### ARTICLE IN PRESS

Journal of Safety Research xxx (2017) xxx-xxx



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### Journal of Safety Research



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journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jsr

# effects of organizational complexity and resources on construction 2 site risk

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#### 8 ARTICLE INFO

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9	Article history:
10	Received 1 December 2016
11	Received in revised form 20 April 2017
12	Accepted 21 June 2017
13	Available online xxxx
15	
Q15	Keywords:
0.0	Risk site
33	RISK SILE
$\frac{33}{34}$	Construction
	Tubic bite
34	Construction
34 35	Construction Organization
34 35 36	Construction Organization Complexity

#### ABSTRACT

Introduction: Our research is aimed at studying the relationship between risk level and organizational complexity19and resources on constructions sites. Our general hypothesis is that site complexity increases risk, whereas more20resources of the structure decrease risk. A Structural Equation Model (SEM) approach was adopted to validate21our theoretical model. Method: To develop our study, 957 building sites in Spain were visited and assessed in222003–2009. All needed data were obtained using a specific tool developed by the authors to assess site risk, struc-23ture and resources (Construction Sites Risk Assessment Tool, or CONSRAT). This tool operationalizes the variables24to fit our model, specifically, via a site risk index (SRI) and 10 organizational variables. Our reandom sample is25composed largely of small building sites with general high levels of risk, moderate complexity, and low resources26on site. Results: The model obtained adequate fit, and results showed empirical evidence that the factors of com-27plexity and resources can be considered predictors of site risk level. Consequently, these results can help compa-28nies, managers of construction and regulators to identify which organizational aspects should be improved to29prevent risks on sites and consequently accidents.30

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#### Q16 1. Introduction

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Originally, most Health and Safety (H&S) research on construction 43 began by highlighting the problem of accident rates and the special na-44 ture of construction (Baxendale & Jones, 2000; Cheng, Leu, Lin, & Fan, 45 46 2010: Mahmoudi, Ghasemi, Mohammadfam, & Soleimani, 2014: Wu, 47Liu, Zhang, Skibniewski, & Wang, 2015). At the same time, it appears that something intrinsic in the construction sector produces these 48 risks. Currently, risk level assessment research has evolved from an 49 50accident-based approach towards a more prospective and holistic one, characterized by technical analysis together with organization and 51human factors (Sgourou, Katsakiori, Goutsos, & Manatakis, 2010). De-5253spite this tendency, most current studies remain based on accidents (Hollnagel, 2008; Khanzode, Maiti, & Ray, 2012). However, in a small 54number of studies, authors use precursor analysis as an alternative to 5556the classical accident approach. These authors criticize reactive research techniques that use lagging indicators, and they propose different lead-57ing indicators (predictors) to obtain information before an accident oc-58curs (Grabowski, Ayyalasomayajula, Merrick, & McCafferty, 2007; 59Hinze, Thurman, & Wehle, 2013; Rozenfeld, Sacks, Rosenfeld, & Baum, 60

\* Corresponding author. E-mail address: francisco.forteza@uib.es (F.J. Forteza). 2010; Sparer & Dennerlein, 2013; Toellner, 2001). In this study, we try61to link organization variables with risk to propose them as another set62of predictors of risk.63

Organizational factors have arisen as a relevant issue for site risk re- 64 search. Since Hoewijk (1988) proposed that the vertexes of the "Organi- 65 zation Triangle" formed by structure, culture and processes are 66 mutually dependent and conform workers behaviour, other models 67 and metaphors have been used to represent the accident process 68 (Swuste, Frijters, & Guldenmund, 2012; Swuste, van Gulijk, & Zwaard, 69 2010) and analyse this organizational side of the problem of safety. 70 One important approach is the Bowtie metaphor (Visser, 1998), which 71 identifies preventive measures before the loss of control of the accident 72 process, and mitigating measures, which can reduce injury and damage 73 (Hale et al., 2004). This metaphor clarifies the important relationship 74 between management and the scenarios in which hazards become in 75 risks. Management identifies risks, selects barriers and determines 76 their effectiveness (Swuste et al., 2012). This metaphor is the basis for 77 developing the Workgroup Occupational Risk Model (WORM), which 78 is based on accident scenarios to cover the full range of occupational ac-79 cidents (Hale et al., 2007). For each accident scenario, the items selected 80 for accident modelling with the "Storybuilder" (the tool to classify and 81 analyse accidents) included among others the management failures in 82 terms of failed control or resources (Baksteen, Mud, & Bellamy, 2007; 83

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Please cite this article as: Forteza, F.J., et al., Effects of organizational complexity and resources on construction site risk, *Journal of Safety Research* (2017), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsr.2017.06.015

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jsr.2017.06.015

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F.J. Forteza et al. / Journal of Safety Research xxx (2017) xxx-xxx

Bellamy, Geyer, & Wilkinson, 2008; Bellamy, Mud, Manuel, & Oh, 2013). 84 85 Using this approach for construction companies is complex because of 86 the particular features of the sector such as, the temporary nature of 87 sites, their physical distance from company headquarters, the low level of standardization of processes, and so on (Wilson, 1989). More-88 over, the sector is also characterized by the special conditions of agent 89 structures, business processes, and operational levels (Donaghy, 2009; 90 91 Health and safety Executive, 2009). For Swuste et al. (2012), construc-92 tion companies are similar to an organic structure that manifests itself 93 in its processes. Although process can determine the organizational 94structure on site, the means of the head company determine sufficient 95site resources.

There is a certain consensus about the relationship between organi-96 97 zational factors and risk conditions. In fact, a selection of nonspecific construction risk condition assessment methods was analysed by 98 Sgourou et al. (2010), and all of them include organizational features. 99 However, few field studies, specifically on construction sites, have con-100 nected and clarified these relationships (Fang, Huang, and Hinze, 2004; 017 Fang, Xie, et al., 2004; Mohamed, 1999; Swuste, Theunissen, Schmitz, 102Reniers, & Blokland, 2016; Teo & Ling, 2006; Wu et al., 2015), and 103even fewer have linked organizational and complexity with risk levels 104 assessed on site (Fang, Huang, and Hinze, 2004). 105

106 The normative is to use other important dimensions to analyse the relationship between H&S and firms' organization structures. H&S 107 Laws have been incorporated in Europe since the 1990s through 108 European Directives. These directives establish a new framework for all 109agents intervening in processes (Ros Serrano et al., 2013) that might 018 111 generate an adaptation within a company's structure, principally for H&S human resources and the functions of contractors and subcontrac-112 tors, to comply with requirements of the new preventive model. Howev-113 er, most companies only complied with formal aspects of the H&S Law in 114 115terms of fulfilment of required documentation. "Safety has become too 116bureaucratic. With the slogan 'manage the risk, not the paper work', Health and Safety Executive (HSE) calls for a return to the controlling 117 of hazards and risks at construction sites ..." (Swuste et al., 2012, p. 5). 118 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. First, we provide 119 a literature review to build a theoretical framework to analyse the rela-120121 tionships among organizational aspects and risk on sites. Next, we build our theoretical model and state our specific set of hypotheses. Third, we 122detail the methods and materials we have used to conduct our empirical 123analysis. Subsequently, we report our empirical results. Finally, we end 124 125the paper with a discussion of our findings, their implications and conclusions. 126

## 127 2. Literature review on risk and organizational issues on 128 construction sites

Most studies try to find connections between different aspects of 129safety performance (SP), safety management systems and wider organi-130zational issues (Bellamy, 2009; Bellamy et al., 2008; Jørgensen, 2016; 131 Niskanen, Louhelainen, & Hirvonen, 2016; Wang, Ding, Love, & 132133 Edwards, 2016). On the one hand, SP is a concept under investigation 134that very few empirical studies have analysed (Wu et al., 2015). According to Ghasemi, Mohammadfam, Soltanian, Mahmoudi, and Zarei (2015) Q19 SP has two aspects: risk conditions (e.g., working conditions, protections, 136procedures, and rules) and safety participation (e.g., motivations, safety 137 138 meetings participation). On the other hand, safety management systems are a broader organizational concept that includes among others prac-139tices, policy, and meetings. 140

141Table 1 presents a summary of the literature review. Each study is142described depending upon the index that the authors have created.143As seen in Table 1, SP and safety management includes several ele-144ments, depending upon an author's definition. Each study focusses on145one set of issues related to these terms, e.g., Törner and Pousette146(2009) noted that any study of safety management must develop a set147of organizational measurements as reported in Table 1. Manu et al.

(2010) defined Construction Project Features (CPFs), such as the ele- 148 ments that linked to accident causation. These authors wrote, 149

"These CPFs are organisational, operational, and physical attributes that 150 characterise construction projects, and they emanate from the client's 151 brief, project management decisions and design decisions. Like other 152 distal/originating influences in construction accidents, the abovementioned CPFs are high level determinates of the nature, extent and 154 existence of immediate causes of accidents...." (p. 688).

Despite the important connection between SP and safety management recognized in the literature, we observe a lack of empirical evidence on the relationships between these issues (Knegtering & 159 Pasman, 2009; Körvers & Sonnemans, 2008; Swuste et al., 2016), and 160 the different content of both them. Due to the lack of a common and 161 narrow definition of the concept of SP, we have focused on the assessment of site risk. In relation to safety management, and considering 163 our model of risk site assessment, we focus only on the organizational 164 structure and resources of safety management. 165

Based on studies reported in Table 1, we propose in Table 2 the following factors of on-site complexity and resources.

3. Theoretical model and hypotheses	
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Based on technical knowledge and evidence found in the literature, 170 we propose to assess to what extent the risk on sites can be explained 171 based on the levels of two organizational factors, complexity and resources. Our proposal is that risk on site, in addition to the classical definition of the combination of probability of exposure to the hazards and their consequences, can be explained in part as a function of both factors as reflected in expression (1): 176

$$Risk = f(complexity; resources; \varepsilon)$$
(1)

where  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$  contains all other factors affecting risk on site.

Our model connecting risk with organizational factors and its empirical testing are among the major contributions of our research. Table 2 179 shows the factor classification used in the literature review. This general 180 classification of factors has been also confirmed by an expert panel, as 181 we will report below in Section 4.3. We have excluded from our analyses those factors that, although considered in the literature, did not 183 apply to our sample or research purpose or that were explicitly excluded after consulting an expert panel. The specific names of each factor 185 and variable are only illustrative of their content according to the literature we have reviewed; we are not proposing here an accurate definition or measurement of each concept. 188

3.2. Hypotheses

In the following, we connect the main important elements from the 190 literature review that are used to build the factors and the correspond- 191 ing hypotheses. 192

#### 3.2.1. Hypothesis 1 on site complexity (F1)

Complexity of site is an important factor affecting risk conditions. 194 This complexity is measured by examining type of project (considering 195 repair, maintenance, and extension projects) (Hon et al., 2010), high 196 risk typologies (Hatipkarasulu, 2010), other project elements (type of 197 work, site restrictions, design complexity, and the level of construction) 198 (Manu et al., 2010), and finally, the project nature (size of site and com-199 plexity of construction) (Fang, Huang, and Hinze, 2004; Fang, Xie, et al., 200 2004). Some of them increase fatal accidents such as falls from height, 201 which represented 50% of fatal accidents from 1996–1997 to 2007– 202 2008 according to Health and Safety Executive (2009). 203

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