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1 *Article*

2  
3 **An Engineering or Behavioural Approach? A Study into**  
4 **Employee's Perceptions Regarding the Effectiveness of**  
5 **Occupational Road Safety Initiatives**

6  
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14  
15  
16 **Abstract**

17 *Background and Aims:* Considerable variation has been documented with fleet safety interventions'  
18 abilities to create lasting behavioural change, and research has neglected to consider employees'  
19 perceptions regarding the effectiveness of fleet interventions. This is a critical oversight as  
20 employees' beliefs and acceptance levels (as well as the perceived organisational commitment to  
21 safety) can ultimately influence levels of effectiveness, and this study aimed to examine such  
22 perceptions in Australian fleet settings. *Method:* 679 employees sourced from four Australian  
23 organisations completed a safety climate questionnaire as well as provided perspectives about the  
24 effectiveness of 35 different safety initiatives. *Results:* Countermeasures that were perceived as  
25 most effective were a mix of human and engineering-based approaches: (a) purchasing safer  
26 vehicles, (b) investigating serious vehicle incidents and (c) practical driver skills training. In  
27 contrast, least effective countermeasures were considered to be: (a) signing a promise card, (b)  
28 advertising a company's phone number on the back of cars for complaints and compliments and (c)  
29 communicating cost benefits of road safety to employees. No significant differences in employee  
30 perceptions were identified based on age, gender, employees' self-reported crash involvement or  
31 employees' self-reported traffic infringement history. Perceptions of safety climate were identified  
32 to be "moderate" but were not linked to self-reported crash or traffic infringement history.  
33 However, higher levels of safety climate were positively correlated with perceived effectiveness of  
34 some interventions. *Conclusion:* Taken together, employees believed occupational road safety risks  
35 could best be managed by the employer by implementing a combination of engineering and human  
36 resource initiatives to enhance road safety. This paper will further outline the key findings in  
37 regards to practice as well as provide direction for future research.

38  
39 **Keywords:** safety culture; climate; occupational road safety; interventions.

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## **1. Introduction**

Compared to general motorists, a relatively small body of research has focused on fleet drivers, particularly individuals who drive company sponsored vehicles [1-4]. This may be considered surprising given that professional drivers not only have different driving demands, but they also have higher exposure to risk [5] and are disproportionately represented in crash statistics. In fact, occupational driving crashes are the most common form of injury or death in Australian workplaces [6], with 40% of all worker fatalities over the past 11 years (2003-2013) resulting from vehicle collisions [7]. This effect is not confined to Australia, but rather, similar findings have been reported in the United Kingdom [8] and in the United States [9]. The largest proportion of the research has been directed towards examining fleet drivers' self-reported driving behaviours, which is usually measured via the Driver Behaviour Questionnaire [10]. This research has demonstrated that company drivers have a greater risk of crash involvement [2, 3], due not only to higher levels of exposure to the road environment, but also as a result of time and scheduling pressures and other distractions [11]. This has resulted in a growing view expressed both in industry and the corresponding road safety literature that there is a need to create a proactive "fleet safety culture" that has a strong foundation based on corporate policies, processes and procedures [12].

### *Interventions*

Within Australia, organisational intervention strategies have historically been applied in a "post hoc" manner due to an increase in numbers or severity of work-related vehicle crashes or incidents [13]. That is, most organisational intervention strategies have historically been implemented in reaction to an increase in numbers or severity of work-related vehicle crashes or incidents [13] and fail to proactively address problems or incidents before they occur. Additionally, organisations have traditionally adopted a "one size fits all" approach to intervention strategies that often involves an overreliance on driver training, generally based on enhancing driver skills and not targeting specific driver behaviours or organisational influences [14]. However, some research has been conducted into the effectiveness of three predominant categories of fleet interventions, briefly reviewed below.

**Driver Training:** The effectiveness of driver training in fleet settings remains relatively unknown, despite it being the most widely implemented fleet intervention [12, 6]. Preliminary research provided limited evidence of effectiveness [15] as it has been suggested that the approach focuses too much on skill improvement at the expense of judgement and decision-making [16]. Rowland, Wishart and Davey [17] argued that an emphasis on strategies to improve the driving skills of drivers reinforces the perceptions of

75 organisational management that the driver, more specifically a lack of driver skills and  
76 ability, is primarily to “blame” for work-related incidents/crashes. Nevertheless, research on  
77 general motorists has demonstrated the approach can improve driving skill if it involves  
78 formal instruction and extensive practice [18, 19].

79

80 Organisational Interventions: Advancements in Occupational Health and Safety legislative  
81 frameworks have also resulted in an increasing presence of employer obligations in the  
82 workplace [6]. This has subsequently enhanced the focus on driver safety management  
83 approaches [6]. Newnam and Watson [20] categorised these risk management approaches  
84 into: (a) crash reporting databases and (b) driver recruitment and training. While the  
85 utilisation of crash databases is useful in regards to benchmarking, the approach is often  
86 reactive and is of little use to develop proactive interventions [14]. Driver recruitment  
87 processes often involve confirming that the applicant has a valid licence and collecting  
88 information about driving history [20], which arguably should also be undertaken at on-  
89 going intervals throughout an employee’s contract.

90

91 Behaviour Modification: The use of incentives has also proven popular within fleet settings,  
92 with many of the approaches being modelled off operant conditioning e.g., providing  
93 incentives. Some preliminary research has indicated there is merit in the approach for  
94 reducing crashes [21] as well as seat belt usage [22]. Safety awareness programs have also  
95 been trialed, and have proven effective but outcome measures are reliant upon self-reported  
96 data [23].

97

98 Organisational fleet safety interventions are not limited only to the above approaches, and  
99 some interventions are multimodal in nature and thus contain different elements. For example, a  
100 range of risk management initiatives have been introduced in many motorised countries (including  
101 Australia, New Zealand, the United States of America, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom)  
102 that include: management education and awareness; policies relating to the management of  
103 journeys, drivers and vehicles; safe vehicle selection and maintenance; driver training; driver  
104 monitoring; awareness campaigns; risk assessments; post-incident investigations; assessments of  
105 health and fitness to operate vehicles; conferences, seminars and workshops; incident data  
106 recording; safe driving awards; group discussions; competency based licence testing; and programs  
107 focussing on vehicle maintenance, fatigue management, driving hours, and driver health [24, 25].  
108 Banks et al. [26] conducted a document review of empirical studies pertaining to occupational road  
109 safety initiatives. From the 19 initiatives reviewed, only six initiatives were found to be positively

110 associated with occupational road safety benefits (e.g., reductions in crashes or incidents) both  
111 during and after the intervention period [25]. These were: a pay rise; driver training; group  
112 discussions; enlisting employees as community road safety change agents; safety reminders; and  
113 group and individual rewards. However, it should be noted that quantifying the level of  
114 effectiveness has yet to be undertaken. While others have argued that a more holistic approach is  
115 necessary that addresses a range of risk factors [14]. More specifically, this could include the  
116 systematic identification and management of the risks associated with fleet drivers (e.g., attitudes  
117 and behaviours), development of appropriate intervention/improvement strategies as well as  
118 maintaining continuous monitoring and review of the risks [17]. Furthermore, it has also been  
119 suggested that theoretical development in the work-related driving arena has been limited (and  
120 similar to the application of interventions), has been anecdotal and data driven [20]. Given the  
121 importance of theory in creating behavioural change, such an omission within the fleet safety arena  
122 could be a significant oversight.

123         Importantly, there is some preliminary evidence that indicates community perception of road  
124 safety countermeasures do not align with evidence, but rather, appear to suffer from a  
125 misunderstanding of behaviour change principles and crash causation [27]. While this research has  
126 not been extended to consider occupational road safety, the underlying principle of misalignment  
127 between perception and reality has similar implications for fleet safety. More specifically, there  
128 may be a disconnect between perceptions of the effectiveness of fleet interventions (as well as the  
129 subsequent implementation of initiatives) and actual empirical evidence regarding the efficacy of  
130 countermeasures to improve road safety. Furthermore, while previous research has focused heavily  
131 on drivers' perceptions of safety [28] as well as self-reported attitudes and behaviours [29], it has  
132 generally neglected drivers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of different fleet interventions.  
133 This may prove to be a significant oversight, as research has suggested that employees' beliefs may  
134 facilitate or act as a barrier when implementing organisational initiatives [30]. It may yet be  
135 proven that individuals are more likely to accept initiatives that they believe will assist them in  
136 achieving a goal and to resist initiatives that they believe have limited effectiveness and/or are not  
137 appropriate in their organisation [26]. More broadly, the impact of attitudes on behaviour is well  
138 documented within the Theory of Planned Behaviour [31] and the powerful influence of attitudes as  
139 well as expectations is no more clearly evidenced than in the placebo effect [32]. Furthermore,  
140 positive attitudes towards an initiative have been proven to increase usage [33] and it may yet be  
141 proven that the limited effectiveness of in-vehicle monitoring systems for teenager drivers [34, 35]  
142 is related to low levels of acceptance.

143 *Safety Culture and Climate*

144 The concept of “safety culture and climate” underpins many organizational interventions to  
145 improve worker safety. There is some evidence that creating a strong “safety culture” can have a  
146 positive effect on improving road safety by reducing fleet collisions [21, 28, 36], although it is also  
147 noted that traffic safety culture is a relatively new concept and there is no consensus regarding the  
148 nature of the concept nor how it should be defined [37]. The concept of safety culture first emerged  
149 in the International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group’s (INSAG) report on the 1986 Chernobyl  
150 nuclear power plant disaster, which indicated that a lack of safety culture contributed to the  
151 incident. A complete review into the evolution and development of safety culture is beyond the  
152 scope of the current paper [see 38, 39], but in its simplest terms, the concept may be defined as “the  
153 assembly of underlying assumptions, beliefs, values and attitudes shared by members of an  
154 organisation, which interact with an organisation’s structures and systems and the broader  
155 contextual setting to result in those external, readily-visible, practices that influence safety” [40,  
156 p77]. The concept has a lengthy history of application in organisational safety over the past 25  
157 years, but it has only recently emerged in the traffic safety literature [40]. Nevertheless, preliminary  
158 research has provided positive results regarding the influence of safety culture. For example, Öz et  
159 al. [5] explored the self-reported driving behaviours of 230 male professional drivers and reported  
160 those with low work orientation scores (e.g., culture) reported significantly more DBQ related-  
161 violations than those with high scores for work orientation.

162 A further extension of the safety culture concept is that of *safety climate*, which refers to  
163 employees’ shared perceptions of management’s commitment and operations with regards to fleet  
164 safety practices, policies and procedures [28, 41]. As such, fleet safety climate forms part of the  
165 broader concept of safety culture, but focuses primarily on workers’ perceptions and thus represents  
166 a psychological construct [28]. Preliminary research has identified a number of general dimensions  
167 that may impact fleet safety climate including: management commitment; work demands and  
168 pressure; trusting relationships including communication and support; appropriateness of safety  
169 rules as well as safety training [28, 41, 42]. In regards to impacts on safety performance, there is  
170 some evidence for a relationship between safety climate and safety outcomes in regards to: self-  
171 reported current driver behaviour and future driving intentions at work [43]; incident rates [44]; and  
172 self-reported safety behaviours and injury outcomes [45]. For example, Wills et al. [43] found that  
173 both individual factors (e.g., safety attitudes) and organisational factors (e.g., safety climate  
174 perceptions) influenced current driving behaviours as well as future driving intentions. Newnam et  
175 al. [46] also reported that among a sample of fleet drivers, both individual factors and organisational  
176 safety values can influence safety outcomes. Despite this research, it has been suggested that few  
177 theoretical or conceptual advances have been made within the fleet safety domain [20], and research  
178 rarely uses such frameworks to explore work-related driving issues. Nevertheless, given the

179 possible links between safety climate and safety outcomes, it is suggested that fleet safety climate  
180 may be related to occupational road safety outcomes (e.g., improved safety), and thus worthy of  
181 further exploration [47].

182 Taken together, empirical evidence is lacking into the effectiveness of a range of fleet  
183 interventions as well as how theoretical constructs such as safety culture and climate can be  
184 combined with organisational initiatives to enhance safety outcomes. As noted above, research has  
185 neglected drivers' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of interventions despite evidence that  
186 indicates employees' beliefs can influence the safety outcomes of countermeasures. As a result, this  
187 study aims to examine employees' perceptions regarding various occupational road safety  
188 initiatives and explore what factors influence such perceptions.

## 189 **2. Experimental Section**

190 A total of 679 employees sourced from four Australian organisations completed an on-line  
191 questionnaire. Participation was confidential and anonymous. The organisations included private  
192 and public, profit and not-for-profit organisations containing vehicle fleets. These organisations  
193 were responsible for a combined workforce of approximately 42,000 and a combined fleet of  
194 approximately 19,000, which operated in both rural and urban environments. A convenience  
195 sampling approach was utilised with a minimum of 100 volunteering participants being sampled  
196 from each of the four organisations. Participants ranged in age from 18 years to 65 years ( $M = 42$ ,  
197  $SD = 11$ ). A relatively even distribution of male (58%) and female (42%) participants was achieved.  
198 Participants reported regularly driving a vehicle for occupational purposes e.g., 80% on a daily  
199 basis. Crash involvement and demerit point history (e.g., fines) were examined via participants  
200 reported frequency of such events over the past 12 months. The largest proportion of the sample  
201 had not been involved in a crash (84.5%,  $n = 574$ ), with 9.6% ( $n = 65$ ) being involved in one crash  
202 and 1.9% ( $n = 13$ ) being involved in more than one crash. In regards to fines, 87.5% ( $n = 594$ ) had  
203 not received a fine in the last year, while 7.1% ( $n = 48$ ) received one fine and 1.5% ( $n = 10$ )  
204 received more than one fine.

205 A questionnaire was developed that required participants to rate 35 fleet safety-based  
206 initiatives in regards to how effective they perceived they would be in improving road safety in their  
207 organisation. Initiatives were selected based upon: (a) a review of interventions proposed to be best  
208 practice in industry reports [6, 24, 25, 48, 49, 50]; and (b) initiatives that had been previously  
209 empirically evaluated [51]. However, the nominated interventions were not all implemented across  
210 the four interventions. Identified initiatives that have been previously researched included: group  
211 discussions to identify safety problems and brainstorm solutions [21], safe driving goal setting, [52]  
212 signing a promise card commitment to drive safely [53], monitoring driver behaviour with in-car  
213 data recorders [54], and encouraging self-monitoring of driving behaviour [55]. The questionnaire

214 was piloted with both 15 managers and 15 employees. Participants were required to rate initiatives  
215 on a five-point Likert scale ranging from very ineffective to very effective. The descriptions of the  
216 initiatives used in the questionnaire can be viewed in the results section in Table 1.

217 A 36 item fleet safety climate scale developed in previous research [41] was also utilised.  
218 The items were consistent with existing fleet safety climate measures such as the Safety Climate  
219 Questionnaire – Modified for Drivers [SCQ-MD] which has previously been validated with industry  
220 samples [43]. Participants’ responses to the items required them to indicate how much they thought  
221 the practices applied to their organisation. Items were measured using a five-point scale ranging  
222 from one representing never to five representing always. All factors were calculated such that  
223 higher scores indicated safer perceptions.

### 224 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 225 *3.1 Perceived Effectiveness*

226 Descriptive analysis revealed that the initiatives perceived by employees to be most  
227 effective in managing occupational road risks were multifaceted. The top five initiatives were  
228 considered to be: (a) making vehicle safety features standard, (b) practical driver training skills, (c)  
229 investigation of serious driver vehicle crashes and incidents, (d) making cruise control a standard  
230 vehicle feature and (e) targeting safety assistance to high risk drivers (see Table 1). As a result, the  
231 countermeasures perceived to be most effective consisted of either technological approaches or a  
232 focus on human factors. However, it is noteworthy that only “making vehicle safety features  
233 standard” reached a mean score above 4 indicating consensus that the approach was “effective.”  
234 Additionally, there has yet to be a cumulative body of evidence that indicates the initiatives  
235 (particularly practical driver training skills) actually improves fleet safety. Between groups analysis  
236 revealed no significant differences between the three highest ranked items, although a top ranked  
237 item (e.g., making vehicles safer) was ranked significantly higher than the fifth ranked item (e.g.,  
238 targeting safety assistance)  $t(679) = 8.19, p < .01$ . In contrast, the least effective initiatives were  
239 considered to be: (a) signing a promise card, (b) advertising company phone numbers on vehicles,  
240 (c) consideration of driving competence in staff recruitment, (d) communicating cost benefits of  
241 road safety and (e) presenting comparisons of vehicle incident statistics between depots. No  
242 significant differences in employee perceptions were identified based on age, affiliated  
243 organisation, gender, employees’ self-reported crash involvement or employees’ self-reported  
244 traffic infringement history.

245 **Table 1** - Employee perceptions of initiative effectiveness  
246

Occupational Road Safety Initiative	Mean	SD
Making vehicle safety features standard e.g. passenger airbags	4.02	1.11
Practical driver skills training	3.94	1.25
Investigation of serious vehicle incidents	3.89	1.09



Making cruise control a standard vehicle feature	3.69	1.23
Targeting safety assistance to high risk drivers	3.66	1.14
Marking low visibility walls and objects with hazard colours	3.60	1.21
Recording vehicle incidents and identifying high risk employees and vehicles	3.59	1.16
Assessing competency before being cleared to operate vehicles in difficult areas	3.57	1.22
Medical screening for problems that will affect driving e.g. vision	3.53	1.25
Journey planning to avoid high risk situations e.g. animals at dusk	3.49	1.19
Vehicle inductions for all drivers	3.48	1.22
Awareness communication on work related road risks e.g. emails, posters	3.46	1.01
Employee input in selection of vehicles	3.44	1.27
Individual incentives for safe driving	3.44	1.27
Presenting genuine personal stories about serious crashes in your organisation	3.43	1.19
Making ‘lights on’ during driving a standard vehicle feature	3.39	1.30
Documenting vehicle maintenance	3.39	1.10
Provision of driver safety information	3.38	1.02
Checking driver’s licences are current every 12 months	3.30	1.35
Group incentives for safe driving	3.27	1.21
Individual feedback on driving behaviour	3.27	1.13
Development and promotion of work related road safety policy	3.25	1.01
Including driving behaviour in performance assessments	3.21	1.21
Safe driving goal setting	3.15	1.10
Encouraging self-monitoring of driving behaviour	3.09	1.06
Individual consequences for unsafe driving	3.07	1.03
Making speed-limiters a standard vehicle feature	3.06	1.36
Group discussions to identify safety problems and brainstorm solutions	3.00	1.12
Group feedback on driving behaviour	3.00	1.17
Monitor driver behaviour with in-car data recorders	2.93	1.32
Presenting comparisons of vehicle incident statistics between depots	2.92	1.20
Communicating cost benefits of road safety e.g. fuel efficiency	2.87	1.13
Consideration of driving competency in staff selection process	2.87	1.18
Advertising organisations phone number on vehicles for complaints & compliments	2.81	1.36
Signing a promise card commitment to drive safely	2.37	1.17

247

248 *3.2 Safety Climate*

249 A factor analysis of the Fleet safety climate scale was implemented to determine the factor structure  
 250 of the scale, which extracted five factors that were: (a) management commitment; (b) work  
 251 demands; (c) trust; (d) appropriateness of rules; and (e) communication. The observed reliability  
 252 coefficients for each of the factors were above the acceptable cut-off level of .70. Mean and  
 253 standard deviation scores were calculated for the overall fleet safety climate questionnaire as well as  
 254 for each of the five extracted factors. The mean overall fleet safety climate score was 3.33 (SD =  
 255 0.67), which on a five point likert scale, suggests a perceived “moderate” level of organisational  
 256 support for safety. Mean scores remained relatively consistent across the five factors, which are  
 257 presented in Table 2. Factor Five - communication (M = 3.27, SD = 0.80).

258

259

**Table 2.** Climate Factors

Factor	Item Examples	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
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Management commitment	<i>Management are committed to motor vehicle safety</i> <i>Management are committed to driver safety</i>	3.47	.88
Work demands	<i>Safety rules relating to the use of motor vehicles are followed even when a job is rushed</i>	3.13	.89
Trusting Relationships	<i>Employees trust management</i> <i>Management trust employees</i>	3.15	.89
Appropriateness of Rules	<i>Safety rules relating to the use of motor vehicles are always practical</i>	3.55	.72
Communication	<i>An effective documentation management system ensures the availability of safety procedures relating to the use of motor vehicles</i>	3.27	.88

260

261 **3.3 Safety Performance**

262 A series of analyses were undertaken to determine the impact of safety climate and  
 263 perceived initiative effectiveness on driving performance (e.g., crashes and fines), as climate has  
 264 been proposed to influence safety outcomes [28]. In regards to aberrant driving behaviours, no  
 265 significant differences were identified between crash involvement or incurring fines and self-  
 266 reported safety climate. This may be considered unsurprising given the small number of employees  
 267 who reported being involved in a crash or receiving a fine, which may in part be dependent upon  
 268 the 12 month time period. Pearson’s correlations revealed that higher perceptions of management  
 269 commitment were positively associated with awareness communication regarding risks ( $r = .20^{**}$ ),  
 270 setting a goal of safe driving ( $r = .21^{**}$ ) and promotion of road safety policy ( $r = .21^{**}$ ). Higher  
 271 reports of work demands was positively associated with including driver behaviour in performance  
 272 assessments ( $r = .24^{**}$ ) and enforcing individual consequences for unsafe driving ( $r = .22^{**}$ ). For  
 273 trusting relationships, communicating the benefits of cost benefits was positively associated with  
 274 this factor ( $r = .21^{**}$ ) and signing promise cards ( $r = .19^{**}$ ). Having appropriate rules was  
 275 positively correlated with performance assessments ( $r = .17^{**}$ ) while communication was related to  
 276 promoting awareness ( $r = .20^{**}$ ), goal setting ( $r = 2.23^{**}$ ) and having safety policies ( $r = .21^{**}$ ).  
 277 Not surprisingly, higher inter-correlations were identified between the five safety climate factors  
 278 e.g., communication and management commitment ( $r = .78^{**}$ ).

279 **4. Conclusions**

280 This study aimed to examine employees' perceptions regarding various occupational road  
281 safety initiatives and explore what factors influence such perceptions. In regards to perceptions, a  
282 range of engineering/technology as well as human factors initiatives were considered moderately  
283 effective, such as purchasing safer vehicles, investigating serious vehicle incidents and practical  
284 driver skills training. It is noteworthy that research has yet to conclusively determine whether such  
285 approaches are in fact effective at improving road safety. More specifically, while utilising safer  
286 vehicles and investigating incidents makes intuitive sense, research has yet to demonstrate that  
287 increasing driver training skills and targeting safety assistance for high risk drivers actually  
288 improves driving outcomes. Of interest is that some of the initiatives that were considered least  
289 effective, were countermeasures currently widely undertaken in Australia, such as "advertising  
290 company phone numbers on vehicles". Additionally, monitoring driver behaviour with in-car data  
291 recorders was considered the sixth least effective initiative, which is surprising given that in-vehicle  
292 monitoring systems are: (a) being increasingly embraced within the fleet industry and (b) beginning  
293 to produce positive results [56]. In regards to the latter, a number of preliminary trials have  
294 reported improvements in fleet safety [57] including a reduction in crashes [54, 58, 59, 60]. This  
295 finding may be explained by the human propensity to display negative attitudes towards  
296 interventions they have little exposure to [61]. Further research is required into fleet drivers'  
297 acceptance of installing technology in vehicles, as research is identifying that user acceptance is a  
298 multifaceted concept that can influence program success e.g., Technology Acceptance Model [62].  
299 The lack of research into user acceptance of in-vehicle systems is a critical oversight given the  
300 increasing implementation of the technology in Australia.

301 In regards to the influence of safety climate on perceptions of initiative effectiveness as well  
302 as self-reported aberrant driving behaviours, the findings were mixed. On the one hand, expected  
303 correlations were found between factor loadings of safety climate and the perceived effectiveness of  
304 initiatives e.g., trusting relationships and communicating cost benefits of safety to employees. On  
305 the other hand, a clear link was not identified between safety climate and self-reported crash  
306 involvement or incurring fines. This could be due to the small percentage of the sample who were  
307 actually involved in such incidents in the 12 months, or the finding could also reflect on-going  
308 difficulties conceptualising and operationalising safety culture and climate. Additional limitations  
309 associated with this study include the accuracy of self-report data, including the tenuous link  
310 between self-reported behaviours and other objective measures. On-going difficulties associated  
311 with measuring the nature and impact of safety culture are well documented in the literature [38,  
312 40], yet the concept is increasingly being utilised to direct the implementation of safety initiatives  
313 [40]. Finally, further research is needed to determine the organisational processes that both  
314 facilitate and maximise a collective motivation to improve safety. Preliminary research has

315 demonstrated that institutional forces can positively influence employees' general perceptions of  
316 initiatives in the workplace [63] and employee's perceived effectiveness of interventions actually  
317 impacts upon safety outcomes [64]. Taken together, continued research to both identify and  
318 enhance the processes that increase intervention acceptance and the corresponding effectiveness of  
319 actual fleet interventions can only assist in reducing the burden of road crashes. It is also noted that  
320 the effectiveness of interventions can be measured in different ways, and future research may  
321 benefit from undertaking a multi-modal approach to examine the impact of interventions e.g., self-  
322 report, incident reports, etc. This research has demonstrated that while the relationship between  
323 perceived effectiveness of interventions and safety climate is not always clear, workers may be  
324 willing to participate in a range of engineering and human-factor initiatives.

325

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329

### 330 **Conflict of Interest**

331 The authors declare no conflict of interest

332

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