

Safety climate of UAE petroleum industry: a cross-validation using confirmatory factor analytic approach

Safety climate
of UAE
petroleum
industry

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to develop and validate a safety climate scale for measuring the safety climate in the oil and gas industry.

Design/methodology/approach – The scale developed through conducting a literature review about the safety climate and constructing a question pool. The number of items was reduced to 51 after performing a screening process. Explanatory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were performed to examine the scale's construct validity.

Findings – CFA loadings were statistically significant. All Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability values support the construct reliability. The outcomes showed acceptable convergent and discriminant validity: AVEs showed acceptable values, and the square roots of AVE values showed higher values than the construct correlation values. Furthermore, all factor loadings exceeded 0.50, and the t -values were statistically significant. CFA loadings were statistically significant.

Originality/value – The safety climate measuring scale of 43-instrument items produced in this study is reliable and valid for the oil and gas industry.

Keywords Safety climate, Oil and gas, United Arab Emirates, Scale development, Scale validation

Paper type Research paper

1. Introduction

Safety climate ranks highly as a safety performance indicator for predicting safety-related outcomes, including occupational injuries or accidents and safety behavior (Meliá *et al.*, 2008; Olsen, 2010). Previous studies (Seo *et al.*, 2004; Yeung and Chan, 2012) agree that using a valid scale for safety climate measurement is critical and has the potential to promote accurate data collection. Assessing the reliability of a scale is only useful for describing the magnitude of a scale's measurement errors (Ghahramani and Khalkhali, 2015; Jiang *et al.*, 2018).

Several studies (Chen and Chen, 2012; Ghahramani and Khalkhali, 2015; Glendon and Litherland, 2001; Lu and Shang, 2005; Vinodkumar and Bhasi, 2009) have been carried out to investigate the development of organizational safety climate. Despite such efforts, there is no consensus about the dimensions of safety climate. Generally, past studies (Evans *et al.*, 2007; Flin *et al.*, 2006; Mohamed, 2002; Seo, 2005) have consistently mentioned



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managements' commitment to safety as a safety climate dimension. [Seo et al. \(2004\)](#) came up with five thematic categories of safety climate dimensions. These categories include management commitment to safety, coworker safety support, supervisor safety support, employee safety competence level and employee involvement in safety activities and decision-making. A review of 18 surveys on safety climate by [Flin et al. \(2000\)](#) identified a safety system, risk, supervision/management, competence and work procedure as the highest-ranking dimensions by frequency. Other safety climate dimensions reported in the literature ([Evans et al., 2007](#); [Mohamed, 2002](#); [Seo, 2005](#)) include safety training, safety rules and procedures, supervisory and supportive environments and safety communication.

Worldwide, several instruments are available for measuring safety climate in multiple industries. However, to the best of our knowledge, this study is a pioneering investigation into the development and validation of a safety climate scale within the oil and gas industry in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The need to develop a new scale within this industry and cultural context was motivated by the understanding that safety climate is unique, and context culture varies according to the industry, organization and sectors within the organization and country ([Høivik et al., 2009](#); [Mearns et al., 2004](#)). Furthermore, calls to develop a standard questionnaire for collecting essential safety climate data and the recognition of the necessity to identify occupation-specific dimensions of safety climate are being made ([Kudo et al., 2008](#)). Thus, developing an original safety climate scale for the oil and gas industry in the UAE is important; we developed such a scale in this study, and its reliability and validity were explored.

2. Literature review

The following sections present related work to understand the safety climate and its theoretical background and the different methods on developing safety climate scale.

2.1 Theoretical background

This study uses the theory of planned behavior (TPB) as the theoretical framework for developing the instrument. TPB explores the relationships among attitudes, beliefs and self-efficacy, which can affect an individual's decision to follow or reject prescribed safety protocols. Thus, a scale to measure safety climate based on human behavior theory would be a realistic measurement of different aspects ([Montano, et al., 1997](#)). In prior studies, TPB has been shown as a suitable predictive model of behavioral intention in a different safety and occupational settings ([Arnold, et al., 2006](#); [Elliot, et al., 2003](#); [Evans and Norman, 2002](#); [Petrea, 2001](#); [Quine, et al., 2001](#); [Sheeran and Silverman, 2003](#)). The findings from these studies justify the use of TPB as the basis for the development of a model representing safe behavior.

2.2 Developing the construct of safety climate

Safety climate is described as a unified set cognition that workers of an organization hold in relation to safety aspects in the work environment ([Zohar, 1980](#)). Safety climate develops as a result of the daily experiences of workers, which develops into an influential and well-defined form of organizational climate. According to a study conducted by [Litwin and Stringer \(1968\)](#), a divergent point of view exists about the safety climate.

Two distinct features can be used to analyze safety climate perceptions. The first perception relates to viewing perception as a collective property of groups. Sharing across individuals is naturally a unique feature that separates this approach from other safety constructs, for instance, personal attitudes. Unlike psychological climate, which entails individual attitudes toward the work environment, a safety climate exclusively deals with

individual perceptions of a particular workgroup. Griffin and Neal (2000) conclude that perceptions originate from a collection of clues and behaviors which employees perceive as safe.

The second type of perception is formed by observable characteristics, which are intrinsic cognition seen and reported by employees in day to day operations (Guldenmund, 2000; Zohar and Luria, 2005). Although issues of safety climate emphasize personal attitudes, skepticism is characteristically based on evaluation and is affective in nature (Mearns *et al.*, 1998).

2.3 Multidimensional nature of safety climate

Researchers have failed to come up with a single acceptable conclusion for designing constituent elements of safety (Christian *et al.*, 2009; Zohar, 2010). Researchers experienced conceptual and practical challenges owing to a wide range of perceptions derived from the formal and informal process such as pieces of training and group related relationships (Christian *et al.*, 2009). It is noteworthy to distinguish between the ingredients of safety climate from other related perceptions, for instance, risk appetite and personal attitudes (Huang *et al.*, 2006). Empirical studies indicate that conceptual complexity exists in safety climate measurement, thus, resulting in several models that conflate cognitive perceptions. Furthermore, elements of climate safety are affected by many variants which include stress at work, risk appetites and personal beliefs (Clarke, 2006). Because of the aggregations across diverse psychological constructs, it has been problematic to establish a direct relationship linking safety climate and safety consequences (Wallace *et al.*, 2006). It has been objectively observed that ongoing methods for developing safety climate tend to raise the prediction and power for consequences such as work-related calamities (Clarke, 2006; Dogru and Peker, 2019).

2.4 Multilevel nature of safety climate

Klein and Kozlowski (2000) findings reveal several varieties of aggregate entities that collectively make up safety climate. As such multi-level nature analysis in different levels of operations in safety climates is required. Initially, the safety climate was viewed as a conceptual framework which operates mainly at the organization level. However, studies reveal an emerging trend where a safety climate is conceptualized in informative and predictive levels of climate safety aggregation (Zohar, 1980).

2.5 Organization level safety and variation within the organizations

Major theories tend to view safety climate as an organization-level construct. However, empirical studies suggest that most of these theories come from biased researchers. Studies conducted in 1980 by Scopus, as database research of safety climate, reveal that more than half of the findings organizations acted as autonomous entities with well-structured borders (Zohar, 2010).

Organizational levels are characterized by clear policies, well-defined procedures and good practices. These primary conceptual features when applied consistently form a strong safety climate, hence portraying the organization level as a prominent initiative when dealing with safety climate issues. The organization-level contains various variables, which include safety actions observed by management, the competence of safety systems, management systems quality and safety training adequacy (Flin *et al.*, 2000; Zohar and Luria, 2005).

2.6 Team- and unit-level safety climate

Because of the autonomy allowed to supervisors, they have freedom in exercising their authority, and this means that different departments may have a different understanding of policies relating to safety, procedures applied and practices (Zohar, 2010). This stems from several variable causes. For instance, the steps do not cover all scenarios, and at a local level, substantial discretion can be implemented depending on how wide the plans are. Interpersonal dynamics are involved in leader-member exchange governed partially by formal procedures. Formal procedures greatly influence how supervisors interpret and implement instructions to subordinates.

2.7 Industry level

Because of turbulences in dynamic and high-risk business environments that occasionally experience catastrophes, researchers have tried to find solutions that will enable the business to mitigate these risks by developing concepts, new tools and sophisticated methods (Grote, 2009). Risk management is essential for business survival. Some companies manage risk within the organization as per their requirements while other companies adapt and improvise existing best practices (Mearns and Yule, 2009).

Across the board, industries view safety climate models and relevant approaches as an important field of study. Safety climate is not universal in all industries. For this reason, safety climate is influenced by several factors, for instance, the presence of cultural diversity in professional relationships, interactions across departments, investigations setups, social and technical risk and regulatory frameworks (Grote, 2009).

2.8 National culture and safety climate

National culture and safety climate is a combination of inter-play between differences in cultural practices, risk perceptions and wide socio-economic situation interactions. Because of social interactions among diverse cultures, the management of safety climates in such organizations is of the essence. Accommodating diverse cultures in these organizations is an emerging issue that should be taken into consideration (Reader *et al.*, 2015).

Studies demonstrate that safety climate is often applicable across many organizations. However, in some industries, it is not given the much-deserved attention given to mainstream aspects of national culture (Hahn and Murphy, 2008). Western studies have outlined the low attention given to safety climate (Bahrami *et al.*, 2014). There is a need for comparative studies to comprehend the meaning of safety climate and the possibility of transferring understanding to other nationalities across cultural contexts (Zohar, 2014).

2.9 Developing climate through sense-making processes

Safety climates develop gradually as people interact by sharing their perception in the work environment. Sense making in the organizational perspective occurs when employees face complicated challenges together in a social set up and discuss and gain insights on their environment to eliminate uncertainties that impact the goals, workplace norms and other organizational decisions. Sense making helps develop perceptions as individuals share ideas collectively (Gonzalez-Roma *et al.*, 2002). These interactions are either rewarded or sanctioned (Weick, 1995). Through sense making, a safety climate is developed by using experience availed by social events (Ostroff *et al.*, 2003).

3. Materials and methods

This study sought to test the reliability and validity of a new scale for measuring the safety climate in the UAE oil and gas industry. For the face and content validity analysis, 50 participants were divided into three groups. The first group comprised the faculty members ($n = 14$) from Alain University and Zayed University in UAE; they were involved in occupational health and safety (OHS) research. The second group consisted of OHS officers who held managerial positions ($n = 10$) in different subsidiary companies under the Abu Dhabi Oil Refining Company. The third group consisted of employees from the upstream and downstream companies ($n = 26$). An additional group of employees ($n = 26$) from the oil and gas also participated in a test–retest reliability study by completing questionnaires after three weeks. The employees were selected via random selection for reliability and validity analyses. Eventually, 269 employees working at six different oil and gas companies provided the data for the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), CFA and reliability analysis.

Content validity was measured on different criteria, which included three scales labels based on [Lawshe \(1975\)](#): not necessary, useful but not essential and essential. For evaluating face validity, OHS experts were requested to include their comments concerning the clarity and ambiguity of the items. For the employee sample, the criterion was deduced from [Polit and Beck \(2006\)](#). The employee sampling involved ranking each safety climate item for simplicity, relevance and clarity based on a four-point Likert scale. In the scale, 1 = clear or simple (not relevant), 2 = item requires revision, 3 = clear or simple (relevant) with need for minor revisions and 4 = clear or simple (very relevant).

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the individual traits of the respondents and to analyze the scale's content validity. The data obtained from the OHS experts was used for computing the content validity ratio (CVR) based on the formula below:

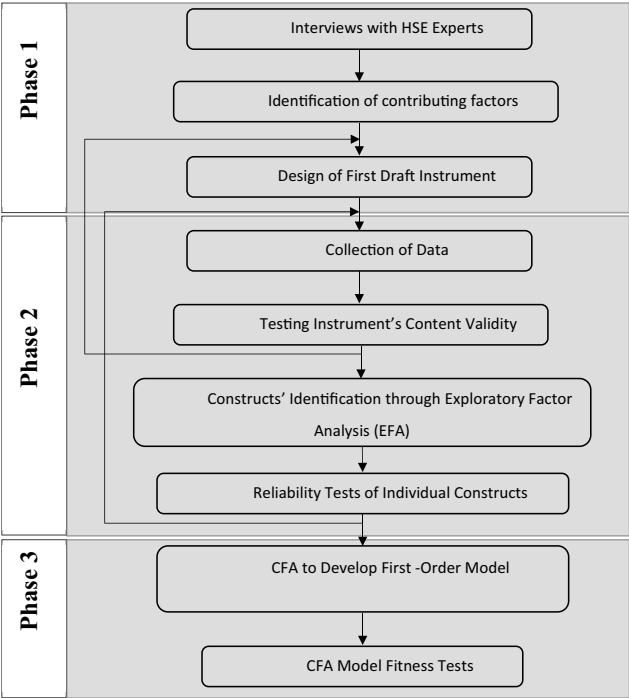
$$\text{CVR} = (n_e - N/2)/(N/2)$$

The mean of the item CVRs aided in the calculation of the content validity index (CVI) (cf. [Lawshe, 1975](#)). For each questionnaire item that was completed by the employees, an item-CVI (I-CVI) was computed as the count of “3” and “4” scores divided by the experts' count and multiplied by 100 (cf. [Polit and Beck, 2006](#)). Subsequently, the scale-CVI (S-CVI) was calculated for the entire questionnaire by calculating the mean of all I-CVIs. EFA was performed for identifying the underlying dimensions of safety climate as Cronbach's alpha and interclass correlation coefficient. The scale's dimensional structure was investigated using CFA. All statistical analyses were carried out using IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences v.21; AMOS v.21 was used for performing CFA.

4. Design and approach

This study was undertaken in three major phases ([Figure 1](#)), starting with the collection of relevant data through a questionnaire. For the questionnaire, 662 safety climate items were identified from previously published articles through a literature review. After narrowing down the main objectives and aims of the current study, the number was reduced to 51 through screening for repetition and relevance by interviewing experts in the health safety environment field and researchers working in the UAE university. The screening process used the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria are attributes that an individual believes should be included in the study whereas exclusion criteria are attributes that individuals eliminate from the study ([Meline, 2006](#)). As shown in [Figure 1](#), the second research phase implements quantitative research methods to generate a pool of items that were included in a scale for measuring the constructs of the safety climate dimensions. This was a critical phase because of the fragmented ideas in the existing literature on safety climate dimensions. The outcomes were to ascertain the initial validity and reliability

Figure 1.
Research
methodology



information about each measurement scale. The safety experts communicated with the researchers four times via video conferencing to assess the original 662 items collected from previously published literature and eliminate all theoretically or practically insignificant items, unclear items and items that repeated the imperative of other items. Also, the researchers asked the experts to report different dimensions that underlie their commitment and desire to adopt, adhere to and maintain a safety climate that affects the process safety performance, especially in the UAE. According to (Lynn, 1986), content validity relies on the intuitive or experienced judgment. Following this, the investigators deleted items with CVI lower than 0.83, which reduced the original items in the questionnaire from 662 to 51. To further evaluate the 51-item questionnaire, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the safety experts, through which four core themes were identified on how safety climate influences employee's approach to safety (Appendix 1).

After this phase, the SurveyMonkey platform was used to administer the final data-collection instrument, and this led to 269 responses from various employees in different oil and gas companies. During the third phase, the 269 responses obtained from the survey were tested. Principle component analysis (PCA) was conducted to explain the highest possible common variance with the fewest explanatory constructs (latent variables or factors). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) of 0.962 affirmed the reliability of the responses for further analysis. Subsequently, model fit was assessed using the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) and confidence interval of root mean square error of approximation (RAMSEA) and found all the indices to be within the threshold limit. Furthermore, the overall model fit was assessed

using CMIN/DOF and found to be fit. The assessment is described thoroughly in Section 5. After this, the constructs describing the safety climate dimension of the UAE's oil and gas industry were assessed and validated using CFA. The final 43-item questionnaire is tabulated in Appendix 2.

5. Data analysis

Fifty individuals took part in the safety climate scale's face and content validity analyses. As displayed in Table 1, most of the employees and faculty members were male, accounting for 84.2% and 92.9%, respectively. The descriptive statistics show that respondents aged between 30 and 39 years old dominated all three groups (Table 1). The working experience of most of the OHS experts ranged between one and five years (40 %), while that of most employees was between six and ten years (36.4%). Male employees constituted the majority of the employee participants in the test–retest reliability analysis (96.2%). Employees aged between 40 and 49 years old were the majority, and 34.6% had more than 20 years' work experience.

5.1 Exploratory factor analysis

EFA was performed during the pilot study phase involving different safety actors, workers, supervisors and managers in various units and departments. Before proceeding with EFA on the items, some conditions must be satisfied, and this can be assessed through various tests. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test (Kaiser, 1970) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bentler, 1992) were among the tests that were performed. As shown in Table 1, the considerably high KMO value (0.955) indicates that the items are appropriate for undertaking factor analysis because no serious multicollinearity issues are indicated within the dataset. Bartlett's test of sphericity (Sig. < 0.01) showed that the interitem correlations were adequate for running factor analysis (Table 2).

Variables	Validity analysis			
	Employees (<i>n</i> = 26)	OHS experts (<i>n</i> = 10)	Faculty members (<i>n</i> = 14)	Reliability analysis (<i>n</i> = 26)
<i>Gender</i>				
Female	4 (18.2%)	5 (50%)	1 (7.1%)	1 (3.8%)
Male	18 (81.8%)	5 (50%)	13 (92.9%)	25 (96.2%)
<i>Age (years)</i>	35.5 (10)*	32.7 (7.00)*	40.7 (10.7)*	41.85 (8.05)*
≥ 60	—	—	1 (7.1%)	—
50–59	2 (4.5%)	—	2 (14.3)	4 (15.4%)
40–49	—	2 (20%)	3 (21.4%)	14 (53.8%)
30–39	16 (72.7%)	4 (40%)	6 (42.9%)	5 (19.2%)
<30	5 (22.7%)	4 (40%)	2 (14.3%)	3 (11.5%)
<i>Working experience (years)</i>	11.6 (7.70)*	8 (6.05)*	10.6 (9.5)*	15.73 (7.65)*
>20	—	2 (9.1%)	4 (28.6%)	9 (34.6%)
15–20	6 (27.3%)	1 (10%)	1 (7.1%)	7 (26.9%)
11–15	1 (4.5%)	2 (20%)	—	2 (7.7%)
6–10	8 (36.4%)	2 (20%)	2 (14.3%)	3 (11.5%)
1–5	5 (22.7%)	4 (40%)	6 (42.9%)	4 (15.4%)
<1	—	1 (10%)	1 (7.1%)	1 (3.8%)

Table 1.
Demographic
statistics of
reliability and
content validity
participants

Notes: All data are presented as *n* (%) unless specified otherwise. *Standard deviation and mean in years given for working experience and age of participants

After these two suitability tests, the 51-item instrument was subjected to EFA using PCA as the factor extraction method while varimax rotation was invoked. The factor retention approach was based on the robust combination of theoretical salience, scree plots and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for the rotated factors. According to Stevens (2009), the ideal situation is for an item to load above 0.40 on its respective factor and below that threshold on any other factor. The resulting 43-instrument items accounted for 68.27% of the variance in all responses.

Table 3 shows the rotated component matrix presenting the item loadings and respective factor pattern. The first factor (F1) accounted for a maximum of 51.44% of the variance in all responses. The 16 questionnaire items that loaded into F1 seemingly relate to various aspects of organizational commitment to safety (OCS) and safety practices. Thus, F1 was labeled as OCS. The 10 items that are loaded into the second factor (F2) relate to the commitment of the supervisor to the safety of subordinates. Thus, F2, which accounted for 5.25% of the variance in all responses, was labeled as supervisor–subordinate commitment to safety (SSCS). The eight factors that loaded into the third factor (F3) accounted for 4.83% of the variance in all responses. They were mainly about training on safety (TOS), so F3 was labeled as TOS. Six factors loaded into the fourth factor (F4), which explained 3.51% of the variance in all responses. They all appeared to be about the extent to which the employees were engaged in safety, so F4 was labeled as employee engagement with safety (EES). Finally, the fifth factor (F5) accounted for 3.24% of the variance and contained three items regarding compliance with HSE standards, practices and procedures. Therefore, F5 was labeled as HSE compliance.

5.2 Content validity and internal consistency

Reliability speaks to the magnitude of consistency in the responses pertaining to a respective construct. Normally, Cronbach’s alpha is the common measure for these tests. As illustrated in the bottom row of Table 2, the five latent constructs constituted from the contributing factors of safety climate were between 0.778 and 0.963. The results indicate that the five proposed constructs have good psychometric properties.

5.2.1 Convergent validity. The Bentler–Bonett’s normed fit index (NFI) is commonly used for evaluating convergent validity (Bentler, 1995). This index shows the extent to which the various approaches used in measuring a given construct are likely to yield consistent results (Ahire et al., 1996). Bentler (1995) asserted that the rule of thumb is that NFI values of at least 0.90 imply an acceptable fit index. The five constructs had acceptable NFI values, which meant that their constituent items converge well enough to warrant further analysis, as shown in Table 3 (Table 4).

5.2.2 Discriminant validity. Bagozzi et al. (1991) explained that this type of validity refers to the degree of distinction of latent constructs and their respective indicators from other constructs and indicators. The computation of discriminant validity involves comparing a latent construct’s Cronbach’s alpha with its average correlations with the other latent constructs. When the comparison yields a significant difference in the two measures,

Table 2.

Results of KMO test and bartlett’s test of sphericity

KMO measure of sampling adequacy		0.955
Bartlett’s test of sphericity	Approx. Chi square	8,125.709
	df	1,081
	Sig	0.000

Items	Questions	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Q14	The management ensures reliable and safe equipment	0.737	–	–	–	–
Q15	The management eliminates potential safety issues	0.736	–	–	–	–
Q19	My company engages an HSE third-party audit to ensure that safety rules and regulations are followed	0.726	–	–	–	–
Q2	The company maintains records of all first-aid treatments, inspections, incident investigations and training activities	0.726	–	–	–	–
Q11	The management conducts regular hazard inspections in your work area	0.725	–	–	–	–
Q18	My organization enforces a PTW system in all types of work	0.712	–	–	–	–
Q16	The management provides and participates in safety campaigns	0.708	–	–	–	–
Q9	My company provides sufficient personal protective equipment and gas detectors for the workers	0.682	–	–	–	–
Q8	My management encourages raising near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions	0.680	–	–	–	–
Q1	The management considers safety as a core organizational value	0.639	–	–	–	–
Q12	The management investigates near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions in a timely manner	0.634	–	–	–	–
Q5	The management considers production to be more important than safety	0.631	–	–	–	–
Q17	My company has clear hydrocarbon and chemical spill response procedures	0.625	–	–	–	–
Q10	My company provides enough safety training programs	0.612	–	–	–	–
Q13	The management considers production to be more important than environmental pollution	0.578	–	–	–	–
Q41	The management exercises safety consequences management standards in case of violation of safety measures	0.491	–	–	–	–
Avg. factor loading is 0.80; average variance extracted (AVE) is 0.84; composite reliability is 0.965						
Reliability is 0.794 and SQRT of AVE is 0.92						
Q26	My immediate supervisor conducts sufficient toolbox talks	–	0.817	–	–	–
Q25	My immediate supervisor discusses safety issues with others before performing tasks	–	0.808	–	–	–
Q28	My immediate supervisor ensures that the workload and work patterns are adequate	–	0.760	–	–	–
Q20	My immediate supervisor enforces safe work behaviors	–	0.756	–	–	–
Q24	My immediate supervisor corrects near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions	–	0.707	–	–	–
Q29	My immediate supervisor considers human error as part of the risk assessment	–	0.702	–	–	–
Q27	My immediate supervisor investigates workplace accidents	–	0.697	–	–	–
Q21	My immediate supervisor cascades the corporate HSE KPIs to the employees	–	0.677	–	–	–
Q22	My immediate supervisor ensures work permits are obtained and signed	–	0.677	–	–	–
Q23	My immediate supervisor ensures that the employees' skills and abilities match the job tasks	–	0.609	–	–	–
Avg. factor loading is 0.84; AVE is 0.70; composite reliability is 0.96.						
Reliability is 0.84 and SQRT of AVE is 0.84						
Q43	New recruits are trained adequately to learn the safety rules and procedures	–	–	0.634	–	–
Q42	My company ensures that contractors are trained to perform their tasks safely	–	–	0.598	–	–

(continued)

Safety climate
of UAE
petroleum
industry

Table 3.
Rotated component
matrix

[illegible]

discriminant validity is confirmed (Ghiselli *et al.*, 1981). The values shown in Table 3 demonstrate a conceptual distinction between the five latent constructs.

5.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

The EFA led to the identification of OCS, SSCS, TOS, EES and HSEC as the initial safety climate dimensions in the oil and gas industries in the UAE. The first-order model contains OCS, SSCS, TOS, EES and HSEC as the correlated safety climate factors in the oil and gas industry in the UAE. To assess the model fit, extensively approved fit indices were used, such as CFI (0.881), TLI (0.871) and at or below 0.06 RMSEA (0.078), indicating a good model fit for the 43-items as suggested from Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015). The results of CFA model show a good fit ($\chi^2 = 1,748.356$, DOF = 833, CMIN/DOF = 2.099, CFI = 0.881, TLI = 0.871 and RMSEA = 0.078). The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) loadings were statistically significant (i.e. average factors loading were between 0.75 and 0.83). All Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability values were greater than 0.70 which supports the construct reliability. The AVEs showed acceptable values of more than 0.50 (Kline, 2010), and the square roots of AVE values showed higher values than the construct correlation values (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Furthermore, all factor loadings exceeded 0.50, and the *t*-values were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Figure 2 below shows the first-order model.

6. Discussion

This study develops and validates a safety climate scale for the oil and gas industry in the UAE. The reliability and validity analyses of the initial scale developed in this study contained 51 items. These items were further reduced to 43-items following EFA, PCA and reliability analysis. Quantitative methods were used in this study to investigate the content validity and EFA and CFA to examine the scale's construct validity. In addition, the scale's internal consistency was satisfactory. Therefore, the scale developed in this study was proven to be a reliable and valid tool for measuring safety climate. Concurrent validity assessment of the safety climate and the experience of accidents by the participants presented insignificant results may be because the respondents were prompted to consider their related experiences within the past three years.

A factor reduction using EFA led to the identification of OCS, supervisory commitment to safety, TOS, employee engagement to safety and HSE compliance as the dimensions of safety climate. These findings complement the results of previous studies that identified safety climate and perception of process safety as employee engagement to safety, employee safety performance and safe working environment (Mazrouei *et al.*, 2019; Probst, 2015; Roughton *et al.*, 2019; Tawfik *et al.*, 2019). Our findings are in line with Griffin and Curcuruto (2016) and Naik (2019), who found that safety climate is a shared concept which results from individuals' shared insights and observations of different ways that safety is valued in the organization. The OCS accounted for

Factors/construct	Convergent validity	Discriminant validity
	Bentler–Bonett NFI	Factor Cronbach's α – average correlation between factors
F1	0.923	0.243
F2	0.977	0.238
F3	0.962	0.215
F4	0.990	0.174
F5	1.00	0.058

Table 4.
Construct validity
analysis

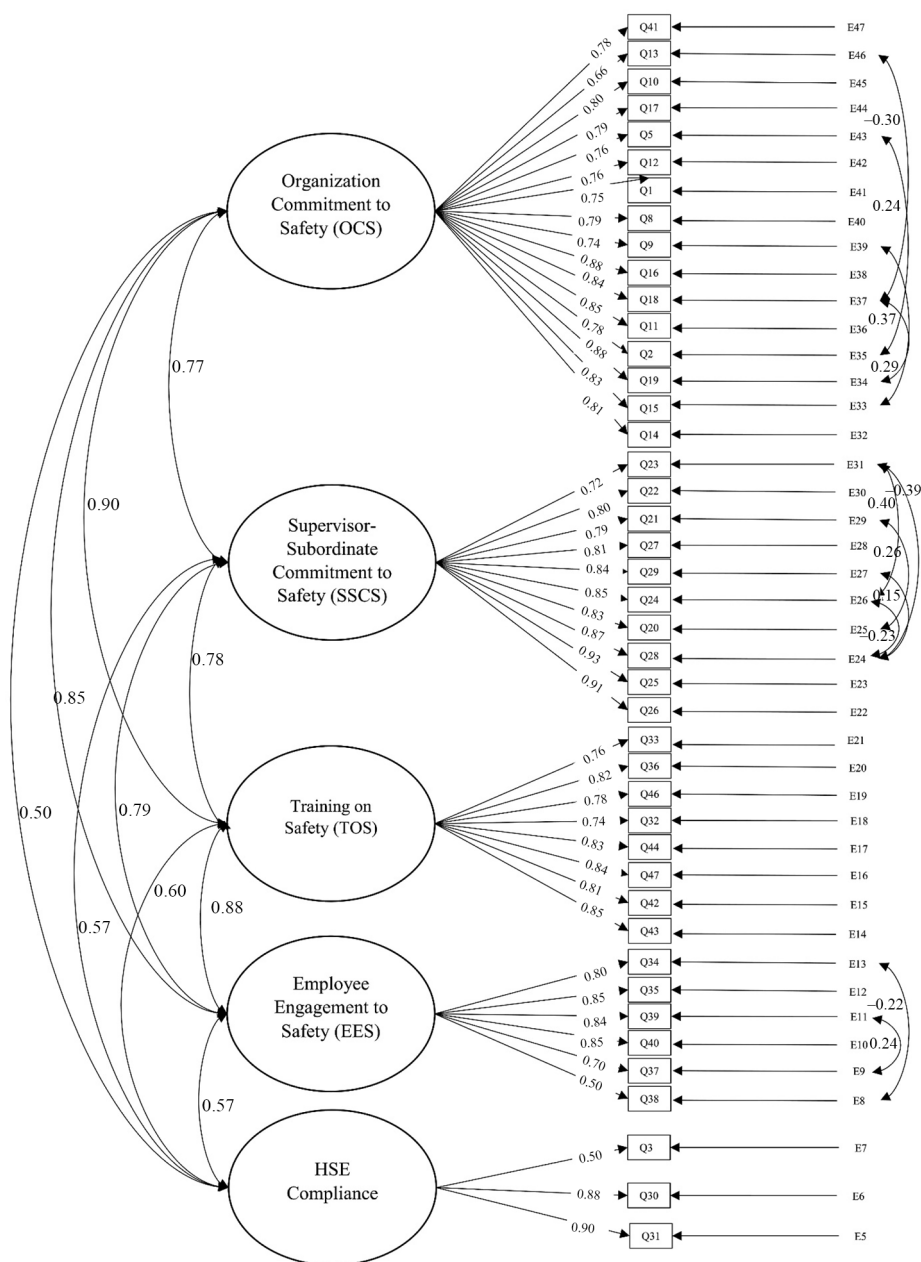


Figure 2.
First-order
measurement model
for safety climate
dimension

$\chi^2 = 1748.356$, $DOF = 833$, $CMIN/DOF = 2.099$, $CFI = 0.881$, $TLI = 0.871$, $RMSEA = 0.078$

37% of the variance in all responses, followed by supervisor–subordinate commitment to safety at 23%, TOS at 19%, employee engagement on safety at 14% and HSE compliance at 7%. This indicates that these values are valued by individuals according to their shared perceptions and understanding of the safety climate (Griffin and Curcuruto, 2016).

The safety climate scale's dimensional structure was found to be satisfactory based on the significant fit indices. The Chi-square test results – one model fit indicator – of the CFA model was also statistically significant. The Chi-square test is faulted for its sensitivity to sample size (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002; Silva *et al.*, 2004; Furr, 2011) and insignificant misspecifications within the structure of the model (Sexton *et al.*, 2006). Some authors (Sexton *et al.*, 2006; Leach *et al.*, 2008; Fernández-Muñiz *et al.*, 2012) relied on other indices for model fit proof when the result of the Chi-square test was significant. There have also been cases where the authors did not report the result of the Chi-square test (Tharaldsen *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, the RMSEA, goodness-of-fit, IFI and CFI were used to assess the model fit of the CFA in this study, similar to Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015).

Relying on a large sample in a factor analysis has been described as more desirable (Ghahramani and Khalkhali, 2015). Furr (2011) decried the complexity of identifying an appropriate CFA sample with “recommendations for absolute sample sizes [varying] from a minimum of 50 participants (with simple models under ideal conditions) to 400 or more, while other recommendations are framed as ‘participants-to-variables’ ratios with suggestions ranging from 5:1 to 20:1 or more” (p. 94). Suggestions for sample sizes ranging from 200 to 300 for factor analysis have been offered Comrey and Lee (1992). Based on these varying arguments in the literature, the sample size used in this study was within the satisfactory range for performing CFA.

Qualitative expert evaluation for analyzing the scale content validity is a common practice (Seo *et al.*, 2004). Applying quantitative methods to conduct such an analysis enhances the decision-making processes regarding the scale items that should be retained or dropped. In this study, several experts were involved, and this was further buttressed using a Likert-type scale to rate the various scale items during the validation process. This approach was based on the recommendations of Wynd *et al.* (2003) for overcoming CVI limitations.

7. Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrate the adequacy of reliability and validity of the scale developed to measure safety climate in the UAE oil and gas industry. The development of the scale was motivated by the need to have a safety climate scale that is specific to the UAE oil and gas industry. The scale is applicable in the investigation of safety perceptions of employees in the oil and gas industry.

Further investigations are required to reexamine the reliability and validity using a more diverse and larger sample of oil and gas employees. Such studies will be necessary to determine the reliability and validity of the dimensions of safety climate structure in oil and gas companies not within the petroleum industry in the UAE. In addition, there is a need for future research to examine the scale's discriminant validity using correlation analysis between the dimensions of safety climate and other contributing organizational or occupational factors.

Moreover, it is suggested to have contractors participate in future studies, as they are frequently exposed to new organizations and different cultures and are considered strangers, unfamiliar with the organization's rules, risks and hazards.

Finally, it suggested that second-order CFA be conducted to confirm that the model is a fit for dependent and independent variables.

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Further reading

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Themes	Sub-themes	Storylines
Safety culture	Safety protagonists	Individual is more vital Department is more vital
	Safety procedures	Safety procedures are available and implemented Safety procedures are available but not important Safety procedures are not available
	Outlook toward safety	Prompting safety procedure observation Prompting the importance of safety
Supervisory safety performances	Supervisory safety behaviors	It is about principles and approaches toward safety Supervisor's safety performance is the target
	Supervisory safety performs	level of supervisor collaboration with juniors about safety culture Supervisor's arrangement of tasks to do it safely
Organization leadership attitudes on safety	Pledge to safety adherence	Organization heads start their speech on safety regularly Leader reinforce and up to date on safety policy and procedures
	Inspire safety acts	Leaders recognize and appreciate safety acts Leader lead by examples on safety practices
Safety training	Training help on safety knowledge	Positive makeover and strengthening of positive behaviors toward safety practices
		Build up strong foundation and positive attitude toward safety practices

Table A1.
Identified themes,
sub-themes and
storylines for safety
climate

Appendix 2

Factors	Reference studies
<i>Factor 1: Organization commitment to safety</i>	
1. The management ensures reliable and safe equipment	Zohar (1980)
2. The management eliminates potential safety issues	Glennon (1982)
3. My company engages an HSE third-party audit to ensure that safety rules and regulations are followed	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
4. The company maintains records of all first-aid treatments, inspections, incident investigations and training activities	Evans <i>et al.</i> (2007)
5. The management conducts regular hazard inspections in your work area	Zohar (1980)
6. My organization enforces a PTW system in all types of work	Glennon (1982)
7. The management provides and participates in safety campaigns	Lin <i>et al.</i> (2008)
8. My company provides sufficient personal protective equipment and gas detectors for the workers	Brown and Holmes (1986)
9. My management encourages raising near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions	Brown and Holmes (1986)
10. The management considers safety as a core organizational value	Brown and Holmes (1986)
11. The management investigates near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions in a timely manner	Brown and Holmes (1986)
12. The management considers production to be more important than safety	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
13. My company has clear hydrocarbon and chemical spill response procedures	Alexander <i>et al.</i> (1995)
14. My company provides enough safety training programs	Zohar (1980)
15. The management considers production to be more important than environmental pollution	Alexander <i>et al.</i> (1995)
16. The management exercises safety consequences management standards in case of violation of safety measures	Zohar (1980)
<i>Factor 2: Supervisor–subordinate commitment to safety</i>	
17. My immediate supervisor conducts sufficient toolbox talks	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
18. My immediate supervisor discusses safety issues with others before performing tasks	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
19. My immediate supervisor ensures that the workload and work patterns are adequate	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
20. My immediate supervisor enforces safe work behaviors	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
21. My immediate supervisor corrects near misses, unsafe acts and unsafe conditions	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
22. My immediate supervisor considers human error as part of the risk assessment	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
23. My immediate supervisor investigates workplace accidents	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
24. My immediate supervisor cascades the corporate HSE KPIs to the employees	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
25. My immediate supervisor ensures work permits are obtained and signed	Mazrouei <i>et al.</i> (2019)
26. My immediate supervisor ensures that the employees' skills and abilities match the job tasks	Alexander <i>et al.</i> (1995)
<i>Factor 3: Training on safety</i>	
27. New recruits are trained adequately to learn the safety rules and procedures	Cox and Cheyne (2000)
28. My company ensures that contractors are trained to perform their tasks safely	Evans <i>et al.</i> (2007)
29. The safety training given to me is adequate to enable me to assess hazards in the workplace	Evans <i>et al.</i> (2007)
30. The safety training is specific to the job, including hazardous materials, equipment, noise, fire and other physical hazards	Zohar (1980)

Table A2.
Results of
exploratory factor
analysis

(continued)

Factors	Reference studies
31. The safety training includes hazard control measures, such as department-specific safe operating procedures, acceptable practices, lock-out/tag-out and working after hours or alone	Zohar (1980)
32. The employees' training hours are linked to the overall performance of my department	Zohar (1980)
33. The safety training provided is adequate for responses to emergency seniors and to control safety incidents	Zohar (1980)
34. Employees changing jobs or taking extra responsibilities are trained on the new safety regulations	Wills <i>et al.</i> (2005)
<i>Factor 4: Employee engagement to safety</i>	
35. I feel that my organization is keen on eliminating process safety incidents	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
36. I believe that it is possible to achieve zero process safety events/incidents in my organization	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
37. Employees regularly break the safety rules if they think they will not get caught	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
38. Safety professionals are viewed as law enforcement officers	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
39. Safety performance does not improve despite adequate OSHA compliance, leadership commitment and training	Ghahramani and Khalkhali (2015)
40. Employees' participation in safety committees, training and other safety-related meetings is low	Zohar (1980)
<i>Factor 5: HSE compliance</i>	
41. My organization performs an assessment and audit of compliance with applicable HSE laws	Gershon <i>et al.</i> (2000)
42. My organization conducts mock drills to evaluate the emergency response plan	Gershon <i>et al.</i> (2000)
43. My organization has HSE measurable performance metrics	Brown <i>et al.</i> (2000)

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