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CHAPTER II

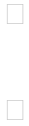
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Construction

Construction is an activity to build facilities and infrastructure. In a field of architecture or civil engineering, construction is also known as a building or infrastructure unit in an area or in several areas. Construction can also be defined as an arrangement (model, layout) of a building (bridges, houses, etc.) Although construction activity is known as a job, but in fact construction is a unit of activity that consists of several different other jobs.

In general, construction activities are supervised by the project manager, design engineer or project architect. These people work in the office, while the control field is usually left to the project foreman who oversaw construction workers, carpenters, and other construction experts to complete a physical construction.

For the successful implementation of the construction project, effective planning is essential. It is associated with the engineering (design and implementation) infrastructure that considers the impact on the environment / EIA, methods of determining the cost of the required / budget, coupled with good planning schedules, workplace safety, availability of building materials, logistics, inconvenience public associated with the delay caused by the tender preparation and bidding.



Trianto (2001) stated that construction is an activity to build facilities and infrastructures including buildings and electrical installations. While construction known as a job, bit in fact construction is an activity consisting of several different other jobs that are assembled into a single unit building.

2.2. Construction Project

Construction project commonly has three main aspects, owner as the owner of the project, consultant as the designer, and contractor as the one doing the project under the supervision of the consultant. This three organizations or person that stated above create a bond in a working relation due to one main objective, which is finishing the construction project (Manson, 1993).

According to Collier (1987):

1. Owner is the first party in construction project. Owner is the person or company which owns the construction project. Owner has the responsibility to pay the contractor.
2. Designer or Consultant are the owner's agent. He is employed by the owner to design the work and to arrange for the construction contract and to inspect the work to see that is being done in accordance with the contract.

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3. Contractor is the second party in construction project. Contractor is the person or company which is chosen by the owner. Contractor has the responsibility to build the construction project described in the contract documents in return for payment by the owner by the sum or amount stated in the agreement

2.3. Construction Management

Project management can be defined as the art and science of coordinating people, equipment, materials, money, and time to complete a specified project within constraints of time, budget, and quality to the satisfaction of everyone involved (Oberlender, 2000)

Oberlender also said that the management is often summarized into five basic functions: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling. Although these basic management functions have been developed and used by managers of business, they apply equally to the management of a project. These are five basic functions:

1. Planning is the formulation of a course of action to guide a project to completion. It starts at the beginning of a project, with the scope of work and continues throughout the life of a project. The establishment of milestone and consideration of possible constraints are major parts of planning. Successful project planning is the best accomplished by the



participation of all parties involved in a project. There must be an explicit operational plan to guide the entire project throughout its life.

2. Organizing is the arrangement of resources in a systematic manner to fit the project plan. A project must be organized around the work to be performed. There must be a breakdown of the work to be performed into manageable units that can be defined and measured. The work breakdown structure of a project is a multi-level that consists of tasks, subtasks, and work packages.
3. Staffing is the selection of individuals who have the expertise to produce the work. The persons that are assigned to the project team influence every part of a project. Most managers will readily agree that people are the most important resource on a project. The numerous problems that arise throughout the life of a project are solved by people.
4. Directing is the guidance of the work required to complete a project. The people on the project staff that provide diverse technical expertise must be developed into an effective team. Although each person provides work in his or her area of expertise, the work that is provided by each must be collectively directed in a common effort and in a common direction.
5. Controlling is the establishment of a system to measure, report, and forecast deviations in the project scope, budget, and schedule. The purpose of project control is to determine and predict deviations in a project so corrective actions can be taken. Project control requires the

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continual reporting of information in a timely manner so management can respond during the project rather than afterwards. Control is often the most difficult function of a project management.

2.4. Construction Project Objective

The first step in the planning process is to define the project objective, the expected result or end product. The objective must be clearly defined and agreed upon by the customer and the organization or contractor that will be performing the project. The objective must be clear, attainable, specific, and measurable. Achievement of the project objective must be easily recognizable by both the customer and the contractor. The objective is the target, the tangible end product that the project team must deliver. For a project, the objective is usually defined in terms of scope, schedule, and cost; it requires completing the work within budget (Gido and James, 2003)

2.5. Definition of Leadership

Leadership is the ability to influence the behavior of others in order to accomplish something. Fiedler (1967) states that a leader is the individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task in relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing this function in the group. Arthur Jago (1982) defines leadership as both a process and property. Leadership is the

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use of no coercive influence to direct the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objective. Leadership in the context of a set of quantities or characteristics of attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such influence. Thamhain (1991) has identified that project management requires skills in the three primary areas of abilities – leadership / interpersonal, technical, and administrative. He goes further and offers more suggestions for developing project management skills needed for effective project management performance. Robbin (1991) define leadership as the influencing of others to do what an individual with managerial authority wants them to do. Gibb (1954) stated a group leadership is a position merging from interaction process itself. Sherif and Sherif (1956) suggested that leadership is a role within the scheme of relation and is defined by reciprocal expectations between the leader and other member. Cooley (1902) stated the leader is always nucleus of tendency and o the other hand, all social movements, closely examined, will be consist of tendencies having such nuclei. Gordon (1975) defined leadership as an interaction between a person and the group members. Stogdill (1974) defined leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. Walker (1989) suggested that leadership is an intrinsic part of management. It is the manner in which the manager conducts himself in his role in order to obtain the best performance from the people he is managing. Szilagy and Wallance (1990)

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stated that the leadership is a process which one person attempts to influence another to accomplish some goal or goal.

Macomber and Howell (2003) states that successful teams are based on a foundation of trust. People come to trust others when they show a pattern of reliability in making and keeping promises, share common concerns, and are sincere. This happens in language as people make requests, negotiate, establish conditions of satisfaction, perform, declare complete, and accept the work. Listening is the master skill for leaders on this model. It includes listening for and interest of others can be served. When leaders listen for and are willing to be influenced by underlying concerns or interests, they can articulate and activate the network of commitments that can succeed for that one unique project organization. Working in this network produces the trust necessary for people to risk learning and innovating together and finally to complete the physical work. Producing trust turns strangers into friends and the partners. Trust is established when strangers come to see each other as reliable performers for each other. While that can happen, it usually does not just happen and all too often the strangers we assemble for a project, each carrying whip marks and scars, begin with suspicion the learn to distrust.

The new role of every project leader (project architect, consulting engineering, or project manager) is to shape circumstances for team members to deepen their relatedness by developing a shared understanding, cultivating commitment-making and actively explore the way others

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interpret the world. Most often exploration begins with the question, “why do you say that?” asked in a mood curiosity. Leadership starts, facilitates, and participates in these conversations. Without these conversations, we cannot expect that an assembly of people will function as a team. Clients expect those we put in charge of our projects will create a coherent team and be responsible for cultivating and shaping it through the life of the project.

2.6. Theory of Leadership

Leadership is the process of influencing other team members towards a goal. Leaders are people who do the right things to accomplish the missions and objectives of their teams. Many people think that they can intuitively with pleasing personality and personal char. However, this is not always sufficient. There are different ways to assess leadership potential and effectiveness. In general, the subject of leadership is examined in terms of three approaches:

1. Trait theories
2. Behavioral Theories
3. Contingency Theories

2.6.1. Trait Theories

Central of this approach is the belief that leaders can be differentiated from their followers through the evaluation and comparison of their physical, mental, and psychological

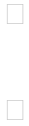


characteristic. This idea that there are certain individual traits that separate not only leaders from followers, but also effective from non-effective leaders. For more than 70 years researchers in the field have investigated human characteristics such as aggressiveness, ambition, decisiveness, dominance, initiative, intelligence, and physical features in attempts to prove that leaders are born not made. This often referred to as 'Great Man; theory.

No empirical research has ever managed to substantiate this notion, although a number of features have been identified as consistency present in effective leaders. These include dominance, high levels of energy, intelligence, and self-confidence. We must however, be careful not to confuse the correlation between these traits and leaders with the idea that they are definite predictors of leadership.

In fact, other approaches to the study of leadership have highlighted the fallacies and limitation of trait theory. Criticisms are based on the view that trait theory ignores the needs of the followers, fails to clarify the relative importance of various traits and ignores situational factors. Nevertheless, there are still those who subscribe to the theory and in recent years has been a revival of interest in it.

Since 1940s, a number of studies have attempted to answer the question 'what make a good leader and who is bad leader?' the aim of these studies sought to investigate 'whether a good leader is



born or made, presuming that leadership characteristics are either inherited or learned'. The trait studies produced a variety of traits lists such as those of Byrd (1940) and Jennings (1961). Large numbers of attributes were used in these lists to describe a successful leader; the most common ones are as follows:

1. Vision. Good leaders display an ideological vision that is congruent with the deeply held values of followers, a vision that describes a better future to which the followers have a moral fight.
2. Intelligence. Good leaders should be above average but not of genius level. They should particularly good at solving complex and abstract problems.
3. Decisiveness. Good leaders should have the ability to make calculated decisions and act swiftly according to the situation.
4. Confidence. This implies that good leader should be confident in themselves and in the ability of their followers to meet a high-performance outcome.
5. Supervision. Good leaders should have the abilities to watch and direct individuals and the group.
6. Individuality. Individual leaders can have their own ways of doing things. It might appear weird sometimes but it helps to give the leader a degree of uniqueness which can pay off when managing people; think, for example of Gandhi's way of living.



7. Integrity. Good leaders having the quality of being honest and upright their character.
8. Image building. Outstanding leaders are self-conscious about their own image. They recognize that followers must perceive them as competent, credible and trustworthy. This image building will set the stage for effective role of modeling because followers identify with the values of role models who are perceived positively.
9. Inspirational communication. Outstanding leaders often, but not always, communicate their messages in an inspirational manner using vivid stories, slogans, symbols, and ceremonies.
10. Sociability. This refers to good leaders who have the ability of mixing with their people and have social relationship with them.

As to the question of whether a leader is born with these characteristics or made for them, previous studies of trait theories were not consistent in their conclusions. While some writers believe that people are born with leadership qualities, other writers have stated that leadership cannot be created or promoted and cannot be taught or learned. It is safe then to say that there are certain characteristics which a good leader can learn by experience throughout his/her professional career, such as the ability to have a vision or planning and effective company strategy. These can be called interpersonal characteristics. On the other hand, there are

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other characteristics which a leader is born with and which are difficult (though not impossible) to learn, such as intelligence or integrity, these could be called personnel characteristics. And outstanding leaders need to have a combination of these two types of characteristics. However, the degree of need depends on the situation that he/she is dealing with at the time, such as the task and the people to be led.

2.6.2. Behavioral Theories

Between the late 1940s and the mid-1960s management thinkers were increasingly dissatisfied with the trait approach to leadership. Research during this period became more concerned with how leaders should behave rather than what characteristics they do or should possess.

Researchers hoped that by identifying behaviors that differentiated effective from ineffective leaders they would discover more clear-cut answers to questions about the nature of leadership.

This approach to the subject provided the first major challenge to the trait theories. Behaviorists argued that trait theories could only help in the selection of leaders as only those people who had the requisite personal traits would be eligible for the leadership role. The behavioral approach, they contend, allows us to train anyone to become a leader through the encouragement of individuals

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to behave in ways that are required of leaders. This approach therefore allows the number of potential leaders to be expanded.

2.6.2.1. The Ohio State Leadership Study

The first major challenge to trait theories came in 1945 from a study undertaken at the Ohio State University into leadership behavior. The rationale for the Ohio study started with the premise that no satisfactory definition of leadership exists and the term leadership is often used synonymously with good leadership. The research team designed a leader behavior descriptions questionnaire to establish the independent behavioral characteristic of leader. By the use of factor analysis, result of questionnaire revealed that a leader could fall between two behavioral dimensions. One dimension was labeled an *initiating structure* because leader in this category were more task-oriented authoritarian in nature, and concentrated on structuring of subordinated' roles to achieve organizational goals. The other dimension was labeled a consideration structure (or people-oriented) because leaders in this category were more democratic and concerned with subordinates' feelings; they showed respect for subordinates' ideas.

The Ohio study revealed an interesting correlation between a subordinate's performance and the manager's style. Subordinates who were working for manager with high scores in both dimension



(I.e. highly task- and highly people-oriented) were more satisfied with their jobs and achieved a better performance than those who were working for managers with high scores in either dimensions. In other words, managers scoring high in the initiating structure and low in the consideration structure lead to decrease in job satisfaction for their subordinates. Conversely, managers scoring high in the consideration structure and low in the initiating structure give the impression of weak leadership and this result in a loss of confidence by the subordinates. Leaders should therefore maintain the right balance between the two dimensions and that balance will depend on the situation at hand. The outcome of the Ohio study fitted very well with the contingency theories which emerged in the 1940s to narrow the gap between the scientific approach and the human relations approach.

2.6.2.2. The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Model of Leadership

The model designed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) demonstrates a continuum of leadership styles. At the extreme left of the continuum there is a boss-centered autocratic style and the extreme right there is a subordinates-centered democratic style.

1. Tells. This is located at the extreme left-hand side of the continuum. Managers who fall under this category identify the problem, make a decision alone, announce it to subordinates and



expect them to obey. Clearly, in the tells style of leadership, the subordinates have no responsibility for decision making.

2. Sells. This is a located slightly away from the left-hand side of the continuum. In this case, managers make the decision on their own as in the previous style but then make attempts to sell it to the subordinates.
3. Consults. This style of leadership moves away from the selling position to more participative approach. In this case, managers do not make a decision without first consulting the subordinates. Here, the subordinates know that the decision rests ultimately with the leader but they have the opportunity to influence the decision.
4. Involves. In this case, the manager identifies the problem and defines the limits within which the group has to decide.

Delegates. This is located at the extreme right-hand side of the continuum. In this case the manager defines the limits as in the involves styles but allows the subordinates to make and implement the decision within these limits.

2.6.2.3. The Blake and Mouton Leadership Grid

One of the best known works on leadership style is that by Blake and Mouton on the leadership grid which was first published

in 1964 then 1985 and re-published in 1991 by Blake and McCauley. As shown in figure 2.2, the grid is two-dimensional with 'concern for people' on the vertical axis and 'concern for task' on the horizontal axis. The term 'concern for' does not indicate how much concern, but it refers to the character and strength of management. The question is how the manager expresses concern about production or about people. Each axis is on scale of 1-9 representing various degree of concern that the manager has for either production or for people. At the concern are the four extreme leadership positions with a middle-of-the-road position at the center. The different types are explained more fully in the following.

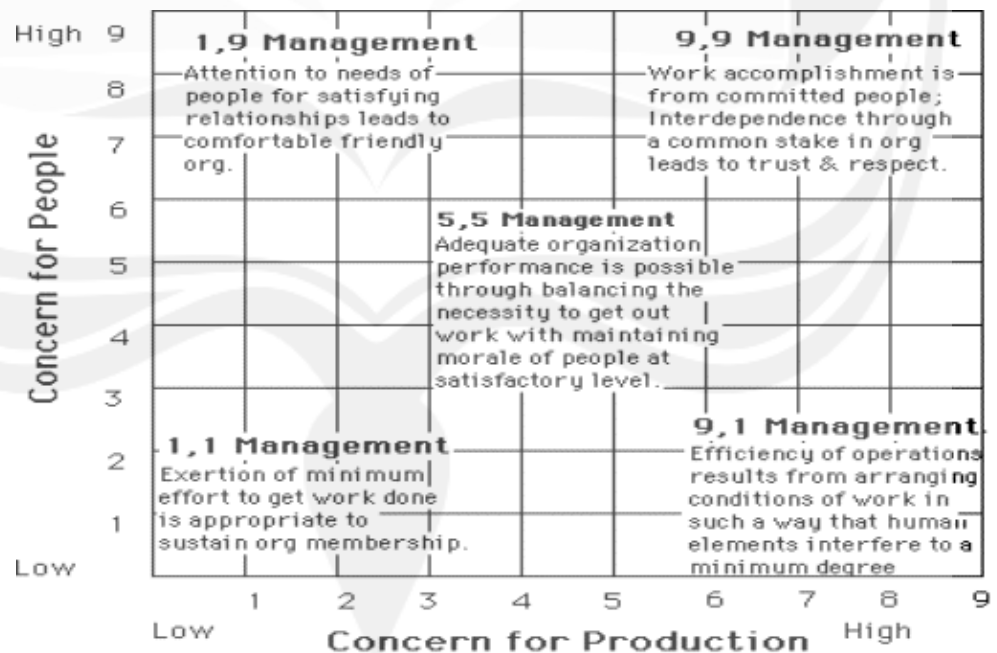
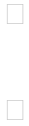


Figure 2.1. The Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (Blake and McCauley 1991.p.29)



1. The impoverished manager. This is a poor leadership position, rated (1,1), with low concern for production and low concern for people. Managers and subordinates that fall in this category are lazy with minimum effort expended to achieve production in order to avoid dismissal. Poor human relations are commonplace, resulting in conflict.
2. Authority leadership. This style is classified as a task-oriented style, rated (9,1), with a high concern for production and low concern for people. People in this category are perceived as machines in order to get the work done. Production is high but motivation is low.
3. Country Club Leadership. This is a people-oriented style, rated (1,9), with a low concern for production and high concern for people. Organizations showing this type of leadership have a very comfortable working environment with little conflict among staff. Although innovation may be encouraged, managers tend to reject ideas if they are likely to affect harmony among staff.
4. Team Leadership. This style is classified as a unified system, rated (9,9), with a high concern for people and a high concern for production. Production and organization goals are achieved from an integration of task and people. In this leadership style, managers identify the problem, consult with subordinates, seek their ideas and



give them freedom of action. This position will maintain interdependence and mutual trust among people.

5. Middle-of-the-road Leadership. This style, fair but firm and related (5,5), swings between concern for production and concern for people. Under pressure, this style of leadership is likely to swing more towards a task management style but when the situation is calm and stable, the leader adopts a compromise approach.

Blake and McCauley conclude that the 9, 9 (team) leadership style appears to be the best style, though there can be no universally applicable 'best style' as discovered later by research into contingency theory.

This point can be demonstrated if we consider a simple example. Imagine a resident engineer being informed that the ready-mix concrete lorries have arrived in readiness for pouring of a structural slab in which the reinforcement fixers have only just finished their work. At this point a decision has to be made as to whether the reinforcement has been placed properly and the framework has not been disturbed by the steel fixer's operations. There is no time for discussion with other members of the construction team, an immediate decision is needed. In this situation we might quite reasonably expect the resident engineer to become completely task oriented (i.e. utilizing a 9, 1 style of leadership). When the slab is poured and the pressure is off, selfsame engineer



may well return to being more people oriented in his approach. Whilst accepting crucial aspect of leadership is the ability to make last minute and immediate decisions, Blake and McCauley (1991) argue that in this case the resident engineer (through ongoing inquiry and critique) will be able to assume the responsibilities of team members. This, however, does not remove the likelihood of short term task oriented.

There are also many instances where supportive styles of leadership were found to be associated with higher producing work groups. But the following points were also noted.

1. On average, over all the studies, the productivity differential has only been 15 percent-a figure well below what some theorist would lead one to expect.
2. It has been suggested that it could be more effective working that leads to (or permits) more supportive styles, i.e. the casual relationship might be the other way round than that supposed.
3. Experimental studies, where the style of leadership has been deliberately manipulated as an experimental variable, have failed to reproduce the evidence on improved productivity. Out of six available studies, four reports the structuring style to be more effective and one reports the supportive style to be more effective.



4. It has been shown that some people prefer to directed and structured- in particular individuals with low needs in independence and in cultures where participation with the leader is not 'legitimate'.
5. In repetitive or routine work, a structured style of leadership leads to higher productivity in the short term, although usually accompanied by lower morale (it is arguable, but unproven, that this lower morale will eventually lead to reduce productivity).

In conclusion, the research findings into leadership styles suggest that style alone is not the answer to effective leadership, nor indeed would many its principal advocates today maintain that it was. However, there are good indications that, where the psychological contract encourages it, a supportive style of management will lead to a higher degree of contentment and to greater involvement with the work group. This is not necessarily the cause of higher productivity but it is a good base to build on. Overall effectiveness, however, is clearly dependent on more than style alone

2.6.3. Contingency Theories

Contingency theory stated that there is no one best way to organize or to manage the organization. Effective management is contingent upon the purpose that the organization is seeking to fulfill and upon the nature of the tasks that have to be managed. Among



the most well-known studies of leadership effectiveness is that by Fiedler (1967). Other contingency models of leadership were devised by House (1971), Vroom and Yetton (1973), Hersey and Blanchard (1977) and others.

2.6.3.1. Fiedler's model

Fiedler's research presented a theory of leadership effectiveness which takes account of the leader's style as well as the situational factors. His theory was that the same type of leadership style or leadership behavior will not be suitable for all situations. Fiedler made an attempt to specify in more precise terms the conditions under which one leadership style or another would be more conducive to group effectiveness. The theory thus reconciles the sometimes conflicting claims and results which would favor one style of leadership over another. Fiedler's model proposed four main variables:

1. Leader's style
2. Leader-member relations
3. The task structure
4. Position power

Based on a questionnaire designed to measure whether an individual is task-or-relationship-oriented, Fiedler analyzed



personality whilst relationship orientation refers to a more passive, permissive and considerate form.

After identifying the leadership style from the above questions, Fiedler suggested that there are three situational variables which determine the leadership condition situation and which affect the leader's role and influence. These factors can either be favorable to the leader or unfavorable, as follows:

1. Leader-member relations are measured by the degree to which the leader is trusted and liked by group members, and their willingness to follow the leader's guidance.
2. The task structure is measured by the degree to which the task is clearly defined for the group and the extent to which it can be carried out by detailed instructions or standard procedures.
3. Position power is measured by the power of the leader through which he can exercise authority and influence. Particularly, this is related to hiring and firing, promoting and demoting, disciplinary matters.

Table 2.1. Results of Fiedler's leadership effectiveness study (1967)

	I	II	III	IV
Leader-member relation	Good	Good	Good	Good
Task structure	Structured	Structured	Unstructured	Unstructured
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
Effective leader's style	Task-oriented	Task-oriented	Task-oriented	Relations-oriented
	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader-member relation	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task structure	Structured	Structured	Unstructured	Unstructured
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
Effective leader's style	Relations-oriented	Relations-oriented	Either	Task-oriented

Based on these three situational variables, Fiedler constructed eight combinations of group-task situations through which relate leadership style. The result are summarized below and in Table 2.1.

1. A task-oriented leadership style works best when the situation is either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader. For example, when there are good leader-member relations and a well-structured task with a strong position power then a task-oriented style of leadership can be most effective.

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This type of leadership style also known as structuring or directive approach.

2. A relations-oriented style works best when there is a mix of situational variables that are moderately favorable to the leader. For example, when there are good leader-member relations coupled with an unclear task and a weak position, then a relations-oriented style of leadership can be most effective. This style of leadership is also known as a participative supporting or consideration approach.

2.6.3.2. Vroom and Yetton model

Vroom and Yetton developed a decision tree model which included five style of leadership (called management decision styles) that needed to match seven situations (called decision rules). Mullins (1999) summarized the five main management decision styles as follows:

1. Autocratic

A.I Leader solves the problem or makes the decision alone using information available at the time

A.II Leader obtains information from subordinates but then decides on solution alone.



2. Consultative

C.I The problem is shared with relevant subordinates, individually.

The leader then makes the decision which may or may not reflect the influence of subordinates.

C.II The problem is shared with subordinates as a group. The leader then makes the decision which may or may not reflect the influence of subordinates.

3. Group

G.I The problem is shared with subordinates as a group. The leader acts as chairperson, rather than advocate. Together the leader and subordinates generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach group consensus on solution.

2.6.3.3. House's model

House (1971) and Mitchell (1974) studied how the behavior of leaders affected the motivation of subordinates. They identified four particular types of leader behavior:

1. Directive - here the leader gives firm guidance and clear instruction wherever possible. They organize the work of subordinates and make sure that they are fully aware of what is expected from them.
2. Supportive - the leader is friendly and supportive towards subordinates, showing concern for their wellbeing, needs, and status.

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- 3. Participative – the leader asks for subordinates’ suggestions and takes them seriously into consideration when making decisions.
- 4. Achievement-oriented - the leader attempts to get subordinates to accept full responsibility for their work, sets challenging goals and expects subordinates to work as well as possible.

The Path-Goal theory rests on two propositions which are founded in McGregor’s theory Y hypothesis:

1. If subordinates view leader behavior as a source of satisfaction, such behavior will be acceptable and satisfying to subordinates.
2. Leader behavior will be motivational to the extent that such behavior could help improve the working environment of subordinates by providing the guidance, training support, and rewards necessary for effective performance and such behavior makes satisfaction of subordinates’ needs contingent upon effective performance.

2.6.3.4. Hersey and Blanchard model

Another contingency model of appropriate leader behavior was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) who based their theory on the maturity of followers. The model of this approach also identified the two typical dimensions of leadership behavior – task behavior and relationship behavior. Hersey and Blanchard suggest that there are four combinations of task



and relationship behavior which can determine the style of leadership; these are as follows.

1. Telling. This position suggests that if followers are unable and lacking of willingness to perform the task, a leader should be task-oriented and guide their behavior. In other words, the leader should provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.
2. Selling. This position suggests that if a follower is unable but willing to perform the task, a leader should sell ideas by being high in task behavior and high in relationship behavior. In other words, the leader should explain decisions and provide opportunities for clarification.
3. Participating. This position suggests that if a follower is able but unwilling to perform the task, a leader should encourage participation by being high in relationship and low task. In other words, the leader should share ideas and facilities in making decisions.
4. Delegating. This position suggests that if follower is both able and willing to perform the task, a leader should delegate the work by being low I task and low in relationship. In other words, the leader should turn over responsibilities for decisions and implementation.

2.7. Autocratic Leadership

Leadership is organizing a group of people to achieve common goal. The leader may or may not have any formal authority. Students of leadership

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have produced theories involving traits (Locke et al., 1991), situational interaction, function, behavior, power, vision, and values (Richards & Engle, 1986).

According to Rival (2003), leadership is autocratic leadership style using the power approach in reaching decisions and the development of its structure, so that the power of the most disadvantaged in the organization. Robbins and Coulter (2002) states autocratic style of leadership describes a leader who tends to centralize power unto itself, dictate how the task should be completed, relates in unilateral decision-making, and minimize employee participation. Further Sukanto (1987) mentions the characteristics of autocratic leadership style:

1. All policies are determined by the leader
2. Engineering activities and measures dictated by the boss all the time, so that the measures will come always uncertain to a large extent.
3. Leaders often divide tasks and cooperation inner workings of each member.

Meanwhile, according to Handoko and Reksohadiprodjo (1997), the characteristics of autocratic leadership style:

1. Leader less attention to the needs of subordinates
2. Communication is only one direction that is down only
3. Leaders tend to be private in the praise and criticism of any member of



4. Leaders take the distance from the active group participation except when showed his skills.

2.8. Democratic Leadership

People-oriented democratic leadership and providing efficient guidance to his followers are coordinating the work of all subordinates, with emphasis on the sense of responsibility of internal (self) and good cooperation, democratic leadership strength lies not in the active participation of every citizen groups.

Respect the democratic leadership potential of each individual, would listen to the advice and suggestions of subordinates. Willing to recognize the expertise of specialists with their respective fields. Able to utilize the capacity of each member as effectively as possible at the time and the right conditions

1. Encourages decision making from different perspectives
2. Consultative – process of consultation before decisions are taken
3. Persuasive – Leader takes decision and seeks to persuade others that the decision is correct
4. May help motivation and involvement
5. Workers feel ownership of the firm and its ideas
6. Improves the sharing of ideas and experiences within the business
7. Can delay decision making



2.9. Free Rein (Laissez-Faire) Leadership

Free rein leadership style describes the overall leader gives employees or a group of freedom in decision making and completing the work in the manner most appropriate employees (Robbins and Coulter, 2002).

1. 'Let it be' – the leadership responsibilities are shared by all
2. Can be very useful in business where creative are important
3. Can be highly motivational, as people control over their working life
4. Can make coordination and decision making time-consuming and lacking in overall direction
5. Relies on good teamwork
6. Relies on good interpersonal relations

2.10. Accidents

Carasco (1993) carried out a study on conditions of work and their impact on the safety and health of workers. This study revealed that individual workers are very often prone to accidents associated with their work because of inadequate safety provisions. The major occupational health hazards were classified into the following:

1. Physical hazards: lighting, extreme heat, ventilation, noise, intense physical activity, electric shock, dust, fire, and vibration.



2. Chemical hazards: exposure to diesel oil, lubricating oil, and carbon monoxide.
3. Mechanical hazards: vehicle, cutting tools, hand tools, cranes, lifting gears, and contact with hot parts of machines.
4. Ergonomic hazards: repetitive work, poor work posture, long standing times, lifting heavy objects.
5. Psychological hazards: stress, excessive overtime, and lack of job control.

Some of these hazards are true for the construction project in general. However, the accidents that have received wide publicity in the recent past have mainly been associated with inadequate shoring of excavations, and inadequate reinforcement of columns, beams and slabs (and formwork) in reinforced concrete structures. Safety in excavation has particularly received considerable attention because of recurrent fatalities in this work.