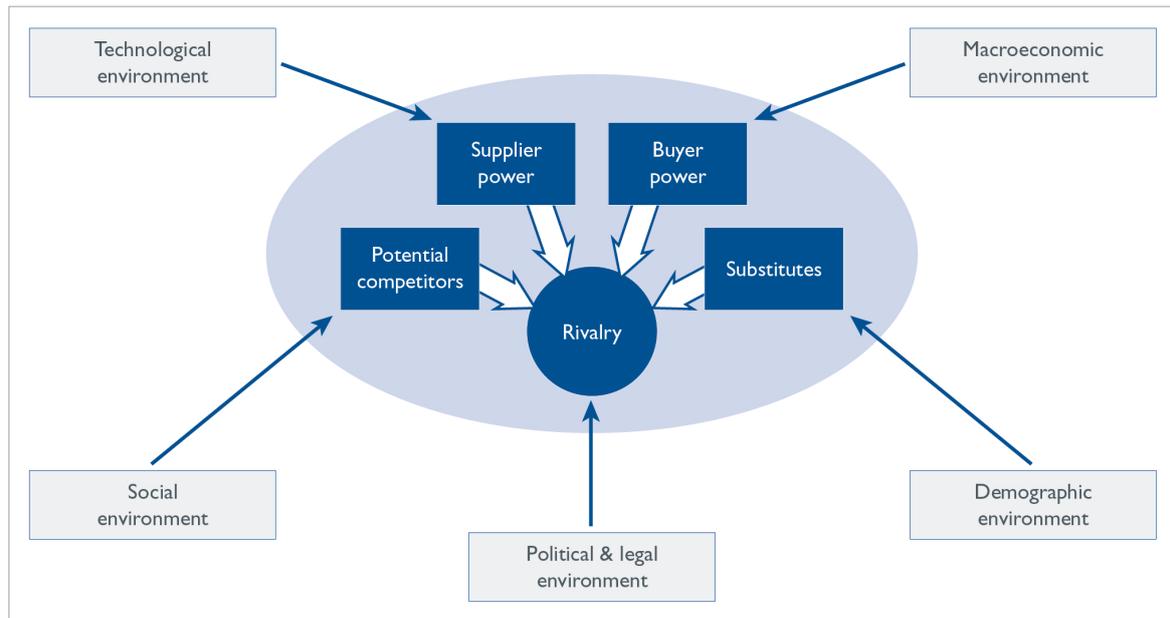


Figure 2: Strategy is influenced by competitive forces that are, in turn, influenced by macroenvironmental forces (Hill & Jones, 2001, p. 92)

... The panel members differentiated between organisations with major hazards and those with lower-risk hazards. It was agreed that OHS is on the radar for managers in organisations with major hazards; the drivers for OHS in these organisations were identified as:

- Cost (although efficacy of cost as a driver is variable)
- Threat to license to operate
- Legal liability of individual managers
- Reputational risk.

For organisations where risks are lower, the potential drivers were identified as:

- Promoting OHS through the supply chain
- Commercial differentiation
- Social drivers of sustainability, ethical practice, community social responsibility and corporate responsibility.

There were some varying views on whether cost of OHS could be used as a driver for promoting OHS; this seems to be limited at least by the financial recording of OHS costs although that might change as issues such as bullying impact productivity and possibly damages payouts.

These OHS drivers can be mapped on the Hill and Jones (2001) model (Figure 3). The way that an organisation responds to the drivers in the environment is influenced by its culture.

Leadership and culture

Schein (2010) argued that leaders influence culture by what they pay attention to, measure and control. In a recent report for the Australian Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, leadership and culture levers for achieving high-performing workplaces were identified (Boedker et al., 2011). Both views support a nexus between culture and leadership. Historically, the concepts of culture and leadership have travelled independent as well as overlapping evolutionary paths. For instance, transactional leadership and transformational leadership styles have emerged as prominent theories in the leadership literature (Yukl, 2010), while in the organisational culture literature, the prominent debate has focused on the distinction between climate versus culture (Guldenmund, 2000) and whether culture is something an organisation *is* (beliefs, attitudes and behaviours) or *has* (structures, practices and controls) (Hofstede, 1991).

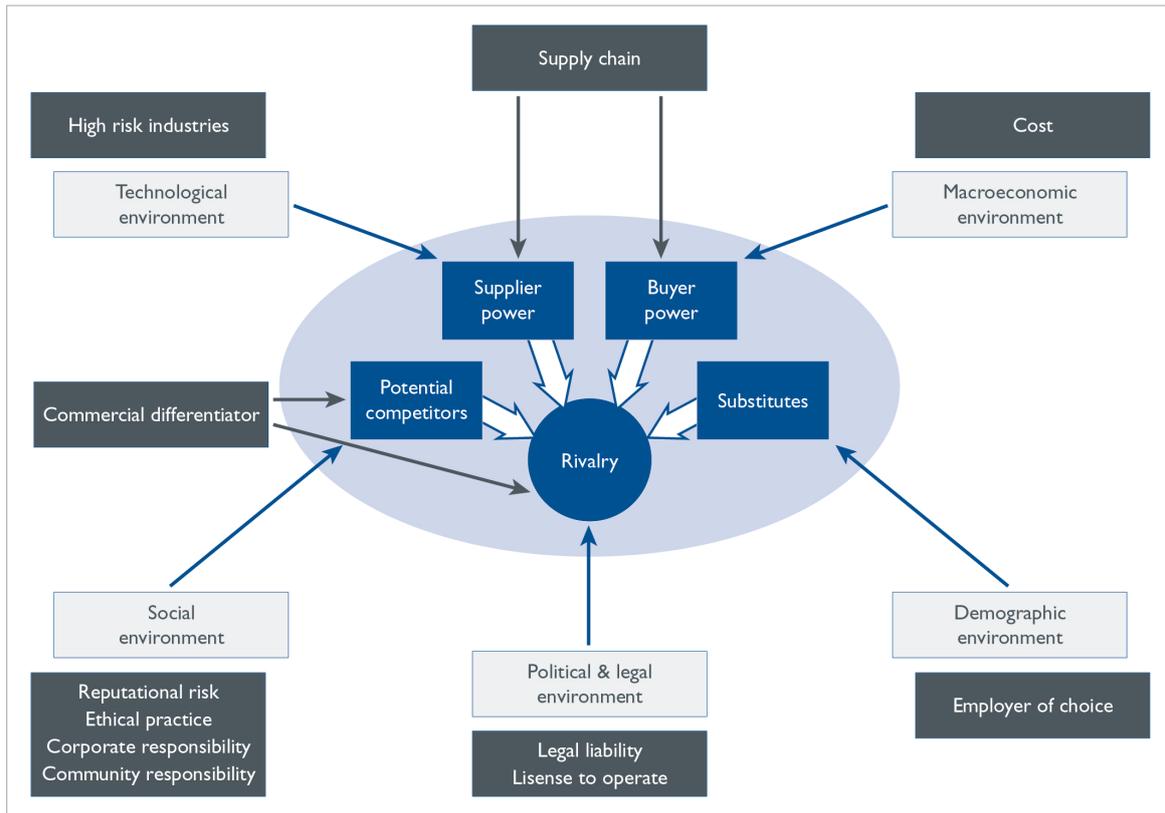


Figure 3: OHS drivers in the macroenvironment that influence organisational strategy (modified from Hill & Jones, 2001, p. 92)

Interest in safety culture and safety climate emerged as a subset of the interest in organisational culture and organisational climate. It was stimulated by the deficiencies in safety culture implicated in a series of major disasters such as Chernobyl in 1986 (Cox & Flin, 1998) and the 2005 Texas City disaster (CSHIB, 2007; Hopkins, 2008). Interest in safety climate pre-dates the interest in safety culture; the term 'safety climate' first appeared in the literature in 1951 (Guldenmund, 2000). Based on research in 20 industrial organisations in Israel, Zohar (1980) found that management attitudes towards safety influenced workers' perception of safety climate. More recently, Guldenmund (2007) argued that safety climate and safety culture are two means to the same end, which is determining how important safety is to an organisation. Reflecting on 30 years of safety climate research, Zohar (2010) proposed safety climate as a valid predictor and indicator of safety outcomes with leadership as one antecedent of climate.

Studies of safety culture have drawn on organisational culture research and theory, most notably:

- Schein's (2010) three levels of culture model (i.e. artifacts, espoused values and basic underlying assumptions) and his focus on leaders as the source of culture
- Hofstede's (1991) framework for assessing national and organisational cultures (with dimensions of power distance, collectivism vs individualism, femininity vs masculinity, uncertainty avoidance and long-term vs short-term orientation), which focuses on changing practices rather than values
- Martin's (2002) three-perspective theory of culture (i.e. integration, differentiation and fragmentation).

Drawing on Hofstede's view that it is easier to change practices than values, Reason (1997, 1998) advocated socially engineering an informed culture comprising four interlocking subcultures (or practices): a reporting culture, a learning culture, a just culture and a flexible culture. Hopkins (2005) built on Reason's work by also advocating changing practices in the first instance, but incorporating Schein's view that leaders play a key role in influencing culture as a result of the practices they pay

attention to, measure and control. In contrast, Richter and Koch's (2004) application of Martin's three-perspective theory of culture to the study of safety culture in the Danish manufacturing industry supported the view that organisations contain subcultures, and that leaders are not alone in influencing culture. These different perspectives on safety culture grapple with the dilemma of whether culture is something an organisation *is* (how workers and managers value safety) or *has* (practices and policies designed to enhance safety). Reason (1998, p. 294) resolved this dilemma by asserting that "both are essential for achieving an effective safety culture."

Returning to the government's desire to foster productivity and innovation in Australian workplaces (Boedker et al., 2011), there is evidence that an organisational culture focused on safety (Hopkins, 2005; Zohar, 2010) contributes to health and safety and organisational performance. Undoubtedly, leaders play a critical role in shaping the culture of safety and the safety climate as perceived by workers. Whilst safety culture and the relationship between safety culture and safety climate is now better understood than it was 25 years ago, leadership is an emerging area of safety research interest (e.g. Carrillo, 2011; Eid et al., 2011; Törner, 2011).

... [Professor Andrew Hopkins and Professor John Toohey discussed their perspectives on leadership and culture, which reinforced that:]

- There is a link between health and safety performance and high-performing workplaces.
- Culture ('the way we do things around here') is both a mindset and a set of behaviours. The behaviours may be the easiest to change, but if there is not an accompanying change in mindset or attitude, the behaviours will be not strongly embedded. Embedding the mindset requires education.
- Leaders influence culture by what they pay attention to, what they measure and what they control.
- Generally, strategy is reflected in the things that the organisation monitors, measures and manages.

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