

SAFETY PERFORMANCE has long been measured using lagging indicators such as total recordable incident rate (TRIR) that involve counting the number of injuries that occur over time. However, recent research has shown that these metrics suffer from severe limitations in terms of validity, reliability and relevance (Hallowell et al., 2021). For example, it is well established that recordable injuries are underreported in industries such as construction (Probst et al., 2008) and even over millions of worker hours, changes in TRIR are almost never predictive because the occurrence of injuries is rare, and the timing of an injury is almost entirely random (Salas, 2020). Despite these limitations, TRIR and other lagging safety indicators are still used to make critical business decisions such as comparing business units, evaluating manager performance, prequalifying contractors, tracking safety performance and evaluating the effectiveness of safety interventions (Hallowell et al., 2021).

Although reliance on lagging indicators is still extensive and ubiquitous, some organizations have begun to move beyond using only lagging indicators as measures of safety performance and have explored measuring safety system elements as an alternative. Put simply, safety practitioners have begun to measure what they do to keep people safe as a measure of safety. These metrics are often referred to as leading indicators (Alruqi & Hallowell, 2019) and are arguably preferred over lagging metrics because they can prompt action before injuries occur (Guo & Yiu, 2016; Hopkins, 2009; Lingard et al., 2017).

When safety activities are used as leading indicators of safety performance, they are usually measured by the frequency with which they are performed (e.g., the rate of prejob safety briefs or safety observations; Hinze et al., 2013). This rationale stems from the theory that a higher quantity of safety actions and activities correlates with a higher capacity to manage and mitigate risks of incidents. Research has shown that these quantitative

KEY TAKEAWAYS

- Safety-focused leadership engagements are important because, if performed well, they can convey company priorities, demonstrate care and reinforce positive safety culture.
- A team of 11 safety experts representing the four construction industry sectors identified and prioritized the attributes of an effective leadership engagement.
- A scorecard was created to assess the quality of a leadership engagement, and the scorecard was shown to be reliable in independent validation.

measures of a safety system correlate with future lagging indicators (Salas & Hallowell, 2016). However, measuring only the quantity of safety activities may promote a checking-the-box mentality to meet quotas and targets. The authors contend that the strength of a safety system is ultimately the product of the quality and quantity of the organizational activities performed to promote safety. Although measures of quantity are relatively easy to consistently measure and track, measures of quality are more challenging because measuring quality is inherently subjective and difficult to assess consistently and reliably.

The authors' objective was to create and demonstrate a process for creating valid, reliable quality-based measures of safety performance (i.e., quality-based safety leading indicators) that is built on a strong statistical and scientific foundation. Here, safetyfocused leadership engagements were used as a case example because they have great potential to influence safety culture and are observable over short periods. Leadership engagements are the practice by which organizational leaders emotionally connect with employees to positively influence their commitment, motivation and well-being within the work environment (Nasomboon, 2014). Businesses require effective leaders to connect with employees not only to communicate and foster a positive organizational culture, but also to support the workplace performance (Amagoh, 2009; Kieu, 2010). Additionally, without a validated quality assessment strategy, a leadership engagement can be interpreted in many ways because observers may hold different values. Although different values and perspectives can be seen as an asset, the authors contend that the inconsistency would be a fatal detriment in terms of creating a valid, benchmarkable metric.

Importance of Leadership Engagements

Productive, meaningful interactions with leaders may improve employee engagement levels and increase commitment to the organization's safety mission. Since the turn of the century, engaging the workforce has been described as "one of the greatest challenges facing organizations" (Frank et al., 2004, p. 15). Engaging employees is important because it can increase motivation, enthusiasm, morale, pride and feelings of self-worth (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2002). As shown by Harter et al. (2002), who analyzed 7,939 business units across 36 organizations, higher engagement levels among employees positively correlated with improved productivity, job satisfaction, safety, commitment and bottomline earnings. Conversely, disengaged employees can experience lack of motivation, job satisfaction, and physical and mental

Wael Alrugi and Mike Quashne

Effective leadership

through action, influence,

communication and

persuasion sets the

standard of workplace

behavior and, therefore,

represents a critical facet

to the success of any

enterprise.

well-being, which could cause them to burn out and experience cynicism (Christian et al., 2011; Maslach et al., 2001; Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008). To address the employee apathy within their work environments, academics and practitioners find leaders to be one of the strongest agents of positive change (Carrillo, 2010).

Conversations with employees are an avenue for leaders to communicate key values that reinforce the organization's culture (Griffin & Neal, 2000). In fact, research suggests that high-quality leadership interventions yield positive effects on the emotional, behavioral and social status of employees, which translates into improved work performance (Babcock-Roberon & Strickland, 2010). Effective leadership through action, influence, communication and persuasion sets the standard of workplace

behavior and, therefore, represents a critical facet to the success of any enterprise (Beus et al., 2010).

Although research on the positive attributes of leadership is well established (Barling, 2014), the relative importance of the many attributes of effective leadership remains unstudied. Most peer-reviewed studies on safety leadership that involve empirical data have focused primarily on the role of on-site leadership (e.g., project managers, frontline supervisors, crew or team leads) and their impact on collectivism, compliance to rules and regulations, and overall performance (Conchie et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2017). Moreover, most validated leadership performance survey instruments

are designed to evaluate the personal qualities of a leader and their leadership styles, rather than the quality of an engagement between the leader and employees (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The present study advances the body of knowledge by 1. documenting key positive attributes of leadership engagements available in literature; 2. brainstorming additional features that should be considered for safety-focused leadership engagements; 3. scor-យ ing the relative importance of each attribute with a panel of safety experts; and 4. organizing the results into a leadership safety engagement scorecard that enables consistent assessment of quality.

Safety-Focused Leadership Engagements

The term "leader" carries many meanings. Although employees such as supervisors, crew leaders or project/site managers

can all be considered leaders depending on the context, the authors define a "leader" more narrowly as "a highly influential individual who is not involved on site for day-to-day operations." Additionally, the authors focused on engagement between a leader and employees where safety is the primary purpose and the topic of discussion. Within this scope and definition, the authors aimed to first identify and document the attributes of a strong leadership engagement found in literature.

A great deal of literature discusses safety leadership, primarily from a theoretical and philosophical perspective of showing care. For example, leaders are viewed as inspiring, caring and confident when they communicate safety as their ethical responsibility, demonstrate that safety should not be

sacrificed for other competing business priorities (e.g., work pressure), and accept personal responsibility as the leader (Koestenbaum, 2002; Turner et al., 2002). Hence, successful engagements depend on the words leaders use and their manner of speaking because it is human nature to block information that causes cognitive dissonance (Berns et al., 2005). With preplanned and skilled dialogue, leaders can break through cultural and personal barriers to establish and foster a shared system of values and generate genuine buy-in from employees (Schein, 2010).

Researchers have recommended that leaders examine their own precon-

ceived notions of safety and focus on aligning their overt and covert actions with the true purpose of their safety engagement (Schein, 2010). Even when an organization succeeds in establishing a positive safety culture, leaders play a crucial role in maintaining and consolidating that culture. Hence, what leaders pay attention to, react to, allocate resources for and acknowledge in their engagements with employees can form the foundation for their organization's safety culture. Through engagements, leaders can generate dialogue on recent safety successes or failures on site to promote shared analysis, problem-solving, learning and correct decision-making among employees (Weick, 2001).

Although most leaders claim they genuinely care about employees, they often lack the confidence and skill in expressing

that care when interacting with employees (Lloyd, 2020). Failure to express and demonstrate these values, despite sincere efforts, can lead to situations in which credibility and trust in leadership are broken (Carrillo, 2005). For example, if a leader tries to simply lecture employees, many of whom are the true subject-matter experts, it can decrease employee respect and buy-in and degrade the organization's safety culture (Daft & Weick, 1984). Only by establishing trust will employees believe that the leader not only will protect their cause but also cares about their well-being and respects their competence (Schoorman et al., 2007). Their perception of a leader's sincerity is just as important as the leader having genuine sincerity. This rudimentary yet important example shows the need for standardized and validated guidance for leaders on how to have high-quality engagements.

Recruiting Experts

The focus group included 11 experts who were active members of the Construction Safety Research Alliance (CSRA). All participants were certified as experts in the field of construction safety because they met the minimum expertise criteria strictly defined by Hallowell and Gambatese (2010a). Collectively, the panel included representation from oil and gas, electric power generation, infrastructure and commercial building sectors. Additionally, the group had more than 100 years of collective experience in the industry (mean = 18.7 years) and more than 80 years of experience in safety and health (mean = 13.3 years). The minimum experience in the industry and in safety and health was 8 years and 6 years, respectively. The maximum experience in the industry and in safety and health was 33 years and 29 years, respectively.

LEADERSHIP ENGAGEMENT SCORECARD

Research Methods

The authors' goal was to produce a scoring protocol for safety-focused leadership engagements that reflects the consensus of a panel of industry experts. Therefore, the authors adopted a multiphased focus group research protocol to address three fundamental questions:

- 1. What are the characteristics of a high-quality leadership engagement?
- 2. What is the relative importance of these characteristics?
- 3. What is the reliability of the scorecard to assess the quality of leadership engagement?

Focus groups typically involve a small group of certified experts who engage in discussion under the supervision of a moderator on a particular subject, and their collective beliefs and experiences are leveraged as data (Barbour & Kitzinger, 1998). In such group-based discussions, the moderator typically prompts conversations through open-ended questions and records individual opinions, points of consensus and disagreement, and group decisions. The focus group in this study was involved in reviewing, sharing, discussing, and prioritizing values and perceptions of subjective traits that cannot be empirically observed or measured until they are operationally defined. A focus group method was adopted because past studies have shown that participants become more candid in group-based settings than individual interviews (Guest et al., 2017) and the aggregation of expert opinions in an open forum allowed the authors to leverage the collective wisdom of the group (Hallowell & Gambatese, 2010a). The specific research steps (recruiting experts followed by three phases: identifying key attributes of excellent engagements, determining the relative importance of potential predictors and checking reliability) are described here.

FIGURE 1 LEADERSHIP ENGAGEMENT SCORECARD (FRONT)

Gui	TY RESEARCH ALLIANCE Idance on using this scorecard and rating a leadership engagement is	provided o		erspective se side.
	STATEMENT	WEIGHT	TRUE = 1 FALSE = 0	WEIGHT
	EXAMPLE	2	0	2*0=0
1	The leader was prepared to be on the jobsite.	2		
2	The leader was paying attention during the engagement.	3		
3	The leader was not conducting a safety audit.	3		
4	The leader attempted to understand and learn the project and specific challenges faced by workers.	2		
5	The leader used names in the conversation.	3		
6	The leader learned something personal about the employees.	4		
7	The leader asked what motivates workers to be in this trade.	3		
8	The leader asked questions to understand the job.	4		
9	The leader showed employees how their job fits into the company's big picture.	3		
10	The leader made everyone feel like safety is more important than production.	3		
11	The leader asked what is needed to be safer and more effective.	5		
12	The leader asked questions to learn more about the most dangerous parts of the job.	5		
13	The leader asked questions to learn more about how the dangerous parts of the work will be controlled.	5		
14	The leader empowered the workers to share ideas for improvement.	5		
15	The leader confirmed that they understood the ideas and concerns that were shared.	3		
	TOTAL WEIGHTED SCORE (sum weighted scores fo	or items 1 th	rough 15)	

Maximum Score = 53

Furthermore, 50% of panelists held a master's degree in civil engineering from an accredited institution in a field relevant to the study, and all panelists had served as members or as chair of a safety-and-health-related committee.

Phase 1: Identification of Key Attributes of Excellent Engagements

Following the literature review, the first major research step was to identify the attributes of a high-quality, safety-focused leadership engagement. The focus group was informed of the attributes that were previously validated in literature (e.g., Carasco-Saul et al., 2015; Denham, 2006; Vaughn et al., 2006), and then open brainstorming sessions were held in which the experts were asked to leverage their experience and identify additional attributes. In a round-robin session, each expert

was asked to share an idea until all ideas were exhausted. This round-robin style of eliciting ideas was used to reduce initial group-related biases to obtain the greatest volume of ideas possible (Hallowell & Gambatese, 2010a). In the end, the team identified and defined 37 unique attributes.

Phase 2: Determining the Relative Importance of Potential Predictors

Building toward the authors' goal of creating and validating a scorecard, the next step was to prioritize and weight the attributes identified and defined in Phase 1. The purpose of the rating process was to achieve consensus among the experts on the panel regarding the final rating for each attribute. To decrease bias typically found in expert-opinion-based studies (Bhandari & Molenaar, 2020), the authors conducted three rounds of

anonymous surveys. In each round, the experts individually rated the importance of each attribute on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represented "not at all critical" and 5 represented "highly critical." Between the rounds, the focus group moderator provided the median rating for each attribute and the degree of consensus (measured as the absolute deviation) and facilitated a discussion during which the experts could share their experience and opinions. The median was reported instead of the mean because it is less susceptible to potentially biased responses from outliers, as suggested by Judd et al. (2017), and Hallowell and Gambatese (2010a). Additionally, absolute deviation was reported instead of standard deviation because it reflects the level of dispersion from the median. Before the study began, the group set the target consensus to be an absolute deviation of less than one unit (i.e., an average of $\pm 5\%$ about the median) for each rating.

A total of 228 ratings were obtained from more than three iterative rounds of focus group surveys. To retain the most influential and positive characteristics of a leadership engagement, only the 15 attributes that achieved a consensus-based score of 2 or more on the Likert scale were retained for use in the scorecard (Figure 1). In other words, attributes with an average score reflecting "not critical" (less than 2) were not retained. The elegance of this scorecard is that observers simply need to observe an engagement and indicate whether they believe each attribute was present or absent. A final score for a given engagement can be obtained by simply summing the weights of the attributes observed as present or true (see Figures 1 and 2).

Phase 3: Reliability Check

Reliability is critical for the validity of any new metric, especially if it is used for benchmarking and is intended to be

FIGURE 2 LEADERSHIP ENGAGEMENT SCORECARD (BACK)

CO	NSTRUCTION ETY RESEARCH ALLIANCE	HIP ENGAGEMENT SCORECAR Observer Perspects
	page provides example characteristics of a high-qualit rver should use their best judgement when scoring.	y leadership engagement. This is not a comprehensive list and t
1	The leader was prepared to be on the jobsite.	Was dressed appropriately (e.g., wearing work boots, not in business attire etc. Used all PPE and followed applicable safety rules even if they were not require Appeared as a member of the team instead of an office representative.
2	The leader was paying attention during the engagement.	Actively avoided any distractions like phone or paperwork. Used positive body language (eye-contact, nodding head). Asked follow-up questions or acknowledged what was being said.
3	The leader was not conducting a safety audit.	Introduced themselves and clarified the reason for their visit. Used the engagement as an opportunity to have a conversation. Was friendly and personal.
4	The leader attempted to understand and learn the project and specific challenges faced by workers.	Asked questions to understand the challenges that workers may be facing. Verbally appreciated the challenges and importance of the work.
5	The leader used names in the conversation.	u Learned (or knew) names and used them throughout the engagement.
6	The leader learned something personal about the employees.	Attempted to learn something personal about the workers (e.g., family, background, hobbies, hard hat stickers etc.). Shared something personal about themselves. Asked about any personal concerns that the workers have related to work.
7	The leader asked what motivates workers to be in this trade.	Asked workers why they joined this line of work. Asked workers what they enjoy about their work.
8	The leader asked questions to understand the job.	Attempted to learn about the craft and the work environment. Asked questions about the work and listened to the responses without interrupting.
9	The leader showed employees how their job fits into the company's big picture.	Praised workers for their contributions or acknowledged how they are helping company achieve its mission. Acknowledged workers unique perspectives. Acknowledged the value of workers time, skill, and/or ideas. Communicated back to workers what was learned from them.
10	The leader made everyone feel like safety is more important than production.	Asked workers about their work pressures. Recognized safety as top priority by emphasizing stop-work authority.
11	The leader asked what is needed to be safer and more effective.	 Asked workers what they need to be safer and/or more efficient. Asked workers to share their ideas and suggestions for improving the work environment.
12	The leader asked questions to learn more about the most dangerous parts of job.	 Asked workers what hazards in their job could lead to serious injury or fatality life-critical hazards).
13	The leader asked questions to learn more about how the dangerous parts of the work will be controlled.	 Asked workers what safeguards are required to protect against life-critical haza Was direct and clear about safety concerns and expectations related to life-critical hazards.
14	The leader empowered the workers to share ideas for improvement.	Explicitly asked for ideas or feedback on safety. Ustened to safety ideas and did not appear to be in a rush. Shared how previous ideas were considered and incorporated. Provided a point of contact to share new ideas or concerns.
15	The leader confirmed that they understood the ideas and concerns that were shared.	Ended the engagement by summarizing what they learned from workers and v support they will provide. Was genuine and personal in their responses.

Note. Reprinted from "Leadership Engagement Scorecard," by Construction Safety Research Alliance. Copyright 2021. Reprinted with permission.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF EXTERNAL PANELS

	No. of experts	Mean years of experience
Panel 1	5	23.5
Panel 2	3	12.3

a quality-based leading indicator of performance. Therefore, the authors' next question was, when observing the same engagement, to what extent do different observers arrive at the same conclusion? That is, what is the reliability of this proposed scorecard?

To test reliability, the research team used the triangulation research methodology by assembling one internal and two external panels to test the scorecard using videos of actual engagements (Carter et al., 2014). The internal panel was comprised of the same experts who created the scorecard through their brainstorming and ratings. The two external panels were comprised of certified experts who were not involved in the creation of the scorecard. Table 1 shows the key demographic information for the participants that served in both the external panels. All experts on the external panels were safety managers and senior management across different sectors in the construction industries including oil and gas, utilities, and commercial construction. The selection of experts was performed following the method described by Hallowell and Gambatese (2010a). The rationale behind creating the two independent panels with comparable expertise was to control in-group biases and robustly examine the reliability of the scorecard for practical application.

Each panel was shown two unique leadership engagement videos and was asked to use the scorecard to rate the quality of the engagement. Both videos captured a routine engagement between a senior leader from management with a worker on a construction site. To control for any unintended confounding effects, neither the leaders nor the workers involved in the videos were privy to any details of the research presented in this study before the video was recorded.

Once the experts viewed the first video, they were asked to individually complete the leadership engagement scorecard. After the individual ratings were submitted to the facilitator, the aggregated results were revealed, and the inconsistencies were discussed. The process was repeated with the second video. As before, absolute deviation was used to determine the level of agreement among the panel and the target consensus was $\pm 5\%$.

The results indicated that the reliability target was met by all three panels in both the first and second videos before any discussions were held. Although a larger field study would be needed to validate these findings, the above finding indicates that safety practitioners representing different sectors within the construction industry without prior training or calibration on using the leadership engagement scorecard can be expected to produce statistically similar conclusions. Additionally, to improve the clarity of the scorecard guidance (i.e., discretionary information provided to determine whether the attribute is present or true; Figure 2, p. 25), the external panels independently participated in moderated discussions to provide feedback on improving the language

that the internal panel used to create the final product. This research is intended to support a transition from lagging indicators to leading indicators that consider how well safety activities are performed.

Key Findings & Practical Guidance

This study provided the foundation for a framework for measuring and improving safety-focused leadership engagements. As the scorecards were created, the academic facilitators documented general themes in the expert panel discussions. These discussions provided deeper insight into what makes a leadership engagement excellent. Although 15 individual attributes were identified, discussed and weighted when creating the scorecard, six overarching themes were observed. These themes align with past literature on the importance of demonstrating care, robust and honest communication, and reinforcing positive behavior (Carrillo, 2005). A leader should consider these guiding principles to have a natural conversation that hits the right essential features of a high-quality leadership engagement. In the spirit of producing guidance that is consumable by an executive audience, the following recommendations are purposely concise.

- 1. Be genuine and understanding. An engagement should be used as an opportunity to listen and learn from employees to develop a better understanding of how they can be better supported. For example, to showcase a culture of unity, a leader must avoid being distracted during the engagement (e.g., multitasking), should dress appropriately for the site conditions, and should comply with all the rules and regulations that are imposed on the workers.
- 2. Demonstrate care. Leaders should take an interest in getting to know employees and seek to understand their personal and professional motivations and priorities. This understanding can allow leaders to tap into the pride that employees harbor toward their work.
- 3. Show humility. In most cases, leaders (as defined in this study) are not safety experts, nor are they typically experts in different crafts found on site. Therefore, leaders should ask questions to learn more about the work and acknowledge the skills and efforts of individual workers needed to successfully complete the work. By asking follow-up questions and giving workers an opportunity to describe the intricacies of their craft, leaders can provide meaningful implicit recognition that bolsters motivation and satisfaction.
- 4. Emphasize that safety is a priority. When leaders connect with employees on a personal level, they can implicitly and explicitly encourage employees to trust and share their ideas and concerns. A leader must verbalize the importance of safety over production targets.
- 5. Focus on what matters most. Workers know when a leader is visiting to perform a safety audit. Instead of reviewing the site for potential violations, the leader should ask questions to understand the hazards and conditions in the work environment that could result in serious injury or fatality. The leader can then explicitly ask how the employees plan to protect themselves and what the company could provide to make their jobs safer. It is highly recommended to not use safety-focused engagement as an opportunity to perform or appear to perform job evaluations. Its purpose is to forge lasting connections and seed values of shared culture.
- 6. Show appreciation and solicit feedback. The leader should ask for feedback and use active-listening skills by reflecting

on what was shared and summarizing the feedback. Active listening demonstrates commitment to the employees and reinforces trust.

In summary, the scorecard and associated guidance have been developed to provide leaders with the tools for excellent engagements. The authors' hypothesis, which will be tested in a subsequent study, is that the scores derived from using this scorecard will correlate with future performance. The proposed scorecard also provides an accurate way for leaders to track their performance, suggestions from the field and action items to improve on in the future.

Conclusion

Workers experience various stressors that can potentially affect the momentum of work and cause priorities to shift. These stressors may include weather, production schedule, material availability and even pandemics. In environments with such stressors, employee well-being and focus on safety become increasingly important. Past research has shown that leaders can play a vital role in managing these challenges and can help workers as they navigate conflicting priorities. Poor or no communication from leadership can heighten apathy, constrain growth, increase division and decimate safety culture. Conversely, leaders who have excellent engagements may boost morale, foster innovation, increase continuity and strengthen safety culture.

The leadership engagement scorecard and associated guidance presented in this article may support the assessment and improvement of the quality of safety-focused leadership engagement. The content shows leaders what a good safety-focused leadership engagement looks like and provides a framework for personal growth and continuous improvement.

Additionally, this study questions the conventional methods of safety measurement by helping organizations transition from lagging indicators such as TRIR to quality-based leading indicators. Although leading indicators are being used across industries, they are mostly quantitative in nature (e.g., measuring the frequency with which a safety activity is performed). Here, the authors take a different tactic by creating a reliable and internally valid method of scoring quality. The authors envision that organizations may jointly measure both the quality and quantity of safety activities to indicate the strength of a safety system.

Future researchers are encouraged to use the scorecard presented here to test the hypothesis that the quality of safety-focused leadership engagements is predictive of future performance. The statistical reliability of the scorecard suggests that it would serve as a potentially meaningful independent variable. **PSJ**

References

Alruqi, W.M. & Hallowell, M.R. (2019). Critical success factors for construction safety: Review and meta-analysis of safety leading indicators. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 145(3). https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0001626

Āmagoh, F. (2009). Leadership development and leadership effectiveness. *Management Decision*, 47(6), 989-999. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00251740910966695

Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M. & Zhu, F.W.W. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire: Manual and sampler set. Mind Garden Inc.

Babcock-Roberson, M.E. & Strickland, O.J. (2010). The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Journal of Psychology, 144*(3), 313-326. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223981003648336

Barbour, R.S. & Kitzinger, J. (Eds.). (1998). Developing focus group research: Politics, theory and practice. Sage.

Barling, J. (2014). The science of leadership: Lessons from research for organizational leaders. Oxford University Press.

Berns, G.S., Chappelow, J., Zink, C.F., Pagnoni, G., Martin-Skurski, M.E. & Richards, J. (2005). Neurobiological correlates of social conformity and independence during mental rotation. *Biological Psychiatry*, *58*(3), 245-253. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2005.04.012

Beus, J.M., Payne, S.C., Bergman, M.E. & Arthur, W., Jr. (2010). Safety climate and injuries: An examination of theoretical and empirical relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(4), 713-727. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019164

Bhandari, S. & Molenaar, K.R. (2020). Using debiasing strategies to manage cognitive biases in construction risk management: Recommendations for practice and future research. *Practice Periodical on Structural Design and Construction*, 25(4). https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)SC.1943-5576.0000521

Carasco-Saul, M., Kim, W. & Kim, T. (2015). Leadership and employee engagement: Proposing research agendas through a review of literature. *Human Resource Development Review, 14*(1), 38-63. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484314560406

Carrillo, P. (2005). Lessons learned practices in the engineering, procurement and construction sector. Engineering, *Construction and Architectural Management*, 12(3), 236-250. https://doi.org/10.1108/09699980510600107

Carrillo, R.A. (2010, May). Positive safety culture: How to create, lead and maintain. *Professional Safety*, 55(5), 47-54.

Carter, N., Bryant-Lukosius, D., DiCenso, A., Blythe, J. & Neville, A.J. (2014). The use of triangulation in qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, *41*(5), 545-547. https://doi.org/10.1188/14.ONF.545-547

Christian, M.S., Garza, A.S. & Slaughter, J.E. (2011). Work engagement: A quantitative review and test of its relations with task and contextual performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 89-136. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01203.x

Conchie, S.M., Moon, S. & Duncan, M. (2013). Supervisors' engagement in safety leadership: Factors that help and hinder. *Safety Science*, *51*(1), 109-117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2012.05.020

Daft, R.L. & Weick, K.E. (1984). Toward a model of organizations as interpretation systems. *The Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 284-295. https://doi.org/10.2307/258441

Denham, C.R. (2006). The 3 Ts of leadership engagement: Truth, trust and teamwork. *Journal of Patient Safety*, 2(3), 162-170.

Frank, F.D., Finnegan, R.P. & Taylor, C.R. (2004). The race for talent: Retaining and engaging workers in the 21st century. *Human Resource Planning*, 27(3), 12-25.

Frankel, A.S., Leonard, M.W. & Denham, C.R. (2006). Fair and just culture, team behavior and leadership engagement: The tools to achieve high reliability. *Health Services Research*, 41(4 Pt. 2), 1690-1709. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6773.2006.00572.x

Griffin, M.A. & Neal, A. (2000). Perceptions of safety at work: A framework for linking safety climate to safety performance, knowledge and motivation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(3), 347-358. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.5.3.347

Guest, G., Namey, E., Taylor, J., Eley, N. & McKenna, K. (2017). Comparing focus groups and individual interviews: Findings from a randomized study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 20(6), 693-708. https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2017.1281601

Guo, B.H.W. & Yiu, T.W. (2016). Developing leading indicators to monitor the safety conditions of construction projects. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, 32(1). https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE) ME.1943-5479.0000376

Hallowell, M., Quashne, M., Salas, R., Jones, M., MacLean, B. & Quinn, E. (2021, April). The statistical invalidity of TRIR as a measure of safety performance. *Professional Safety*, 66(4), 28-34.

Hallowell, M.R. & Gambatese, J.A. (2010a). Qualitative research: Application of the Delphi method to CEM research. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 136(1), 99-107. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0000137

Hallowell, M.R. & Gambatese, J.A. (2010b). Population and initial validation of a formal model for construction safety risk management.

Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, 136(9), 981-990. https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0000204

Harter, J.K., Schmidt, F.L. & Hayes, T.L. (2002). Business-unitlevel relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(2), 268-279. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87

Hinze, J., Thurman, S. & Wehle, A. (2013). Leading indicators of construction safety performance. Safety Science, 51(1), 23-28. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2012.05.016

Hopkins, A. (2009). Thinking about process safety indicators. Safety Science, 47(4), 460-465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2007.12.006

Jiang, W., Zhao, X. & Ni, J. (2017). The impact of transformational leadership on employee sustainable performance: The mediating role of organizational citizenship behavior. Sustainability, 9(9), 1567. https://doi.org/10.3390/su9091567

Judd, C.M., McClelland, G.H. & Ryan, C.S. (2017). Data analysis: A model comparison approach. Routledge.

Kahn, W.A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. Academy of Management Journal, 33(4), 692-724. https://doi.org/10.5465/256287

Kieu, H.Q. (2010). Leadership styles and organizational performance: A predictive analysis (Publication No. 3442746) [Doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Koestenbaum, P. (2002). Leadership: The inner side of greatness, a philosophy for leaders (2nd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Lingard, H., Hallowell, M., Salas, R. & Pirzadeh, P. (2017). Leading or lagging? Temporal analysis of safety indicators on a large infrastructure construction project. Safety Science, 91, 206-220. http://dx .doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2016.08.020

Lloyd, C. (2020). Next generation safety leadership: From compliance to care. CRC Press.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W.B. & Leiter, M.P. (2001). Job burnout. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 397-422. https://doi.org/10.1146/an nurev.psych.52.1.397

Nasomboon, B. (2014). The relationship among leadership commitment, organizational performance, and employee engagement. International Business Research, 7(9). https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr .v7n9p77

Patton, M.Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. Health Services Research, 34(5 Pt 2), 1189-1208.

Probst, T.M., Brubaker, T.L. & Barsotti, A. (2008). Organizational injury rate underreporting: The moderating effect of organizational safety climate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 93(5), 1147-1154. https:// doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.5.1147

Salas, R.I. (2020). Empirical evaluation of construction safety: Insights from economic trends, national cultures and workplace injury rates (Publication No. 27835552) [Doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado at Boulder]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Salas, R. & Hallowell, M. (2016). Predictive validity of safety leading indicators: Empirical assessment in the oil and gas sector. Journal of Construction Engineering and Management, 142(10). https://doi.org/ 10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0001167

Schaufeli, W.B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V. & Bakker, A.B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. Journal of Happiness Studies, 3(1), 71-92. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1015630930326

Schein, E.H. (2010). Organizational culture and leadership. John Wiley & Sons.

Schoorman, F.D., Mayer, R.C. & Davis, J.H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present and future. Academy of Management Review, 32(2). https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.24348410

Turner, N., Barling, J., Epitropaki, O., Butcher, V. & Milner, C. (2002). Transformational leadership and moral reasoning. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(2), 304-311. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021 -9010.87.2.304

Vaughn, T., Koepke, M., Kroch, E., Lehrman, W., Sinha, S. & Levey, S. (2006). Engagement of leadership in quality improvement initiatives: Executive quality improvement survey results. Journal of Patient Safety, 2(1), 2-9.

Weick, K.E. (2001). Leadership as the legitimization of doubt. In W. Bennis, G.M. Spreitzer & T.G. Cummings (Eds.), The future of leadership: Today's top leadership thinkers speak to tomorrow's leaders (pp. 91-102). Jossey-Bass.

Wildermuth, C. & Pauken, P.D. (2008). A perfect match: Decoding employee engagement—Part I: Engaging cultures and leaders. Industrial and Commercial Training, 40(3), 122-128. https://doi.org/10.1108/ 00197850810868603

Siddharth Bhandari is associate director of research at the Construction Safety Research Alliance (CSRA) housed in the University of Colorado Boulder. He holds a Ph.D., M.S. and B.S. in Civil Engineering from the University of Colorado at Boulder. Bhandari's research expertise exists at the nexus of leading indicators, hazard recognition programs, multimedia training programs, human factors engineering and safety culture to improve safety on construction sites. He has published more than 20 peer-reviewed papers and oversees more than \$1 million yearly in external funding. For his research, he has received the National Safety Council's Rising Star 2021 Award.

Matthew Hallowell is executive director of CSRA. He is also a President's Teaching Scholar and **Endowed Professor of Construction Engineering** at the University of Colorado. Outside academia, he is the founder and executive director of Safety Function LLC and serves as technical advisor to the **Edison Electric Institute and Interstate Natural Gas** Association of America. Hallowell is a professional member of ASSP's Rocky Mountain Chapter.

Caleb Scheve, CSP, CHST, is a member of CSRA and is director of safety and health for Price Gregory International. He has performed safety functions in both field and corporate

settings for the past 10 years. Scheve holds an M.S. in Occupational Safety and Health from Columbia Southern University and a B.S. in Fire Protection and Safety Engineering Technology from Oklahoma State University. He holds various leadership positions in industry organizations such as the Pipe Line Contractor's Association, Distribution Contractors Association and Interstate Natural Gas Association of America Foundation.

James Upton, GSP, is a corporate health and safety manager with 25 years of experience in the construction trades. For the past 10 years, his efforts have focused on OSH, working alongside industry leaders to reduce serious incidents and fatalities. Upton is a journeyman ironworker and holds an M.S. in Occupational Health and Safety from Columbia Southern University and a B.S. in Construction Management from the National Labor College. Upton also serves as chair and vice-chair of the American Fuels and Petrochemical Manufacturers and CSRA, respectively.

Wael M. Alrugi is an assistant professor in the department of Civil Engineering at Al Jouf University in Saudi Arabia. He holds a Ph.D. in Civil Engineering from University of Colorado **Boulder with a focus on Construction Engineering** Occupational Safety and Health, an M.S. in Civil **Engineering from Western Michigan University** and a bachelor's degree in Architectural Engineering from Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. Alruqi specializes in construction safety, and his primary research interests are safety leading indicators, safety climate and culture, and predictive analytics. He also has experience in the construction industry as a project engineer.

Mike Quashne, CUSP, is a member of CSRA's Board of Advisors and a manager of Business Transformation and Performance Assessment for Baltimore Gas and Electric. Quashne has been a safety and human performance practitioner since 2016 in the utility sector. He holds an M.S. in Operations Research from the Air Force Institute of Technology, and a B.S. in Aeronautical Engineering from the U.S. Air Force Academy. Quashne is a member of ASSP's Chesapeake Chapter and **Utilities Practice Specialty.**

Acknowledgments

This research was made possible by the generous funding provided by the members of the Construction Safety Research Alliance (CSRA). The authors thank the CSRA industry partners for providing data, advice and inspiration for the work.