Diverse cultures at work: ensuring safety and health through leadership and participation

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Table of contents

List of figures and tables

Abbreviations

CLT	Culturally endorsed implicit Leadership Theory
DGUV	Deutsche Gesetzliche Unfallversicherung (German Social Accident Insurance)
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
EU	European Union
EU-OSHA	European Agency for Safety and Health at Work
Eurofound	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
FMAQ	Flight Management Attitudes Questionnaire
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (Research Project)
IDV	Individualism–Collectivism
ILT	Implicit Leadership Theory
MAS	Masculinity–Femininity
LTO	Long-term Orientation
OSH	occupational safety and health
PDI	Power Distance
PREVENT	Belgian Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
TNO	Netherlands Organisation for Applied Scientific Research
VSM	Value Survey Module
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance
EU-10	Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia
EU-12	Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia
EU-15	Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom
EU-27	Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom
EFTA COUNTRIES	(European Free Trade Association) countries: Iceland (IS), Liechtenstein (LI), Norway (NO), Switzerland (CH) (Vasileva, 2011)

Summary

This report describes the state of the art in addressing cultural diversity in the workplace, for which we distinguish two aspects:

- Cross-cultural aspects in occupational safety and health (OSH): working in teams that are homogeneous with regard to their national culture. This issue is particularly interesting for multinational corporations and their expatriate managers: see, for example, culture comparison research from Hofstede and GLOBE (the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project).
- Multicultural aspects in OSH: this is managing OSH in multicultural (heterogeneous) workforces, working at one location or in one organisation.

The differences between cultures are helpful in understanding discrepancies when several nationalities are working together. Cross-cultural (i.e. intercultural) studies describe characteristics of cultures and differences between different cultures. Therefore, the cross-cultural literature is very helpful in describing general differences that may occur in multinationals, as well as in multicultural teams. In this report the focus is on managing cultural diversity, i.e. general aspects of leadership and participation that benefit multicultural work teams.

In this report formal organisational leadership is defined as leadership constituting a process of social influence that is enacted by designated individuals who hold a formal leadership role in organisations.

The term participation can be defined as the involvement of workers in the management of OSH.

In the first chapter the concept of cultural diversity is introduced, and migration rates in Europe are described to illustrate their increased relevance in addressing cross-cultural and multicultural issues. Then we outline how migration affects diversity. At the end of the first chapter we describe the broad range of effects that cultural differences may have on the work environment in general and on OSH in particular.

These are as follows:

- Each country and its people develop its own culture, with habits, norms and values that differ from those of other nations. Long-term migration and the broad range of cultural differences of migrating people are the factors determining the cultural diversity of many European countries.
- Obtaining employment is one of the most common objectives of people migrating in peace time. The process is triggered by such structural factors as income inequalities among countries, the processes of economic integration, labour force shortages in host countries, etc.
- Statistical data on migration in the European Union (EU) show that the proportion of the labour force accounted for by migrant workers has been growing, and this trend is likely to continue in the future. In 2010, there were 32.5 million foreigners in the EU-27 (6.5 % of the total population), of whom 20.2 million were citizens of non-EU countries. Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the United Kingdom are the leading host countries for migrants, and in 2010 together they hosted more than 75 % of the foreigners in the EU.
- Some Western European countries have a long history and experience of migration, whereas this is a much more recent phenomenon in the majority of Eastern European countries. These variations are reflected in the economic structures, labour market strategies and social policies of the host countries.
- The EU countries providing the greatest number of foreigners to other EU states are Romania (more than two million people), Italy and Poland (in excess of one million people from each country). The countries from which the greatest numbers of non-EU foreigners originate are Turkey (more than two million people), Morocco and Albania (in excess of one million people each). Very often, non-nationals from a particular country favour migration to a specific Member State.

- Manufacturing, mining, energy, construction, wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants and healthcare and social work are the sectors with the highest proportions of migrant workers. Migrant workers are mostly employed in low-paid, unskilled and hazardous jobs that are rarely freely by nationals. Segregation of foreigners in lower paid jobs and sectors may also be explained by language and legal barriers to employment in skilled jobs, various forms of discrimination, etc.
- The growing proportion of migrant workers in the labour market and the establishment of multinational or even global firms make employment one of the areas in which the importance and impact of cultural diversity increases considerably at both the national and the organisation level.

The effects of migration are positive as well as negative; however, there are serious consequences for OSH owing to, for example, language comprehension, risk perception, values about work and characteristics of the job.

Chapter 2 describes cross-cultural aspects and their effects on OSH, while Chapter 3 considers the multicultural aspects of OSH. In both these chapters we focus on how to manage cross-cultural aspects related to OSH (leadership and participation).

Chapter 2 concentrates on the issue of managing OSH among foreign but culturally homogeneous work teams. This applies, for instance, to organisations that expand into other countries and appointing managers of a different nationality, as well as to local companies that specifically work with migrants sharing the same nationality/cultural background. The chapter begins with an overview of a number of cross-cultural frameworks in relation to the workplace. Each of these frameworks tries to order and differentiate nations on the basis of specific values and related dimensions. One of the most popular theories in this regard is the one by Hofstede, distinguishing four main cultural dimensions (i.e. Power Distance, Individualism–Collectivism, Masculinity–Femininity and Uncertainty Avoidance). Country scores on each of these dimensions have been generated through multiple studies worldwide, which enable cultural comparisons between societies.

Cross-cultural theories and studies enable researchers to understand culturally endorsed group-level differences in attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace. This knowledge should be taken into account particularly when, among other things, designing an organisation's structure and hierarchy, defining the role of managers and their relationship with workers, outlining human resources policies and decision-making strategies, and organising (leadership) training programmes.

Some scholars have also applied cross-cultural frameworks to explain possible differences in workers' perceptions and risk-taking behaviour and organisations' performance with regard to occupational safety. Culturally rooted differences have, in some cases and to some extent, been able to explain variations in safety behaviour and performance across work teams, within and/or between (multinational) organisations. In a comprehensive review, Taras and colleagues (2011) summarised the main lessons that can be drawn from 30 years of research on national culture in the workplace. They emphasise that national culture is one of the best predictors of attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace. A study by Horck (2006) found that miscommunication arising from cultural differences played a role in 70–80 % of all maritime accidents. However, some researchers argue that situational/organisational factors (including leadership and worker participation) also play an important role in managing OSH (e.g. Guldenmund et al., 2012).

Notwithstanding the fact that proximal influences have been shown to be more important to OSH than distal influences such as national culture, the latter might be of increasing relevance in this age of economic globalisation. This holds especially true for multinational organisations. In such cases, (expatriate) managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred in the host country in order to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts in the subordinate–superior relationship due to cultural differences and, thereby, improve the effectiveness of their leadership. In this respect, much depends on the manager's cross-cultural adaptation skills.

In Chapter 3, we describe the consequences of diversity on work teams and organisations, provide an overview of studies describing effective diversity management and outline the relation between effective diversity management and effective management of OSH.

Diversity appears to have a broad range of both positive effects, e.g. increased creativity, flexibility and innovation, and negative effects, e.g. tensions, poor communication, reduced job satisfaction, higher turnover levels and stress. Research shows that migrants suffer more often from occupational accidents and diseases than nationals (e.g. IGA, 2010), but some authors argue that this apparent difference would disappear if we studied migrants and nationals in the same jobs in the same organisation (Guldenmund et al., 2010).

Much attention has been paid to explaining the negative effects of diversity in organisations using the concepts of identification and socialisation. In particular, adjustment to the work group's norms and values, i.e. the unspoken, unwritten and sometimes most critical information (about how to get along in an organisation, for example), appears to be more difficult for culturally different members. As identification and socialisation are predictors of various work processes and outcomes, there is a challenge to create a "truly inclusive work environment in which people from diverse backgrounds feel respected and recognised". Thus, there is a risk of creating pressure to assimilate. Diversity should be seen as a resource for learning, change and renewal and should be included in the organisation's mission. In this context, several leadership styles support an inclusive organisation, e.g. transformational leadership and high-quality leader–member exchange. There are certain competences that are relevant in culturally diverse work teams. Examples of traits that are associated with effective coping with intercultural situations are cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. Such traits are expected to enhance intercultural communication among team members. Both team leaders and team members may benefit from these intercultural effectiveness competences.

Both transformational leadership and the leader–member exchange (LMX) theory are approaches that are also reported to enhance safety performance. In relation to health, there is a large body of research that indicates that good managerial practices and leadership skills have a beneficial impact, especially in terms of reducing stress.

After leadership, much attention is paid to the principle of a "safety climate" in relation to leadership and OSH performance. It can be expected that individual perceptions of a safety climate may vary in a culturally diverse work team. Creating a constructive safety climate in a diverse workforce requires special attention. Therefore, work teams should pay particular attention to developing a shared vision of the safety climate. Again, this requires an inclusive organisation, and it is the role of good leadership to develop such a shared vision.

With respect to participation, this means that management of OSH in a culturally diverse working environment demands an approach that includes multiple voices, and one in which it is possible to considerably broaden the knowledge base for alternative decisions and to increase the number of possible paths leading to solutions to problems.

Finally, we demonstrate some of the ways in which this change in leadership can be stimulated, e.g. leadership development programmes (transformational leadership, enhancing leader–member exchange), and we emphasise that leadership development must be embedded in the whole organisational context, which may help to prevent role conflict resulting from a lack of coherence between the concepts taught in the training sessions and the behaviour of superiors in practice.

▪ **Conclusions and recommendations**

In this review we have seen that diversity is an issue that leads to both positive effects (creativity, innovation and flexibility) and negative effects (conflicts, miscommunication, stress and risks for OSH).

Cross-cultural theories and studies describe the differences in characteristics between cultures. It can be very helpful in explaining behaviour that may occur in multicultural teams, when several nationalities are working together, as well as in multinational companies. This awareness can be taken into account when working in different cultures, e.g. in relation to the desired level of structured roles, clear directions and feedback, the relationship between subordinates and their direct supervisor and the way in which conflicts are handled. On the other hand, there is danger of

over-rating the differences. It is important to recognise that every individual has several identities and there is a risk of stereotyping.

Recommendation 1

Address language barriers

The use of pictograms can help to overcome language barriers, by enabling risks and (un)safe circumstances to be visualised (instead of implementing written procedures). It is, however, important to bear in mind that people with different cultural backgrounds may understand such pictograms in different ways. Setting up training programmes in OSH (including participative training, role playing, toolboxes, etc.) may also involve specific challenges when they are targeted at people with different national backgrounds.

Recommendation 2

Managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred in the host country

In this age of economic globalisation, cross-cultural differences are more and more relevant in organisations that expand into other countries and assign managers of a different nationality (particularly in the case of Westerners in non-Western environments). In these cases, managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred/required in the host country, in order to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts in the subordinate–superior relationship arising from cultural differences and, thereby, improve the effectiveness of their leadership. In this respect, much depends on the manager's cross-cultural adaptation skills. Courses in leadership and communication need to take into account which leadership or communication style(s) would provide the best cultural fit. Therefore, the leadership dimensions that characterise different cultural regions and countries should be taken as a starting-point for cross-cultural training.

Recommendation 3

Train the workforce in competences that increase intercultural effectiveness at all levels

The literature also describes competences that are relevant in culturally diverse work teams. The combinations of cultural differences, individual differences and, differences in national regulations and education systems are endless. Therefore, it is important to train the workforce in competences that increase the intercultural effectiveness of both leaders and team members. Examples of traits that are associated with effective coping in intercultural situations are cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. Such traits are expected to enhance intercultural communication among team members, and both team leaders and team members may benefit from these intercultural effectiveness competences.

Leadership development has also been proven to be effective in positively influencing OSH outcomes, and should therefore be given further consideration and applied as a primary prevention strategy. Intercultural competences in leadership, such as transformational behaviour and leader–member exchange can be developed, e.g. by role playing or interacting with short film scripts. In cross-cultural training, it is important that the structure of the training fits national preferences. Moreover, it is important to ensure that training of formal leaders applies to all hierarchical levels in an organisation. Leadership development has to be embedded into the whole organisational context, and this may help to prevent role conflict resulting from a lack of coherence between the concepts taught in the training sessions and the actual behaviour of superiors.

Recommendation 4

Stimulate an inclusive working environment in which people from diverse backgrounds feel respected and recognised

Identification within a culturally diverse group is often lower than identification in a culturally homogeneous group. Identification and socialisation are relevant for various work processes and

outcomes, and identification appears to be a key element in explaining negative aspects of organisational diversity. This has created the need for a "truly inclusive work environment".

An "inclusive" organisation allows people with multiple backgrounds, mind-sets and ways of thinking to work together effectively and to perform to their highest potential in order to achieve organisational objectives based on sound principles. In this respect, cultural diversity is not something to deny; it is seen as a resource for learning, change and renewal, and so should be included in the organisation's mission. Moreover, an inclusive working environment is supportive of the existing safety climate. Research shows that the style and quality of leadership is associated with, and predictive of, many OSH outcomes, ranging from workplace accidents and the organisational safety climate to health issues such as musculoskeletal disorders, stress and workers' psychological well-being. Leadership styles that support an inclusive organisation include transformational leadership, which challenges employees to think about old problems in new ways and stimulates the team to work on shared goals, and high-quality leader–member exchange, which is generally associated with more open and egalitarian communication with respect to non-routine problems. These leadership styles have always played an important role in occupational safety. Now, however, we expect them to be even more important in work teams with high levels of cultural difference.

Concluding remarks

We conclude by emphasising the role of leadership in intercultural effectiveness. Leaders have been shown to positively influence safe and healthy behaviour in employees. It is interesting to note that the leadership dimensions that enhance OSH coincide with those that promote effective diversity management. Thus, we believe that effective leadership, by means of transformational leadership, leader–member exchange, etc., will enhance OSH in general, but in particular in a culturally diverse work team, by enhancing team identification.

With respect to participation, this means that management of OSH in a culturally diverse working environment demands an approach that includes multiple voices, and one in which it is possible to considerably broaden the knowledge base for alternative decisions and to increase the number of possible paths leading to solutions to problems.

1. Introduction and literature review

Diversity is a growing topic of interest in managing workforces. All people are unique, and therefore a workforce comprising multiple individuals is diverse in itself. When managing a group the differences need to be taken into account. Some groups are, however, more diverse or heterogeneous than others. Differences can arise, for instance, because of lifestyle, attitudes or national background. This report focuses on heterogeneous workforces in which diversity arises mainly from differences in national background. Multicultural teams are currently flourishing as a result of increasing migration rates. The number of migrant workers is particularly high in sectors with precarious, hazardous jobs (Venema et al., 2009).

When people from multiple cultures have to work together, difficulties or misunderstandings may occur as a result of language issues or because of differences in attitudes, beliefs and competences. Managing diversity within these teams requires awareness of such differences, in order to create a work environment in which differences are addressed or valued and workers can perform to their full potential.

This report describes the state of the art in addressing cultural diversity in the workplace, for which we distinguish two aspects:

- Cross-cultural aspects in occupational safety and health (OSH): working in teams that are homogeneous with regard to their national culture. This issue is particularly interesting for multinational corporations and their expatriate managers (see, for example, culture comparison research from Hofstede and GLOBE (the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project)).
- Multicultural aspects in OSH: this is managing OSH in multicultural (heterogeneous) workforces, working at one location or in one organisation.

Understanding the differences between cultures helps to understand discrepancies when several nationalities are working together. Cross-cultural (i.e. intercultural) studies describe characteristics of cultures and differences between different cultures. Therefore, the cross-cultural literature is very helpful in describing general differences that may occur in multinational companies, as well as in multicultural teams. In this report the focus is on managing cultural diversity, i.e. general aspects of leadership and participation that benefit OSH in multicultural work teams.

In this report formal organisational leadership is defined as leadership constituting a process of social influence that is enacted by designated individuals who hold a formal leadership role in organisations.

In this report the term participation can be defined as the involvement of workers in the management of OSH.

The EU-OSHA (the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work) report on the involvement of workers (EU-OSHA, 2011) describes several studies that demonstrate the positive effects of participation and the involvement of workers, such as lower accident rates, a better health and safety culture, higher general efficiency and productivity, and increased commitment of workers. The term "leadership" is, generally used in relation to formal leadership roles in organisations—meaning that individuals in organisations can be "leaders" and/or "subordinates" ("followers")—or as a process of social influence within a group of people—meaning that anyone in a group can display leadership in two distinctive ways (Yukl, 2006). This report is primarily on formal organisational leadership, defined as "leadership constituting a process of social influence that is enacted by designated individuals who hold a formal leadership role in organisations" (Kelloway and Barling, 2010, p. 261).

According to Kelloway and Barling (2010) it is, in particular, the formal leaders in organisations who have great potential to influence outcomes related to OSH. They play a key role in implementing an organisation's OSH policy, they serve as role models for others, they have formal power and are thus able to reward or punish subordinates, and they can even be the root cause of stress for their subordinates. Kelloway and Barling state in this regard that "the relationship with one's formal leader is one of the most important workplace relationships with implications for individual well-being" (2010, pp. 261–262).

For more complete information on the topic of leadership and OSH, we refer to two other recent publications by EU-OSHA: *Expert Analysis on Leadership and OSH* (EU-OSHA, 2012a) and *Management Leadership in Occupational Safety and Health-A Practical Guide* (EU-OSHA, 2012b). In addition, comprehensive reviews of the link between organisational leadership and OSH were, for instance, recently published by Kelloway and Barling (2010) and Mullen and Kelloway (2011).

The issue of language difficulties, a very important topic in managing multicultural teams, is beyond the scope of this report. For more information on language issues we direct the reader to, for example, the global-talk.eu website.

In this chapter the concept of cultural diversity is introduced, and migration rates in Europe are described to illustrate the increased relevance of addressing cross-cultural and multicultural issues. We then outline how migration affects diversity. At the end of this chapter we will describe the broad range of effects that cultural differences may have on the work environment in general, and on OSH in particular.

1.1.   Cultural diversity

People by nature are social individuals and have a need to belong to groups. According to social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979), belonging to groups is important for our self-confidence and gives meaning to our lives. Various groups of humanity have been formed over the passage of time; this process continues nowadays and will continue in the future. As the world is very large, these groups have great geographical, biological and historical differences and each group tends to create a distinct culture of its own. The larger cultures combine various sub-cultures which are often also very different from each other. The different groups of human beings are distinguished by their ethnicity, lifestyle, attitudes, habits, traditions, religions, beliefs, customs, languages and philosophies etc. This broad range of differences is known as cultural diversity (Kundu, 2001; UNESCO, 2001).

Every country develops its own culture over time. Countries and their people develop habits, norms and values that differ from other countries. Much of the literature has focused on these cultures, and has tried to find dimensions that explain those differences. Examples are Hofstede's work (2001) on cultural consequences, in which five dimensions of cultural characteristics are defined, and the well-known work of Schwartz (1999, 2002), which outlines 57 values that the author claims are universal but that vary in importance across cultures. These studies focus on differences between cultures, i.e. cross-cultural differences, by studying the content of cultures.

Nowadays, as a result of long-term migration, European countries are diverse (see the figures later in this chapter). As a result, organisations also diversify. This raises the question of how to deal with cultural differences. In this respect, diversity management literature has given us important insights into dealing with cultural differences.

1.2.   Workforce migration in Europe

Migration of people is a conventional worldwide phenomenon with deep historical roots, influenced by various economic and political factors and varying considerably in its forms and scale. Within Europe, the last large population movements were caused by the Second World War, when many of the warring countries implemented forced deportation and mass evacuation, resulting in displacement of peoples.

Following the Second World War six countries (Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and West Germany) made an attempt to unite Europeans by creating the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) and signing the Treaty of Paris (1951). Cooperation was extended in 1957 with the creation of the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) and then, in 1967, by integrating the three communities into the European Communities (also known as the European Community, EC) (Wikipedia, 2012c). The Treaty of Paris also established the right to free movement for workers in the coal and steel industries and the Treaty of Rome (1957) provided for the free movement of workers within the EEC (Wikipedia, 2012a).

Simultaneously, Europe underwent a post-war migration period that continued until the 1970s and was marked by a growing geographical diversity of migrant origins. Migrants were mostly single men seeking unskilled employment. Therefore, this period is classified as the labour migration wave. The largest emigration was from Greece, Ireland, Spain, Italy, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom to Australia, the United States and other European countries (e.g. Belgium, Germany, France and Switzerland). In response, the host countries adopted different policies regarding labour migrants (e.g. permanent settlement in Sweden, a temporary settlement system in Germany, etc.) and some of them even created legal rights for migrant workers to reunite their families (EU-OSHA, 2007, Wikipedia, 2012c).

Consequently, favourable migration policies initiated the family reunification stage of the labour migration period, when different gender and age groups (women and children) became migrants. This phenomenon resulted in establishment of ethnic minorities with defined areas, infrastructures and behaviour habits that essentially meant the formation of new and visibly distinctive communities at the bottom of the social hierarchy. Subsequently, growth of the economy and an increase in living standards in the originating countries resulted in reversal of the process, such that the these countries became the migrant destination countries (Greece and Italy for migrants from Egypt, Morocco and Somalia, Spain and Portugal for migrants from Algeria, Morocco and Latin America; the United Kingdom for migrants from Bangladesh, Germany, Ireland, India, Jamaica, Pakistan and the United States). In addition, the process of enlargement of the Communities began (EU-OSHA, 2007; Wikipedia, 2012c).

A specific situation in the post-war period developed in the Baltic States. On the one hand, a large number of intellectuals and wealthy inhabitants of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were killed or deported to Siberia. On the other hand, many skilled workers, executives and soldiers from Russia and other Soviet Republics moved to the Baltic States (Wikipedia, 2012b). In general, the inhabitants of all Soviet Republics and other countries in Eastern Europe had very limited opportunities to leave for Western Europe.

Without doubt, the Second World War population movements and post-war migration had a considerable impact on the demographic changes in Europe. However, the Iron Curtain between Western and Eastern Europe caused a long period of stagnation in Eastern European countries.

The third wave of migration in Europe, classified as post-industrial migration, started in the 1980s. On the one hand, ageing, early retirement of the workforce and a low birth rate in Western Europe required more workers from other regions to ensure economic stability. On the other hand, difficult economic and political situations in the countries of origin motivated workers to strive for jobs and better prospects in Europe. It also increasingly highlighted the polarisation of highly skilled migrants and poor dispossessed migrants (e.g. illegal migrants) determined by structural economic inequalities on a global scale. An important step in facilitating migration within the was the Schengen Agreement (1985), which validated free travel within Europe, thus creating open borders without passport controls between most EC Member States and some non-Member States. Thus, the right of citizens of EC Member States and their families to live and work anywhere within the EC was validated, but citizens of other states did not have such rights. All holders of a valid residence permit for any Schengen State had the right to travel within the Schengen Area but only as a tourist. This situation is often thought to be an encouragement to work illegally within this area (EU-OSHA, 2007; Wikipedia, 2012c).

With the fall of the Iron Curtain, yet another stage of European integration began. The declaration of independence of formerly Communist countries, the formal establishment of the European Union (EU) in 1993 and the agreement on the Copenhagen criteria for candidate members to join the EU paved the way for emigrants within Europe (Wikipedia, 2012c).

Now migrant people in the EU may be classified into two groups: (i) migrants, i.e. EU nationals staying in an EU-27 country of which they are not nationals (citizens); or (ii) immigrants, i.e. people coming from outside the EU-27. The difference between them is based on the right to entry into or free movement within the EU Member States (EU-OSHA, 2007). In general, one of the most common objectives of migration in peace time is obtaining employment as a result of such structural factors as income inequalities among countries, the processes of economic integration, labour force shortages in host countries, etc. (EWCO, 2007).

Statistics on migration in the EU show the growing proportion of migrant workers in its labour force over the past decades. The aforementioned structural causes are likely to maintain this trend in the future. However, the same structural causes may significantly affect, to a varying extent and for various reasons, migration in different EU Member States. Furthermore, some of them have a long history and experience in this area (some of the Western Europe countries) while others have just started dealing with migration issues (the majority of the Eastern Europe countries). Consequently, these variations are reflected in the economic structures, labour market strategies and social policies of the host countries. Family reunification is still an on-going process, and some migrant communities have strong links with their country of origin (EU-OSHA, 2007).

The recent significant increase in migration inside the EU is clearly associated with its biggest enlargement in 2004 and with the free movement of workers in a unified labour market. The different aspects of the right of movement (including procedural issues) are assembled in Directive 2004/38/EC on the right to move and reside freely. Transitional periods limited the free movement of workers from the EU-10. But there were differences in the policies concerning this issue in the former EU-15 countries. For instance, Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom allowed migrant workers from the EU-10 immediately after joining the EU. Spain, Finland and Portugal allowed free movement after 1 May 2006. Since 2011, complete freedom of movement for workers from the EU-10 has been guaranteed. The transitional period for Bulgaria and Romania is extended to 2014 (Wikipedia, 2012a).

On the basis of statistical data and information presented in the national reports, the following basic country group models of migration flow were determined:

- The EU-12. The numbers of migrants and immigrants, and consequently the rates of non-national workers in the labour market of these countries, are still very low. These workers are generally employed in skilled jobs. Many national workers from some of these countries tend to move to the EU-15 countries and emigrate outside the EU.
- Southern European countries and Ireland. As was explained above, in the last two to three decades, they changed their status from "outward migration" countries to "inward migration" countries. They have had high employment rates of migrant workers, who very frequently were engaged in unskilled jobs. The number of illegal migrant workers was also increasing in these countries. However, nowadays they are changing again to "outward migration" countries due to effects of the economic crisis and high unemployment rates.
- Central European countries. They have a long experience of admitting migrants and immigrants. The migrant workers generally are of various ages, level of education and occupation. Migration to these countries has decreased in recent years.
- Scandinavian countries. Migration to these countries is limited. Migrant workers are often employed in skilled jobs.

The United Kingdom is a particular case which combines features of the last three groups: substantial inflows of migrant workers in the last decade; long experience of the issue; and employment of migrant workers in skilled jobs (EWCO, 2007).

1.2.1.   Migration rates in Europe

Statistical data on population changes in Europe make evident not only the demographic situation in the EU and its countries but also the rates of migration. In turn, awareness of the components of the population change (even when population estimates and the vital events data are provisional) may help in:

- determining factors that influence this change
- forecasting the possible consequences of the change (e.g. workforce shortages, rates of migrant workers)
- finding solutions to the issues caused by the changing demographic situation and migration rates (e.g. development policies regarding labour migrants).

Population change is the difference between the populations measured on 1 January of two consecutive years. Population change consists of two components:

- *Natural change*, i.e. the difference between live births and deaths.
- *Net migration (including statistical adjustment)*, calculated as the difference between the total change in the population and natural change (thus, the statistics on net migration are affected by all the statistical inaccuracies in the population change and the natural change).

The crude rate is the ratio of the number of events to the average population in a given year expressed per 1 000 inhabitants (Marcu, 2011).

Other terms used for the characterisation of migration are as follows:

- *EU citizen or EU national* is a citizen of an EU-27 Member State.
- *Foreigners or foreign population* refers to persons who are not citizens of the country in which they reside (including persons of unknown citizenship and stateless persons). They may be not only migrants but also descendants of migrants and citizens of territories that no longer exist.
- *EU foreigners* are persons who have citizenship of an EU-27 Member State but usually reside in another EU-27 Member State.
- *Non-EU foreigners* or *third-country nationals* are persons who usually reside in the EU but have citizenship of a country outside the EU.
- *Foreign-born* is a person who was born or whose mother at the time of giving birth resided outside the country of her usual residence.
- *Recognised non-citizen* is not a citizen of the reporting country or of any other country but has established links to that country (including some but not all rights and obligations of full citizenship). These persons are not included in the number of EU citizens.
- EU-27 countries: Belgium (BE), Bulgaria (BG), Czech Republic (CZ), Denmark (DK), Germany (DE), Estonia (EE), Ireland (IE), Greece (EL), Spain (ES), France (FR), Italy (IT), Cyprus (CY), Latvia (LV), Lithuania (LT), Luxembourg (LU), Hungary (HU), Malta (MT), Netherlands (NL), Austria (AT), Poland (PL), Portugal (PT), Romania (RO), Slovenia (SI), Slovakia (SK), Finland (FI), Sweden (SE), United Kingdom (UK).
- EFTA (European Free Trade Association) countries: Iceland (IS), Liechtenstein (LI), Norway (NO), Switzerland (CH) (Vasileva, 2011).

Figure 1 presents the variation in population change and the contributions made by natural change and net migration (including statistical adjustments) to this change in Europe since 1960. The

decline in the natural change shows that the difference between live births and deaths is narrowing considerably and reached its lowest level in the period from 1995 to 2003 (Marcu, 2011).

Figure 1: Crude rates of population change in the EU-27
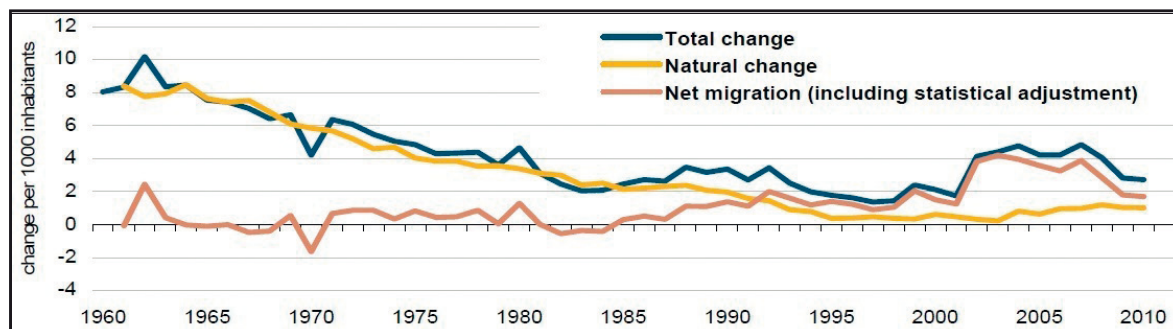
Source: Marcu (2011)

Since 1992 the contribution of natural change to population growth has become less significant than that made by net migration. Estimating that the birth rate remains relatively low, negative natural change (more deaths than births) may arise in the near future and the extent of population decline or growth is likely to depend on the contribution made by migration.

Although the population of the EU-27 increases every year, the population growth rates are unequal across the Member States (see Table 1). In 2010, for instance, 20 Member States reported an increase in their populations, while the other seven (Bulgaria, Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Portugal and Romania) experienced a decline in the number of inhabitants (Marcu, 2011).

Table 1: Crude rates of population change in 2008, 2009 and 2010 (change per 1 000 inhabitants)

Country	Natural change			Net migration (including statistical adjustment)			Total change		
	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010
EU-27	1.2	1.0	1.0	2.9	1.8	1.7	4.0	2.8	2.7
Belgium	2.2	2.1	2.1	5.9	5.9	5.1	8.0	8.0	7.2
Bulgaria	-4.3	-3.6	-4.6	-0.1	-2.1	-3.2	-4.4	-5.6	-7.8
Czech Republic	1.4	1.0	1.0	6.9	2.7	1.5	8.3	3.7	2.5
Denmark	1.9	1.4	1.6	4.6	1.8	4.0	6.5	3.3	5.6
Germany	-2.0	-2.3	-2.2	-0.7	-0.1	1.6	-2.6	-2.4	-0.6
Estonia	-0.5	-0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	-0.4	-0.2	0.0
Ireland	10.3	10.2	10.3	0.7	-6.2	-7.5	11.0	4.0	2.8
Greece	0.9	0.9	0.8	3.2	3.1	1.3	4.1	4.0	2.2
Spain	2.9	2.4	2.2	9.0	1.1	1.4	12.0	3.5	3.6
France	4.5	4.3	4.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	5.6	5.4	5.5
Italy	0.0	-0.4	-0.4	7.1	5.3	5.2	7.1	4.9	4.7
Cyprus	5.1	5.5	5.7	4.5	2.3	-4.1	9.6	7.8	1.6
Latvia	-3.1	-3.6	-4.8	-1.1	-2.1	-3.5	-4.2	-5.7	-8.4
Lithuania[(1)]	-2.6	-1.6	-2.0	-2.3	-4.6	-23.7	-4.9	-6.2	-25.7

Country	Natural change			Net migration (including statistical adjustment)			Total change		
	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010	2008	2009	2010
Luxembourg	4.1	4.0	4.2	15.8	13.2	15.1	19.9	17.2	19.3
Hungary	-3.1	-3.4	-4.0	1.6	1.7	1.2	-1.4	-1.7	-2.8
Malta	2.1	2.2	2.4	5.9	-0.4	5.4	8.1	1.8	7.8
Netherlands	3.0	3.1	2.9	1.9	2.3	1.9	4.9	5.4	4.8
Austria	0.3	-0.1	0.2	4.1	2.5	3.3	4.4	2.4	3.5
Poland	0.9	0.9	0.9	-0.4	0.0	-0.1	0.5	0.8	0.9
Portugal	0.0	-0.5	-0.4	0.9	1.4	0.4	0.9	1.0	-0.1
Romania	-1.5	-1.6	-2.2	0.1	-0.1	0.0	-1.4	-1.7	-2.3
Slovenia	1.7	1.5	1.5	9.2	5.6	0.0	10.9	7.2	1.6
Slovakia	0.8	1.5	1.3	1.3	0.8	0.6	2.1	2.3	1.9
Finland	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.9	2.7	2.6	4.9	4.7	4.4
Sweden	1.9	2.3	2.7	6.0	6.7	5.3	8.0	9.1	8.0
United Kingdom	3.5	3.7	3.9	3.1	3.3	2.6	6.6	7.0	6.6
Iceland	9.0	9.5	9.1	3.3	-15.0	-6.5	12.3	-5.5	2.6
Liechtenstein	4.1	5.0	2.5	2.5	3.6	4.6	6.6	8.5	7.2
Norway	3.9	4.2	4.1	9.1	8.0	8.6	13.0	12.2	12.7
Switzerland	2.0	2.0	2.2	12.1	8.8	8.1	14.2	10.8	10.3
Montenegro	4.1	4.4	:	0.1	0.0	:	4.2	4.4	:
Croatia	-1.9	-1.8	:	1.6	-0.3	:	-0.3	-2.1	:
FYR of Macedonia	1.9	2.3	2.5	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3	1.7	2.0	2.2
Turkey	11.4	10.8	11.2	1.7	3.7	4.7	13.1	14.5	15.9

Data not available; FYR, The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

(1) Data not available. For administrative reasons emigration recorded in Lithuania in 2010 may include emigration that took place in previous years.

Analysis of natural change and net migration at the national level enables us to distinguish four types of population growth and decline, depending on whether the change is negative or positive and relative size of these two components of the population change (Marcu, 2011).

Population growth in 2010 occurred as a result of:

- only natural change in Ireland, Cyprus and Poland
- mostly natural change in Estonia, Spain, France, Netherlands, Slovenia, Slovakia and the United Kingdom
- mostly net migration in Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Finland and Sweden
- only net migration in Italy.

Population decline in 2010 occurred as a result of:

- only natural change in Germany, Hungary and Portugal
- mostly natural change in Bulgaria, Latvia and Romania
- mostly net migration in Lithuania
- only net migration in none of the EU Member States (Marcu, 2011).

Negative population change in some countries has been observed for a few years. Bulgaria, Latvia and Lithuania are the Member States with the largest population decline caused by both negative natural change and negative net migration. Therefore, assuming that most emigrants are of working age, these countries may experience serious problems related to workforce shortages in the near future.

Statistical data show that in 2010 there were 32.5 million foreigners in all EU Member States (6.5 % of the total population); of whom 20.2 million were citizens of non-EU countries (see Annex 1). As citizenship can change over time and foreigners may become nationals, the presentation of information by country of birth is often preferable. This indicator for the EU in 2010 was 47.3 million foreign-born residents (9.4 % of the total population), of whom 31.4 million were born outside the EU (Vasileva, 2011).

For years Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the United Kingdom have been the leading host countries for migrants, and in 2010 together they hosted more than 75 % of the foreigners in the EU. Meanwhile, the highest proportions of foreigners were in Luxembourg (43.0 %), Latvia (17.4 %), Estonia (15.9 %), Cyprus (15.9 %), Spain (12.3 %) and Austria (10.5 %). The proportion of non-EU foreigners in Latvia (17.0 %) and Estonia (15.1 %) is particularly large due to the high number of recognised non-citizens, who were citizens of the former Soviet Union and now are permanently resident in these countries but have not acquired Latvian/Estonian citizenship or any other citizenship. The proportion of the foreign-born population exceeded that of foreigners in almost all Member States (except the Czech Republic, Latvia and Luxembourg) and the greatest differences may be due to: a high rate of acquisition of citizenship (e.g. the Netherlands and Sweden); migrants born on the territory of a former colony (e.g. France and the Netherlands); persons with a country of birth that previously constituted part of a former state (e.g. Lithuania and Slovenia) (Vasileva, 2011).

EU foreigners and non-EU foreigners have different rights as migrants in the EU; therefore it is useful to consider these groups separately when addressing migration-related issues. For years the most numerous foreigners in the EU, exceeding two million people from each country, have been citizens of Romania in the first group and citizens of Turkey in the second group (see Tables 2 and 3). They are followed by citizens of Italy and Poland and by citizens of Albania and Morocco, respectively, with more than one million migrants from each country (Vasileva, 2009).

Table 2: The 10 countries contributing the most non-EU foreign citizens usually resident in the EU-27, 2008

Citizens of EU Member State	Number in another Member States	% of EU foreign population	Main Member States of residence and % of non - national group
Turkey	2,419,000	7.9%	DE (76%)
Morocco	1,727,000	5.6%	ES (38%), FR (27%), IT (21%)
Albania	1,015,000	3.3%	EL (57%), IT (40%)
China	621,000	2.0%	IT (25%), ES (20%), UK (15%)
Ukraine	602,000	2.0%	DE (23%), IT (22%), CZ (17%)
Algeria	594,000	1.9%	FR (80%)
Russia	570,000	1.9%	DE (36%)
India	512,000	1.7%	UK (58%)
Ecuador	511,000	1.7%	ES (83%)
Serbia and Montenegro	473,000	1.5%	DE (54%), AT (28%), IT (14%)

Table 3: The 10 countries contributing the most EU foreign citizens usually resident in the EU-27, 2008

Citizens of EU Member State	Number in another Member States	% of EU foreign population	Main Member States of residence and % of non - national group
Romania	1,677,000	5.4%	ES (44%), IT (37%)
Italy	1,262,000	4.1%	DE (45%)
Poland	1,197,000	3.9%	DE (35%), UK (33%)
Portugal	965,000	3.1%	FR (52%)
United Kingdom	919,000	3.0%	ES (39%)
Germany	773,000	2.5%	ES (24%), AT (16%)
France	602,000	2.0%	BE (22%); UK, DE, ES (19%)
Netherlands	459,000	1.5%	DE (31%), BE (27%)
Spain	438.5	1.4%	FR (31%), DE (26%), UK (15%)
Greece	431,000	1.4%	DE (74%)

Employment opportunities, recent political developments, common (or related) language, geographical location, historical links, established networks, communication possibilities or a combination of these factors may influence foreigners' self-determination when choosing their country of residence. Thus, large differences in the proportions of EU foreigners and non-EU foreigners in host countries are observed. Very often there are specific Member States where a significant number of particular non-nationals have settled (see Tables 2 and 3). For instance, more than 70 % of citizens of Algeria, Ecuador, Greece and Turkey living in the EU) tend to settle in one specific Member State, while other non-national groups are dispersed among two, three or more different countries (Vasileva, 2009, 2011). A summary of the available detailed data on the five main citizenships and countries of birth of individuals residing in the EU and EFTA Member States in 2010 is presented in Annex 2 (Vasileva, 2011).

Examples of the influence of the aforementioned factors are as follows:

- Geographical proximity encourages Finnish-born people to reside in Sweden, as it does Germans to live in Austria, or individuals born in the Ukraine to migrate to Poland or the Czech Republic
- A common history or former territories causes Slovaks to live in the Czech Republic and Russians to live in Latvia.
- A common language helps people born in Brazil to migrate to Portugal and those born in former colonies, such as Suriname, to migrate to the Netherlands.
- Recent conflicts and increased opportunities for intra-EU migration following EU enlargement may be reasons for migration to any EU Member State (Vasileva, 2010, 2011).

1.2.2. Migration in Europe by sector

The distribution of foreign-born workers by sector of employment may be examined using the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) data for 2004 (Table 4). The OECD statistics cover legal permanent migration only (i.e. temporary and undeclared migration flows are not taken into account), and grouping is made taking into account the overall distribution of employment and the allocation of migrant workers by sector (EWCO, 2007).

Table 4: Employment of foreign-born workers, by sector, 2004 (%)

Country	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)	(i)	(j)
Austria	1.2	22.3	**8.8**	**14.4**	**12.0**	4.2	**8.8**		2.9	25.0
Belgium	1.2	17.3	**6.9**	13.6	7.4	6.2	**10.7**	**0.6**	9.1	**27.1**
Switzerland	1.1	**19.7**	**8.4**	**15.2**	**7.3**	6.1	**13.4**	**1.3**	3.4	24.1
Czech Republic	3.7	29.9	8.8	**18.2**	**4.6**	5.1	6.1		4.5	**18.9**
Germany	1.3	**32.0**	**6.4**	12.9	**7.6**	3.9	**10.1**	**0.7**	3.3	21.9
Greece	6.1	16.3	27.3	11.4	**9.2**	2.7	2.4	**13.4**	1.4	9.7
Spain	**6.0**	13.6	**16.3**	12.2	**12.0**	3.6	**3.7**	12.0	2.0	18.5
Finland		20.1	5.1	**14.5**	**8.9**	6.8	**13.6**			26.9
France	1.9	14.6	**10.3**	11.9	**5.9**	6.0	9.7	**5.8**	6.8	**27.2**
Ireland	2.2	16.6	8.4	11.5	13.2	6.4	**12.5**		2.9	**25.4**
Luxembourg	1.0	**10.5**	16.0	**12.2**	**6.0**	1.9	6.3	**4.2**	12.2	**29.8**
Netherlands	1.5	**20.4**	4.5	15.0	**8.2**	5.4	12.2		4.6	**28.2**
Norway		13.7	4.5	12.6	**8.6**	8.0	20.7		3.7	27.0
Sweden	0.6	17.2	2.7	12.1	**6.6**	10.8	18.6		3.9	**27.5**
United Kingdom	0.4	11.8	4.3	13.6	**9.0**	8.4	**14.5**	**1.0**	5.2	**31.9**

Source: EWCO (2007)

Data not available; (a) agriculture; (b) manufacturing, mining and energy; (c) construction; (d) wholesale and retail trade; (e) hotels and restaurants; (f) education; (g) health and social work; (h) household services; (i) administration; (j) other services. If migrant workers in the sector are over-represented relative to the native population, numbers are given in bold. No data for BG, CY, DK, EE, HU, IT, LT, LV, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI and SK.

With regard to agriculture, the aforementioned OECD statistics do not take into account temporary and undeclared migration movements. In addition, farm jobs are often based on flexible contracts and have a high level of occupational insecurity and difficult working conditions; thus, they are less acceptable to native workers and more easily accessible to migrant workers. These are good reasons to suppose that the real contribution of migrant workers to the agriculture sector is higher than indicated.

The manufacturing, mining and energy sector provides a large proportion of jobs for foreign-born workers in the EU. The proportion of migrant workers in construction is lower than that in manufacturing in almost all EU countries and there is less variation among nations. This sector also remains one of the main sources of employment for foreigners.

Migrant workers are most systematically over-represented in the hotel and restaurants sector (EU-OSHA, 2008). Over-representation of migrant workers is also evident in the sectors of health and social work and household services, which provide a large proportion of migrant women's employment, and other services. These data show the tendency to employ foreigners in the most unskilled and flexible jobs in the services sector, with conceivable negative consequences such as lower wages and higher occupational insecurity, more risk of accidents in the workplace and a greater prevalence of unhealthy working conditions.

The sectors of education and administration, typically comprising jobs with more secure employment contracts and better working conditions, are those in which the proportion of migrant workers is generally low and they are never over-represented. However, in Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom foreigners occupy almost 10 % of jobs in education, which shows that in some countries labour shortages are not concentrated exclusively in the unskilled occupations.

The national reports confirm the general trend in migrant workers' employment in the various sectors, which can be seen in the OECD data. They indicate that most nationals rarely accept the low-paid, unskilled and hazardous jobs left for migrant workers, and this is the main reason for the

specific distribution of migrant employment by sector. In addition to labour shortages, the segregation of foreigners in lower paid jobs and sectors may be explained by other factors such as language and legal barriers to skilled occupations, various forms of discrimination, etc. (see Table 5) (EWCO, 2007).

Table 5: Factors restricting opportunities for migrant workers in the labour market

Country	Factors mentioned in national reports
Austria	Fewer opportunities for training; language barriers
Belgium	Limited access to the public sector; ethnic prejudices
Cyprus	Language and legal barriers
Czech Republic	Discrimination by colleagues
Germany	Educational qualifications
Denmark	Educational qualifications
Estonia	Limited access to the public sector and to managerial positions
Spain	Discrimination by employers; bureaucratic barriers to full labour market integration
Finland	Ethnic prejudices; educational qualifications; language barriers
France	Educational qualifications and discrimination related to ethnic prejudices
Netherlands	Ethnic prejudices
Lithuania	Language barriers
Luxembourg	Ethnic prejudices
Malta	Language barriers, ethnic prejudices
Sweden	Fewer opportunities for training; discrimination by employers
Slovenia	Educational qualifications

Studying the employment situation and working conditions of nationals with a foreign background and nationals with a different ethnic affiliation, based on the national country reports, reveals reasons for the employment inequalities and labour market disadvantages experienced by these groups that are very similar to those presented in Table 5. The most important reasons reported for most countries were:

- the prevalence of stereotypes
- prejudices and negative attitudes
- discrimination.

Other reasons were:

- lack of education and training
- labour market competition
- lack of recognition of skills and qualifications
- lack of language skills (EWCO, 2011).

Finally, the occupational segregation of migrant workers by sector may be based on ethnic origin and gender. For instance, in Italy migrants from Eastern Europe mainly work in agriculture, hotels and restaurants, and household services, whereas Romanians and Albanians are employed in the construction sector and immigrants from African countries are over-represented in manufacturing. Finland is usually attractive to Russians to work in healthcare, transport or cleaning. Estonians

more often choose work in sales, transport and construction, while Vietnamese nationals are mainly employed in the manufacturing sectors (EWCO, 2007).

1.2.3. Effects of migration

The Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity adopted by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) at its thirty-first session on 2 November 2001 affirms "that culture should be regarded as the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, and that it encompasses, in addition to art and literature, lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs". In turn, cultural diversity is considered as a source of exchange, innovation and creativity in humankind and might be compared to biodiversity in nature. Cultural diversity is the common heritage of humanity and one of the anchors of communities' development not only in the economic but also in the intellectual, emotional, moral and spiritual sense. Therefore, it should be recognised and affirmed as a benefit for present and future generations, concurrently ensuring harmonious interaction among people and groups with plural, varied and dynamic cultural identities and demonstrating their willingness to live together in increasingly diverse societies (UNESCO, 2001).

Cultural rights are validated as an integral part of universal, indivisible and interdependent human rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states this in its articles regarding the right to a nationality and education, freedom of thought, conscience, religion, opinion and expression and freedom to participate in the cultural life of the community. The main provisions on cultural rights are that everyone:

- should be able to express him- or herself and to create and disseminate his or her work using the language of his or her choosing.
- should have the right to appropriate education and training with respect to his or her cultural identity
- should have the right to participate in the cultural life of his or her choice and realise his or her own cultural practices.

Therefore, defence of cultural diversity should be considered as an ethical imperative and intended as a commitment to human rights (in particular the rights of persons belonging to minorities) (UNESCO, 2001).

Employment is one of the areas in which cultural diversity plays a very important role. The diverse workforce has become an ordinary phenomenon. The proportion of migrant workers in the labour market is growing, and with more and more firms moving from domestic strategies to multinational or even global status the importance and impact of cultural diversity increase considerably. Some significant arguments for creating a diverse workforce are as follows (Kundu, 2001):

- Hiring women, minorities, the disabled, etc. will help the organisations to increase their influence on these groups as consumers, thus securing entry to their markets.
- Creation of a diverse workforce should be considered a social and moral necessity because the development of society as a whole depends on all its segments.
- Diversity helps to increase creativity and innovation and brings advantages to organisations.
- Diversity helps organisations to enter the international arena.
- Diverse teams ensure increased flexibility and readily respond to changes.

An American study (Ely et al., 2001) distinguished between three different viewpoints regarding diversity, including the reasons for increasing diversity (for the organisation), the value of diversity within the work context and the connection between diversity and work. The above-mentioned arguments are included as follows:

- Discrimination and fairness: there is a moral imperative for the workforce to diversify as a result of increasing diversity in society.
- Access and legitimacy: the organisation gains culturally diverse markets and constituency by exhibiting diversity in its own workforce.

- Integration and learning: diversity adds value to the organisation by utilising the skills and experiences that employees have developed as members of various cultural identity groups.

However, cultural diversity can lead to certain problems in the organisation. The following consequences of diversity are possible:

- Employees from different cultures may fail to understand each another or even the management. Firms operating in areas with different languages may face difficulties in communicating with local employees speaking different languages.
- An increase in ambiguity, complexity and confusion is a very frequent consequence of diversity.
- Diversity can also be an obstacle when managers and employees seek to create general organisational policies, strategies, practices and procedures.
- Difficulties related to cultural diversity arise when an organisation wants to achieve a single agreement.
- Cultural diversity is an important factor in increasing the complexity of and problems encountered in developing overall organisational procedures (Kundu, 2001).

Therefore, managing diversity means creating an equitable working environment (in which individual groups have no advantages or disadvantages) for a diverse workforce in order to ensure that it performs to its full potential.

1.2.4. Effects of migration on OSH

The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound, 2007) has published several national reports concerning migrant workers, which highlight that migrant workers are more exposed to risky situations than local workers, for example in Spain, Italy and Austria. Based on the results of the Netherlands Working Conditions Survey, conducted among approximately 25 000 workers, Van den Borsches and colleagues (2006) showed that non-Western migrants are significantly more often involved in accidents resulting in physical or mental injury. Moreover, migrants have less access to personal protective equipment than Dutch citizens.

Guldenmund and colleagues (2010) refer to the serious consequences of diversity in relation to safety knowledge, values about work and communication. In their study, it is shown that migrants are more vulnerable to safety incidents owing to aspects such as obedience (e.g. they are more reluctant to raise safety issues), language barriers, and eagerness to earn money quickly. For example, in the Netherlands it is expected that half of the migrants from Mid-and East European countries will enter via an employment agency (Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment in the Netherlands, 2011).

Why are migrant workers disproportionately affected by safety risks at work? Communication issues and risk perception have been mentioned as causes of accidents by the Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (Guldenmund et al., 2010). De Vries and colleagues (2007) argue that language problems and cultural differences often cause problems with respect to understanding safety regulations. Employees often do not understand the importance of obeying safety regulations and, probably as a result, feel less committed to them. In addition, unfamiliarity with local standards can account for accidents (Van Hooff et al., 2009). That study also shows that the higher risk may be partly explained by the characteristics of the low-skilled jobs. Van Hooff and colleagues (2009) conclude that both the characteristics of migrants (e.g. language comprehension, knowledge and understanding of local habits and risk perception) and those of their working environment (temporary work, unskilled and risky work) mean that occupational safety is at risk.

The question is now how national culture and/or cultural differences within organisations in general, may play a role as predictors of safety behaviour. The next two chapters describe diversity and the consequences of diversity for leadership as well as for managing OSH.

1.3. Conclusions

- Each country and its people develop their own culture, with habits, norms and values that differ from those of other nations. Long-term migration and the broad range of cultural differences of migrating people are the factors determining the cultural diversity of many European countries.

- Obtaining employment is one of the most common objectives of people migrating in peace time. The process is triggered by such structural factors as income inequality among countries, the processes of economic integration, labour force shortages in host countries, etc.

- Statistical data on migration in the EU show that the proportion of migrant workers in its labour force has grown over recent decades, and this trend is likely to be maintained in the future. In 2010, there were 32.5 million foreigners in the EU-27 (6.5 % of the total population), of whom 20.2 million were citizens of non-EU countries. Germany, Spain, France, Italy and the United Kingdom are the leading host countries for migrants, and in 2010 together hosted more than 75 % of the foreigners in the EU.

- Some Western European countries have a long history and experience of migration, whereas this is a much more recent phenomenon in the majority of Eastern European countries. These variations are reflected in the economic structures, labour market strategies and social policies of host countries.

- The EU countries providing the greatest number of foreigners to other EU states are Romania (more than two million people), Italy and Poland (in excess of one million people from each country). The countries from which the greatest numbers of non-EU foreigners originate are Turkey (more than two million people), Albania and Morocco (in excess of one million people from each country). Very often, non-nationals from a particular country favour migration to specific Member State.

- Manufacturing, mining, energy, construction, wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants and healthcare and social work are the sectors with the highest proportions of migrant workers. Migrant workers are mostly employed in low-paid, unskilled and hazardous jobs that are rarely accepted by nationals. The segregation of foreigners in lower paid jobs and sectors may also be explained by language and legal barriers to employment in skilled jobs, various forms of discrimination, etc.

- The growing proportion of migrant workers in the labour market and the establishment of multinational or even global firms make employment one of the areas in which the importance and impact of cultural diversity increases considerably at both the national and the organisation level.

- The effects of migration are positive as well as negative; however, there are serious consequences for OSH owing to, for example, language comprehension, risk perception, values about work and characteristics of the job.

2. National culture, OSH and culturally homogeneous work teams

In this chapter cross-cultural aspects and their effects on OSH are described. Cultural diversity encompasses both cross-cultural (or intercultural) groups and multicultural groups. The main difference is that in cross-cultural studies, multiple groups are studied, each of which is homogeneous in terms of its national background, whereas, in multicultural studies, the groups themselves are heterogeneous and comprise multiple nationalities. Chapter 3 describes the multicultural aspects of OSH.

In both chapters we will focus on how to manage cross-cultural aspects related to OSH (leadership and participation).

2.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the evidence from the (scientific) literature on national culture, how this influences workers' attitudes and behaviour -in general and specifically in relation to OSH- and what the consequences are for an organisation's OSH policy and management. It concentrates, in particular, on the issue of managing and promoting OSH among foreign but culturally homogeneous work teams. This applies, for instance, to multinational enterprises and their global expatriate managers or local companies that specifically work with migrants sharing the same nationality/cultural background. The issues with regard to culturally diverse work teams are addressed in Chapter 3.

In section 2.2, the most important cross-cultural studies and theories are briefly mentioned and discussed. Section 2.3 then summarises the lessons that can be learned from this cross-cultural research with regard to the workplace. The impact of typical cultural preferences in relation to aspects such as work design, leadership preferences, decision making, group dynamics, communication style and conflict handling preferences are addressed. Next, a concise review is given of research findings on cultural preferences in terms of leadership styles.

Section 2.4 focuses specifically on national culture in relation to risk and OSH. First, we discuss how and to what extent people's risk perception is influenced by their sociocultural context. Next, there is an overview of studies that have addressed the impact of national culture on workers' risk-taking behaviour and organisational performance in occupational safety. Finally, section 2.5 draws some conclusions on the importance of national/cultural aspects and how to address these when managing OSH among foreign (but more or less culturally homogeneous) work teams.

2.2. National culture, dimensions and clusters

2.2.1. Hofstede's cultural dimensions

One of the most renowned researchers in the field of national and organisational culture is the Dutchman Geert Hofstede. Based on a comprehensive sociocultural study, conducted between 1968 and 1972 at IBM Corporation, and several subsequent studies worldwide, Hofstede identified five dimensions by which societies or nations can be distinguished and ordered (Hofstede, 1991, 2001).[1] These five cultural dimensions are:

- Power Distance Index (PDI): the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations accept that power is distributed unequally.
- Individualism–Collectivism (IDV): the degree to which people prefer to act as individuals rather than (collectively) as group members.

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[1] For more information see and ITIM International (http://geert-hofstede.com).

- Masculinity–Femininity (MAS): the degree to which "masculine" values, such as assertiveness, competition and success, are emphasised, as opposed to values such as quality of life, warm personal relationships (caring for others) and service.
- Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI): the degree to which people in a country prefer structured over unstructured situations.
- Long-term Orientation (LTO): the degree to which people's actions are driven by long-term goals and results, rather than short-term results and the need for immediate gratification.[2]

It is very important to note that these dimensions of culture are group-level constructs, just as (national/societal) "culture" itself is a group-level construct. Culture is defined here as the collective mental programming of the human mind, which influences patterns of thinking and distinguishes one group of people from another.

Through multiple studies in the past decades, Hofstede's Value Survey Module (VSM) generated worldwide country scores (between 0 and 100) on the five dimensions (also known as the "5D country scores"). Annex B provides, as an example, an overview of the values for the five dimensions for most European countries.[3] These 5D country scores are meaningful only when making comparisons among countries or societies.

The Hofstede values are averages of a society for certain dimensions. As there are substantial differences between regions, ethnic groups and individuals in a given country, these scores are not applicable to each and every one. Taking the "passport approach", i.e. using nationality as a basis on which to draw conclusions about an individual's culture values and, from that, trying to predict attitudes and behaviour, can lead to false conclusions and should therefore be undertaken with great caution (Taras et al., 2011, p. 195).[4] However, Hofstede's values can be useful to predict the general tendencies in behaviour in certain cultures that might be expected in an average situation.

2.2.2.   *Other cross-cultural comparison studies*

In addition to Hofstede's work, other culture comparison studies have been carried out. Using data from more than 60 000 individuals in 63 countries, Schwartz (1999), for example, derived seven "value types", structured along three polar dimensions: Conservatism versus (Intellectual and Affective) Autonomy; Hierarchy (Power Distance) versus Egalitarianism; and Mastery versus Harmony.

Another influential study in this regard was the GLOBE Project (House et al., 2004).[5,6] GLOBE stands for Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness. Based on the work of Hofstede, Schwartz and others, the GLOBE research programme examined the inter-relationship between organisational and societal culture and leader behaviour in 62 countries. Data in the study came from questionnaire responses from over 17 000 middle-level managers in three sectors: financial services, food processing and telecommunications.

In contrast to Hofstede's categorisation, GLOBE distinguished not five but nine cultural dimensions or "attributes" (House et al., 2004):

- Power Distance: the degree to which members of a collective expect (and should expect) power to be distributed equally.

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[2] Hofstede added this fifth dimension later, mainly to cover characteristics of Asian cultures (the Far East).
[3] ITIM provides, on its website, an application to retrieve the 5D scores (and related information and explanation) for a selected country, which enables users to compare these scores with those of a second and third country. See ITIM International: http://geert-hofstede.com/countries.html.
[4] See also: www.geerthofstede.nl/research--vsm.
[5] Organisational leadership is defined in the GLOBE programme as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organisation of which they are members" (House et al., 2004). Leadership areas other than business, such as politics, sports, religion or the military were not investigated by the GLOBE project.
[6] For more information, see GLOBE: http://business.nmsu.edu/programs-centers/globe/.

- Uncertainty Avoidance: the extent to which a society, organisation or group relies (and should rely) on social norms, rules, and procedures to alleviate the unpredictability of future events. The greater the desire to avoid uncertainty, the more people seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formal procedures and laws to cover situations in their daily lives.
- In-group Collectivism: the degree to which individuals express (and should express) pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organisations or families.
- Institutional Collectivism: the degree to which organisational and societal institutional practices encourage and reward (and should encourage and reward) the collective distribution of resources and collective action.
- Gender Egalitarianism: the degree to which a collective minimises (and should minimise) gender inequality.
- Future Orientation: the extent to which individuals engage (and should engage) in future-oriented behaviours such as delaying gratification, planning and investing in the future.
- Humane Orientation: the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to others.
- Performance Orientation: the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards (and should encourage and reward) group members for performance improvement and excellence.
- Assertiveness: the degree to which individuals are (and should be) assertive, confrontational and aggressive in their relationships with others. People in highly assertive countries tend to have can-do attitudes and enjoy competition in business; those in less assertive countries prefer harmony in relationships and emphasise loyalty and solidarity.[7]

Based on similarities in the above-mentioned cultural attributes, GLOBE was able to divide the participating nations into 10 main cultural "clusters", namely Nordic Europe (Denmark, Finland and Sweden), Germanic Europe (Germany, the Netherlands and Austria), Latin Europe (Spain, France, Italy and Portugal), Eastern Europe (Hungary, Poland and Slovenia), Anglo (including the United Kingdom and Ireland) as well as Latin America, Confucian Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and Southern Asia. Each of these clusters differs with respect to the nine culture dimensions (see, for example, Javidan et al., 2006). Taras and colleagues (2011, p. 191) came to the same conclusion: based on all the available evidence from culture comparison studies, national and regional cultures are significantly and predictably different from one another.

With regard to these culture dimensions and clusters, the premise that cultures are formed around regions that share common historical, economic, political and/or environmental grounds should be examined. In this regard, Taras and colleagues (2011, p. 191) provide some general examples:

- Western free-market capitalist societies (e.g. Western Europe and the United States have more low power, distance oriented and individualist cultures, whereas developing nations (in particular those with the Confucian legacy such as China and South Korea) are more high power distance oriented and collectivist.
- Regions with, for example, harsh climates and limited food supply, such as Scandinavia, tend to have more feminine values of equality, harmony and cooperation because people had to work together and rely on each other. In contrast, regions with milder natural conditions and consequently more competition among people, such as southern Europe, have developed masculine values.
- Societies with political and economic instability (e.g. certain Latin American countries) are typified by greater avoidance of uncertainty, whereas stability and personal safety increases tolerance of uncertainty.

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[7] GLOBE's Assertiveness dimension corresponds more or less with Hofstede's MAS dimension (Tharaldsen et al., 2010, p. 1065).

It is worth noting that Smulders (2004) demonstrated the existence of European country clusters, not focusing on cultural values or leadership preferences (see below) but based on an analysis of the Third European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) data from the EU-27 (Eurofound, 2000). The work environment cluster analysis revealed that the 27 countries can be combined into five clusters, namely (i) Central Europe (i.e. Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Slovak Republic), Italy, Malta and Portugal; (ii) Northern and Western Europe (i.e. Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom); (iii) Spain and Greece; (iv) Cyprus; and (v) Romania. So, to a certain extent, the study supports the way in which EU countries are traditionally clustered (see, for example, EU-OSHA, 2010). It particularly points to a north-west versus south-east divide in relation to the work environment in Europe. An interesting question in this regard is whether this differentiation is triggered predominantly by economic factors (i.e. in wealthier EU countries work is generally more complex, less hazardous, healthier and requires fewer working hours than in the poorer countries) or also by cultural differences.

According to Taras and colleagues (2011), there is some preliminary evidence that the current globalisation process compels national cultures to converge around values typical of Western, free-market capitalist societies, particularly in the business domain. [8] For example, as wealth is increasing in China and India, so does individualism. This cultural change is, however, a very slow process, which means that national cultural differences will almost certainly persist over the next few decades.

2.3.   National culture and the workplace

2.3.1.   Culture preferences and workplace aspects

In a recent, comprehensive review, Taras and colleagues (2011) tried to summarise the main lessons that can be drawn from 30 years of research on national culture in the workplace (including findings, among others, from Hofstede, Schwartz and GLOBE). They emphasise that national culture is one of the best predictors of attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace. In comparison with features such as age, work experience, gender, race or educational level, cultural values seem to have a much stronger impact on workplace outcomes such as job and co-worker satisfaction, organisational commitment, interpersonal relationships and group dynamics, communication style, conflict handling and leadership preferences (Taras et al., 2011, pp. 193–194). Some examples of the impact of typical cultural preferences in relation to workplace aspects (namely work design, leadership preferences, fairness perception and decision making, group dynamics, communication style and conflict handling preferences) are given in Table 6.

Table 6: Impact of national culture on different aspects in the workplace

Work design	Collectivist, high power distance: preference for structured roles, clearer directions; often more uncomfortable with empowerment or the need to show initiative beyond traditional situations; preference for closeness with immediate supervisors, feedback seeking, expecting and providing more paternalistic, caring and trusting subordinate-supervisor relationships.	Individualist, low power distance: preference for work design that allows of personal autonomy, flexibility, involvement in the decision-making process, opportunities to make personal contributions beyond job descriptions, quality of personal and family time.

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[8] Taras and colleagues refer for instance to Thomas Friedman's influential book *The World is Flat*.

Leadership	Collectivist, high power distance: preference for more direct and charismatic leaders.	Low power distance: preference for a participative leadership style.
Fairness perceptions and decision-making	High power distance: preference for seniority rule (allocating the greatest reward or responsibility to the eldest or otherwise most senior group member).	Individualist, in particular when coupled with more femininity (e.g. Nordic Europe): preference for a cooperative style in decision-making.
	Collectivist, masculine, high power distance: preference for top-down decision-making process and greater respect for authority.	
Group dynamics	Collectivist: need for social support and being with others; in favour of team work; higher commitment to the team.	Individualist: less preference for team work and conforming to group pressures.
Communication style	Collectivist, feminine and high power distance: preference for indirectness and modesty.	Individualist, masculine: more direct communication styles, self-promotion, and openness in communication.
	Collectivist: high context communication, with non-verbal cues (e.g. facial expressions, body language) carrying the most meaning.	Individualist: low context, with most importance ascribed to verbal messages.
Conflict handling	Collectivist: stronger concern for interests of the other party and stronger favour of involvement of a third party or mediator.	Individualist, masculine: more vocal when faced with perceived unfairness and often display their disagreement by exiting the group or quitting.
	Collectivist, feminine: reacting to perceived unfairness by diminishing their effort or simply ignoring the unfavourable outcome in an effort to restore group harmony and cooperative spirit.	

Source: Taras et al. (2011)[9]

As already explained above, these cultural preferences are primarily true and valuable for explaining group-level outcomes rather than those of individuals. When setting up a division in a foreign country, for instance, it is crucial that it is aligned with the local culture. On the other hand, it is very difficult to make precise predictions about the functioning of every foreign individual in the workplace based only on his or her nationality or roots of origin. As the cross-cultural differences are based on average group values, they reflect only a general tendency in a culture, which does not have to be true for every individual but nevertheless gives a useful indication of the behaviours that can be expected.

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[9] Similar information and advice, with some practical advice on recruiting (for both the recruiters and the candidates), setting targets, training (including career development and talent management), appraisal and reward, is given in an online article by Wursten, Lanzer and Fadrhonc (ITIM International, undated).

Culture and conflict at work

This can be particularly important for anyone working outside their country of origin. The study addressed only certain differences between countries and national cultures, without making use of or referring to any existing cross-cultural theory. Some of the findings of the study are referred to below.

In all the countries surveyed, except Germany, the principal cause of workplace conflict was identified as "personality clashes"; in Germany, in contrast, 4 out of 10 workers cited stress as the number one cause of workplace conflict. In addition, more than one-third of Germans said that a lack of clarity on accountability caused conflict, in contrast to only 1 in 12 of the overall group. In France, on the other hand, more than one-third of employees stated that a lack of honesty and openness was a main cause of conflict, whereas this reason was given by no more than one in five workers in the Netherlands.

The prevalence of perceived negative outcomes (such as sickness or departure) of workplace conflict was highest, among the countries surveyed, in Germany. In contrast, adverse effects of conflict would seem to be much rarer in Belgium, France and the Netherlands.

In addition, there appear to be considerable differences in the way in which workplace conflicts are handled. Danish workers, for instance, are the keenest to seek win–win situations in a conflict: 4 out of 10 take this approach, compared with only one in five in the surveyed countries as a whole. This collaborative approach could be explained by the strong consensual culture in Denmark: the dynamic of the group is perceived to be more important than the needs of the individual (see also above, under "collectivist/feminine culture dimensions"). In the Netherlands, the most common approach towards conflict also seems to be to seek compromise; anything else would just overcomplicate things. This is, however, less the case in Belgium and France, where a more passive approach is more common: it seems that the preferred way to deal with workplace conflict is simply to hope that someone else can "fix it" (through, for example, counselling).

In 2008, OPP conducted an international study on conflict in the workplace[1] (see also the last entry in Table 6). In order to get a view on workers' attitudes to conflict, 5 000 employees in nine countries (i.e. Belgium, Brazil, Germany, Denmark, Ireland, France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States) were surveyed (OPP, 2008). The questionnaire revealed country/cultural variations with regard to the perception of the causes of conflict, as well as the way they are dealt with within organisations.

2.3.2. National culture and organisational leadership

In our introduction we defined leadership as constituting a process of social influence that is enacted by designated individuals who hold a formal leadership role in organisations. The importance of leadership was borne out in the Fifth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS)[10] (Eurofound, 2012). European employees, who evaluate their manager positively, are, it seems, almost twice as likely to report being satisfied with their working conditions as those who evaluate their boss negatively (Eurofound, 2012, p. 56). Other EWCS survey findings with regard to the worker–leader relationship appear to be generally positive:

- 95 % of employees confirm that their direct manager respects them as a person.
- Over 80 % state that their manager provides help and support and is good at resolving conflicts and planning and organising the work.

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[10] Every five years, Eurofound carries out the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), interviewing both employees and self-employed people on key issues related to their work and employment. Over time, the number of topics surveyed has been extended. Fieldwork for the fifth EWCS took place from January to June 2010, with almost 44 000 workers interviewed in their homes in the EU, Norway, Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Albania, Montenegro and Kosovo. NB: Figures from the EWCS are merely estimates, based on a representative sample of European workers and not on the whole population (Eurofound, 2012, p. 9).

- 78 % of workers report receiving feedback.

Conversely, less than 70 % report being actively encouraged to take part in important decisions.

As the roles and responsibilities of leaders can be very different depending on their position in the organisational hierarchy, the following subdivision of formal organisational leadership is suggested (O'Dea and Flin, 2003; Flin and Yule, 2004):

- at the strategic level: senior (or corporate) managers,
- at the tactical level: middle (level) managers, including site managers, heads of department/unit, etc. (how these middle managers responsibilities are determined) specifically depends on the sector and/or organisation),
- at the operational (or supervisory) level: supervisors, also known as team leaders, first-line managers (front-line managers) or foremen (title depends on sector and/or organisation).

According to Yukl (2006), organisational leadership impinges on workers in two ways: (i) indirectly through organisational policies and systems; and (ii) directly through personal interaction and communication with workers (i.e. direct personal leadership).

Cultural values and leadership

As set forth in Table 6, cultural values also impact on leadership preferences in the workplace. One of the main objectives of the GLOBE project (see section 2.2.2) was to investigate to what extent specific leadership characteristics and actions were universally endorsed and how these were linked to cultural characteristics. GLOBE's leadership questionnaire therefore consisted of 112 items related to specific leader behaviours or characteristics that it was hypothesised would either contribute to or inhibit "outstanding leadership" (in other words, managers had to identify, through several items, how they perceived someone to be a prototypical outstanding leader and thus how they expected their leaders to be). This eventually led to six "global leadership dimensions", differentiating the cultural profiles of desired leadership qualities (also referred to as a "Culturally endorsed implicit Leadership Theory" (CLT) profile).[11] These six CLT leadership profiles or dimensions are:

- Charismatic/Value-based: reflects the ability to inspire, to motivate and to expect high performance outcomes from others on the basis of firmly held core beliefs.
- Team-oriented: emphasises effective teambuilding and implementation of a common purpose or goal among team members.
- Participative: reflects the degree to which managers involve others in making and implementing decisions.
- Humane-oriented: reflects supportive and considerate leadership but also includes compassion and generosity.
- Autonomous: refers to independence in decision making and individualistic leadership; in its most extreme form it is seen as the opposite of the participative dimension.
- Self-protective: focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual; it is self-centred and face-saving in its approach. This leader is seen as being a loner and asocial.

Results from the GLOBE study indicate that the 10 above-mentioned culture clusters (see section 2.2.2) differed with respect to all six of these CLT leadership dimensions (Javidan et al., 2006). Comparisons between the different cultural clusters for the leadership dimensions are summarised in Table 7. Despite the fact that the GLOBE project has shown that different countries have

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[11] According to Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT), individuals hold a set of beliefs about the kinds of attributes, personality characteristics, skills and behaviours that contribute to or impede "outstanding leadership". These belief systems are assumed to affect the extent to which an individual accepts and responds to others as leaders. GLOBE extended ILT to the cultural level of analysis by arguing that the structure and content of these belief systems will be shared among individuals in common cultures. This shared cultural level analogue of ILT is referred to as "Culturally endorsed implicit Leadership Theory" (CLT) (Javidan et al., 2006, pp. 72–73).

divergent views on many aspects of leadership effectiveness, Javidan and colleagues (2006, pp. 74–75) stress that there are convergent views on other aspects. Examples of leadership attributes that are universally desirable are: being honest, decisive, motivational and dynamic, whereas being asocial, irritable, egocentric and ruthless appeared to be undesirable attributes for leaders across the world.

Table 7 Summary of comparisons for CLT leadership dimensions

Societal cluster	CLT Leadership Dimensions					
	Charismatic/ Value based	Team-oriented	Participative	Humane Oriented	Autonomous	Self-protective
Nordic Europe	H	M	H	L̲	M	L̲
Germanic Europe	H	L	H̲	M	H̲	L
Latin Europe	H	M	M	L	L	M
Eastern Europe	M	M	L	M	H	H
Anglo	H̲	M	H	H	M	L
Latin America	H	H̲	M	M	L̲	M
Sub-Sahara Africa	M	M	M	H	L	M
Middle East	L̲	L	L	M	M	H̲
Southern Asia	H	H̲	L	H̲	M	H
Confucian Asia	M	H	L	H	M	H

Source: Javidan et al. (2006).

H, high rank; M, medium rank; L, low rank; H̲ or L̲ underlined) indicates highest or lowest cluster score for a particular CLT dimension.

*Nordic Europe: Finland, Sweden, Denmark and Norway.

Germanic Europe: German-speaking Europe (Austria, German-speaking Switzerland, Germany, South Tyrol, Liechtenstein) plus Dutch-speaking Europe (Belgium, Dutch-speaking France and Netherlands). Latin Europe: Spain, France, Italy, Portugal, Switzerland (French and Italian speaking). Eastern Europe: Albania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Greece, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary Poland, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia, Slovakia. Anglo: including United Kingdom and Ireland.

Different cross-cultural studies, based on subsamples of GLOBE, have reported findings from within Europe that are in line with the data shown in Table 7. Brodbeck and colleagues (2000) analysed data from 22 European countries and found that the different clusters (i.e. Anglo (United Kingdom, Ireland), Nordic (Denmark, Netherlands, Finland, Sweden), Germanic (Germany, Austria, Switzerland), Latin (Spain, Italy, Hungary, Portugal,) and Central (Poland, Slovenia), and near Eastern (Greece, Turkey) Europe) showed differences in leadership prototypes. Szabo and colleagues (2002) focused specifically on the Germanic Europe cluster (i.e. Germany, Austria, Netherlands and Switzerland) and concluded that, whereas charisma is seen as a key factor for outstanding leadership all over the world, participation and team orientation are rather specific to the Germanic Europe, Anglo and Nordic Europe clusters. Bakacsi and colleagues (2002) investigated the Eastern Europe cluster (i.e. Albania, Greece, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Slovenia) and found that this cluster is less homogeneous than the Germanic

Europe one. In the Eastern Europe cluster, a humane orientation, autonomous leadership and self-protective leadership were rated slightly higher than in the Germanic Europe cluster.

Elsler (2006) considered how these findings with regard to cultural preferences for leadership styles might impact OSH. He concluded that, as a result of the strong hierarchical structures in companies in the Eastern Europe cluster, employees would be more likely to follow the objectives of their leaders and would thus be motivated to implement OSH by classic leadership styles involving clear objectives and extrinsic incentives. The participative leadership style seems more common in the Germanic European cluster, as hierarchies are flatter and employees act more self-dependently (EU-OSHA, 2012a). The impact of national culture on OSH is further addressed and discussed in section 2.4.2.

The question now is what specific added value is provided by these and other findings from studies on national culture and leadership. It appears that the existing literature on cross-cultural management is particularly interesting to multinational organisations and their global expatriate managers. However, according to Javidan and colleagues (2006, p. 84), one of the problems with the existing cross-cultural literature is that much it is more valuable at the conceptual level than at the behavioural level. They attempted to make cross-cultural knowledge more relevant by conceiving and discussing the cultural implications of a hypothetical scenario in which an American executive is in charge of five similar teams in the United States, Brazil, France, Egypt and China (Javidan et al., 2006). They used GLOBE findings to provide a scientifically based comparison of cultural and leadership paradigms in the five countries.

According to Brodbeck and colleagues (2000), an understanding of the culturally endorsed differences in leadership concepts and preferences should be regarded as a first step for managers in adjusting their leadership behaviour to that required in a host country. This might avoid cross-cultural misunderstanding in leader–follower relationships and enhance leadership effectiveness. An important skill in this regard is "cultural adaptability', which refers to a manager's ability to understand other cultures and behave in a way that helps achieve goals and build strong and positive relations with local citizens (Javidan et al., 2006, p. 85). The leadership dimensions that characterise different cultural regions and countries can also be applied as a starting point for cross-cultural training. Courses in leadership and communication thus need to take into account which leadership or communication style(s) would provide the best cultural fit (Taras et al., 2011, p. 195).

Overcoming cultural barriers when assisting foreign-owned companies

The Institute for Work and Health of the German Social Accident Insurance (DGUV) has recently developed some specific tools for labour inspectors and other OSH professionals to facilitate their access to managers in foreign-controlled entities and to help overcome cultural barriers in this regard. This was done in collaboration with the intercultural training centre "IKUD Seminare".[12]

The tools include a checklist on "Intercultural Consultation" ('Checkliste: Das interkulturell sensible Beratungsgespräch') and specific practical guides on the Arab Gulf countries, Japan, Norway, Russia and Turkey. Each guide starts with country-specific facts and figures (government, geography, population, economy) and provides information on cultural preferences and dimensions: orientation towards people and relationships; orientation towards hierarchy; indirect communication; time orientation; gender (roles of men and women); personal space and non-verbal communication. Each of these aspects is made clear with some background information, short cases and examples, explaining how the cultural preferences differ from the German ones. At the end some practical tips (dos and don'ts) are included.

With regard to OSH, and particularly the prevention of workplace accidents, the guides offer some specific information and explanation, starting with the country scores on Hofstede's "Uncertainty

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[12] IKUD Seminare: www.ikud-seminare.com/.

Avoidance" dimension (compared with the German average value). For example, uncertainty avoidance is higher in Turkey than in Germany, which means that ambiguous situations tend to be avoided. Turks prefer a strong hierarchy and expect clear orders from their supervisors. Interpersonal relations are very important in the Turkish community. The community is a protective—one in which one feels safe and secure. The situation is different with regard to organisational rules and safety in the technical sense. These are treated in a more flexible way. German ideas of safety and precautions (e.g. where there is risk of an injury or fire risk) are often not fully realised by Turks. For this reason, awareness-raising campaigns are very important.

The tools are available in German at: www.dguv.de/iag/de/publikationen/handlungshilfen/index.jsp

2.4. National culture, risk and safety

2.4.1. Culture and risk perception

The way people perceive and judge risk, and how they manage and live with it, is influenced by many factors. Risk is a subjective judgement that people make about the probability of experiencing a negative event (Lund and Rundmo, 2009, p. 548).[13] The perception of risk relates not only to, for example, the risk of traffic accidents, natural hazards and catastrophes (e.g. earthquakes) or threats to the environment or our health (e.g. nuclear power, weapons, smoking, food, infectious diseases, electromagnetic radiation, nanomaterials), but also to economic and financial issues (i.e. financial risk taking). As the topic of risk perception is a research domain in itself, it will be addressed only briefly here.[14, 15]

Several theories try to explain why people perceive risks as they do and why these perceptions can be different across (groups of) individuals. Some scholars, for example, approach and study risk perception from a psychological/cognitive angle, considering perception mainly as a cognitive process. This has resulted in the "psychometric paradigm", which is a dominant theory in understanding how people perceive risks.[16] Others approach risk perception from a more anthropological/sociological perspective. This approach is based on the "Cultural Theory of Risk Perception", put forward by Douglas and Wildavsky (1982).[17] In contrast to the psychometric model, in which risk perception is a function of the characteristics of hazards, Culture Theory considers that risk perception goes beyond the individual and is merely a reflection of his or her social context (Sjöberg, 2000; Kouabenan, 2009).

Some studies have revealed cross-cultural differences in relation to risk perception (see Renn and Rohrmann, 2000). A selection of these studies, focusing on risk perceptions in countries such as the United States, Poland, Hungary, Norway, Hong Kong and Japan, has been summarised by Lund and Rundmo (2009, p. 549). Although variations in risk perception between certain countries have been demonstrated, the extent to which risk perception is, in practice, influenced by cultural factors is open to question. For example, the size of a country appears also to play a part: more accidents are reported in countries with a larger population, which makes the inhabitants of those

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[13] Sjöberg et al. (2004, p. 8) define "risk perception" as follows: "The subjective assessment of the probability of a specified type of accident happening and how concerned we are with the consequences. To perceive risk includes evaluations of the probability as well as the consequences of a negative outcome."

[14] For a review of the theoretical background of risk perception, see, for example, Sjöberg (2000) and Leoni (2010). See also Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Risk_perception, as well as EU-OSHA (2012b, pp. 9–11).

[15] Other terms and concepts in research, related to the one of "risk perception", are "risk attitude", "risk behaviour", "risk willingness" (i.e. the willingness of individuals to take risks), and "risk sensitivity" (i.e. the tendency to perceive certain risks sources to be large) (Sjöberg, 2000; Lund and Rundmo, 2009). "Risk perception" should be distinguished from "risk attitude": the attitude towards risk is related to a person's level of sensation seeking (e.g. in the domains of alcohol and drug abuse and unprotected sex) (Zuckerman, 1979, cited in Starren et al., 2012).

[16] According to the psychometric paradigm, there are only a few generally applicable factors determining perceived risk, of which dread and novelty/familiarity are the most decisive ones (see, for example, Slovic, 1992; Sjöberg et al., 2004).

[17] Culture Theory distinguishes four types of people, and each of these would be concerned with other types of hazards: (i) egalitarians (with technology and the environment); (ii) individualists (with war and other threats to the markets); (iii) hierarchists (with law and order); and (iv) fatalists (not concerned with any of the previously mentioned hazard types) (Sjöberg, 2000, p. 5).

countries more averse to certain risks. The media also affect people's risk perception, by emphasising certain topics of discussion in everyday life. In his paper on factors in risk perception, Lennart Sjöberg (2000) posits that Cultural Theory cannot explain more than 5–10 % of the variance in perceived risk. Thus, the sociocultural context could be regarded as a minor determinant of risk perception. According to Sjöberg (2000), other factors, such as attitude, risk sensitivity and specific fear, appear to be far more crucial. Renn and Rohrmann (2000) conclude on this topic that, although there sometimes appear to be cross-cultural differences in risk perception, it is difficult to interpret and explain them.

There is considerable variation across groups of workers in how they perceive OSH-related risks in their job. This was recently demonstrated by Leoni (2010) on the basis of a data analysis from the Fourth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) (Eurofound, 2005). Not surprisingly, objective risks (as measured by hazardous working conditions and by the likelihood of being injured or developing a work-related illness) have a significant influence on workers' risk perceptions. It is not only high physical demands and exposure to dangerous substances and environmental factors that cause workers to perceive their job as hazardous to their health and safety, but also high work intensity, stress and other psychologically demanding working conditions (such as contact with customers and patients), (Leoni, 2010, p. 187).

In addition to job characteristics, workplace hazards, job satisfaction and health outcomes, personal characteristics also appear to correlate strongly with people's perceptions of OSH risks. Workers tend to consider their job as more hazardous to their health and safety if they are older and have more work experience (job tenure), have a higher level of education, and have more family responsibilities. Lone parents (both women and men) are considerably more likely to worry about the impact of their working conditions on their health and safety

Risk perception in the workplace

When it comes to the specific influence of national culture and risk perception on OSH, research appears to be limited (Renn and Rohrmann, 2000). Starren and colleagues (2012) recently discussed the relation between "safety information/knowledge" and risk perception, as the former influences the latter.[18] According to these Dutch authors, research demonstrates that the effects of certain actions in the field of workplace safety (e.g. providing evidence on the likelihood and/or consequences of incidents/accidents) may be very different depending on the cultural backgrounds of those who receive this information. The use of pictograms (rather than written procedures) to illustrate risks and (un)safe circumstances can help to overcome language barriers. It is, however, important to bear in mind that people with different cultural backgrounds may understand such pictograms in distinct ways. Setting up training programmes in OSH (including participative actions, role playing, toolboxes, etc.) may also involve specific challenges when targeted at people of different national backgrounds.

2.4.2. *Culture and occupational safety*

The previous sections have given an overview on the most influential cross-cultural studies and theories, and how cultural aspects may affect people's attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace, as well as the way they perceive risks. This section provides a review of studies that have analysed the impact of national cultures on workers' risk-taking behaviour and organisations' performance with regard to occupational safety.

Mearns and Yule (2009) reviewed and discussed the topic of national culture and occupational safety. They concluded that, despite the extensive body of research on national culture in the workplace (see above), there is very little research on the influence of cultural values on the safety climate and safety-related behaviour in the workplace. Guldenmund and colleagues (2012), in their recent study on the link between accidents and migrant workers and their cultural background,

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[18] Information about workplace risks influences people's perception of risk. Consequently, providing new information on risks and prevention can help change people's perceptions.

argue that this lack of research and evidence does not prevent some professionals and practitioners from making assumptions about the relationship between national culture and safety—mostly in an anecdotal way.

Most studies that have examined the relationship between cultural factors and (occupational) safety have made use of Hofstede's theoretical framework. The most relevant studies, from different sectors (transport, construction, oil and gas, etc.), are summarised below.

Traffic and transport

In a study for the Dutch Ministry of Transport, Public Works and Water Management, Vinken and Vermaas (2001) applied Hofstede's theory and analyses to shed light on the impact of culture on traffic safety and the transport sector. According to their report, when Hofstede analysed statistics for road accidents resulting in personal injury per 1 000 motor vehicles in 20 Western countries (including the United States), he found a strong correlation only with the MAS dimension (i.e. a high feminine value is associated with fewer traffic accidents) and the UAI dimension (i.e. a low UAI score implies fewer traffic accidents). On the other hand, when he investigated the number of people killed in road accidents per 100 000 population in the same 20 countries (this figure being independent of the number of motor vehicles in a country, and including also pedestrians, cyclists and other road users), then only UAI seemed to be correlated strongly. This could help explain why Scandinavian countries, which score low on the MAS and UAI dimensions, have a high level of road safety in comparison with other EU countries (see also the Appendix A-B).

Hofstede's framework has also been applied in aviation. For example, Ashleigh Merritt and Robert Helmreich from the University of Texas have investigated the effects of national culture on behaviour in the cockpit (see, for example, Merritt and Helmreich, 1996; Merritt, 2000; Helmreich and Merritt, 2001).[19] Based on survey data from more than 15 000 pilots of 36 airlines from 23 countries, they found national differences between pilots, particularly in the area of command, attitude towards automation and attitude to rules and procedures (Mearns and Yule, 2009, p. 781). Hofstede's PDI, IDV and UAI dimensions had an impact, apparently, on team interaction in the cockpit. In cultures with high PDI values (such as Morocco, the Philippines and Taiwan), for instance, safety may be compromised if subordinates are unwilling to challenge leaders' actions or decisions. Collectivist societies (i.e. those with low IDV scores), such as in Asia or Latin America, may facilitate communication and teamwork in comparison with more individualist cultures. The UAI value may affect safety in both ways: in societies with high UAI values, people may be less likely to violate procedures but, on the other hand, may also be less creative in coping with new/emergency situations. This all leads to the conclusion that cockpit behaviour is influenced not only by professional culture among pilots, but also by national culture. Training should, therefore, take into account national cultural characteristics.

Construction

Spangenberg and colleagues (2003) carried out a study during the construction of the Øresund Link (a combined twin-track railway and dual-carriageway bridge–tunnel across the Øresund Strait between Sweden and Denmark).[20] Their study has been described and referred to by several other researchers.[21] Mearns and Yule (2009, p. 784) underlined the particular context of this study, as the construction project provided the unique setting of Danish and Swedish workers involved in the same tasks on the same project, over the same time period and using the same injury reporting procedures. Spangenberg and colleagues found that, among Danish workers, time lost due to injury was four times that of Swedish workers. This was quite remarkable as both countries have similar cultural profiles (belonging to the same Nordic European cultural cluster).[22] As the type of tasks and reporting procedures for occupational injuries were similar, these potential confounding factors were eliminated. The Danish researchers ascribed this significant difference in accident

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[19] Helmreich and Merritt (2001) developed the Flight Management Attitudes Questionnaire (FMAQ), containing questions from Hofstede's survey and additional questions more directly related to aviation.

[20] See also Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Øresund_Bridge.

[21] See also EU-OSHA: http://osha.europa.eu/data/case-studies/the-oresund-fixed-link-safe-procurement-in-the-construction-sector-the-danish-landworks.

[22] National values were, however, not measured during the study.

rate to differing levels of planning, training, education and apprenticeships, as well as differences in the work compensation systems.[23] However, it is not clear if the study involved only national Danish and Swedish workers or also migrant workers in these countries. Mearns and Yule (2009, p. 782) concluded from this case that "the Hofstede approach may be too simplistic to discriminate the subtle influences of specific practices on safety performance".

Mohamed and colleagues (2009) investigated the impact of national culture on the safety perception, attitude and behaviour of local construction workers in Pakistan. Based on a questionnaire survey, they concluded, among other things, that workers in a more collectivist and feminine environment, with higher uncertainty avoidance, are more likely to have greater safety awareness and beliefs and work in a safer way.[24]

Petroleum industry

Some studies have focused on work teams and their activities in the oil and gas industry. Mearns and colleagues (2004), for instance, carried out a culture comparison study between British and Norwegian offshore workers. The study revealed differences in the workers' perceptions and attitudes to safety, both between sector (United Kingdom versus Norway) and between installations within these sectors. However, cultural, legislative and political differences between the United Kingdom and Norway appeared to have less impact on workers' perceptions than local installation-specific practices. By demonstrating that there were no significant differences in the accident rate between the United Kingdom and the Norwegian sector, the researchers were also able to disprove a strong myth circulating at the time, namely that Norwegians performed better on safety than their colleagues in the United Kingdom (Mearns and Yule, 2009, p. 782).

Tharaldsen and colleagues (2010) conducted another study on United Kingdom and Norwegian offshore workers, investigating the safety performance of workers of a contracting firm providing well services on platforms, both in the United Kingdom and in Norway. A questionnaire survey was used, which included, among scales on trust and safety behaviour, six GLOBE organisational culture scales (see section 2.2.2). Two dimensions were examined, namely Power Distance and Assertiveness (aggressiveness and dominance). Workers in Norway rated both dimensions lower than in the United Kingdom sample, which is in line with the differences between GLOBE's "Anglo" and "Nordic Europe" societal clusters. Norwegian workers would, for example, question their supervisor more readily when they disagreed, owing to the smaller social distance between superior and subordinate. The study pointed out that, among Norwegian workers, a low power distance and a less assertive (masculine) organisational climate go along with a high level of trust (in colleagues' as well as supervisors' commitment to safety) and high compliance with and participation in safety. This pattern appeared, however, to be different among United Kingdom workers, among whom an assertive organisational climate may still be safety compliant (i.e. sticking to the safety rules) and combined with low social distance between superior and subordinates. These tendencies are, according to Tharaldsen and colleagues (2010, p. 1068), to a certain extent culturally rooted, reflecting a more rule-based trust among United Kingdom workers and one more based on equality and democratic values among the Norwegians.

In another study, Yule and Mearns surveyed six national work teams (United Kingdom, United States, Hispanic American, Malaysia, Philippines and Australia; n = 845) from a multinational oil services company (construction, maintenance and facilities management in oil and gas plants), with the aim of examining the extent to which Hofstede's dimensions of national culture are applicable to the study of safety climate (perceived management commitment to safety)[25] and (self-reported) safe/unsafe behaviour. Although it has not been published (but is referred to and summarised in Mearns and Yule, 2009, pp. 782–784), the study is worth mentioning as it is one of the first to address culture, management and safety across national contexts—in contrast to other cross-cultural studies on leadership and management (such as GLOBE; see section 2.2.2) that

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[23] Swedish workers have, in contrast to Danish, to pay the first day of sick leave themselves, making them less inclined to call in sick.

[24] It should be noted that Mohamed et al. (2009) focused their study on Hofstede's framework and dimensions but used different questionnaire items (other than Hofstede's VSM).

[25] For more information, refer also EU-OSHA (2011).

have not measured safety as an outcome. Yule and Mearns found that only scores for MAS and PDI emerged as significant predictors of risk-taking behaviour. This is, to a certain extent, in line with other studies (see above) and not very surprising as the authors state that the oil industry has been built around a "macho culture" in which macho-type behaviour has been culturally selected and endorsed over time. Mearns and Yule conclude that the relationships among cultural values, management commitment to safety (safety climate) and risk-taking behaviour appear not to be uniform across cultures. More importantly, the study highlights that the commitment of corporate (senior) managers is a more important determinant of workplace behaviour than national culture. As perceptions about the commitment of senior managers deteriorate, workers appear to be more inclined to take risks and break rules, and vice versa.

Other research

Starren and colleagues (2012) recently examined the research literature on the relationship between national culture values and occupational safety. They emphasise that, in particular, UAI and PDI are relevant in the context of occupational safety. Workers from national cultures with a higher UAI would, for instance, be more focused on compliance with rules and procedures. Likewise, employees from a national culture with a high PDI would tend to accept (safety) instructions from their supervisors more easily. Starren and colleagues (2012), however, point out that, although these assumptions may seem very logical, the empirical evidence is less compelling. They refer, for example, to a study by Burke and colleagues (2008), which revealed that safety training was less effective for people in high UAI cultures as they are less likely to react flexibly to real/unexpected situations.

In a study for the Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, Guldenmund and colleagues (2012) investigated possible factors affecting occupational accidents among migrant workers in three European countries (Denmark, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom). Based on previous research findings, more specifically that an organisation's and/or worksite's safety climate has a bigger impact on workers' safety performance than their cultural background (see above, e.g. the work by Mearns and colleagues), Guldenmund and colleagues decided not to apply Hofstede's national culture framework. They focused instead on other research approaches, namely interviews (with safety inspectors, safety managers and trade unionists), a safety climate survey and accident data analyses. The authors emphasise that, in fact, not much is known about the exact size of the group of migrant workers and the nature of the risks they are exposed to; most information is therefore mainly guesswork and coloured by anecdotes. Guldenmund and colleagues (2012, p. 7) conclude that the vulnerability of migrant workers might best be explained on situational (instead of cultural) grounds. Migrants might, for example, encounter difficulties in receiving and/or fully understanding safety instructions owing to language and/or literacy problems. Moreover, they often settle for poor and unsafe working conditions as their primary concern is to make money to avoid going home empty handed (this is especially true of seasonal agricultural workers and those employed on temporary construction projects).

2.5.   Conclusions

In this chapter we have discussed how national culture may affect workers' attitudes, preferences, perceptions, behaviours and performance. Following a general overview of cross-cultural theories and frameworks in relation to the workplace, the focus was on national cultural influences on workers' behaviour and organisations' performance with regard to occupational safety. The findings and conclusions are of particular relevance to organisations (e.g. multinationals) that need to manage and promote OSH among foreign but culturally homogeneous work teams. The key issue, in this regard, is to what extent national cultural characteristics should and can be taken into account when dealing with a specific group of workers of a particular nationality.

A number of cross-cultural theories/frameworks exist, each of which tries to order and differentiate nations on the basis of specific values and related dimensions. The most popular framework in this regard is the one by Hofstede, although comparable approaches, such as that of the GLOBE project, are also applied. Hofstede's theory distinguishes four main cultural dimensions, i.e. PDI (Power Distance), IDV (Individualism–Collectivism), MAS (Masculinity–Femininity) and UAI (Uncertainty Avoidance). Country scores for each of these dimensions have been generated through multiple studies worldwide, which enable cultural comparisons between societies. Based

on these dimensions and scores, nations have been grouped into cultural clusters. According to GLOBE, for example, European countries are grouped into Nordic, Germanic, Latin, Eastern European and Anglo clusters. Within each cluster, however, countries can still be compared on the basis of their dimension scores. It is very important to keep in mind that these cultural dimensions and related country scores reflect the averages; considerable differences still exist within a society—between regions, ethnic groups and individuals.

Cross-cultural theories and studies enable researchers to tell something about culturally endorsed differences in attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace. This knowledge should be taken into account particularly when, among other things, designing an organisation's structure and hierarchy, defining the role of managers and their relationship with workers, outlining human resources policies and decision-making strategies, and organising (leadership) training programmes. Workers in collectivist, high power distance cultures (low IDV and high PDI) appear, for instance, to prefer structured roles, clear directions and feedback, and close, trusting relationships with their direct supervisor, in comparison with workers from more individualistic, low power distance cultures. With regard to the way conflicts are handled in the workplace, people in collectivist, feminine societies (such as those in Scandinavia) seem, on average, more motivated than workers in more individualist, masculine cultures to seek win–win solutions to conflicts.

Some scholars have tried to use cross-cultural theories to explain possible differences in the way people behave and organisations perform when it comes to occupational safety. Several assumptions can be made in this regard, although the research evidence base on this matter is very weak:

- PDI: workers from higher power distance cultures accept instructions from their superiors more readily. Conversely, safety could be more at stake if subordinates do not challenge superiors' decisions in certain circumstances.
- IDV: workers from collectivist cultures tend to communicate better and are more team oriented.
- MAS: workers from masculine cultures tend to show macho, risk-taking behaviour, whereas femininity is more about valuing people and relationships, which could extend to concerns about OSH and well-being.
- UAI: workers from cultures with higher uncertainty avoidance are more likely to comply with (safety) rules and procedures but, on the other hand, may be less flexible, creative and resilient in unexpected situations or emergencies.

These culturally rooted differences have, in some cases, been able to explain certain variations in safety behaviour and performance across work teams, within and/or between (multinational) organisations, e.g. Taras and colleagues (2011) concluded after 30 years of research that national culture is one of the best predictors of attitudes, behaviours and performance in the workplace. However, some researchers argue that the link between cultural background and workplace safety would be, on the whole, mostly based on anecdotal accounts, and that situational/organisational grounds are more important than national cultural grounds when it comes to managing OSH (see, for example, Mearns and Yule, 2009; Guldenmund et al., 2012). Research on this topic has confirmed that leadership is crucial to good performance in OSH (see section 3.2). This means that managers, at all levels of an organisation (i.e. from senior management to operational supervisors) need to be committed and demonstrate in clear words and actions that OSH is a key priority for them. This requires making time and effort for this to happen, involving workers in establishing clear and consistent OSH policies, procedures and practices, and recognising and reinforcing the right safety behaviours.

Notwithstanding the fact that proximal influences (including leadership and participation) have been shown to be more important to OSH than distal influences such as national culture, the latter may be of increasing relevance in this age of economic globalisation. This holds especially true for organisations that expand into other countries and assign managers of a different nationality (particularly when it concerns Western people in non-Western environments). In such cases, managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred/required in the host country in order to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts in the subordinate–superior relationship arising from cultural differences and, as such, improve the effectiveness of their leadership. Here much depends on the manager's cross-cultural adaptability skills.

3. Multicultural aspects, heterogeneous work teams and OSH

So far, we have given an overview of the literature on cross-cultural differences. Research shows that various dimensions within national cultures influence performance. Moreover, cultures in general differ in their preferred organisational leaders. We have noted that, in some cultures, participative leadership is the preferred leadership style, whereas in others leaders have more influence when they take a directive leadership approach.

However, the extent of cultural differences in culturally diverse organisations is infinite. Moreover, differences exist not only among cultures but also among the people from those cultures. For instance, an employee with Turkish nationality who has been living in France all his or her life may not identify with Turkey. Various employees from Spain may have completely different personalities that influence their identity more than their common Spanish background. Male employees may behave differently from female employees. Older employees may have different values from younger employees. Consequently, although knowledge about cultural differences may be useful, it may not be sufficient in dealing with cultural diversity in organisations.

Not surprisingly, therefore, there is a valuable amount of research describing the effects of cultural differences, regardless of cultural dimensions, as well as the body of research describing effective diversity management.

In this chapter, we will give an overview of the consequences of diversity on work teams and organisations. This will be followed by an overview of studies describing effective diversity management. Finally, as the focus of this report is on OSH in relation to diverse work teams, we will outline the relation between effective diversity management and effective management of OSH.

3.1. Diversity's consequences, a double-edged sword

Diversity has a broad range of both positive and negative effects. In this respect, diversity has often been called a double-edged sword (Milliken and Martins, 1996). Positive effects include its potential for creativity and flexibility in work teams. Cultural diversity within work teams may provide a rich source of knowledge and ideas (McLeod and Lobel, 1992; Watson et al., 1993; McLeod et al., 1996), thereby fostering innovation. It has been argued that, in increasingly competitive, dynamic and global markets, the challenges are best met with a diverse workforce (Pless and Maak, 2004, p. 130).

However, many negative effects have been reported with respect to effective team processes and performance (Milliken and Martins, 1996). Diversity among employees yields tensions, misunderstanding and conflict. Homogeneous teams seem to outperform diverse teams (Thomas, 1999; Jehn and Bezrukova, 2004). Negative consequences are also found with respect to communication, job satisfaction, absences and conflicts (for an overview, see Milliken and Martins, 1996; Williams and O'Reilly, 1998; Pless and Maak, 2004; Mannix and Neale, 2005). Moreover, people who are different from most of their colleagues have higher turnover levels (Tsui et al., 1992) and often feel discriminated against (Bochner and Hesketh, 1994). In the Netherlands, for instance, more than half of the employees of foreign backgrounds report feeling discriminated against by their native Dutch colleagues (SOAG, 2003). And it is important not to forget that diversity poses a challenge for OSH, as already pointed out in Chapter 1, which is the rationale for this study.

A literature study on migrant workers (EU-OSHA, 2011, p. 31) concludes that migrants in Ireland, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom more often feel that they experience discrimination from managers and colleagues and report communication problems, bullying, sexual harassment and intimidation. Research shows that discrimination in terms of wage differences and perceived racism is also a problem in Belgium, Austria and Switzerland (literature study on migrant workers, EU-OSHA, 2011, p. 21). Immigrants in the Netherlands also report lower levels of job satisfaction, especially when they have little contact with Dutch colleagues (Verkuyten et al., 1993). A literature study on migrant workers (EU-OSHA, 2011, p. 33) confirms that stress and burnout are higher among migrants than among nationals, and job satisfaction levels are lower in many countries in Europe, i.e. Spain, Finland, Sweden and United Kingdom. A study by Idea, 2004 (2004; in Belgium

reports that social integration among migrants and nationals greatly depends on task interdependency; when migrants have specific job assignments or temporary work relations, the two groups become separated and make less effort to make contact with each other. Moreover, migrants often feel accepted to the extent that they share the local culture.

Previous research (EU-OSHA, 2011, p. 21) has also focused on market segmentation, showing that migrants predominantly have access to work that is characterised by a high degree of uncertainty, poor working conditions, part-time jobs and low wages (Verhoeven, 2000; Pochobradsky et al., 2002,). In addition, migrant workers are more often overqualified for their jobs than native workers (OECD, 2006). Another problem reported in the literature study on migrant workers (EU-OSHA, 2011, p. 23) concerns language differences, which often form a barrier. Moreover, this interesting report concludes that "working conditions of migrant workers are often more unfavourable than those of native workers: work is more often physically demanding and monotonous, working hours are longer, wages lower and migrant workers tend to do more often shift work than native workers". The authors conclude that no differences in occupational accident rates are found when migrants and nationals work in the same jobs in the same organisation. However, overall, migrants do seem to be more often involved in occupational accidents.

3.1.1. Explaining the challenge of diversity in work teams

From a social and organisational psychology approach, much attention has been paid to explaining the negative effects of diversity in organisations using the concept of identification. "Organisational identification aligns individual interests and behaviours with interest and behaviours that benefit the organisation. It means that exertion on behalf of the organisation, is exertion on behalf of the self." (Dutton et al.,1994, p. 256). Employees with high levels of identification feel part of their organisation. As such, identification has been shown to relate to various work outcomes in organisations (Van Dick et al., 2001; Haslam et al., 2003; Van Knippenberg and Ellemers, 2003; Van Dick, et al., 2004). Identification is related to job satisfaction. People with high identification levels are less likely to leave the organisation. In addition, high identification levels are related to organisational citizenship behaviour. This behaviour includes work beyond its function description but that is essential for team and organisational functioning, for instance helping colleagues out and occasionally working late to get the work done.

Organizational socialization is the process of conveying the organization's goals, norms, and preferred ways of doing things to members. Through the socialization process, members come to understand values, abilities, expected behaviours, and social knowledge essential for assuming a specific organizational role and for participating as an accepted member […].

There are three relatively distinct aspects of organizational socialization:

The development of work abilities

The acquisition of appropriate role behaviours

The adjustment to the work group's norms and values (Feldman, 1981)

[….] In discussions of diversity, the often overlooked third stage is particularly critical. The third stage is when the newcomer, who may be by then an "old-timer", "acquires organisationally appropriate attitudes and behaviours, resolves intra- and inter organizational conflicts and begins efforts to individualize his or her organizational role" (Jablin, 1987).

It is in this third stage of on-going small-scale socialization, that the intimate knowledge—the unspoken, unwritten, and sometimes most critical information—about getting along in an organisation—is transmitted. These unspoken rules and norms may be more difficult for culturally different members to learn, especially when these members are not part of the informal social networks of their organizations.

Likewise, Harquail and Cox (1993) in their book *Cultural Diversity in Organisations* describe the importance of organisational socialisation. They outline the following (pp.161–176):

It can be argued that successful socialisation will result in identification with the organisation. Therefore, Luijters and colleagues (2008) examined the relation between cultural values (Schwartz, 2002) held by employees from a large Dutch employment agency and their levels of organisational and team identification. The results of this study confirm that identification is positively related to perceived similarity in cultural values (Luijters et al., 2008). This implies that culturally diverse work teams, with lower perceived similarity, may have lower identification levels in their team members. Indeed, identification with a culturally diverse group is often lower than identification with a culturally homogeneous group (O'Reilly, Caldwell and Barnett, 1989; Tsui et al., 1992; Chattopadhyay et al., 2004).

In short, cultural diversity constitutes a challenge for the socialisation and identification of employees with the work team and organisation. However, both are important predictors of various work processes and outcomes. In line with the challenge to increase levels of identification, Pless and Maak (2004) pose the challenge of creating a "truly inclusive work environment where people from diverse backgrounds feel respected and recognised, given the fact that diversity is essentially about cultural norms and values".

3.1.2. Managing diversity in work teams

As we outlined in the previous section, cultural diversity challenges organisational identification and the socialisation levels of its employees. In this regard, Harquail and Cox (1993) describe the concept of cultural distance, which refers to the degree of difference on specific dimensions of culture content. For example, with respect to cultural dimensions, described in Chapter 2, the distance is small, in terms of the dimension of masculinity, when an employee with a low score for masculinity joins an organisation that also scores low on masculinity. The distance is large when an employee with a low score for masculinity enters an organisation that scores high on masculinity.

When the cultural distance is large, there is a risk of pressure to assimilate. According to Harquail and Cox (1993, p. 166): "Assimilation is a one-way adaptation in which an organisation's culture becomes the standard of behaviour for all other cultures merging into the organisation. The goal of assimilation is to eliminate cultural differences, or at least the expression of the different (non-dominant) cultures at work. To accomplish this, entering members who are culturally different from the organisation's culture must reject or at least repress the norms, values, and practices of the socioculture from which they have come."

Schubert and Dijkstra (2009, p. 792) conclude in their study that assimilation pressure is a problem: "Within the Netherlands, cultural differences tend to be denied in work teams, as equal treatment has become a Dutch social ideal.". They find in their study that this attitude has negative consequences for occupational safety. In line with this study, Ely and Thomas (2001) argue that a perspective that assumes that everybody is similar, and therefore deserves equal treatment, is maladaptive in a diverse work context. Such a perspective is "characterized by a belief in a culturally diverse workforce as a moral imperative to ensure justice and the fair treatment of all members of society" (Ely and Thomas, 2001, p. 245). As a result, problems are often not addressed, and managers deny a link between diversity and the central goals of a work team, such as performance.

3.1.3. Building an inclusive organisational culture

In their article, Pless and Maak (2004) describe an inclusive organisation, reflecting integration instead of assimilation. They define an inclusive organisation as "an organisational environment that allows people with multiple backgrounds, mindsets and ways of thinking to work effectively together and to perform to their highest potential in order to achieve organisational objectives based on sound principles". They argue that recognition of team members, mutual understanding and trust/integrity, as well as the possibility of having a plurality of standpoints, is necessary in achieving this inclusive organisation.

Harquail and Cox (1993) describe three cultural content factors that are important for managing diversity. The first factor, "tolerance of ambiguity", is an individual personality trait that is also relevant on an organisational level. According to Meyerson and Lewis (1992), it reflects the assumption of an organisation that ambiguities are legitimate and normal. In line with Pless and Maak (2004), this factor would contribute to a plurality of standpoints within the organisation.

The second organisational content factor is "valuing diversity". Organisations that do not value cultural diversity highly tend to put pressure on all members to conform to the organisations' existing norms and values, thus imposing an assimilationist approach on acculturation. An organisation that puts high value on the diversity norm welcomes cultural exchange and interaction (Harquail and Cox, 1993, p. 169).

The third content factor is "a low-prescription culture", in which core values are integrity and quality, for which a wide range of work styles and behaviours are defined as appropriate. It includes delaying evaluation until ideas are clearly understood. Evaluation is done thoroughly. In addition, calculated risks are tolerated and encouraged and provide a learning opportunity. Moreover, greater attention is paid to positive behaviours than to negative behaviours, and, lastly, employees have the scope to create their own approach to work. In such a culture, narrow views, quick criticism, risk aversion and intolerance of mistakes and technical details on how the work should be done are absent.

3.1.4.   Integration and learning management perspective

What can organisational management do to promote an inclusive organisational culture? Rather than assume that everybody is similar (Ely and Thomas, 2001; the discrimination and fairness perspective), Ely and Thomas (2001) argue that the integration and learning perspective on diversity is "the only perspective that enables organisations to achieve the sustained benefits from diversity". In this perspective, which contributes to the "low-prescription culture" (Luijters, 2008), "diversity is seen as a resource for learning, change and renewal. In addition, diversity is included in the organisation's mission. Managers stimulate diversity in all segments of their organisation, and truly value and stimulate different approaches to work, different opinions and insight." (Thomas and Ely, 1996). In a study among Dutch managers (Luijters, 2008, p. 135), one manager in healthcare, for instance, stated: "Moroccan, Surinamese and Turkish people treat their elderly differently. You can learn a lot from that."

3.1.5.   Transformational leadership and leader-member exchange

On a team leader level, transformational leadership is a leadership style that challenges employees to think about old problems in new ways and stimulates the work team to work on shared goals (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Transformational leaders are role models who provide inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation and show individualised consideration. In addition, they are assumed to facilitate team performance by aligning team members' goals and values and by fostering collective optimism, efficacy and identification. Kearney and Gebert (2009) showed that this leadership style is very effective in culturally diverse work teams.

Another important factor at the team leader level, are leader–member relations. High-quality leader–member exchange is generally associated with more open and egalitarian communication with respect to non-routine problems (see Christians et al., 2009; see also Fairhurst, 1993; Liden et al., 1997). However, in culturally diverse work teams, high leader–member relations pose a challenge. Therefore, Starren et al. (2012), in their overview, conclude that effective leader–member exchange in a multicultural setting requires effective intercultural communication skills.

3.1.6.   Intercultural competences

The literature also describes competences that are relevant in culturally diverse work teams. For instance, Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, 2001) discuss five intercultural traits that are expected to contribute to intercultural effectiveness. These traits relate to effective coping with intercultural situations: cultural empathy is defined as the ability to empathise with the feelings,

thoughts and behaviours of members of different groups; open-mindedness refers to an open and unprejudiced attitude towards different cultural norms and values; social initiative is defined as a tendency to approach social situations in an active way and to initiate them; emotional stability refers to the tendency to remain calm in stressful situations; and, finally, flexibility is characterised as the tendency to consider new and unknown situations as challenging and the ability to adjust one's behaviour to the demands of new and unknown situations. Those five traits are expected to enhance intercultural communication among team members. In this respect, it can be argued that both team leaders and team members benefit from these intercultural effectiveness competences.

Another relevant study to mention is that by Lloyd and Härtel (2009). In their quantitative data survey, they examined the relation between various competences and satisfaction, trust and affective commitment with their work teams. They concluded that (i) dissimilarity openness and (ii) tolerance of ambiguity are important.

1. Lloyd and Härtel (2009) explain dissimilarity openness as "Individuals high on the dimension of openness to perceived dissimilarity view difference as positive, and are open to learning from dissimilar others and make an effort to see dissimilar others' point of view. Individuals low on this dimension, on the other hand, view difference as negative, and are closed to seeing the dissimilar others' point of view." (Fujimoto et al., 2000, p. 48). This closely resembles the concept of "open-mindedness" of Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, 2001). For example, in some nationalities it is "normal" to take a day off work for a family birthday, whereas in (individual-oriented) Western Europe this is uncommon. It is important to be aware that such cultural differences may exist and to try to understand unexpected behaviour without judging it. In this way, people should feel free and be able to talk about it at an early stage. Another example is the concept of "prevention", i.e. the concept of trying to prevent accidents from happening. In some more deterministic cultures, this concept of influencing reality and the concept of prevention is not self-evident; attempting to prevent accidents can be counterintuitive.

   Tolerance of ambiguity, on the other hand, is defined as "the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable versus a source of threat" (Lloyd and Härtel, 2009, p. 849). In this respect, tolerance of ambiguity implies "the ability to deal successfully with situations, even when a great deal of information needed to interact effectively is unknown" (Gudykunst, 1993, p. 59). This concept seems to overlap the concept of flexibility.

2. However, contrary to the studies by Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, 2001), Lloyd and Härtel (2009) conclude that cultural empathy failed to reach significance. In line with Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven's concepts of emotional stability, on the other hand, the ability to regulate one's own emotions, to display emotions and to understand emotions in others were found to contribute to satisfaction, trust and affective commitment in culturally diverse work teams.

3.2. Managing OSH in culturally diverse work teams

We have described the general consequences of diversity in the workplace and provided some examples of how to manage diversity in an effective way. In this section we will focus on what this means for managing OSH. Earlier, in Chapter 2, we emphasised the importance of organisational leadership for managing OSH in cross-cultural settings. Good leadership, in general, seems to play a more important role in managing OSH in other cultures than the availability of a "checklist of national cultural characteristics". Moreover, the differences in characteristics can be over-rated and lead to stereotypes. The differences between people are endless, but may also be irrelevant for some members of a specific culture, thus inducing feelings of discrimination in cultural minorities. On the other hand, we have seen that cultural values are related to certain leadership styles, proving that cultural differences do exist. In the context of cross-cultural aspects, Elsler (2006) concluded, for example, that some leadership styles are more effective than others in specific (cultural) regions (EU-OSHA, 2012a). In this chapter we will look at leadership again, but now from a different perspective: What is effective leadership in terms of enhancing OSH in culturally diverse

work teams? We take into account all kinds of differences, for instance those in risk perception, background education and preferred leadership style.

3.2.1. Effective leadership for safe and healthy performance

There is much research on effective leadership and specific leadership styles.[26] Regarding safety performance, research has focused on the effects of bad leadership behaviour (e.g. abusive and destructive leadership) and on positive forms of leadership (Kelloway and Barling, 2010). The most prevalent theory in this regard is that of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has been found to enhance safety performance, in terms of the extent to which organisations are able to prevent accidents (Koster et al., 2011), safety compliance and safety participation (e.g. Zohar, 2000, cited in Inness et al., 2010; Clarke and Ward, 2006). This theory distinguishes three leadership styles:

- transactional leadership
- transformational leadership
- laissez-faire leadership (see, for example, Bass and Riggio, 2006).

According to this theory, the basis of all leadership is *a* "transactional" relationship between leaders and subordinates, in which the leaders provide incentives/rewards or punishments depending on whether their subordinates do or do not meet certain (formally or informally) agreed goals. These rewards are not only financial but also social in nature, such as personal attention or recognition. Transactional behaviours are used in the daily interactions of all leaders with their subordinates.

Only some leaders use a *transformational* component in addition to the transactional one (Flin and Yule, 2004). The following four types of transformational behaviour are distinguished (Bass and Riggio, 2006): (i) the leader acts as a role model ("idealised influence"); (ii) the leader provides meaning and challenge to subordinates' work ("inspirational motivation"); (iii) the leader encourages subordinates to be creative and approach problems in new ways ("intellectual stimulation"); and (iv) the leader pays attention to the individual subordinate's needs and provides coaching and mentoring ("individualised consideration").

A third leadership component of transformational leadership theory is the "*laissez-faire" (passive) style*. Leaders with a laissez-faire style do not lead; they avoid making decisions, delay actions and ignore leadership responsibilities (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The transformational leadership style is strongly associated with a low degree of worker stress and high well-being among subordinates; transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are less consistently related to employee outcomes.

Another theory in relation to leadership that is often used within OSH research, is the leader–member exchange (LMX) theory (see, for example, Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995), which focuses on the two-way relationship between leaders and their employees (Bochner, xxxx). It suggests that leaders develop relationships of different quality with individual subordinates. Workers who maintain good exchange relationships (and thus belong to the "in-group"—the inner circle of a certain work team or group) receive benefits that others who maintain suboptimal relationships (being part of the "out-group') do not get (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). There is considerable evidence that the quality of exchange relationship is related to several affective and behavioural outcomes (Hoffmann and Morgeson, 2004).

There is also a large body of research demonstrating that good managerial practices and leadership skills have a beneficial impact on worker employability and health, e.g. a lower level of musculoskeletal pain (Kuoppala et al., 2008). Kuoppala et al. (2008) found that the association between musculoskeletal pain and leadership style varied according to the sector studied: for instance, poor appraisals (low scores) on change and relation orientation were associated with high levels of musculoskeletal pain in the home and healthcare sectors. Poor appraisals by

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[26] Leadership styles refer to the nature and effectiveness of interpersonal relationships between leaders and members.

subordinates of their leaders' change dimension were most strongly associated with high levels of musculoskeletal pain (ibid.).

A particular behaviour from the leader or a part of a leadership style can inherently be either stressful or positive for employees and, consequently, influence their levels of stress and affective well-being (Skakon et al., 2010). In a recent systematic review of almost 30 years of empirical research (including more than 40 studies), Skakon et al. (2010) came to the following conclusions with regard to leader behaviour and specific leadership styles and worker stress and affective well-being:

- High levels of stress and poor affective well-being in leaders are associated with high stress levels and poor well-being among subordinates.
- Positive leader behaviours (empowerment, support and consideration) are positively related to worker affective well-being and low stress levels, whereas the opposite is the case for negative (abusive) leader behaviours.
- Good-quality relationships (see the LMX theory) are associated with employee well-being and low stress levels.

Gurt et al. (2011) recently defined the concept of "health-specific leadership". They describe it as the "leader's explicit consideration of and engagement in worker health", and demonstrate that it is clearly distinguishable from general leadership practices. It incorporates a distinct set of leadership behaviours, such as assuming responsibility for employee health, communicating health-related topics, setting the agenda for workplace health promotion and motivating employees to participate in it. In a way, this is a type of positive leadership behaviour, as defined by Skakon.

Just as with safety-specific leadership, which is shown to be positively related to safety climate, health-specific leadership is positively related to employees' perceptions of the health climate (the psychological climate for health).

This implies that leaders can also set the agenda for health by bringing up the topic, communicating the importance of employees' health, modelling healthy behaviour and supporting organisational health-promotion activities.

Eriksson and colleagues (2010) recently described a case study of a Swedish (Gothenburg) intervention programme supporting unit managers (such as head teachers of schools and managers of nursing homes) in so-called "health-promoting leadership", with the long-term goal of reducing sickness rates and increasing the attendance of employees. Health-promoting leadership is defined as "leadership that is concerned with creating a culture for health promoting workplaces and values to inspire and motivate the employees to participate in such a development" (Eriksson et al., 2010, p. 111). In such a leadership development, it is necessary to integrate health-promoting activities into the daily work of the managers and also to give them the scope to influence organisational and environmental conditions of importance. A programme aiming to develop health-promoting leadership needs to be context based and have a participatory approach, in order to identify and implement relevant courses of action for the managers and the specific workplaces involved.

3.2.2. Safety climate and leadership: creating an inclusive culture

After leadership, much attention is paid to the safety climate in relation to leadership and OSH performance. Starren and colleagues (2012) present a framework and a research agenda that may guide the current understanding of national culture and occupational safety and identify promising areas for research that advance the field. In their paper they looked at the safety climate as one of the predictors of knowledge and motivation regarding safety and thus safe behaviour. They state that "variation in cultural values may inhibit the formation of a shared safety climate, which in turn decreases safety knowledge and safety motivation, and this has important implications for safety participation as well as safety compliance" (Christian et al., 2009).

Research on safety climate is basically attitude research, as Guldenmund (2007) argued, which takes into account someone's "espoused values", i.e. conscious strategies, goals and even

philosophies (Schein, 1992). And when we speak about values, national culture becomes relevant. Values that determine someone's strategies and goals in work are influenced by culture (Hofstede, 2001; Schwartz, 1992). Starren and colleagues (2012) state that the same values exist in different cultures, as studied by, for example, Hofstede (2001) and Schwartz (1992), but that the importance of certain values varies among cultures. In this respect, it can be expected that individual perceptions of safety climate may vary in a culturally diverse work team. Consequently, in a culturally diverse workforce it may be more difficult to develop a shared vision on safety climate than in a workforce that includes a smaller number of different nationalities.

Interestingly, this assumption is confirmed by research on diversity management. In culturally diverse work teams, cultural minorities perceive their values to be less similar to those of their colleagues than do cultural majorities (Luijters et al., 2008), and have more problems defining shared goals and vision in their work team. In this respect, cultural differences have been found to relate to more conflict and less cohesion in work teams (for overviews of the consequences of diversity see, for instance, Williams and O'Reilly, 1998; Mannix and Neale, 2005). This implies that enhancing a constructive safety climate in a diverse workforce requires special attention. Therefore, work teams should pay particular attention to developing a shared vision on the safety climate. Again, it is the role of good leadership to develop such a shared vision in order to promote a constructive safety climate.

Pless and Maak (2004) emphasise that in order to unleash the potential of workforce diversity, *a culture of inclusion* needs to be established: a culture that fosters enhanced workforce integration and brings to life latent potential for diversity; and a culture that is built on clarified normative grounds and honours the differences as well as the similarities of the individual self and others. Every self is a human being, but as a unique person he or she is also always different from others. Diversity is about balancing this natural tension in different organisational or cultural settings.

What does the importance of an inclusive culture, of a shared vision of a safety climate, mean for leadership? How can safety be enhanced in culturally diverse work teams? Leaders have been shown to be able to have a positive influence on safe and healthy behaviour among employees (Flin, 2001). Thus, transformational leadership has been found to enhance safety performance, which is the extent to which organisations are able to prevent accidents (Koster et al., 2011), safety compliance and safety participation (e.g. Zohar, 2000, cited in Inness et al., 2010; Clarke and Ward, 2006). Interestingly, in the context of diversity management, transformational leadership is also very effective in increasing the cohesion of a diverse team (Dionne et al., 2004; Kearney and Gerbert, 2009; De Poel, 2011). Transformational leadership was already an important leadership style with respect to occupational safety. Now, we expect it to be even more important in work teams with high levels of cultural difference.

In this way the importance of the relational and interactive aspects of leadership, aimed at involving all people within the company, all members of teams, departments and areas in the ongoing processes of initiating, defining and realising projects and the company's objectives, comes more and more to the fore. In the relational role as mentor, coach, moderator, facilitator and cultivator, the leader is no longer the sole author of a particular reality, but rather becomes a co-author, and to some extent a lead author in a community of equal employees (Dachler and Dyllick, 1988; Dachler, 1992). The role of mentor and coach involves supporting employees in their development, thus, giving them advice and opening up new developmental perspectives and opportunities, as well as discussing and weighing alternatives. The leader as cultivator tries to secure a working climate in which diversity flourishes and creativity is harvested. In teams, setting this role would imply that the leader acts as a moderator and facilitator, aiming to integrating the diverse voices, including them in order to open up new vistas, getting them involved in the dialogue and providing the possibility for partnership, creativity and innovation (Pless, 1998).

With respect to participation, this means that management of OSH in a culturally diverse working environment requires an approach that includes multiple voices and one in which it becomes possible to broaden considerably the knowledge base for decision alternatives and increase the number of possible paths leading to solutions to problems (Nemeth and Wachtler, 1983; Nemeth, 1986; Shaw and Barrett-Power, 1998). Furthermore, by coordinating with the external environment and stakeholders of the corporation and including representatives from different groups in a "stakeholder dialogue", it becomes possible to achieve higher levels of trust, credibility and legitimacy in the critical public.

3.2.3. Development of effective leadership for OSH in diverse work teams

How can this change in leadership be stimulated? In this section we will elucidate leadership development for transformational leadership and enhancement of leader–member exchange.

Leadership development programmes (transformational leadership)

Based on their recent research review on leadership and OSH, Kelloway and Barling (2010, p. 269) conclude that there is clear and considerable evidence that the *development* of organisational leadership is effective (i.e. leading to enhanced perceptions of leadership) and should be regarded and applied as a real strategy in primary OSH prevention in organisations. Initiatives in leadership development concern, in this regard, mostly approaches such as general or OSH-specific (transformational) leadership training (workshops) or coaching (or combinations of both). This is in line with the leadership-based intervention model, as proposed by Zohar (2002). Clarke and Ward (2006) suggest, based on a study in a United Kingdom manufacturing company on the effect of "leader influence tactics" on safety participation,[27] that leadership development programmes should focus on managers' skills and confidence in using specific influencing tactics in order to enhance their effectiveness in gaining workers' commitment to safety. It concerns in particular the following tactics to influence subordinates:

- "rational persuasion", i.e. using logical arguments and factual evidence to convince subordinates
- "consultation", i.e. involving subordinates in the decision-making process
- "coalition", i.e. using co-workers to create pressure to comply
- "inspirational appeals", e.g. using emotional language to emphasise the importance of a new task or project and arouse enthusiasm.

Enhancement of leader–member exchange

As stated previously, the enhancement of leader–member exchange is expected to improve occupational safety and health (Christian et al., 2009). High-quality leader–member relations are generally associated with more open and egalitarian communication with respect to non-routine problems (see Christians et al., 2009; see also Fairkurst, 1993; Liden et al., 1997). However, in culturally diverse work teams, high leader–member relations pose a challenge. Diversity often leads to communication problems and conflict (for overviews of diversity consequences see Williams and O'Reilly, 1998; Mannix and Neale, 2005). Therefore, we would argue that enhancement of leader–member exchange in a multicultural setting is focused on the development of effective intercultural communication skills.

Conditions for specific training programmes

It should be mentioned that the specific training content and eventual effectiveness also depends on the actual target group within an organisation—being senior managers, middle managers and/or direct supervisors. Kelloway and Barling (2010, p. 275) refer in this regard to a meta-analytical review on the effectiveness of leadership interventions (Avolio et al., 2009), which found stronger effects at direct supervisor level than at middle and senior management level.

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[27] Workers' "safety participation" (helping co-workers, promoting the safety programme within the workplace, demonstrating initiative, and putting effort into improving safety in the workplace) and "safety compliance" (adhering to safety procedures and carrying out work in a safe manner) are considered two dimensions of "safety performance". Safety compliance involves engaging in behaviour that would be viewed as part of an employee's work role, whereas safety participation involves a greater voluntary element, including behaviour beyond the employee's formal role (Clarke and Ward, 2006, p. 1176).

According to Isaksson et al. (2010), leadership training programmes need not only be targeted at the direct supervisory level in an organisation but should also be targeted at the upper hierarchical levels. In this way, leadership development is embedded into the whole organisational context, which may help to prevent role conflict arising from a lack of coherence between the concepts taught in the training sessions and the actual behaviour of superiors (i.e. middle and senior managers) (Isaksson et al., 2010). Hofmann and Morgeson (2004, p. 172) stress, in this regard, that it may be worthwhile focusing leadership development on managing "seemingly contradictory goals", particularly on whether safety and health is or is not prioritised compared with production and other (relative) competing demands (e.g. leading to a work climate in which management accepts that workers take risks when the work schedule is tight).

Case: Intercultural workplace health management (BMW and IGA, Germany)

A precondition for business success is healthy and motivated employees, especially in times of growing pressure on market competition. Workers with a migration background have to face specific language and cultural challenges, which is also mirrored in higher accident and sick leave rates than national workers. Therefore, OSH should consider the different cultural backgrounds of staff, and the Initiative Health and Work (IGA) has developed such a concept for enterprises in Germany.

One of the first companies to put this innovative idea into practice is BMW in Munich. The objective is to improve the integration of workers from different countries of origin. Therefore, management was trained to deal better with cultural diversity and increase intercultural competences. Furthermore, a system of "health pilots" was developed: these are specifically trained workers in health promotion, who take over an important mediating role in relation to their colleagues. The health pilots, many of them with a migration background themselves; can help to overcome the typical language and sociocultural barriers for migrant workers, who often do not take advantage of company health promotion offers. Thus, the health pilots act as an important multiplier for occupational diversity management.

Intercultural workplace health management focuses on two factors that are easy for enterprises to influence:

▪ the leadership behaviour of direct superiors, especially towards workers with a migration background
▪ the involvement of workers in workplace health management, through, among other things, the training of intercultural workplace health pilots.

The three building blocks of intercultural workplace health management can be adapted to the situation of each company in a flexible way.

3. All responsible persons involved have to be sensitised to intercultural aspects. Specific problems of workers with diverse cultural backgrounds and the close relation between leadership and health have to be analysed, taking into account the specific situation of the company.
4. In a joint kick-off meeting between managers and workers, participation in the project is linked with a common network. Afterwards management is trained in culture-sensitive leadership styles, as leadership can have an important impact on workers' health, in either a positive or a negative way. Selected workers are trained as health pilots in order to become multipliers for workplace health promotion. At the end of the training the participants are asked to propose topics they regard as most important.
5. The proposals for further measures are fed back to the steering committee for workplace health promotion and integrated into further planning, allocating clear responsibilities and deadlines to relevant staff.

Reference: IGA (2011). Interkulturelles Betriebliches Gesundheitsmanagement. www.iga-info.de/fileadmin/Veroeffentlichungen/Einzelveroeffentlichungen/Interkulturelles_Betriebliches_Gesundheitsmanagement_Broschuere_2011.pdf

Case: Cultural awareness approach (STC Group, Netherlands, a maritime institute)

Traditionally, crews in the shipping industry have been multinational. This has led to communication issues on board as well as with company officers on shore. To address these issues, the STC Group in Rotterdam developed a training approach to enhance cultural awareness among maritime officers and also to stimulate a positive attitude towards intercultural differences, improving understanding of other cultures and improving intercultural competences.

Nowadays, the majority of crew members are of many nationalities, including Filipino, Chinese, Russian, Indian and Indonesian. Communication in the native language is provided by the shipping company to prepare them for working life aboard. In addition, new officers are given instruction on issues of diversity. But, despite these actions, problems related to intercultural communication still arise. In a study by Horck (2006), it was shown that in 70–80 % of all maritime accidents miscommunication owing to cultural differences played a role. In 2005 the STC Group was asked to develop a course for the maritime sector to enhance cultural awareness, but this still appeared to be insufficient. There was also a need to develop cultural competences. This led to the adjustment of the course in 2008 with additional attention paid to the development of cross-cultural skills.

One of the characteristics of life on a ship is the intimacy of working and living together. Good collaboration is vital as avoiding other crew members is neither possible nor desirable. To enhance communication and understanding, people are trained in competences in how to deal with people from different cultural backgrounds. Martin and Vaugh (2007) operationalised four components: (i) awareness of somebody's cultural perspective; (ii) attitude towards cultural differences; (iii) knowledge of different cultural habits and perspectives; and (iv) intercultural skills.

To prepare foreign crew members to work for shipping companies, training materials such as handouts, presentations, instructions, films, exercises, cases and background information on several countries are made freely available to shipping companies, maritime training institutes and nautical schools (in the Netherlands and abroad). The modular structure of the training course makes it suitable for combining with other training methods, such as Bridge Resource management training.

This approach has been successful, based on the requests of different parties for the course material and the support from the sector for updated/extended versions. Also, feedback forms show positive results.

Reference: STC Group (2008): Course material on cultural awareness on board.

Reference: Horck (2006): A mixed crew complement. Website HE Alert. http://dspace.mah.se/bitstream/handle/2043/5962/Licentiate_Horck.pdf.

Reference: Martin M and Vaughn W, 2007. *Strategic Diversity and Inclusion Management*. DTUI Publications Division, San Francisco, CA, pp. 31–36.

Case: Global Work talk

Interpreting and translating are well-known measures for overcoming language differences. Another measure is the minimum word strategy: use visual aids instead of words wherever possible.

http://global-work-talk.eu/

Case: HSE Equality Schemes (Health and Safety Executive (HSE), United Kingdom)

Changing working practices worldwide result in increasing workforce diversity, which may affect various areas, including people's health and safety in the workplace. The HSE as a national OSH authority promotes workers' equality and tackles work-related discrimination based on age, race, gender, disability, sexual orientation, religion or belief.

The HSE regularly deals with issues of diversity within the workplace. One of the first significant steps in this area was the development of the Race Equality Scheme 2002–2005 in 2002, which aimed to promote race equality for all groups in society at work and solve race equality issues for the HSE's own staff. Later, the Race Equality Schemes for 2005–2008 and 2008–2011 were published. The HSE also had equality schemes for disability and gender. In 2010 the HSE Single Equality Scheme was developed. It is based on HSE's previous progress on race, disability and gender equality, taking into account changing business priorities. When preparing the last scheme, as in the previous schemes, the main guidance was followed by detailed consideration of the most recent legislation, results of research and consultation and trends in the area of diversity.

Results of the development and implementation of the HSE Equality Schemes:

- publishing and promoting core information on OSH in key languages other than English and Welsh for both workers and employers
- developing and launching the Equality Impact Assessment Tool
- training new policy recruits and existing colleagues on Equality Impact Assessment
- developing the HSE's web page on race and migrant workers to suit the needs of different stakeholders—improving accessibility to information, research, case studies and good practice
- learning and development activities for the HSE's ethnic minority staff, including skills workshops (covering personal, leadership and organisational issues), mentoring, action learning sets, personal development activities, etc.

See also: www.hse.gov.uk/diversity/index.htm

3.3. Conclusions

Research shows that the style and quality of leadership are associated with, and predictive of, many OSH outcomes, ranging from workplace accidents and the organisational safety climate through to health issues such as musculoskeletal disorders, stress and workers' psychological well-being.

Transformational leadership and LMX (leader–member exchange) have always been important leadership styles with respect to occupational safety but they are likely to become even more important as work teams with high levels of cultural difference become more common.

As the combinations of cultural differences, individual differences and regulations are endless, it is important to train in competences that increase leaders', as well as team members', intercultural effectiveness.

After leadership, much attention is given to the aspect of the safety climate in relation to leadership and OSH performance. It is to be expected that individual perceptions of the safety climate will vary in a culturally diverse work team. Enhancing a constructive safety climate in a diverse workforce requires special attention. Therefore, work teams should pay special attention to developing a shared vision on the safety climate. Again, this requires an inclusive organisation, and it is the role of good leadership to develop such a shared vision.

Leadership development, mainly through the training of formal leaders at the different levels in an organisation, has in addition proven to be effective in positively influencing these OSH outcomes, and should therefore be considered further and applied as a primary prevention strategy (e.g. Kelloway and Barlin, 2010).

4. Conclusions and recommendations

In this review we have seen that diversity is an issue that leads to both positive effects (creativity, innovation and flexibility) and negative effects (conflicts, miscommunication, stress and OSH risks). The underlying mechanisms can be very complex. For example, research shows that migrants suffer more often from occupational accidents and diseases than nationals (e.g. IGA, 2010), but some authors argue that this apparent difference would disappear if we studied migrants and nationals in the same jobs in the same organisation (e.g. Guldenmund et al., 2012).

Cross-cultural theories and studies describe the differences in characteristics between cultures. It can be very helpful in explaining behaviour that may occur in multicultural teams, when several nationalities are working together, as well as in multinationals. This awareness can be taken into account when working in different cultures, e.g. in relation to the desired level of structured roles, clear directions and feedback, the relationship between subordinates and their direct supervisor and the way in which conflicts are handled. On the other hand, there is danger of over-rating the differences. It is important to recognise that every individual has several identities and there is a risk of stereotyping.

Recommendation 1

Address language barriers

The use of pictograms (rather than written procedures) can help to overcome language barriers by illustrating risks and (un)safe circumstances. It is, however, important to bear in mind that people with different cultural backgrounds may understand such pictograms in different ways. Setting up training programmes in OSH (including participative training, role playing, toolboxes, etc.) may also involve specific challenges when they are targeted at people with different national backgrounds.

Recommendation 2

Managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred in the host country

In this age of economic globalisation, cross-cultural differences are more and more relevant in organisations that expand into other countries and assign managers of a different nationality (particularly when it concerns Western people in non-Western environments). In these cases, managers should try to adapt their leadership behaviour to that preferred/required in the host country, in order to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts in the subordinate–superior relationship arising from cultural differences and, thereby, improve the effectiveness of their leadership. In this respect, much depends on the manager's cross-cultural adaptation skills. Courses in leadership and communication need to take into account which leadership or communication style(s) would provide the best cultural fit. Therefore, the leadership dimensions that characterise different cultural regions and countries should be taken as a starting-point for cross-cultural training.

Recommendation 3

Train the workforce in competences that increase intercultural effectiveness at all levels

The literature also describes competences that are relevant in culturally diverse work teams. The combinations of cultural differences, individual differences and, differences in national regulations and education systems are endless. Therefore, it is important to train the workforce in competences that increase the intercultural effectiveness of leaders as well as that of team members. Examples of traits that are associated with effective coping in intercultural situations are cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. Such traits are expected to enhance intercultural communication among team members, and both team leaders and team members may benefit from these intercultural effectiveness competences.

Leadership development has also been proven to be effective in positively influencing OSH outcomes, and should therefore be given further consideration and applied as a primary prevention strategy. Intercultural competences in leadership, such as transformational behaviour and leader–member exchange can be developed, e.g. by role playing or interacting with short film scripts. In

cross-cultural training, it is important that the structure of the training fits national preferences. Moreover, it is important to ensure that training of formal leaders applies to all hierarchical levels in an organisation. Leadership development has to be embedded into the whole organisational context, and this may help to prevent role conflict resulting from a lack of coherence between the concepts taught in the training sessions and the actual behaviour of superiors.

Recommendation 4

Stimulate an inclusive working environment in which people from diverse backgrounds feel respected and recognised

Identification within a culturally diverse group is often lower than identification in a culturally homogeneous group. Identification and socialisation are relevant for various work processes and outcomes, and identification appears to be a key element in explaining negative aspects of organisational diversity. This has created the need for a "truly inclusive work environment".

An "inclusive" organisation allows people with multiple backgrounds, mindsets and ways of thinking to work together effectively and to perform to their highest potential in order to achieve organisational objectives based on sound principles. In this respect, cultural diversity is not something to deny; it is seen as a resource for learning, change and renewal, and so should be included in the organisation's mission. Moreover, an inclusive working environment is supportive of the existing safety climate. Research shows that the style and quality of leadership is associated with, and predictive of, many OSH outcomes, ranging from workplace accidents and the organisational safety climate to health issues such as musculoskeletal disorders, stress and workers' psychological well-being. Leadership styles that support an inclusive organisation are, for example, transformational leadership, which challenges employees to think about old problems in new ways and stimulates the team to work on shared goals, and high-quality leader–member exchange, which is generally associated with more open and egalitarian communication with respect to non-routine problems. These leadership styles were already important in terms of occupational safety. Now, however, we expect them to be even more important in work teams with high levels of cultural difference.

Concluding remarks

We conclude by emphasising the role of leadership in intercultural effectiveness. Leaders have been shown to positively influence safe and healthy behaviour in employees. It is interesting to note that the leadership dimensions that enhance OSH coincide with those that promote effective diversity management. For this reason, we believe that effective leadership, by means of transformational leadership, leader–member exchange, etc., will enhance OSH in general, but in particular in a culturally diverse work team, by enhancing team identification.

With respect to participation, this means that management of OSH in a culturally diverse working environment demands an approach that includes multiple voices, and one in which it is possible to considerably broaden the knowledge base for alternative decisions and to increase the number of possible paths leading to solutions to problems.

4.1.   Acknowledgements

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Annexes

5.1. Annex A: Overview of EU country scores on Hofstede's dimensions

Country	Power Distance (PDI)	Individualism - Collectivism (IDV)	Masculinity (MAS)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Long-term Orientation (LTO)
Albania					61
Andorra					
Austria	11	55	79	70	60
Belarus					81
Belgium	65	75	54	94	82
Bosnia					70
Bulgaria	70	30	40	85	69
Croatia	73	33	40	80	58
Cyprus					
Czech Republic	57	58	57	74	70
Denmark	18	74	16	23	35
Estonia	40	60	30	60	82
Finland	33	63	26	59	38
France	68	71	43	86	63
Germany	35	67	66	65	83
Great Britain	35	89	66	35	51
Greece	60	35	57	112	45
Hungary	46	80	88	82	58
Iceland					28
Ireland	28	70	68	35	24
Italy	50	76	70	75	61
Latvia	44	70	9	63	69
Lithuania	42	60	19	65	82
Luxembourg	40	60	50	70	64
Macedonia, the former Yugoslav Republic					62
Malta	56	59	47	96	47
Montenegro					75
Netherlands	38	80	14	53	67
Norway	31	69	8	50	35
Poland	68	60	64	93	38
Portugal	63	27	31	104	28
Romania	90	30	42	90	52
Serbia	86	25	43	92	52
Slovak Republic	104	52	110	51	77
Slovenia	71	27	19	88	49
Spain	57	51	42	86	48
Sweden	31	71	5	29	53
Switzerland	34	68	70	58	74
Turkey	66	37	45	85	46

5.2. Annex B: Overview of worldwide country scores on Hofstede's dimensions

Country	Power Distance (PDI)	Individualism - Collectivism (IDV)	Masculinity (MAS)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Long-term Orientation (LTO)
Africa East	64	27	41	52	32
Africa West	77	20	46	54	9
Albania					61
Algeria					26
Andorra					
Arab countries	80	38	53	68	23
Argentina	49	46	56	86	20
Armenia					61
Australia	36	90	61	51	21
Austria	11	55	79	70	60
Azerbaijan					61
Bangladesh	80	20	55	60	47
Belarus					81
Belgium	65	75	54	94	82
Bosnia					70
Brazil	69	38	49	76	44
Bulgaria	70	30	40	85	69
Burkina Faso					27
Canada	39	80	52	48	36
Canada French	54	73	45	60	
Chile	63	23	28	86	31
China	80	20	66	30	87
Colombia	67	13	64	80	13
Costa Rica	35	15	21	86	
Croatia	73	33	40	80	58
Cyprus					
Czech Rep	57	58	57	74	70
Denmark	18	74	16	23	35
Dominican Rep					13
Ecuador	78	8	63	67	
Egypt					7
El Salvador	66	19	40	94	20
Estonia	40	60	30	60	82
Finland	33	63	26	59	38
France	68	71	43	86	63
Georgia					38
Germany	35	67	66	65	83
Germany East					78
Ghana					4
Great Britain	35	89	66	35	51
Greece	60	35	57	112	45
Guatemala	95	6	37	101	
Hong Kong	68	25	57	29	61

5.2. Annex B: Overview of worldwide country scores on Hofstede's dimensions

Country	Power Distance (PDI)	Individualism - Collectivism (IDV)	Masculinity (MAS)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Long-term Orientation (LTO)
Hungary	46	80	88	82	58
Iceland					28
India	77	48	56	40	51
Indonesia	78	14	46	48	62
Iran	58	41	43	59	14
Iraq					25
Ireland	28	70	68	35	24
Israel	13	54	47	81	38
Italy	50	76	70	75	61
Jamaica	45	39	68	13	
Japan	54	46	95	92	88
Jordan					16
Korea South	60	18	39	85	100
Kyrgyz Rep					66
Latvia	44	70	9	63	69
Lithuania	42	60	19	65	82
Luxembourg	40	60	50	70	64
Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia					62
Malaysia	104	26	50	36	41
Mali					20
Malta	56	59	47	96	47
Mexico	81	30	69	82	24
Moldova					71
Montenegro					75
Morocco	70	46	53	68	14
Netherlands	38	80	14	53	67
New Zealand	22	79	58	49	33
Nigeria					13
Norway	31	69	8	50	35
Pakistan	55	14	50	70	50
Panama	95	11	44	86	
Peru	64	16	42	87	25
Philippines	94	32	64	44	27
Poland	68	60	64	93	38
Portugal	63	27	31	104	28
Puerto Rico					0
Romania	90	30	42	90	52
Russia	93	39	36	95	81
Rwanda					18
Saudi Arabia					36
Serbia	86	25	43	92	52
Singapore	74	20	48	8	72
Slovak Rep	104	52	110	51	77

5.2. Annex B: Overview of worldwide country scores on Hofstede's dimensions

Country	Power Distance (PDI)	Individualism - Collectivism (IDV)	Masculinity (MAS)	Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI)	Long-term Orientation (LTO)
Slovenia	71	27	19	88	49
South Africa					34
South Africa white	49	65	83	49	
Spain	57	51	42	86	48
Suriname	85	47	37	92	
Sweden	31	71	5	29	53
Switzerland	34	68	70	58	74
Taiwan	58	17	45	69	93
Tanzania					34
Thailand	64	20	34	64	32
Trinidad and Tobago	47	16	58	55	13
Turkey	66	37	45	85	46
U.S.	40	91	62	46	26
Uganda					24
Ukraine					86
Uruguay	61	36	38	100	26
Venezuela	81	12	73	76	16
Vietnam	70	20	40	30	57
Zambia					30
Zimbabwe					15

Source: www.geerthofstede.nl/research--vsm (acessed 20 June 2012).

5.3. Annex C: EU foreign and foreign-born population by group of citizenship and country of birth, 2010

| Country | Total population | Foreigners | | | | | | Foreign-born | | | | | |
| | | Total | | Citizens of (other) EU Member States | | Citizens of non-EU countries | | Total | | Born in (other) EU Member States | | Born in a non-EU country | |
	(1000)	(1000)	(%)	(1000)	(%)	(1000)	(%)	(1000)	(%)	(1000)	(%)	(1000)	(%)
EU-27 *s*	501,098.0	32,493.2	6.5	12,336.0	2.5	20,157.2	4.0	47,347.8	9.4	15,979.9	3.2	31,367.9	6.3
Belgium *p*	10,839.9	1,052.8	9.7	715.1	6.6	337.7	3.1						
Bulgaria	7,563.7												
Czech Republic	10,506.8	424.4	4.0	137.0	1.3	287.4	2.7	398.5	3.8	126.4	1.2	272.1	2.6
Denmark	5,534.7	329.8	6.0	115.5	2.1	214.3	3.9	500.8	9.0	152.2	2.8	348.6	6.3
Germany	81,802.3	7,130.9	8.7	2,546.3	3.1	4,584.7	5.6	9,812.3	12.0	3,396.6	4.2	6,415.7	7.8
Estonia	1,340.1	212.7	15.9	11.0	0.8	201.7	15.1	217.9	16.3	16.6	1.2	201.3	15.0
Ireland	4,467.9	384.4	8.6	309.4	6.9	75.0	1.7	565.6	12.7	437.2	9.8	128.4	2.9
Greece	11,305.1	954.8	8.4	163.1	1.4	791.7	7.0	1,256.0	11.1	315.7	2.8	940.3	8.3
Spain	45,989.0	5,663.5	12.3	2,327.8	5.1	3,335.7	7.3	6,422.8	14.0	2,328.6	5.1	4,094.2	8.9
France	64,716.3	3,769.0	5.8	1,317.6	2.0	2,451.4	3.8	7,196.5	11.1	2,118.1	3.3	5,078.4	7.8
Italy	60,340.3	4,235.1	7.0	1,241.3	2.1	2,993.7	5.0	4,798.7	8.0	1,592.8	2.6	3,205.9	5.3
Cyprus	803.1	127.3	15.9	83.5	10.4	43.8	5.5	150.7	18.8	42.2	5.3	108.5	13.5
Latvia	2,248.4	392.2	17.4	9.7	0.4	382.4	17.0	343.3	15.3	36.9	1.6	306.4	13.6
Lithuania	3,329.0	37.0	1.1	2.4	0.1	34.6	1.0	215.3	6.5	31.6	0.9	183.7	5.5
Luxembourg	502.1	215.7	43.0	186.2	37.1	29.5	5.9	163.1	32.5	135.0	26.9	28.1	5.6
Hungary	10,014.3	200.0	2.0	118.9	1.2	81.1	0.8	436.6	4.4	292.3	2.9	144.3	1.4
Malta	413.0	16.7	4.0	5.4	1.3	11.3	2.7	26.6	6.4	10.8	2.6	15.7	3.8
Netherlands	16,575.0	652.2	3.9	310.9	1.9	341.3	2.1	1,832.5	11.1	428.1	2.6	1,404.4	8.5
Austria	8,367.7	876.4	10.5	328.3	3.9	548.0	6.5	1,276.0	15.2	512.0	6.1	764.0	9.1
Poland	38,167.3	45.5	0.1	14.8	0.0	30.7	0.1	456.4	1.2	171.1	0.4	285.3	0.7
Portugal	10,637.7	457.3	4.3	94.2	0.9	363.1	3.4	793.1	7.5	191.0	1.8	602.0	5.7
Romania	21,462.2	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovenia	2,047.0	82.2	4.0	4.6	0.2	77.6	3.8	253.8	12.4	28.3	1.4	225.5	11.0
Slovakia	5,424.9	62.9	1.2	38.7	0.7	24.2	0.4	:	:	:	:	:	:
Finland	5,351.4	154.6	2.9	56.1	1.0	98.5	1.8	228.5	4.3	81.1	1.5	147.3	2.8
Sweden	9,340.7	590.5	6.3	265.8	2.8	324.7	3.5	1,337.2	14.3	477.5	5.1	859.7	9.2
United Kingdom *p*	62,008.0	4,367.6	7.0	1,922.5	3.1	2,445.1	3.9	7,012.4	11.3	2,245.0	3.6	4,767.4	7.7
Iceland	317.6	21.7	6.8	17.2	5.4	4.5	1.4	35.1	11.0	23.3	7.3	11.8	3.7
Liechtenstein	35.9	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Norway	4,854.5	331.6	6.8	185.6	3.8	146.0	3.0	524.6	10.8	210.7	4.3	313.9	6.5
Switzerland	7,785.8	1,714.0	22.0	1,073.7	13.8	640.3	8.2	:	:	:	:	:	:

Source: Vasileva (2011).

Data not available; *s*, Eurostat estimate; *p*, provisional value.

5.4. Annex D: Main countries of citizenship and birth of the foreign/foreign-born population, 2010 (in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total foreign/foreign-born population)

Belgium					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Italy	165.1	15.7		:	:
France	140.2	13.3		:	:
Netherlands	133.5	12.7		:	:
Morocco	81.9	7.8		:	:
Spain	45.2	4.3		:	:
Other	486.9	46.2		:	:

Czech Republic					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Ukraine	130.9	30.8	Ukraine	124.2	31.2
Slovakia	73.4	17.3	Slovakia	69.6	17.5
Vietnam	60.8	14.3	Vietnam	52.7	13.2
Russia	28.3	6.7	Russia	28.5	7.1
Poland	19.3	4.5	Poland	18.4	4.6
Other	111.7	26.3	Other	105.1	26.4

Denmark					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Turkey	29.0	8.8	Germany	33.8	6.7
Poland	21.1	6.4	Turkey	32.2	6.4
Germany	21.1	6.4	Poland	25.8	5.2
Iraq	16.7	5.1	Iraq	21.3	4.2
Norway	15.0	4.5	Sweden	20.6	4.1
Other	226.9	68.8	Other	367.2	73.3

Germany					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Turkey	1762.8	24.7		:	:
Italy	556.1	7.8		:	:
Poland	425.6	6.0		:	:
Greece	297.7	4.2		:	:
Croatia	234.4	3.3		:	:
Other	3854.3	54.1		:	:

Ireland					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Poland	90.2	23.5	United Kingdom	211.8	37.4
United Kingdom	84.2	21.9	Poland	78.1	13.8
Lithuania	36.4	9.5	Lithuania	31.6	5.6
Latvia	19.8	5.2	United States	19.0	3.4
Romania	11.8	3.1	Latvia	17.9	3.2
Other	142.0	36.9	Other	207.2	36.6

Spain					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Romania	823.1	14.5	Romania	766.8	11.9
Morocco	740.8	13.1	Morocco	737.6	11.5
Ecuador	391.9	6.9	Ecuador	469.7	7.3
United Kingdom	384.1	6.8	United Kingdom	381.0	5.9
Colombia	287.0	5.1	Colombia	359.6	5.6
Other	3036.5	53.6	Other	3708.1	57.7

Italy					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Romania	887.8	21.0	Romania	847.5	17.7
Albania	466.7	11.0	Albania	482.4	10.1
Morocco	431.5	10.2	Morocco	355.9	7.4
China	188.4	4.4	Germany	209.2	4.4
Ukraine	174.1	4.1	Ukraine	149.9	3.1
Other	2086.6	49.3	Other	2753.7	57.4

Latvia					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
R.n.c. (1)	343.3	87.5	Russia	177.9	51.8
Russia	31.1	7.9	Belarus	59.6	17.4
Lithuania	3.7	0.9	Ukraine	43.4	12.6
Ukraine	3.0	0.8	Lithuania	22.0	6.4
Belarus	1.9	0.5	Kazakhstan	7.7	2.2
Other	9.2	2.3	Other	32.7	9.5

Hungary					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Romania	72.8	36.4		:	:
Germany	18.7	9.4		:	:
Ukraine	17.2	8.6		:	:
China	11.2	5.6		:	:
Serbia	10.2	5.1		:	:
Other	69.9	35.0		:	:

Netherlands					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Turkey	90.8	13.9	Turkey	196.7	10.7
Germany	68.4	10.5	Suriname	186.8	10.2
Morocco	66.6	10.2	Morocco	167.4	9.1
Poland	43.1	6.6	Indonesia	140.7	7.7
United Kingdom	41.4	6.4	Germany	120.5	6.6
Other	341.9	52.4	Other	1020.5	55.7

5.4. Annex D: Main countries of citizenship and birth of the foreign/foreign-born population, 2010 (in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total foreign/foreign-born population)

Poland							Portugal					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)		Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Ukraine	10.2	22.5	Ukraine	124.8	27.4		Brazil	116.6	25.5		:	:
Germany	4.4	9.8	F.SU (2)	68.3	15.0		Ukraine	52.4	11.5		:	:
Russia	4.2	9.2	Germany	62.9	13.8		Cape Verde	49.4	10.8		:	:
Belarus	3.2	7.1	Belarus	39.7	8.7		Romania	32.5	7.1		:	:
Vietnam	2.9	6.3	France	24.4	5.3		Angola	26.8	5.9		:	:
Other	20.5	45.1	Other	136.2	29.9		Other	179.6	39.3		:	:

Slovenia							Slovakia					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)		Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
BA (3)	39.0	47.5	BA (3)	102.9	40.6		Czech Republic	8.3	13.3		:	:
MK (4)	9.1	11.1	Croatia	56.0	22.1		Ukraine	5.9	9.4		:	:
Croatia	7.8	9.5	Serbia	20.9	8.2		Romania	5.4	8.6		:	:
Serbia	7.1	8.7	MK (4)	14.3	5.6		Poland	5.4	8.5		:	:
Ukraine	1.1	1.4	RSME (5)	12.6	5.0		Hungary	4.6	7.3		:	:
Other	18.0	22.0	Other	47.1	18.6		Other	33.2	52.9		:	:

Finland							Sweden					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)		Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Russia	28.2	18.2	F.SU (2)	47.3	20.7		Finland	74.1	12.5	Finland	172.2	12.9
Estonia	25.5	16.5	Sweden	31.0	13.6		Iraq	55.1	9.3	Iraq	117.9	8.8
Sweden	8.5	5.5	Estonia	21.8	9.5		Denmark	40.3	6.8	F.YU (6)	71.6	5.4
Somalia	5.6	3.6	Russia	7.3	3.2		Poland	38.6	6.5	Poland	67.5	5.0
China	5.2	3.4	Somalia	7.1	3.1		Norway	35.2	6.0	Iran	59.9	4.5
Other	81.6	52.8	Other	114.0	49.9		Other	347.3	58.8	Other	848.1	63.4

Iceland							Norway					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)		Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Poland	9.6	44.2	Poland	10.1	28.8		Poland	46.3	14.0	Poland	49.1	9.4
Lithuania	1.5	7.1	Denmark	2.9	8.3		Sweden	35.7	10.8	Sweden	41.8	8.0
Germany	1.0	4.8	United States	1.9	5.3		Germany	20.7	6.3	Germany	24.8	4.7
Denmark	0.9	4.1	Sweden	1.8	5.3		Denmark	20.6	6.2	Denmark	22.6	4.3
Latvia	0.6	2.9	Germany	1.7	4.8		United Kingdom	13.2	4.0	Iraq	20.6	3.9
Other	8.0	37.1	Other	16.7	47.6		Other	195.0	58.8	Other	365.8	69.7

Switzerland					
Citizens of	(1000)	(%)	Born in	(1000)	(%)
Italy	290.6	17.0		:	:
Germany	251.9	14.7		:	:
Portugal	206.0	12.0		:	:
RSME (5)	181.3	10.6		:	:
France	92.5	5.4		:	:
Other	691.7	40.4		:	:

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