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Creators	Townsend, Keith, Loudoun, Rebecca and Markwell, Katherine

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1	Line managers and health promotion on construction sites: Fair deal or another
2	responsibility in an already overloaded role?
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4	
5	Keith Townsend, Ph.D.
6	Associate Professor, Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources,
7	Griffith University, Australia (corresponding author). Email:
8	k.townsend@griffith.edu.au.
9	Rebecca Loudoun, Ph.D.
10	Senior Lecturer, Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources, Griffith
11	University, Australia. Email: r.loudoun@griffith.edu.au.
12	Katherine E. Markwell, Ph.D.
13	Research Fellow, Department of Employment Relations and Human Resources,
14	Griffith University, Australia.
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16	
17	Abstract
18	
19	Research on healthy work environments has grown in importance over the last two
20	decades. Possible explanations for this include the growing recognition and
21	understanding of the determinants of healthy work environments and the associated
22	workers compensation and other organizational costs when they are not managed. It is
23	well accepted that stressful work environments tend to result in negative organizational
24	and individual health indices. Very little is known, however, about the impact of
25	stressful work environments on the dietary habits of workers. Work Safety is often

researched in construction as the sector tends to have higher injury rates than many other sectors. The focus of this paper is work environments in project based construction work. Our interest is the intersection between an industry in which long hours are worked, wellbeing that is dietary related, and the role of line managers.

30

31 Introduction

32 Creating an positive food environment at work is important because poor dietary habits 33 forms one of the five main risk factors (along with smoking, insufficient daily activity, 34 excessive alcohol intake and obesity) for many so called 'lifestyle' or 'behavioral' 35 diseases such as Type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Alwan 2011). 36 Together these risk factors form four of the five top contributors to noncommunicable 37 diseases (NCD) worldwide (WHO 2012). Taking a global perspective NCDs are 38 estimated to be the cause of 36 million deaths, or 63% of the 57 million deaths in 2008 39 (WHO 2012). At an organizational level, research shows that the health risk profile of 40 a workforce is likely to have a significant impact on total labour costs and also on 41 organizational performance through reduced employee performance, turnover, 42 absenteeism, safety, and morale, and in construction, early exit from the industry (Oude 43 Hengel et al. 2012). Furthermore, employees' poor health is not confined to their own 44 performance, but also impacts negatively, the performance of others with whom they 45 work (Goetzel and Ozminkowski, 2008; Collins et al. 2005).

46

Like in the general population, an unhealthy lifestyle is commonly seen throughout
sections of the construction industry; at least in the geographical area of this research –
the eastern seaboard of Australia. Research indicates that blue-collar men are at
increased risk of premature deaths from a range of NCDs including diabetes, colorectal

51 cancer, CVD and melanoma (AIHW 2010). Statistics show harmful alcohol 52 consumption, rates of smoking, prevalence of overweight and obesity and so on are 53 considerably higher in construction than in the general male population (Alwan 2011). 54 Since a substantial part of the ageing population in the construction industry has an 55 unhealthy lifestyle, morbidity in this group is likely to rise in the upcoming years 56 (Groeneveld et al. 2008). Absenteeism as a result of CVD and other chronic diseases 57 may also increase at a significant productivity burden to the industry.

58

59 The work environment in the construction industry is generally considered to be highly 60 demanding, with longer than average working hours compared to many other industries 61 (Lingard et al. 2008; Townsend et al. 2012). Many construction sites operate on a six-62 day week or even a thirteen-day fortnight basis, and professionals and managers work 63 many hours of unpaid overtime (Townsend et al. 2012). Sites often begin operation (or 64 'pre-start' meetings) at 6am, requiring workers – many of whom do not live close to 65 the worksite and catch public transport owing to parking difficulties – to leave home 66 very early. Tight deadlines and severe financial penalties if targets are not met add to 67 the stresses on site and result in 'cycle' of activity with peaks and troughs in project 68 work and limited fixed or long-term employment (Lingard et al. 2012). All these 69 characteristics are potential workplace stressors that may impact upon employee health 70 and safety. Work Safety is often researched as the sector tends to have higher injury 71 rates than many other sectors (Loudoun, 2010; Safe Work Australia 2012) but as a 72 research topic, construction worker health and wellbeing has received scant attention 73 to date (Hengle 2013).

75 This paper holds as a starting point, that the role of construction managers is primarily 76 to ensure the safe completion of a project within a reasonable and agreed timeframe. 77 Worker safety is a managers' responsibility, as it is the workers' responsibility. We 78 examine the role of managers in the longer-term aspect of health and safety – the health 79 component. There is a long history of paternalistic management approaches that are 80 somewhat out of vogue, and we are not suggesting a return to such times. We do, 81 however, recognise that in addition to safety, managers and employees already hold a 82 responsibility for the 'health' of the workforce, as outlined in most progressive 83 legislation worldwide.

84

85 The following sections consider research on health in construction and the role of line 86 managers in creating a work environment that supports health. We then provide 87 information on the study's context, along with our research methodology. Following 88 this, we develop a thematic analysis of the influence that line managers have over the 89 health and eating habits of the construction workers in our sites. Having reported our 90 findings we conclude with a discussion of their relevance to the debate about the nature 91 of work in construction, drawing insight from a range of related, but rarely considered, 92 literature, such as health promotion, human resource management and education.

93

94 Health and Work Environments in Construction

95

96 Explanations for the elevated risk of CVD in construction generally revolve around the
97 nature of the workforce and entrenched work organization practices in the industry.
98 Construction is a male-dominated sector and research consistently shows that men
99 display less healthy lifestyles and less health promoting behavior, thus increasing their

risk of disease, injury, and death (Courtenay 2000; Levant et al. 2009). The industry
sector is also the third highest paid sector in Australia (ABS 2013). The health benefits
generally accrued with higher economic status however, are not present in this
population group, with male blue-collar workers having "poorer than average health
outcomes, increased mortality rates, disability, and serious chronic disease" (Kolmet,
Marino and Plummer 2006).

106

107 There have been improvements in safety on construction sites in recent years, but much 108 remains to be done about the continuing poor occupational health of the industry's 109 employees. There has been a growing interest in improving the 'health' of work 110 organization in general years with the majority of large employers now offering 111 wellness programs (Mattke et al. 2013). 'Healthy work organization' is an extension 112 of work organization, with the latter referring to the way work processes are structured and managed, such as job design, scheduling, management, organizational 113 114 characteristics, and policies and procedures (DeJoy et al. 2010). Healthy work 115 organization focuses on how the structure and fabric of the organization function to 116 impact on the health and wellbeing of employees creating healthy or unhealthy work 117 systems (DeJoy, Wilson and Griffin-Blake 2006).

118

Research in this area has grown in importance over the last two decades owing to the growing recognition and understanding of the determinants of these environments and the associated workers compensation and other organizational costs when they are not managed (e.g., Safe Work Australia 2012; Ostroff and Bowen 2000; Story et al. 2008).
Research shows that stressful work environments and associated work-life interference have been associated with negative organization outcomes such as higher levels of

sickness absence (Bergstrom et al. 2007), increased turnover, and reduced organizational citizenship behavior, i.e. the performance of tasks over and above the minimum requirements of the job (Bragger et al. 2005). At an individual level, it is inversely related to general wellbeing, psychological strain, psychiatric disorders and substance abuse (Carlson et al. 2011; Boyar et al. 2003; O'Driscoll et al. 2003; Hammer et al. 2004; Siegrist 2008; Van den Berg et al. 2008).

131

132 Many areas of workplace research although not exclusively focused on healthy work 133 organization, provide understanding and insight into critical workplace systems. For 134 example, progress in the field of human resources/organizational development area 135 have provided insight into characteristics of high-performance work systems (e.g., 136 Zacharatos et al., 2005; Wood and de Menezes, 2011). Similarly healthy work 137 environments and their job and organizational influences form a major focus of Job 138 stress research (e.g., Cartwright, Cooper and Murphy 1995; deJoy et al., 2010; Peterson 139 and Wilson 2002; Sparks et al. 2001) and health promotion research more broadly (e.g., 140 DeJoy and Wilson 2003; Goetzel and Ozminkowski, 2008).

141

142 Attempts to create 'healthy workplaces' in construction have mainly targeted individual 143 workers through lifestyle programs such as on-the-spot health assessments and other 144 preventative health services (Gram et al. 2012; Groeneveld et al. 2011). It is also a 145 growing practice in Australia to link sickness absence management to preventative 146 health programs in the workplace, often involving the insurance sector (Snashall 2005). 147 Interventions that focus on the working environment tend to focus on finding a better 148 fit between physical work demands and individual constraints and capabilities 149 (Luijsterburg et al. 2005).

150

151 However, limited gains can be made by aiming interventions at the individual rather 152 than the work system, and the nature of project-based work in construction presents 153 considerable barriers to these attempts. For example, symptoms of occupational illness 154 are in general, less immediately apparent and more difficult to detect than injury, hence 155 development of illnesses is likely to take longer than the generally short lifecycle of 156 project work. It is this short life cycle, however, and subcontracting within the industry, 157 that encourages subcultures to develop (Loosemore and Tan 2000), which may result 158 in an embedded culture that inadvertently promotes poor diets and alcohol misuse (Du 159 Plessis et al. 2013). Despite this, very little work has investigated health and wellbeing 160 considerations for construction workers in project based settings (Turner 2013). It is 161 imperative that researchers investigate this group to determine how behavioral risk 162 factors can be improved for a predominantly full-time cohort, in a masculine culture 163 with unique work arrangements.

164

165 Within all of these related strands of research the active support of a committed senior 166 management is seen as critical for any improvements in the work environment. This 167 view is consistent across management literature, broad work, health and safety 168 literature, general workplace health promotion literature and in construction 169 specifically defined (Cameron and Duff 2007). Management can create opportunities 170 for workers to be engaged in healthy and safety (Maloney, Cameron and Hare, 2007). 171 At present, however there is very little research on the role of line managers in creating 172 healthy environments. This paucity is significant in construction as site managers are 173 usually the only contact workers have with the principal contracting firm (Styhre 2006). 174 The limited work that has been done focuses on quantitative measures of health and

175 wellness and perceptions of support from managers, decision-making climate, and 176 quality of supervision and communication (Dingsdag, Biggs and Sheahan 2008; Kines 177 et al. 2010). Researchers note the prevalence of stress-related disorders in construction 178 due to oppressive management, long work hours, lack of stability, lack of psychological 179 support, poor hygiene on sites and primitive welfare facilitates (Snashall 2005). Very 180 little is known about the role line managers' play in creating and sustaining healthy 181 environments in project-based work in construction, particularly from the point of view 182 of managers themselves (Biggs et al. 2013). In broad health promotion research, 183 Haslam (2002) demonstrates the unwillingness of managers to address workplace 184 health and safety (WHS) problems owing to a 'triangle of constraint', whereby sickness 185 absence can lead to reduced productivity, draining the time and energy of managers, who become unwilling or unable to deal with underlying problems. With the causes 186 187 still in place, absenteeism continues to rise until an unhealthy workplace culture sets in. 188 Other researchers note that responsibility for workplace health interventions, and 189 liability and risk management issues, often place the consideration of developing and 190 implementing health and wellbeing programs in the "too hard" basket (Du Plessis et al. 191 2013). Whether line managers in construction face these and other barriers in the 192 context of food environments, however, is unknown.

193

This empirical, qualitative study aims to help us understand the role of line managers in creating and sustaining the dietary habits of workers across six large construction sites of an Australian construction group. The investigation formed part of a larger research project and served as a preliminary study to inform the methodology of the second stage quantitative investigation into dietary habits in project-based construction. In particular, this research sought to understand the nature and reach of any influence 200 line managers play, or should play, in food environments on site as determined by them,

201 other managers on site, and workers themselves.

202

203 Methodology

204

The data used in this paper were collected at five different worksites across the same city. Each of the sites were completing projects involving substantial refurbishment or new-build mixed residential, office and retail space; they had the same construction firm overseeing operations. Ethical approval was granted by Griffith University Human Ethics Committee (EHR/01/14/HREC).

210

211 We used a purposeful sampling strategy at each worksite to ensure a vertical and 212 horizontal representation of the workforce. At each site the research team interviewed 213 the site manager, the health and safety officer, and the foreman - all employees of the 214 principal contractor – resulting in 15 interviews in total. Following this, interviews were 215 also conducted with the supervisors of three sub-contractors at each site. Fifteen focus 216 groups in total across the sites were then conducted with employees from various trades. 217 The focus groups varied so that an adequate sample of trades was involved, however, 218 the number of employees in these focus groups varied between two and four depending 219 on the availability of employees. Qualitative approaches were used for the research 220 because they have the advantage of providing in depth, rich information about a particular topic, which was appropriate for the purpose of this specific research. 221 222 Interviews were completed until data saturation was reached.

223

224 Our analysis began at the start of the interviewing process and concluded after all data 225 were collected. Specifically, the research team met after the interviews at each site 226 identified preliminary themes or categories that were emerging, to assess the relevance 227 of existing codes to new data, and to discuss relationships between codes (Goetz and 228 LeCompte 1981). The process used through data collection and research team 229 discussions formed a version of convergent interviewing; a technique advocated by 230 Dick (1998) and more recently, Jepson and Rodwell (2008). Jepson and Rodwell argue 231 that the process of convergent interviewing improves the internal validity, external and 232 construct validity of qualitative data techniques.

- 233
- 234 **Results**

235

236 As one of our key interests was the role that line managers play in the health and safety 237 habits of construction workers focussing primarily on dietary risk factors, we 238 determined it would be a most appropriate approach to simply ask every participant in 239 our qualitative data collection the straight forward question – "what influence can line 240 managers play in the eating habits of construction workers?". The general theme given 241 in response was unanimous, and the most common response was "no influence 242 whatsoever". Some people did elaborate, including one site manager who explained: 243 The line managers have zero influence over what the blokes eat ... I don't think I 244 should have any responsibility over what blokes eat on site. We tell them what to 245 do all day, they can have that for themselves.

246

This view was consistent from employees and all managers throughout the sixworksites with another manager stating:

No. No. I think I have enough to do, hard enough getting them to do what they're
supposed to do. They're grown men for Pete's sake. They've made it this far in
life.

252

253

Site managers also expressed that they were already too busy with their work role to fitin influencing eating, and that it was outside their role.

256

While there was a consistently held view that the line managers have no influence over the eating habits of construction workers on their site, the evidence we have suggests otherwise. With responses employees and line managers give, questions asked later in the interviews reveal there are in fact a number of ways that line managers' decisions can (and do) influence the eating habits of employees. Our analysis provides us with three broad themes that we address in order: work pressure/time pressure; environment; and leadership behaviors.

264

265 Work Pressure/Time Pressure

266

The first area where it was clear that line manager decisions have an impact on the eating patterns of construction workers while on site relates to the area of work and time pressure. Numerous employees suggest that they are often feeling time and workload pressures due to deadlines, and that has a real influence on their decisionmaking on a daily basis. Employees explain that when the time pressures are high, their decision-making does change, for example:

274	if you hadn't already prepared lunch and if they were already pushing you as
275	hard as you can you're going to go the fast food option just to get enough time to
276	get it.
277	
278	(when we are) under the pump and having to get the quick option cause you
279	don't have much time to wait for a sandwich to be made at a shop or something
280	like that
281	
282	You don't have time to wait for something healthy to be made in front of you,
283	there isn't the quick healthy option, you don't have pre-made sandwiches
284	anywhere around here.
285	
286	Additionally, the nature of working hours within the industry, combined with
287	employees often working on projects at least an hour of driving time from their house,
288	means that 4-4:30am is a common wake up time for these workers. Numerous
289	employees tell us that 'the body isn't ready for food at 4am' but they do require food
290	and sustenance prior to starting work. As one employee explains:
291	
292	most blokes won't want to get up at 4am to get something healthy. If you go
293	past McDonalds at 5 (am) in the morning you'll see utes (utility vehicles) lined
294	up around the corner.
295	
296	Another employee states:
297	

You've got to eat before you start. Three quarters of the blokes I reckon don't eat.
But you've got to. There's a fair few blokes that travel. The guys that don't eat
breakfast (have) energy drinks and smokes.

301

The time and work pressures that have long been associated with the construction industry clearly have some impact on the eating habits of the workers. These work hours have a long history in construction and are ingrained in the culture of the industry, which makes the ability of line managers to influence these starting times more limited. However while limited, the site managers' influence was not negligible with one choosing to not open the site on Saturdays and others choosing to finish early on Fridays as a direct attempt to change the long hours culture at least at site level.

309

310 Environment

311

312 Our second clear theme that is drawn from the data is the environment. It was very clear 313 from the interviews that line managers make some decisions that relate to the work 314 environment, and these decisions have an influence over the eating habits of employees 315 on the site. In every site there are activities that are central to the planning that line 316 managers make, for example, the number and positioning of 'eating areas', the number 317 and positioning of water fountains, and the availability of vending machines. These are 318 decisions that have a direct impact on the eating habits of the employees, as our data 319 demonstrates.

321	The smaller the site is the easier it is to heat up something from home because
322	it's not far to the meal rooms. So the set up of the site becomes important if you
323	have to walk five minutes to get to it then it changes the way you eat.
324	
325	Coupled with this comment, the size of the site and where a site manager decides to
326	locate 'smoko rooms', becomes important for employees.
327	
328	This is a big site, we've got something like 20 floors. And if I'm working too far
329	away from the smoko room, by the time I down tools, get to the room, heat up my
330	meal, sit down an eat it, all my time is gone. It's much quicker and easier to dive
331	out the back gate to the pie shop and get something and have a bit of a breather.
332	
333	Employees tell how the set out of the eating environment is important. They want the
334	rooms to be a comfortable size and well lit. One employee compares quite positively
335	the current worksite to previous ones he has been on:
336	
337	(this room is) better. Massive smoko shed – an eatery pretty much!
338	
339	Interestingly, on this site the site-manager made the point that he felt the eating
340	environment was very important for employees and that he had planned it very carefully
341	to ensure there was a spacious, well lit area for the workers to relax during their breaks.
342	Many employees echo these sentiments and further explain the importance of storage
343	spaces (refrigerators, etc.) and reheating facilities like microwave ovens. In many sites
344	matters of refrigerators and microwave ovens can be dictated in the union-management
345	negotiated enterprise bargaining agreements for the site. Other sites have canteens and

346 a number of employees suggest that when they have worked on sites with canteens, 347 their overall decision-making about food choices is improved. Hence, the idea of 348 managers influencing eating habits in this manner is not an unnecessary impost, 349 managers are making these decisions already, and these decisions are influencing 350 employee eating habits.

351

One line manager was formerly a chef and has taken it upon himself at every site heworks to arrange better quality food alternatives for the site staff. As he explains:

354

355 ... (I) organise a (nearby) cafeteria to have special construction site discount
356 meal deals, salad sandwich and OJ 'bargain'. We commit bulk numbers, for
357 example, 90 blokes, send business their way ... I've done it here with Milano's
358 café – happy hour prices for drinks and snacks.

359

360 Akin to this idea is the notion of having payroll deductions for quality food deliveries.361 As one employee states:

362

363 I used to work for a place that did it (had payroll deduction for lunches) – it was
364 cheap so everyone ate better on that site.

365

All the construction sites in our sample had vending machines. Some vending machines were for drinks only and mostly filled with high sugar cans of popular varieties, while some had food vending machines with packets of chips (crisps) and chocolates. Many employees and line managers suggest that the decisions to have these vending machines

370	on site with what would be considered unhealthy options would be just as easily
371	changed to include more healthy eating and drinking alternatives.
372	
373	One site manager says:
374	
375	Most people buy drinks from the machine – they're 1.20 so pretty cheap I
376	suppose in reality I could not have the coke machine here, and that would take
377	away the option, they'd get the shits for a while
378	
379	When asked directly if he tries to influence what employees drink on site, one manager
380	says:
381	
382	I do, probably, yeah I definitely do, probably uh I've got some guys who I
383	actually believe they're energy drink addicts, and I do speak to them about it, but
384	once again, 98% of the time like, I, it's laughter is the reply obviously I can't
385	stop them, but I try to get them to cut down and drink more water, that's part of
386	my role here definitely, just to keep them on their feet all day.
387	
388	Because the sub-tropical climate does create a hot and humid environment, the
389	importance of hydration is very important on sites, particularly in summer. Employees
390	suggest that the presence of vending machines is not the problem for them – it's what
391	is in the vending machines. Here the tension between individual choices becomes

apparent, as one employee states:

394 ... you've got to pay money to get it, ... if you get something from a vending
395 machine that's not healthy it's your decision you know 'cause you put the money
396 in and press the number, you know so ... I don't think that's affecting poor eating
397 on site, yeah, it's your choice, to eat poorly.

398

399 Clearly some managers have an influence over the work time eating habits of the 400 workers on site through their planning of the on-site eating environment. Areas 401 identified by employees and managers that had a positive influence on their decision-402 making were the spacious, well lit, and well 'fit-out' designated eating areas; and the 403 opportunity to have good quality food on site either through an eatery or with an 404 arrangement with a local supplier. The positioning of designated eating areas seem to 405 have both a negative and positive impact – those sites with numerous, well positioned 406 areas were seen as more beneficial compared with those sites that had fewer areas 407 resulting in a longer time for the employees to get there in short breaks. Finally, the 408 decisions to have drink machines on site and equally as important, what to include in 409 those drink machines was a clear area of influence over which the line managers had 410 control.

411

412 Behavioral Influence

413

The final theme that developed from our data was the notion of behavioral influence. By behavioral influence we refer to the sorts of actions that line managers take over food consumption for themselves or for the site which leads to what would commonly be called 'custom and practice' or a 'workplace culture'. Again, despite employees and managers alike agreeing that the managers have 'no influence' over worker eating

419	habits, our evidence suggests to the contrary. As one employee refers to a site he has
420	worked on where the manager takes a great deal of care over his own diet:
421	
422	Although in some cases, I suppose at the Nundah job a lot make their food on
423	site I think they see (the site manager) making his own lunch.
424	
425	This influence of line managers is further demonstrated when workers reminisce on
426	their early years of employment:
427	
428	My supervisor brings his lunch every day. So I guess you just do what everyone
429	in the crew does. You don't want to be the guy that takes off to the shops, you get
430	given shit when you're back.
431	
432	And:
433	
434	I remember when I was on the tools I was always keen to see what someone was
435	bringing in, what leftovers. If someone bought something from a shop you'd
436	comment on it but there's always a joke when someone goes to the shop. It was
437	never a welcome choice.
438	
439	if a bloke wants to go off site and get something, and the supervisors bring their
440	sangas (sandwiches), then they'll get the shits with the blokes running off site or
441	going to heat things up in the kitchen
442	

443	Again, it is clear that employees are influenced by their line managers, but the influence
444	is on first consideration somewhat hidden. Commonplace on constructions sites is the
445	'site bar-be-que' (BBQ). Again, it is clear to everyone that this is a choice that is made
446	by line managers to have the BBQ, what they serve at the BBQ, and for individual
447	employees to eat at the BBQ. Some of our line managers' state:
448	
449	We do put on a BBQ with a can of coke. We did start with juice but cheaper and
450	easier to get coke for 50c can.
451	
452	We run site BBQs so can influence that – steaks, sausages, onions, eggs. If it was
453	healthy they'd eat it but would complain. It's a fine line. It takes time but if we
454	can we should try to improve eating habits. It would improve morale and get
455	people to feel better.
456	
457	And an employee comments:
458	
459	I guess the fatty sausages aren't great. They are everywhere. I don't go to the
460	BBQs because I feel crap all day but everyone else rushes down there.
461	
462	Discussion
463	
464	Overall, our findings indicate considerable disparity between the views of managers
465	and workers about the perceived influence of managers in creating and influencing the
466	food environment and food habits and choices on site and the reality of their
467	considerable influence. The findings reflect an apparent cognitive dissonance

468 (Festinger 1962) between what is actually occurring (multiple influences) and what is 469 perceived to be occurring (i.e. no influence). Views regarding personal responsibility 470 appeared to shape perceptions of influence, creating a 'silo' effect where actual 471 influences are noticed but not taken into the silo.

472

It is difficult to explain this disparity. Certainly, beliefs that an individual's personal responsibility and choice are primarily driving food intake are prevalent and persistent. Personal responsibility is a key argument in the obesity epidemic, in particular by the food industry with regards to food choices (Brownell et al. 2010). Further, "...judgments about obesity are linked to values of individualism, self-determination, political conservatism, and secular morality" (p382). Australian society has an individualistic focus that may be underpinning the observed silo.

480

481 Another body of literature that may provide some insight into these issues is the hidden 482 curriculum literature found within education. This literature argues that there is a 483 'hidden curriculum', a distinction between the curriculum that is officially stated by the 484 educational system, "and what teachers and learners actually do and experience on the 485 ground, a kind of de facto curriculum" (Sambell and McDowell 1998). Snyder first 486 raised this notion in the 1970s, suggesting that at the Massachusetts Institute of 487 Technology, the formal curriculum places an emphasis on higher order educational 488 goals like independent thinking, while the assessment items suggested that the hidden 489 curriculum involved memorising facts to achieve success. Within the construction 490 industry there will be a range of trades and labourers working together on projects, each 491 with their own knowledge, skills and attitudes that are specific to their trades. 492 Educational experts claim that regardless of the formal training through educational

493 institutions, it is the hidden curriculum in workplaces where learning actually occurs494 (Galbraith, Clyman and Melnick 2011).

495

496 The results of this study suggest that one aspect of the hidden curriculum that 497 construction workers learn is around dietary behaviors. It is our view that a central part 498 of this hidden curriculum can be conceptualised as the 'hidden influence' line managers 499 have over the eating habits of employees, much akin to the hidden curriculum. Line 500 managers of all levels have a direct influence over employees at the workplace -501 direction of work, timing of work, interpretation of organizational policies and so on. 502 However, line managers also have an influence over employee actions that is not so 503 explicit.

504

Within the mainstream management literature in recent decades there is consistent agreement that line managers are crucial to organizational performance (Jacoby 2004). The line managers in this research project are employed by the primary contractor to manage a building site and typically have a small amount of direct employees (usually, three or four), but a large number of sub-contractors reporting to them (there can be up to 200 or more on site).

511

Research in the area of people management within construction often depicts a difficult working environment with long working hours (Townsend et al. 2011; Lingard et al. 2008) and high rates of health and safety incidents (Loudoun 2010) among two commonly cited areas of concern. Management styles undoubtedly vary between firms and across countries, making generalisation difficult; nevertheless, the sector is perceived to approach human resource management and union-management relations

rather poorly (ILO 2001). It is the two aforementioned areas of research (working hours
and safety) that would appear to have a strong relationship with our primary area of
concern – consumption habits of construction workers.

521

522 It appears that in order to improve food choices in workers, due to the observed 523 relationships, a 'comprehensive approach' is needed. This approach, advocated for by 524 Noblet and LaMontagne (2006) for implementing job stress health promotion 525 programs, would incorporate both individual and organizational interventions. For 526 instance, work support has previously been found to influence both mental health and 527 good health (Love, Edwards and Irani 2010). Whilst immediate supervisors and 528 managers do have some reported impacts on behavior and environment, time pressures 529 would be expected to be less modifiable at a site level.

530

531 In a Canadian auto setting, general and human resource managers' motivations for 532 worksite health promotion were improving indirect health costs (Downey and Sharp 533 2007). General Managers were also motivated by moral obligation. In this study, there 534 was an undercurrent in supervisor interviews of a moral obligation for safety, but this 535 perceived obligation did not appear to overlap into healthy behaviors. This also reflects 536 the disconnect between the priority of occupational health and safety in most Australian 537 industrial settings. Economic benefits can be definitely accrued and demonstrated by 538 safety interventions (e.g., Tompa et al. 2008), whereas health promotion interventions 539 have tangible costs but less tangible outcome savings (Downey and Sharp 2007). 540 Supervisor energy is focused on safety and productivity measurable outcomes. 541 However, adopting a 'human capital framework' that focuses on both health and safety 542 (Goetzel and Ozminkowski, 2008) could lead to productivity gains.

543

544 Conclusion

545

546 Personal liberties and choice is an important element of living and working in a liberal-547 democratic nation, and we do not wish to imply that this research is designed, or is 548 suggesting that, personal liberties and choices should be impinged upon in the 549 workplace. What we have investigated here is the notion of decisions that are *already* 550 being made in workplaces, and the way line managers are *already* having an influence 551 over employee dietary habits. We have drawn on a theory from the education realm -552 the 'hidden curriculum'. The hidden curriculum refers to the notion that there is a 553 formal curriculum that is espoused, but surrounding this is a 'hidden' curriculum that 554 students soak up as they progress through their educational experience.

555

556 In this article, we have also drawn on the broad human resource management and 557 employment relations literature on line managers that clearly demonstrates that the 558 many levels of line managers in workplaces play a central role in influencing 559 performance at the workplace. These two elements combined to provide us with the 560 scope to understand what the perceptions on construction sites were about the role of 561 line managers in influencing employee dietary habits. It was clear that all participants 562 in our study viewed line managers to have 'no influence', but the data collected 563 indicated something quite to the contrary. Hence, we deemed the question of whether 564 line managers should be involved in promoting healthy food choices and habits onsite 565 to be a redundant question. Our findings show line managers are already having a 566 'hidden influence' over the consumption of workers at their site even though it is largely 567 unintended. This influence does not impinge on personal choice, however, line

- 568 managers already make decisions that could be changed and with these changes, a
- 569 positive impact on employee consumption is likely to follow.

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