

Research article

Project Manager Leadership Impacts in a Water Resources Project in Nepal

Paul James

Graduate School, Bangkok University, Rama 4 Road, Bangkok, Thailand
+66203503500
E-mail: paul.j@bu.ac.th



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Abstract

Purpose: This is a research paper focused on assessing a project manager's leadership behaviour and the raised project issues relating to a water resources project in Nepal.

Methodology: In order to consider more implicitly the questions and issues raised, this empirical groundwork utilised an interpretive perspective. The scope for this research was the on-site contractor team. The population for this study was made up of a number of individuals (14) managers and engineers located at one main-site, and a total of 11 Managers/Engineers were determined as the resultant sample frame.

Findings: The outcomes consisted of five (5) main themes, namely: Management Issues; Project Issues; Team Issues; Systems Issues; Training Issues, raised from an initial question.

Practical Implications: The paper gives a clear insight into the practical issues surrounding a water resources assessment and the development of appropriate strategies that were illuminated. The paper also addresses some of the implications for continuing project construction site developments. The paper suggests that projects of this kind may benefit from a greater use of training, technology in the form of an integrated ICT system and integrating construction expertise in the construction phase of the project.

Originality: Very little research has been conducted in this area and the paper exposes weak aspects of the project leadership capability previously unexplored in today's water resources construction environments.

Keywords: Leadership, Project management, Management, Contractor, water resources

Introduction

The success of projects today depends largely on effective leadership (Suresh et al., 2009) at all levels in the organizational hierarchy (Munns & Bjeirmi, 2001; Nair 2009). Project management constantly has to succeed with only a sole focus on management (Skipper & Bell, 2006). This means that projects cannot cope with the leadership challenges that will face construction projects (Songer, Chinowsky & Butler, 2006). Leadership



has been identified as key internal influence (Dulaimi et al., 2005), a driver (Bossink, 2004a) and an important function (Tatum, 1989) required for innovation.

Working on technical issues where the lowest priced bids often win construction contracts (Warseck 2002) brings about many phases in the application of appropriate levels of leadership to offset differences at site between professional on-site managers/engineers that helps solve problems in terms of time, cost and safety. This paper examines the construction and impact of leadership in a water resources project in Nepal.

Leadership is seen as an “operative” requirement to increase overall performance of a project (Orme, 2004). However, leadership is traditionally viewed as a “One Man” exercise (Mintzberg, 1973) present in singular/unity of command structures such as bureaucracies (Pearce & Manz, 2005). Over the last Century, research has indicated a wide variety of leadership perspectives (James, 1996) – classical approaches such as Trait theory (Bass & Bass, 2008); behavioural and contingency theories - behavioural qualities (Blake & Mouten, 1964); Situational qualities (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973, and Hersey & Blanchard, 1978); and Transformational and charismatic leadership - Transactional and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978).

Another way for leadership to be presented is through authoritarian versus collaborative approaches. Bass & Bass (2008) depicts the authoritative notion of leadership as “...controlling, power-oriented” and illustrates the imposition of decision-making through power for regulating subordinate behaviour. Collaborative leadership however, shows a leader need to share the decision-making (Bass & Bass, 2008) and builds trust and respect (Goleman, 2000) requiring greater innovation through new ideas.

More recently, Bennis (2003) advances three leadership qualities: a shared vision (Taylor, 2009), a strong moral code (Trevino, Hartman & Brown, 2000) and the pursuit of constant change (Crowell, 2011) through creating shared value (Porter & Kramer, 2011). Further, “power” traits – comprehension, personality and people – have evolved to connect the leader to followers and these characteristics or traits are considered inherent in modern leaders (Murphy, 2005). Essentially the modern leader acts not only as a leader for followers and for other leaders (Lussier & Achua, 2004) but also as a bespoke change agent (Duclewicz & Higgs, 2003), whilst being overtly accountable and pertinent to the group tasks (Spinelli, 2006).

Leadership style is the pattern of management behaviour that characterises the leader (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2007). Further, there would appear to be discontinuities regarding what leadership style is appropriate in any given situation – supportive (Cooke-Davies, 2001); directive (Blanchard, Zigarmi & Zigarmi, 1985); participative (Thyer, 2003); and achievement-orientated styles (Goetsch & Davis, 2006; James, 1996). Some project managers appear to be selected for their respective leadership style of engagement and how this is perceived to match the organisational/project environment (Kerzner, 2001). Thus, a combination of leadership styles has been shown to be more effective at ensuring higher levels of organisational performance (Smit, Cronje & Je, 2002). Managers utilising and showing leadership competence (Gann, 2000) are today also focused on enhancing innovation practices – heightening the innovation-leadership influence.

Leadership in Construction

Leadership in construction is considered “*personal management behaviour devised to integrate personal interests in the articulated pursuit of meeting project requirements*” (James, 2005; Walker, 1999; Kim & Maubourgne, 1992). This requires distinct construction of collaboration and communication patterns (Yukl, 2010). The act of leadership is considered by many as being essential to managing projects (Pheng, 1995) and building cohesion (Steyn, 2008).

Little academic consideration has been given to leadership in complex modern construction projects (Bresnen et al., 1986; Chan & Chan, 2005; and Vroom & Jago, 2007), which indicates a lack of crucial engagement in gaining an understanding of leadership perspectives (Langford, Hancock, & Gale, 1995). Project managers in complex construction projects (James, 2015; Hillebrandt, 2000) act in a productivity-strained environment (Sanvido, 1988), often within a leadership “crisis” (Toor, 2006) and being a leader in “transition” (Peters & Le Cornu, 2004). A newer leadership style is therefore anticipated to be developed and used (Toor & Ofori, 2008). Recently, the leadership research has changed towards assessing transformational leadership (Chan & Chan, 2005), and consequent power issues (Liu & Fang, 2006). Today, transformational leadership and visionary leadership are some of the terms used to describe this new leadership dichotomy. Despite this, the project construction industry still favours a technical engineering focus over a project leadership focus (Skipper & Bell, 2006). It would be fair to state that ethical leadership, authentic leadership and servant leadership has seen no discernable research assessment to date. Organisational culture has different effects on leadership practices (Adler, 1991) and is considered a primary environmental impact on leadership characteristics as it affects the determination of an appropriate leadership style (McKenna, 2006). Assessing the culture is an



important requirement for understanding leaderships constraints, issues and possible areas for tension. Effectively assessing leadership has been a focus for leadership theorists for over a century. This creates the context for the research question, *How are the various top management leadership styles employed in complex construction projects characterised?*

Methodology

To investigate the issues generated within the site construction context, a deeper, more involved approach was considered appropriate. In order to consider more implicitly these generated issues, this empirical foundation exploited an interpretive approach (Hill, Thompson & Williams, 1997; Walsh, White & Young, 2008). This was an attempt to understand the perceptions of site managers/engineers of their engineering practices. The site managers/engineers were considered specialist knowledge agents and actors (Benn et al., 2008) as their opinions and experiences influenced the effectiveness of leadership practices, and the development and application of building appropriate site management knowledge.

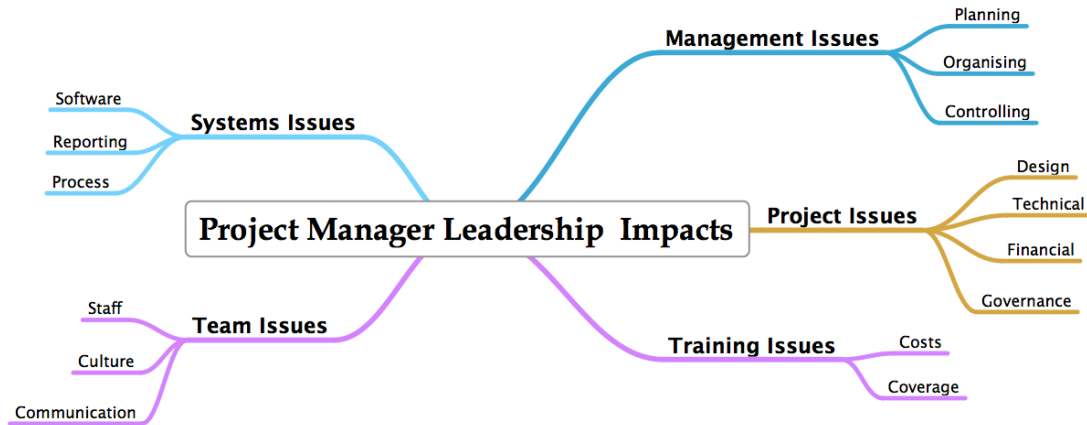
The research used a semi-structured interview conducted with site managers/engineers, which provided an appropriate element of context and flexibility (Cassell & Symon, 2004) and this was further aided by applying an inductive/theory building approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Given the lack of appropriately focused research in this area, this methodology is seen as suitable for creating contextual data for the purpose of forming richer theory development (Cayla & Eckhardt, 2007).

The population frame (14) for this study was made up of all managers/engineers who had responsibility for managing the site and located at one office site, which is considered an existing frame (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003) and delivered an initial means for appropriate sampling assessment with clear boundaries (Coyne, 1997). Given that not all individuals in this group were available for interview – being overseas, the sampling frame was configured from this population as being described as 11 in number, where each respondent was included (Fink, 2000), and no respondent was considered out of scope relative to the research orientation and requirements (Koerber & McMichael, 2008). Consequently, and in line with a qualitative approach (Bryman, 2012), the respondents were chosen through applying the approach of a targeted population of interest (Carman, 1990) and this reflected the criteria of theoretical purpose, relevance and appropriateness (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Additionally, using Glaser's (2004) sampling processes, a total of 9 managers/engineers were thus determined as the resultant sample frame, which could also be considered convenience sampling according to Harrel and Fors (1995) and the sample frame meets the saturation requirements of Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) and thus takes the sample frame beyond the expected level.

Each interview was audio recorded for future analysis. Interviews were conducted in English and took approximately one hour. All interviews were conducted through Skype and recorded digitally after gaining explicit permission (following Duranti, 2007) and were later transcribed verbatim using NVivo 11 software using the approach indicated by Bailey (2008). The conduct of the interviews follows a similar process used by Gray and Wilcox (1995), with each individual group being asked the same set of questions – modified through ancillary questioning (probes and follow-ups) in the same way as Balshem (1991). To increase the reliability of the data, the actual transcription was returned to each respondent – via e-mail – for comment, correction, addition or deletion and return, which followed the process of validated referral (Reeves & Harper, 1981). Whole-process validity was achieved as the respondents were considered widely knowledgeable of the context and content associated with the research orientation (Tull & Hawkins, 1990). Each interview was initially manually interrogated and coded initially using the Acrobat software according to sub-themes that 'surfaced' from the interview dialogue – using a form of open-coding derived from Glaser (1992a); and Straus and Corbin (1990). This treatment was also reinforced and extended through the use of thematic analysis conducted using the NVivo 11 – qualitative software package (Walsh, White & Young, 2008). Each interview was treated and coded independently. In this way, no portion of any interview dialogue was left uncoded and the overall outcome represented the shared respondents views and perspectives through an evolving coding-sequence (Buston, 1999). Various themes were sensed from the use of the software packages, as well as from the initial manual-coding attempts. This dual form of interrogation was an attempt to increase the validity of the choice of both key themes and sub-themes through a triangulation process (Onwuegbuzie, Leech & Collins, 2012). NVivo 11 was further used to explore these sub-themes by helping to pull together each of these sub-themes from all the interviews (Harwood & Garry, 2003). In this way, it was possible to capture each respondent's comments across transcripts (Riessman, 1993) on each supported sub-theme and place them together for further consideration and analysis (Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

The structure of the outcome is greatly influenced by the emergence of the key-themes and sub-themes. The preferred strategy for the analysis of the primary data was to use the stated research questions, which are used as a guide to providing the outcome (based on Yin, 1994).

Figure 1 - Research outcomes



2.1 Illustration of Research Outcomes

The outline of the research outcomes for this study is shown in Figure 1 above. The framework supported by appropriate literature, illustrated below in Table 1, consists of four (5) main themes, and thirteen(13) sub-themes. The outcomes are stated below where the discussion focuses on the sub-theme elements within each key theme. The discussion format used in this paper reflects the respondent's voice through a streamlined and articulated approach for reporting. Table 1 and 2 illustrate the respondent references for each sub-theme. This paper draws on site management views of leadership and consequently, the style adopted for reporting and illustrating the data is greatly influenced by Gonzalez, (2008) and also Daniels et al. (2007) and is discussed below, focusing on the raised research question and the resultant themes.

Table 1. Research question, themes and references

Research Question	Main Themes	Sub-Themes	No. Refs
<i>What is the impact of the various leadership styles in complex construction projects?</i>	Management Issues	Planning	22
		Organising	14
		Controlling	20
	Project Issues	Design	19
		Technical	16
		Financial	12
		Governance	17
	Team Issues	Staff	11
		Culture	12
	Systems Issues	Software	11
		Reporting	9
	Training Issues	Costs	17
		Coverage	13



Table 2.Major themes and respondents

Major Themes	Respondent Number
Management Issues	1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11
Project Issues	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11
Team Issues	2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11
Systems Issues	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11
Training Issues	1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10

Results

The results are presented below using the research question as a pointer and supportive empirical evidence through indicated extractions as in Gonzalez, (2008). Consequently, considering the first research question - *What is the managerial impact of the various leadership styles in complex construction projects?* The results are stated as 5 main themes and 13 sub-themes as indicated below, where each sub-theme theme is placed with each corresponding main theme.

When applying the prism of leadership styles to the project, a number of styles appear to be operationalized:

Management Issues

Planning

Management planning experience at site appeared to be difficult and reflected top management's singular focus. For example, one respondent (6) suggested that, *...Our PM doesn't plan. He just directs. It's impossible to manage this way. Maybe he's too old...* Another respondent (9) suggested that, *...We are always having to fight deadlines because he [the PM]has us working on other things...* This aspect is further underpinned by another respondent (2), who stated that, *...It would be much easier if we could work to an organized plan. Everyone would agree to this...*

Organising

Organising impacts on staff reflected management's uneasy relationship with lower staff. This is typified by one respondent (4) who indicated that, *...I sit and work for 12 hours before a deadline and organize my work efficiently, only to have my plan scrapped because the PM is not ready...* Another respondent (8) pointed out that, *...A lot of energy goes into organising this place. Unfortunately, it is often upset by one individual[PM], who doesn't know how to manage properly...* This is underpinned by another respondent (1) who stated that, *...As far as we are concerned, the PM has no organisational ability at all. He should go...*

Controlling

Controlling issues were raised as a very specific problem. As one respondent (11) signified, *...He [PM] likes to control everyone. It is like he doesn't really trust what we do...* Another respondent (6) stated, *...I could understand if his [PM] controlling nature helped the project, but he does nothing but ask questions about nothing – and he understands less...* Another respondent (2) advised that, *...The PM wants everything done his way. He even changes the forms we use for collecting data about the project. Unfortunately, this shows he is out of tune with project management today...*

Project Issues

Design

In terms of design, management appeared out of their depth and staff were critical of the skills and aptitude of management. For example, one respondent (10) denoted that, *...No one understands the process and objectives of design and how design contributes to engineering here at site...* This is supported by another respondent (4) who affirmed that, *...No engineer was leading the design. Nor were there any integrative aspects perceived. Consequently the project manager is seen as coercive, insular, and biased, whilst showing a lack of trust...*

Technical

Issues central to the project operations at site were flagged. As one respondent (5) showed, *...The PM does not understand the consultant at site. He ignores their suggestions. It's not good...* Another respondent (2) advocated that, *...We use old technology and we use old methods. It's no wonder we're behind schedule...* Another respondent (8) stated that, *...Some machines are just sitting around because no one knows how to repair them properly...*

Financial

Financial aspects were central to the projects wellbeing and were seen in a negative light by staff. As one respondent (11) suggested, *...The projects behind. We know that. Unfortunately, we don't have the financial*



flexibility to move forward as we're broke... Another respondent (3) stated, *...We just can't get the PM to understand that performance as evaluated by the client means we'll get paid - Not the shouting match that often erupts in client meetings....* This is supported by another respondent (6) who specified that, *...We are desperate for money. I don't know how long we can go on. The PM will have to change...*

Governance

Administrative issues appear to impact on staff work operations. As one respondent (4) suggested, *...The project is not run well at all. The client must think we're crazy here...* Another respondent (7) indicated that, *...We do our best here, but its sad to think that our operational efforts are not really accepted, as management tell us how to do our jobs...* Another respondent (1) noted that, *...The project does not have enough staff on site, so cannot verify aspects of the contract that needs to be verified and then does not allow the payment of items achieved...*

Team Issues

Staff

Staff appear not to think of themselves as part of a tea. This is supported by one respondent (6) who formally stated that, *...We want to work here, but this incessant changing. It is difficult. It's like management don't know what to do...* Another respondent (3) indicates that, *...Management seem to work against each other. One says this. Another says that. Each demanding that we do what they say...* This is further supported by another respondent (11) who indicated that, *...Teamwork isn't something that is practiced here unfortunately. Each department is separated. Each operates on their own...*

Culture

The culture appears to be predisposed by values that top management is right and that there is a split between top management and other staff. This is reinforced by one respondent (8) who stated that, *...Most of the supervisors work together very well. We have no problems. It's when management comes to site. That's the problem...* Another respondent (2) indicated that, *...We are dedicated to this project and enjoy working... However, they are always fighting. It's just like one's opinion doesn't matter...* This is further argued by one respondent (7) who detailed that, *...There is a lot of conflict here, and sometimes not even data satisfies the PM...* Another respondent (5) retorts that, *...Not all of the issues are understood by the PM, but he insists on doing it his way...*

Communication

One respondent (6) indicated that, *...we don't have meetings – their just shouting matches between management. It's pointless working here.* However, another respondent (11) stated that, *...top management don't listen to us at all. They only listen to off-site managers.* Another respondent (3) suggested that, *...too many times we are given orders and then they change their minds and in the middle of doing what they want, your given another set of orders. It's frustrating and dangerous.*

Systems Issues

The focus for the systems issues was on how the systems help build enhanced performance at site. Staff appeared to view this as requiring greater managerial focus and serious strategic intent.

Software

As one respondent (6) detailed that, *...A lot of our software is beyond the PM. We spend a lot of time explaining things that shouldn't need explaining...* Another respondent (11) proposed that, *...We try to ensure that our system is secure, but management just will not allow us to invest in appropriate software...* This is supported by another respondent (3) who stated that, *...Our software is treated as standalone, not as part of an integrated system. It means that management have files on their system that only they can access, which would be useful to the project...*

Reporting

Reporting is seen by staff as a difficult task because of the complexities of the project, contract and the conflict issues surrounding the project management. As one respondent (4) indicated, *...Since no one is trained in reporting, we just can't seem to persuade the client that work is done according to the contract... and we don't get paid...* Another respondent (9) supported this and identified that, *...It's difficult to support reports, because the data is just not available...* However, another respondent (5) added that, *...Because the software costs so much only certain computers have them. It is difficult to know what people are using and what their reporting requirements are...*

Process

Processes appear to be viewed by staff as focused on top management, rather than on the project at site. This is indicated by one respondent (2) who detailed that, *...A lot of the managerial processes are specific to one individual – the PM. It's the way it is here...* Another respondent (7) suggested that, *...The PM does not appear to have systems in place to effectively manage the task they are given under the contract...* This is supported by



another respondent (4) who stated that, *...We don't use any method or mathematical construction to support our designs, it is basically about the opinion of a few people at the top – not the best way to run things.* One respondent who typifies the respondent's (1) view as, *...I can't see the management processes used provides appropriate supervision, as one person says one thing and another something else creating a lot of conflict.*

Training Issues

Top managers were considered inexperienced or inadequately trained and this has led to the issue of an authoritarian approach. This is typified by one respondent (3) who proposed that, *...he's just plain autocratic. Everything has to be done when he wants it done. It's like being in school again.* Another respondent (1) suggested that, *...He's very abrupt. He's in charge, but his attitude is very hard.* Another respondent (8) signified that *...It doesn't matter what you're doing, you have to do things for him immediately.*

Costs

Cost of training were seen as a burden imposed by management. As one respondent (3) indicated, *...No we don't have any training. This isn't something that interests management...* Another respondent (9) suggested that, *...We should have it on a regular basis. When something new crops up, but its difficult to get...* Further, another respondent (5) identified that, *...Unfortunately training costs too much. We don't have the budget anymore, so it is bad. We just do our best...*

Coverage

It would appear that staff view the lack of training as detrimental to their job performances. As one respondent (7) directed that, *...There is no recognised on-site training provided for supervisory staff. That's not only sad, it can be dangerous, as we don't know who has the right sets of skills for each job...* Another respondent (2) proposed that, *...We're constantly arguing about certain designs. There's a lot of documents and letters about many issues. It's very serious as we aren't trained for this...* Another respondent (10) indicated that, *...There is some safety training for the Contractor workers, but no other training is carried out...*

Discussion of Outcomes

What leadership styles were evident at site? A variety of leadership styles appear to be adopted at site. The different leadership theories are related to the outcomes stated in each main theme as below:

Management Issues

This was certainly an autocratic style, but without any relational qualities - a form of unitary command (Mintzberg, et al., 2003). At site, this individual was fixated on "my experience" (Flanagan, 1994) as a basis for leading the project. Planning appeared to be an issue that good managers do consistently (Morris, 2004). In the implementation of production planning this was not considered a premium-engineering requirement (Slywotzky, 1996) and lacked an engagement in appropriate management concepts in their project planning systems (Ballard & Howell, 1998). This further reflected low involvement and implementation of a performance measuring system (Alarcón & Diethelm, 2001) and the lack of intellectual leadership (Hamel & Prahalad, 1994) whilst exhibiting restricted levels of project innovation (Langford & Male, 2001).

The stated inability of the project manager to organize his time has created in negative responses to staff leadership expectations (Yukl, 2010). This has wasted project effort and resources (Cole, 2002), denied project-scheduling abilities and therefore efficiencies (Cheng, Dainty, & Moore, 2005) and provided project denigration through an inability to perform to objective requirements (Williams, 1998).

Utilising an autocratic leadership approach that was deemed as divisive by staff (James, 2005) did not help in building trust (Bennis, 2003), and operationalising a leadership ethic predisposed to helping staff (Cohen, 2000) rather than hindering them. The autocratic approach could also be seen as an abusive management posture (Kotter, 1990) designed to enforce superficial and unrealistic concepts of work operations (Harrison, 1992) and rules (Clough, Sears, & Sears, 2000). This results in negative cultural outcomes (Dainty, Cheng, & Moore, 2004), project delays and negative professional innovative practices (Stoker, et al., 2001) caused by inferior emotional intelligence (Bar-On 1997).

This is underpinned with the context that the project is 5 months behind schedule, has received little or no remuneration for the past 7 months for work done, and that the project manager was showing signs of articulated stress, pressure and visible impatience in the project progress.

Project Issues

Design skills appear to be raised as a concern, as these reflect leadership roles (Harmsen, Grunert & Declerck, 2000) that are both important and also considered a mandatory commitment to building value (Christoffersen, 2003; Afshar Ghotli & Rezaei, 2013) within a modern construction project operation. The project manager's lack of design skills appears to have seriously compromised the perception of leadership competence (Bossink, 2004b) at site and impedes the performance design effectiveness (Horman, et al., 2006).



The project manager appeared to often utilise “older” methods of conducting project operations and this leaves the staff perplexed and disappointed. This defeats good operational practices (Koskela, 2000), affects the efficiency of the project (Sundqvist, Backlund & Chronéer, 2014) and does little to provide rigorous and meaningful engineering solutions (Riley, Magent & Horman, 2004) to assist in creating better project outcomes for the client.

Another concern raised was the financial issues that were becoming intolerable as the failure of the project management affected the remuneration received for work carried out (Ahmed et al., 2003); project delay (Shen, 1997); schedule (Harris & McCaffer, 2003); and the cash-flow resulting from an extended cash shortage (Al-Joburi, Al-Aomar & Bahri, 2012). Thus, staff viewed this as a leadership failure underpinning the management of the project (James, 2014). This has led to staff perceiving that these financial effects have spilt over to affect training, resourcing and staffing considerations at site.

Project governance issues were raised and were seen as destructive to site moral and poor financial management (Patel & Robinson, 2010). Managing at site appears to be purely a personal affair for the project manager that creates conflicting priorities for stakeholders, management, staff working to contractual requirements and denigrates project integration (Pellegrinelli, 1997).

Team Issues

Team leadership inextricably linked to project managers working in the project construction work environment (Yukl, 2010). In more ideal circumstances, the positive influence of the project manager's leadership helps develop appropriate teamwork patterns surrounding project engagement (Hauschildt & Kirchmann, 2001). This also raises the issue of ineffective independent management of the project (CCTA, 1993) and emphasises the role and influence of the project leader (Kunda, 1992). Of further concern, was the implication of the “tyranny of projects” espoused by (Koch, 2004) where staff were seen to be working furiously only to have their work orientation consistently changed by management at short notice (Pinto & Slevin, 1988).

The project culture and its continuing development appeared to create perceptions of inadequacy of management and consequent toxic leadership (Frost, 2004) and notions of betrayal and mistrust (Bresnen, Goussevskaia & Swan, 2005). The work ethic appears to be interrupted by the project manager's incessant changes, which created a culture not only of suspicion, frustration and inadequacy (Scott-Young & Samson, 2004) but also helped staff learn and integrate with other aspects of the project (Baiden, Price, & Dainty, 2006). Of similar disquiet is the project manager's inaptitude for communication (Naoum, 2001), the demonstrated lack of leadership charisma (House & Howell, 1992), engaging in project social interaction (Emmitt & Gorse, 2003), being focused on building more effective teams (Egan, 2002) and project social norms (Meredith & Mantel, 2006) or communicating essential company values (Biggs, Dingsdag & Roos, 2008).

Systems Issues

The application of ICT in projects (Huff & Möslin, 2004) and its focus has been an important operational requirement relating to information storage and flows (Molnár, Anderson, & Ekholm, 2007) in today's construction projects. Consequently, it is expected that project managers are qualified and understand how to integrate software and hardware systems into everyday use. Unfortunately, the project manager's lack of ICT skills predisposes project failure (Peansupap & Walker, 2005) by creating a lack of project data surety, challenges transparency, shared workspaces (Alshawi & Underwood, 1999) and trust and affects staff behaviour by imposing specific technological bound behaviours (Monteiro, 2000) by the software systems adopted.

Reporting issues were raised as they were greatly affected by the ICT availability, its utilisation (Sarshar & Isikdag, 2004) and engagement and collaboration of staff (Weippert, Kajewski & Tilley, 2003) with the project manager. Further, declaration of work and the system associated with claiming and payments were thus ill-informed and materially inadequate. This would probably help to understand why the project has been paid so little remuneration for work done because of conflicting sub-goals, financial uncertainty, internal politics and constraints, and a reporting system operating in perplexity (Rowe, Mason & Dickel, 1982).

Of further concern were issues raised relating to ICT processes. This had effects on both internal and external constraints, such as payment systems, personnel data, design and engineering data – drawings (McCaffer & Hassan, 2000), contract changes and work amendments. Data management systems at site were lacking in coverage (Betts, 1999) and focus (Bjork, 1999) as they were considered unsuited to the projects conventional (manual) working practices (Mathieson & Keil, 1998) – especially for sharing of information and documents (Sriprasert & Dawood, 2002). This affected how the project was managed where productivity calls for new and innovative approaches to utilise IT-related innovation (Stewart, Mohamed & Daet, 2002) and investments, which were disregarded (Dos Santos & Sussman, 2000).

Training Issues

Training issues were that illustrate the lack of management leadership in its provision. This is borne primarily through the initial costs, which the project manager does not appear to appreciate. Training programmes



designed to enhance safety and efficacy and can be affected by a variety of circumstances (Galbraith, 2002). Thus, limited retrieval of cash-flow from the client because of inconsistency of data generation (Betts & Shafagi, 1997) appears to have had a knock-on effect on training provision. Lower staff are trained by local staff and reflects lack of commitment from the project manager (Newman & Sabherwal, 1996). This affects many aspects of the project operation, as few were certified by an independent body or certified to international standards thus decreasing opportunities for enhanced construction capability (Walker & Betts, 1997) and enhanced safety (BS 6164:2011). Further this has the effect of reducing client-facing services so vital in a construction project (Kong, Li & Love, 2001).

Not all staff are trained to use ICT or software packages and they appear dissatisfied (Hampson, et al., 2001) and as a consequence develop their skills in an haphazard way. Hardware and software appeared to be incompatible across the many sites. This makes integration difficult. It also means that multiple location training is necessary and increases the cost, whilst reducing the project capability. Since no training is provided, staff have to learn by themselves and with a limited speed internet makes skill building difficult. Further ICT implementation can be seen as a training barrier by some people (Senge et al., 1999), and for the project manager (Alshawi & Ingirige, 2003).

Limitations

It would appear that there is little or no academic work that has been conducted in Nepal on leadership style in Project construction projects. Further, this is a case targeted to one project and further research is needed to extend the scope to other projects.

Conclusion

The project does not appear to resemble a learning organisation (McGill, Slocum, & Lei, 1992). It does not either reflect a good application of leadership via "internal negotiation" (Parchoma, 2009). The project manager operates in an independent construction world devoid of appropriate work ethics, singular project activities that leaves the project cash-starved, a client relationship that is strained and a staff engagement that needs considerable leadership effort (Laufer, 2012). This lack of leadership capability has cost the company greatly in terms of reputation, client relationships and project continuity leading to questions about foreign project management capability through substantiated under-performance claims (Kloppenborg & Opfer, 2002). This has been signaled in the literature as mirroring destructive leadership (Harvey et al., 2007). The necessity for implementing whole-organisation IT has been overlooked greatly by the project manager and is seen as detrimental to the efficacy and performance of the project (Duyshart, et al., 2003). Changing leadership practices is therefore fundamental to change efforts and practices (Newman & Wehlage, 1995) rationalized to develop more effective project performance outcomes for the staff, management and for the client.

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