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Impact of institutional pressures on organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment: Evidence from megaprojects

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1 **Investigating the Impact of Institutional Pressures on Organizational Citizenship**

2 **Behaviors for the Environment: Evidence from Megaprojects**

3 Ge Wang¹, Qinghua He², Bo Xia³, Xianhai Meng⁴, Peng Wu⁵

4 **Abstract**

5 A brisk building boom of megaprojects leads to a wide range of environmental problems,
6 particularly in developing countries such as China. To prevent environmental problems
7 effectively, megaprojects require proactive environmental initiatives that are based on
8 individual, voluntary, and discretionary behaviors—also known as organizational citizenship
9 behaviors for the environment (OCBEs). OCBEs (e.g., sharing knowledge to prevent
10 pollution and making suggestions to minimize waste) play an important role in improving
11 megaproject environmental performance. However, this line of research is still in its infancy
12 and the institutional-psychological mechanism leading megaproject practitioners to engage in
13 OCBEs is largely unexplored. To fill this gap, this paper presents an individual-level analysis
14 that investigates how institutional pressures impact project practitioners' OCBEs according to

¹ Lecturer, College of Public Administration, Huazhong Agricultural University, 1 Shizishan Street, Wuhan, 430070, China. E-mail: ge_wang@yeah.net

² Professor, Research Institute of Complex Engineering & Management, School of Economics and Management, Tongji University, 1500 Siping Road, Shanghai, 200092, China (corresponding author). E-mail: heqinghua@263.net

³ Associate Professor, School of Civil Engineering and Built Environment, Queensland University of Technology, 2 George Street, Brisbane, QLD 4001, Australia. E-mail: paul.xia@qut.edu.au

⁴ Lecturer, School of Natural and Built Environment, Queen's University Belfast, David Keir Building, Stranmillis Road, Belfast BT9 5AG, UK. Email: x.meng@qub.ac.uk

⁵ Associate Professor, School of Built Environment, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth, WA 6845, Australia. Email: peng.wu@curtin.edu.au

15 the survey data collected from China's megaprojects. The results obtained by partial least
16 squares analysis indicate that both mimetic and normative pressures have significant impacts
17 on OCBEs; and such relationships are partially mediated by organizational support.
18 Nevertheless, this paper did not find the evidence for a significant impact from coercive
19 pressures. These findings provide a new insight into making use of institutional forces to
20 stimulate the emergence of OCBEs, thereby improving the environmental performance in
21 megaprojects.

22 **Keywords:** Megaprojects; Institutional pressures; Organizational citizenship behaviors for
23 the environment

24 **Introduction**

25 Megaprojects are temporary endeavors with large investment commitments and vast
26 complexities (Brookes and Locatelli 2015; Wang et al. 2017a). In the construction industry,
27 megaprojects refer to large-scale infrastructure projects that provide public services for the
28 social production, economic development, and people's life, such as long-span bridges, high
29 speed railways, urban metro systems, integrated transport hubs, and energy source bases
30 (Zeng et al. 2015). Over the course of the 21st century, it is notable that the world population
31 is expected to rise by 50% and reach around 11 billion by 2100 (Roser and Ortiz-Ospina
32 2018). Accompanying this growth will be a sharp increase in demand for megaprojects across
33 a wide range of sectors, such as transportation, mining, water, energy, supply chains,
34 healthcare, and urban regeneration (Flyvbjerg 2014; Hu et al. 2013; Locatelli et al. 2017a;
35 Almohsen and Ruwanpura 2016).

36 Megaprojects are typically commissioned by the government and characterized by
37 "*enormous resource consumptions and significant environmental impacts*" (Luo et al. 2017;
38 Van Marrewijk et al. 2008; Wang et al. 2017a). The rapid growth of megaprojects yields
39 substantial economic-social benefits, but meanwhile leads to serious environmental problems
40 (Shen et al. 2011; Zeng et al. 2015). Stone (2011) reported in *Science* that the Three Gorges
41 Dam, the world's largest hydropower project, is an "environmental bane" that will cost USD
42 26.45 billion over the next decade to mitigate its environmental impacts. Environmental
43 problems arising from construction activities trigger increasing attention globally, pressing
44 megaprojects to advance environmental management in an effective and responsive manner.

45 The improvement of the environmental performance in megaprojects not only hinges on
46 formal environmental management systems, programs or technologies, but also requires
47 informal and proactive behaviors taken by project practitioners, such as sharing suggestions
48 on on-site pollution prevention, openly questioning of construction activities likely to harm
49 the environment, and collaborating with the project environmental department to promote
50 green initiatives (Fuertes et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2017a; Yusof et al. 2016). These behaviors
51 involve a "*sense of citizenship*" that is optional or supererogatory and reflects individuals'

52 willingness to make extra efforts that contribute to an organization's environmental
53 performance (Boiral 2009). Boiral and Paillé (2012) defined organizational citizenship
54 behaviors for the environment (OCBEs) as "*individual and discretionary behaviors that are*
55 *not explicitly recognized by formal work requirements and that contribute to a more effective*
56 *environmental management by organizations.*" As megaprojects apply massive efforts to
57 improve the environmental performance, one of the key challenges is to increase the
58 willingness of project practitioners to support continuous changes and take responsibility
59 against environmental issues on a voluntary and discretionary basis (Hu et al. 2014; Wang et
60 al. 2017b; Zhang et al. 2015a). Otherwise, environmental management system will be
61 inefficient, programs will be poorly implemented, and technologies will be underutilized (He
62 et al. 2015; Raineri and Paillé 2015).

63 To nurture the willingness of people to adopt responsible environmental behaviors, recent
64 research has linked organizational support with OCBEs (Raineri and Paillé 2015; Paillé and
65 Raineri 2015). Unfortunately, existing OCBEs research has been too fragmented or focused
66 merely on the internal organizational support (e.g., environmental policies and activities),
67 while ignoring the external institutional context. Wang et al. (2017a) examined the extent to
68 which project practitioners' OCBEs are influenced by four types of megaproject
69 environmental responsibility practices, and revealed the *internal* driving mechanism leading
70 megaproject practitioners to engage in OCBEs; however, how *external* institutional factors
71 shape the megaproject context and influence project practitioners' OCBEs are largely
72 unexplored. According to DiMaggio and Powell (1983), institutional context is characterized
73 by three main types of pressures (i.e., normative, coercive, and mimetic pressures) and has a
74 far-reaching impact on the way people behave. More specifically, institutional pressures play
75 a crucial role in promoting proactive environmental initiatives and in encouraging "green"
76 behaviors (Liu et al. 2010; Testa et al. 2015). Nevertheless, it remains unclear to which extent
77 OCBEs could be affected by three types of institutional pressures. As highlighted by Boiral et
78 al. (2015), external pressures can indeed reinforce the internal organizational support on
79 environmental management, which, in turn, may foster OCBEs; and there is a "gap between

80 *the emergent research on OCBEs and the more established literature based on institutional*
81 *theory and environmental management.”* For these reasons, this study is guided by the
82 following research question:

83 *How do three types of institutional pressures (i.e., coercive, mimetic, and normative*
84 *pressures) influence the OCBEs of megaproject practitioners, considering the mediating*
85 *effect of organizational support?*

86 To summarize, this paper contributes to a new area of megaprojects by exploring the
87 external driving mechanism of OCBEs. The findings will serve as a guideline to harness
88 institutional forces for the improvement of environmental performance and to promote the
89 realization of the broader goal of sustainability in megaprojects. The remainder of this paper
90 is structured as follows. In the next section, the theoretical foundation is provided and
91 research hypotheses are developed. Thereafter, the research method, analytical procedures,
92 and analysis results are illustrated. Finally, the findings and managerial implications on
93 megaproject environmental practices are discussed.

94

95 **Theoretical Foundation and Hypotheses Development**

96 ***Improving Environmental Performance through OCBEs in Megaprojects***

97 To minimize the adverse impact on environment during the construction stage,
98 megaprojects not only establish rigorous environmental management systems (e.g., ISO
99 14000), but also introduce a number of green tools (e.g., environmental impact assessment
100 and eco-labeling). However, the effectiveness of environmental management in megaprojects
101 is barely satisfactory (Flyvbjerg et al. 2003). An increasing number of megaproject managers,
102 therefore, begin to realize the diversity and complexity of environmental issues (Molle and
103 Floch 2008), as well as the limitation of formal management systems with fixed and rigid
104 rules (He et al. 2015; Hu et al. 2014; Luo et al. 2017).

105 As a kind of non-routine and complex projects, megaprojects depend, to a large extent, on
106 innovative contributions from multiple individuals to attain the expected goal (Locatelli et al.
107 2017a; Maier and Branzei 2014). As a form of innovative and spontaneous pro-environmental

108 behaviors, OCBEs have been highlighted in megaproject environmental practices. A recent
109 example is Shanghai Disney project (completed by 2016), which adopted a series of incentive
110 measures to encourage the environmentally conscious behaviors of project practitioners, such
111 as early-warning to prevent pollution, suggesting solutions aimed at reducing waste, and
112 collaborating with the project environmental department to implement green technologies
113 (Yang 2016).

114 *Institutional Perspectives on OCBEs*

115 Boiral (2009) indicated that institutional pressures from government agencies or other
116 stakeholders, as conveyed by external motivations and contextual variables, help create a
117 social context that encourages the integration of ecological issues into daily activities.
118 Through the lens of the institutional theory (DiMaggio and Powell 1983), OCBEs may be
119 influenced by three types of pressures.

120 *Coercive Pressures*

121 Coercive pressures are related to the compulsory pressure exerted by governmental
122 agencies (Zhang et al. 2015b). As megaprojects have been heavily criticized for air, water,
123 noise, and land pollutions, their environmental issues have come under scrutiny by
124 environmental agencies (Zeng et al. 2015). For example, the Three Gorges project has been
125 placed on the “blacklist” of the Ministry of Environmental Protection in China. Drawing on
126 the value-belief-norm theory (Stern et al. 1999), megaproject practitioners often experience
127 changes in “mind-set” in response to strict environmental audits and regulations—the
128 emotional attachment and responsibility to environmental concerns (Wang et al. 2015; Wang
129 et al. 2017b; Yusof et al. 2016). The coercive pressures provide constraints and guidances that
130 promote managers’ investments on environmental protection (Testa et al. 2015) and spark
131 individuals’ involvements in informal and voluntary behaviors (Lo et al. 2012). Thus, the
132 following hypotheses are presented.

133 *H1a.* The level of coercive pressures is positively related to the level of organizational
134 support on environmental protection.

135 *H1b*. The level of coercive pressures is positively related to the OCBEs of megaproject
136 practitioners.

137 *Mimetic Pressures*

138 Mimetic pressures refer to the pressures on an organization to imitate others' successful
139 initiatives (DiMaggio and Powell 1983). As noted by Zhang et al. (2015b), it is reasonable for
140 organizations to benchmark, or even imitate, industrial best-practices to stay competitive in a
141 dynamic and uncertain environment. Due to the complexity and diversity of environmental
142 issues, formal management systems (e.g., ISO 14000) cannot consider all possible initiatives
143 to mitigate environmental impacts (Boiral 2009). In the absence of documented, prescribed,
144 and procedural requirements, there is a real need for a megaproject to learn from others'
145 experiences in dealing with environmental issues. Since megaprojects are characterized by
146 high uncertainties and complexities in nature, their environmental practices face a number of
147 unexpected difficulties and risks. There is no universal environmental practices guide for all
148 megaprojects. Moreover, the effectiveness of environmental practices is largely affected by
149 project characteristics and institutional environments. Therefore, the environmental practices
150 of peer-projects become living examples and important references; and megaproject
151 practitioners are easy to be affected by the practices of those projects with similar institutional
152 environments and project characteristics as their own project (Cao et al. 2014; Locatelli et al.
153 2017b). As megaprojects are criticized for poor environmental performance, project managers
154 need to expand support for keeping abreast of successful practices in peer-projects. As
155 suggested by Boiral et al. (2015), "leading by example" is crucial for individuals to reinforce
156 concerns and commitments towards the environment, thereby motivating their engagements
157 in voluntary environmental behaviors. That is to say, the successful environmental practices
158 of peer-projects will serve as a model to facilitate the emergence of OCBEs among project
159 practitioners. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

160 *H2a*. The level of mimetic pressures is positively related to the level of organizational
161 support on environmental protection.

162 *H2b.* The level of mimetic pressures is positively related to the OCBEs of megaproject
163 practitioners.

164 *Normative Pressures*

165 Normative pressures stem from the professionalization, which is viewed as a form of
166 rules-of-thumb, standards, and norms (Phan and Baird 2015). Professional bodies in the
167 environmental protection field often shape shared values, norms, and standards of what
168 desirable behaviors would be (Cao et al. 2014). These norms and collective expectations are
169 proliferated and developed within the professional field via information exchange activities,
170 including industrial conferences, professional consultations, and vocational educations (He et
171 al. 2016). In the process of megaproject implementations, the normative pressures can be
172 imposed by industry experts, consultant firms, and education institutions accordingly.

173 Compared with coercive pressures, normative pressures have a less mandatory effect on
174 organizational attitudes and behaviors (Cao et al. 2014). Since the environmental impact of
175 megaprojects is tremendous and far-reaching, expert evaluations become a necessary step in
176 project decision-making processes. Additionally, consultant firms and education institutions
177 also exert normative pressures to promote megaprojects to increase investments in
178 environmental issues. Project managers are inclined to show a strong sense of attachment and
179 responsibility to environmental concerns when they have in-depth understandings of the
180 significance and industry expectations regarding environmental issues, thereby enhancing the
181 support on environmental protection. Through systematic training programs, megaproject
182 practitioners accumulate professional knowledge, build a sense of responsibility towards the
183 environment, and demonstrate their willingness to engage in pro-environmental behaviors
184 (Dubey et al. 2015; Paillé and Raineri 2015; Wang et al. 2017b). All of the above discussions
185 lead to the following hypotheses.

186 *H3a.* The level of normative pressures is positively related to the level of organizational
187 support on environmental protection.

188 *H3b.* The level of normative pressures is positively related to the OCBEs of megaproject
189 practitioners.

190 ***Role of Organizational Support***

191 Organizational support reflects the degree to which an organization is committed to
192 protecting the environment, and stems from its willingness to recognize and integrate
193 environmental concerns into business strategies (Banerjee et al. 2003). More specifically, the
194 internal organizational support demonstrates the level of megaprojects in defining a clear
195 policy statement, shaping values about the importance of environmental protection, and
196 making efforts to support environmental practices (Paillé et al. 2014). When megaproject
197 practitioners feel encouraged and supported by environmental strategies and policies, they are
198 willing to engage in pro-environmental behaviors so as to help their project to accomplish
199 environmental goals (Hu et al. 2011; Paillé and Raineri 2015).

200 Schaninger and Turnipseed (2005) contended that social exchange has been built on the
201 basis of the norm of reciprocity and occurs when people respond positively to a donor (e.g.,
202 an organization) who provides something that is deemed to be valuable. Give and take forms
203 the foundation of exchange relationships. Paillé et al. (2013) empirically validated the
204 positive relationships between organizational support and OCBEs by referring to the social
205 exchange perspective (SEP). Thus, based on the SEP, it can also be inferred that when
206 megaproject managers aim to improve environmental performance and take measures to
207 support their subordinates, the latter would be more likely to “repay” the former by engaging
208 in OCBEs. Considering the role of organizational support in combination with the insights
209 from institutional perspectives, the following hypotheses are developed as follows:

210 *H4a.* The level of organizational support is positively related to the OCBEs of megaproject
211 practitioners.

212 *H4b.* The level of organizational support mediates the positive relationship between
213 coercive pressures and the OCBEs of megaproject practitioners.

214 *H4c.* The level of organizational support mediates the positive relationship between
215 mimetic pressures and the OCBEs of megaproject practitioners.

216 *H4d.* The level of organizational support mediates the positive relationship between
217 normative pressures and the OCBEs of megaproject practitioners.

218 The proposed theoretical research model is shown in Fig. 1.

219 <Insert Fig. 1>

220

221 **Research Method**

222 *Questionnaire Design*

223 The importance of the questionnaire as an instrument for data collection in behavioral
224 studies is widely recognized (Baruch 1999). Following Elmes et al.'s (2011) suggestions, this
225 study adopts the following steps to ensure the reliability and validity of questionnaires (Fig.2).
226 To begin with, an interview outline, comprising research backgrounds and questions, was
227 designed based on the findings from the literature review of the studies on OCBEs and
228 megaprojects. Six semi-structured interviews were subsequently conducted to refine the
229 research scope and to improve the questionnaire design.

230 To ensure the quality and effectiveness of interviews, a purposive approach was employed
231 to select the targeted interviewees. This approach is suggested by Le et al. (2014a). All the
232 interviewees have at least five years of experience in megaproject management. The main
233 consideration of selecting interviewees is the diversity of professional backgrounds. The
234 interviewees includes both academics and practitioners and involves various project roles,
235 with the aim to increase the heterogeneity of the interview group and thus to expand the depth
236 and width of interview information. OCBEs are considered as a kind of behavioral
237 phenomena. As for phenomenological studies, the recommended number of interviewees is
238 approximately six (Denzin and Lincoln 2008; Marshall et al. 2013). Table 1 shows the
239 backgrounds of six selected interviewees in the current study.

240 <Insert Table 1>

241 The semi-structured interview has been divided into two stages. The first stage is to ask the
242 interviewees to provide some OCBEs cases in their own projects. On this basis, the common
243 forms of OCBEs are identified, which provides the basis for the development of OCBEs
244 measurement items. For example, voice behaviors (making suggestions) were highlighted by
245 interviewees and then a total of two items were used to specifically reflect voice behaviors.

246 The second stage mainly focuses on “*what drives megaproject practitioners to engage in*
247 *OCBEs and how they will be affected by institutional factors.*” Then, the sources of three
248 types of institutional pressures are identified. For example, according to the interview,
249 coercive pressures does not merely come from the government, but also relate to the
250 semi-official industry associations in China. Finally, the initial questionnaire was formulated
251 based on the feedbacks of six interviewees.

252 <Insert Fig.2>

253 As for institutional pressures, the measurement items of coercive pressures (CPs) were
254 adapted from Cao et al. (2014) and Zhang et al. (2015b), which captured the three
255 authoritative bodies in megaprojects, including regulatory agencies, industry associations, and
256 third-party environmental supervisions. Mimetic pressures (MPs) were measured in view of
257 the perceived effectiveness of environmental protection by peer-projects. Similar items have
258 been employed by He et al. (2016) in construction projects. According to Cao et al. (2014)
259 and Dubey et al. (2015), normative pressures (NPs) reflect the way professional bodies form
260 the norms of environmental protection in megaprojects. A total of three items were adopted to
261 measure the normative influences of consultant firms, industry experts, and academic
262 communities.

263 The construct of organizational support (OS) was operationalized to reflect the project
264 practitioners’ feeling of being supported by their project managers. A total of four items were
265 used to reflect OS based on Raineri and Paillé (2015). According to Wang et al. (2017a), the
266 measurement items of OCBEs were developed from five aspects, including helping,
267 sportsmanship, individual initiative, organizational loyalty, and self-development.

268 All selected measures (as shown in Appendix S1.) were assessed using five-point scales
269 from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). And these measurement items were
270 translated into Chinese to facilitate the respondent’s understanding. This study applied the
271 back-translation technique to ensure the linguistic equivalence of two versions prior to the
272 formal survey (Paillé et al., 2014).

273 *Participants and Procedures*

274 A pre-test involving 23 megaproject professionals (with over 5 years of experience) was
275 performed to evaluate the scope of the questionnaire, to identify the vague expressions of
276 measurement items, and to verify the rationality of related constructs. According to the
277 feedback from pre-test respondents, some measurement items in the initial questionnaire were
278 further revised and then the final version was formed. For example, the CPs item “*third-party*
279 *environmental supervision attaches importance to project environmental protection*” was
280 added to the coercive pressures part of the questionnaire. This was because China had issued
281 nationwide regulations mandating the environmental supervision in megaprojects; and hence
282 third-party environmental supervisors play a similar role to that of regulatory agencies in
283 environmental protection.

284 The formal questionnaire survey was conducted between November 2015 and March 2016
285 in China. As China is experiencing the “biggest infrastructure investment boom” in recent
286 years (Ansar et al. 2016), a large number of megaprojects provide the first-hand data for
287 empirical surveys. In the current study, many of the survey respondents come from
288 international megaprojects (e.g., Shanghai Expo and Shanghai Disney) and their experiences
289 are representative even in a global context. Noteworthy, only the megaproject professionals
290 who were directly involved in project environmental practices were considered as the targeted
291 respondents for the formal survey. These professionals should be familiar with environmental
292 laws, regulations, and policies; and have previous experiences in environmental activities
293 (e.g., green design and planning, environmental training and supervision, and eco-friendly
294 construction and materials supply).

295 The scale of the project investment is the most common criterion to distinguish
296 megaprojects from small or medium-sized projects. According to Flyvbjerg (2014),
297 megaprojects refer to large-scale, complex ventures that usually cost more than USD 1 billion.
298 Locatelli et al. (2014) defined megaprojects as “large-scale investment projects typically
299 costing EUR 0.5 billion or more. The investment scale of megaprojects varies by countries. In
300 the current study, the criterion is set as “*CNY 1 billion*” according to the Chinese context. For

301 example, Shanghai is one of the megaproject centers in China. In 2016, Shanghai Pudong
302 Megaprojects Management Office (i.e., a government agency) has implemented 109
303 megaprojects, with total investment of CNY 121 billion (Xinhua 2017). The average
304 investment of each megaproject is CNY 1.1 billion. Thus, “*CNY 1 billion*” is a reasonable
305 criterion for selecting megaprojects. A wide range of megaprojects and potential respondents
306 were identified by a series of approaches, including contacting leading enterprises in
307 megaproject management and consulting, interviewing professionals participating in two
308 megaproject seminars sponsored by the National Natural Science Foundation of China,
309 requesting information from architecture and construction associations, and searching through
310 on-line industry forums and publications. A snowball-sampling approach was employed to
311 expand the sample size (Cao et al. 2014), with the initial respondents being asked to
312 recommend three knowledgeable participants from other megaprojects. A diverse array of
313 megaprojects with different geographic locations and project characteristics was chosen to
314 improve the representativeness of the overall sample, thereby providing a broader vision of
315 industry practices.

316 To enhance the quality of responses, all the respondents were informed of the aim of this
317 study and assured of the confidentiality of their answers for completing the questionnaire.
318 Each of the respondents was given a set of souvenirs (i.e., notepad, gel pen, and bookmark)
319 with the Tongji logo or a cash gift through WeChat. During the formal survey, the
320 respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire according to their most recently
321 experienced megaproject. In addition, the formal survey also included a question “*Are you*
322 *familiar with the project’s environmental policies and measures?*” to further determine
323 whether the respondent can perceive the project’s environmental practices, with the options of
324 “*Yes,*” “*No*” or “*Unsure.*” The inclusion of an “*Unsure*” option was used by Norton et al.
325 (2014), with the aim of preventing respondents from making a forced-choice response.
326 Finally, only the respondents who provided a definite answer of “*Yes*” were retained, while
327 the “*No*” or “*Unsure*” answers were considered as invalid responses.

328 There are 241 responses in total. After the omission of invalid responses and deletion of
329 outliers, 198 responses were included in the subsequent analysis. Of the 198 valid responses,
330 80 (40.40%) responses were collected via on-site visits, whereas the remaining 73 (36.87%)
331 and 45 (22.73%) responses were collected through a survey system (<http://www.sojump.com>)
332 and e-mails, respectively. Similarly, the answers from on-site visits, the survey system, and
333 e-mails have no significant difference; the p-values for CPs, MPs, NPs, OS, and OCBEs are
334 0.922, 0.282, 0.663, 0.482, and 0.415, respectively.

335 Demographic characteristics of the surveyed projects and respondents are shown in Table 2.
336 The surveyed respondents are well-informed senior and professional individuals from all
337 across China. Among the 198 valid responses, 72 were from owners, 61 from contractors, 39
338 from consultants, and 26 from designers and suppliers. An analysis of variance (ANOVA)
339 was performed to make a comparison of the answers from owners, contractors, consultants, as
340 well as designers and suppliers; the p-values for CPs, MPs, NPs, OS, and OCBEs are 0.485,
341 0.644, 0.281, 0.650, and 0.936, respectively. This result suggests that the answers from the
342 four groups of responses have no significant difference (p-values are all above 0.05).

343 <Insert Table 2>

344 ***Tools for Data Analysis***

345 Both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used
346 to examine the reliability and validity of the measurement model. EFA along with the
347 principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to identify the factor structure and to
348 refine the measurement items, whereas CFA was conducted to further verify the results of
349 EFA (Cao et al. 2017).

350 Partial least square (PLS) analysis was applied to test the research hypotheses. The main
351 reason for using PLS is that it has minimal requirements on the sample size and residual
352 distribution to achieve the expected statistical power and robustness (Hair et al. 2013). More
353 specifically, it is most applicable to the early-stage theory development and testing without
354 requiring a large sample size (normally more than 200), which fits well with the exploratory
355 nature of this study. PLS is also distribution-free and thus appropriate for the data from the

356 perception-based measurement items that are of unknown distributions (Aibinu and
357 Al-Lawati 2010).

358

359 **Data Analysis and Results**

360 *Factor Analysis*

361 EFA was first conducted for the 10 items of institutional pressures. The
362 Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value is $0.812 > 0.6$, suggesting satisfactory sample adequacy
363 (Field 2009). The Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (BTS) produces an approximation of $\chi^2 =$
364 640.859 ($df = 45, p = 0.000 < 0.001$), which indicates that the variable correlation is
365 sufficiently strong for PCA (George 2003). Hair et al. (2010) noted that the loading of each
366 measurement item on its corresponding construct should be greater than 0.5. Thus, MP4
367 (0.365) was deleted from the list of measurement items.

368 A follow-up PCA was conducted for the 9 remaining items. The KMO value is 0.795,
369 thereby exceeding the 0.6 threshold; BTS reaches statistical significance ($\chi^2 = 588.820, df$
370 $= 36, p = 0.000 < 0.001$). As consequence, three different factors were extracted to reflect the
371 CPs, MPs, and NPs constructs. Table 3 shows that the rotated loadings of the manifest items
372 on their intended constructs all exceed 0.5 and are greater than the loadings on other
373 constructs. These results validate the appropriateness of using the 9 listed institutional
374 pressures items to reflect CPs, MPs, and NPs constructs.

375 <Insert Table 3>

376 CFA was subsequently performed to further verify the three-factor structure of institutional
377 pressures. Table 4 indicates that the factor structure of institutional pressures has acceptable
378 fit level as judged by goodness-of-fit indicators (Fang et al. 2015).

379 <Insert Table 4>

380 *Evaluation of the Measurement Model*

381 The validity of all the measurements was further assessed from the following three aspects.
382 Firstly, internal consistency was assessed in terms of the composite reliability (CR) and

383 Cronbach's α . Table 5 shows that the values of CR and Cronbach's α are all greater than 0.7,
384 indicating a satisfactory reliability of the (Hair et al. 2011). Secondly, convergent validity is
385 assessed by the values of the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE values are all
386 greater than 0.5 (Table 5), suggesting that these constructs have a satisfactory convergent
387 validity (Hair et al. 2011). In addition, the convergent validity is also evaluated by the factor
388 loadings of each measurement item. As shown in Table 6, the factor loadings of each item on
389 its respective construct are all greater than the 0.7 threshold; and no cross-loading problem
390 exists (Hair et al. 2011). Thirdly, Table 5 also shows that the square roots of AVE (diagonal
391 values in the correlation matrix) are all above the absolute value of inter-construct
392 correlations (off-diagonal values), indicating a satisfactory discriminant validity of the
393 constructs (Hair et al. 2011).

394 <Insert Table 5>

395 <Insert Table 6>

396 As the quantitative data were collected from a single source (i.e., questionnaires), there is a
397 possibility that common-method bias may arise (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Harman's
398 single-factor test was used to further analyze the possibility of common method bias. The test
399 results show that there is no single leading factor; and the most prominent one merely
400 accounts for 21.886% of the total variances in measurements, indicating that the common
401 method bias is limited in this study.

402 ***Hypothesis Testing and Results Analysis***

403 A bootstrapping approach with 5,000 resamples was employed for the hypothesis testing.
404 The results of the bootstrap-based analysis are shown in Fig. 3 and Table 7. The R^2 value of
405 the dependent variable (i.e., OCBEs) is 0.446, indicating that most of the variances in the
406 construct can be explained by the research model. The MPs–OS link ($\beta = 0.340, p < 0.001$)
407 and NPs–OS link ($\beta = 0.296, p < 0.001$) are all significant, thus both Hypotheses 2a and 3a
408 are supported. Whereas, the CPs–OS link is non-significant ($\beta = 0.093, p > 0.05$), therefore
409 Hypothesis 1a is not supported. In addition, the influence of OS on OCBEs is significant ($\beta =$
410 $0.239, p < 0.001$), thus Hypothesis 4a is supported.

411

<Insert Table 7>

412 Regarding the relationships between institutional pressures and OCBEs, only the influence
413 of CPs is non-significant when the effect of OS is included ($\beta=0.056, p > 0.05$), thus
414 Hypothesis 1b is not supported. Meanwhile, the MPs–OCBEs link ($\beta = 0.297, p < 0.001$) and
415 NPs–OCBEs link ($\beta = 0.264, p < 0.001$) are all significant, hence both Hypotheses 2b and 3b
416 are supported. Considering the significant links between MPs and OS and between OS and
417 OCBEs, it can be inferred that the influence of MPs on OCBEs is partially mediated by OS.
418 Similar conclusion is also reached for NPs, therefore Hypotheses 4c and 4d are supported.
419 However, in view of the non-significant links between CPs and OS and between CPs and
420 OCBEs, Hypothesis 4b is not supported.

421

<Insert Fig.3>

422 To further investigate the effects of CPs, MPs, and NPs on OCBEs, an alternative model
423 without the mediator was tested (Fig. 4). Although the mediating effect of OS is excluded, the
424 direct impact of CPs on OCBEs is still non-significant. Thus, Hypothesis 1b is not supported.

425

<Insert Fig.4>

426 **Discussions, Implications and Future Research**

427 ***Discussions***

428 The main objective of the current study is to obtain a better understanding of the
429 institutional–psychological mechanism underlying innovative and spontaneous behaviors
430 directed at environmental improvement in megaprojects. Overall, the results provide the
431 evidence that the internal organizational support plays an important role in the connection
432 between external institutional pressures and OCBEs; and institutional pressures exert a
433 significant impact on the emergence of OCBEs in general. It is notable, however, that
434 organizational support is not simply to introduce the environmental management system
435 (EMS) or green technologies, and different types of institutional pressures affect OCBEs
436 differently.

437 Understanding the drivers of OCBEs by focusing on the internal organizational support
438 only sees the one side of the coin. Given rising concerns regarding the environmental

439 sustainability, megaprojects are challenged with growing external pressures by a wide range
440 of stakeholders (e.g., regulatory agencies, industry associations, and benchmark projects) to
441 become environmentally friendly in their implementation process (Wang et al. 2017b; Zeng et
442 al.2015). And the institutional conditions in which project implements (Hayes and
443 Karamichas 2011) are important enablers that shape the project context and affect project
444 practitioners' environmental behaviors (Yusof et al. 2016). Boiral et al. (2015) posited that
445 institutional pressures in the form of environmental regulations or stakeholders' expectations
446 have positive influences on the emergence of OCBEs. Interestingly, the findings confirm the
447 crucial role of mimetic and normative pressures in promoting OCBEs; however, coercive
448 pressures only have a non-significant or marginally significant effect on OCBEs.

449 ***Managerial Implications***

450 The findings of this study provide four main implications for megaproject managers
451 seeking to improve the effectiveness of environmental practices and to achieve the goal of
452 project greening.

453 Firstly, the adoption of EMS is increasingly advocated as an effective approach for
454 supporting the “greening process” in project-based organizations (Chong et al. 2009; Zhang et
455 al. 2015a). However, if the involvement of project practitioners is insufficient, EMS tends to
456 be disconnected from daily construction activities and to be deployed symbolically rather than
457 substantially (Boiral et al. 2016; Robichaud and Anantatmula 2010; Wang et al. 2017a; Yusof
458 et al. 2016). For example, an interviewee with more than 15 years of megaproject
459 management experience noted that “*EMS became an expensive gimmick to please the*
460 *government in some megaprojects; a lot of organizational support measures towards*
461 *environmental protection only remained on the document.*” This study provides a novel
462 perspective that may explain why there is a poor environmental performance for some
463 megaprojects that seem to have made great efforts to implement EMS. For these megaprojects,
464 the implementation of EMS often becomes an “effective” way of increasing the external
465 social reputations, rather than improving the internal environmental management
466 practices—also known as “*green-washing*” (De Roeck and Delobbe 2012). When project

467 practitioners are confused about the real intentions of their megaproject to adopt EMS, they
468 are less willing to engage in OCBEs. This study provides the evidence that the most effective
469 way to foster project practitioners' OCBEs is to establish the priority of environmental goals
470 in project contracts. Furthermore, the establishment of environmental orientation also needs to
471 combine with concrete supportive actions (e.g., training and communication opportunities),
472 thereby sending a clear signal to all the practitioners about the values and priorities of their
473 project. Moreover, managers can nurture and support the willingness of megaproject
474 practitioners to engage in OCBEs, especially through enhancing psychological empowerment
475 (Tuuli et al. 2013) and relationship quality (Zheng et al. 2018).

476 Secondly, megaprojects are "large unique projects" where public sectors often act as
477 clients/owners, and hence are very likely to be in a regulatory "gap" (Hosseini et al. 2017;
478 Locatelli et al. 2017a). In China, megaprojects are usually launched by the central
479 government and/or local government, and even the government's supervisory departments are
480 also involved. For example, the construction committee of Three Gorges Dam includes the
481 vice prime minister of the state council of China, the mayor of Chongqing City, the
482 vice-minister of the Ministry of Environmental Protection, and etc. The government plays a
483 double role as both "*athlete and referee*." This pattern (i.e., completely
484 government-dominated) contributes greatly to the efficiency of megaproject implementation
485 process; however, it also brings hidden dangers (e.g., corruptions) that may weaken the
486 mechanism of regulations (Le et al. 2014b). In the context of strong governments and weak
487 regulations (Zeng et al. 2015), coercive pressures are inefficient to increase megaproject
488 practitioners' willingness to make efforts for environmental practices. In this case,
489 independent third-party environmental supervisors and auditors can fill the regulatory "gap,"
490 and more importantly provide guidances and encouragements for megaproject practitioners to
491 adopt environmentally responsible behaviors.

492 Thirdly, with the exception of coercive pressures, both mimetic and normative pressures
493 have significant impacts on OCBEs. It is noteworthy that mimetic pressures are the most
494 influential external driver of OCBEs, which further confirms the key role of "leading by

495 example” in promoting OCBs (Boiral et al. 2015). The benchmark practice of peer-projects
496 tends to speak much louder than words (e.g., project documents and industry standards).
497 Therefore, in order to increase the willingness of megaproject practitioners to support
498 environmental practices on a voluntary and discretionary basis, one effective approach is to
499 organize regular communication activities with peer-projects and thus to facilitate knowledge
500 exchanges and mutual learning. In particular, megaproject practitioners need regularly get
501 access to the best environmental practices within benchmark projects and develop a learning
502 routine for the external knowledge exploration (Manley and Chen 2017). For example,
503 Shanghai Housing and Urban-Rural Construction Committee launched a competition of
504 “pioneer megaprojects” in 2016 to mobilize the resources of people in spontaneous
505 cooperation as well as innovative and volunteering behaviors.

506 Finally, another external determinant of OCBs is normative pressures, whose effect is
507 evidently weaker than mimetic pressures. During the megaproject implementation process,
508 industry professional bodies play a crucial role in disseminating information on innovative
509 environmental measures and in advocating cutting-edge green technologies. However, an
510 interviewee in this study has noted that “*the actual level of involvement of professional*
511 *communities is not high in China’s megaprojects,*” which partly explains why the impact of
512 normative pressures on OCBs is moderate. To address this issue, one possible way is to
513 introduce external facilitators or behavioral consultants from industry associations (e.g.,
514 LEED accredited professionals) to guide the improvement of megaproject environmental
515 practices and to promote the sharing of environmental knowledge (Love et al. 2015).

516 ***Limitations and Future Research Directions***

517 This study extends the recent research on environmental behaviors in the construction
518 industry (Wang et al. 2017a; Wu et al. 2017; Yusof et al. 2016) by providing further insights
519 into the *external* mechanism underlying project practitioners’ willingness to sustain the
520 environmental efforts of megaprojects. Notwithstanding its contributions, the current study
521 has several limitations that call for future research. Firstly, this study is based on a specific
522 institutional context (i.e., China), which might affect the generalizability of the empirical

523 findings to other institutional contexts. The next stage of OCBEs research can compare the
524 impacts of institutional pressures between different countries (e.g., US and China). Secondly,
525 although a series of methodological measures were employed to minimize the effects of
526 common method bias and social desirability, it is essential to recognize that this study was
527 cross-sectional and all the data was collected from self-report questionnaires. A future study
528 may be conducted by using the longitudinal data to validate the reliability of observed
529 correlations and by introducing objective measures (e.g., third-party evaluations) to assess the
530 behavioral performance. Thirdly, this study focused on the individual-level OCBEs, hence
531 future research may explore the drivers that enable the manifestation of OCBEs at the
532 project-level.

533

534 **Conclusions**

535 Under the enormous pressures of environmental protection, the construction process of
536 megaprojects shows a shift from the emphasis on “iron triangles” (i.e., cost, quality, and time)
537 to sustainability. Most megaproject sustainable research tends to neglect the key role of
538 OCBEs in improving the environmental performance and little is known regarding the
539 institutional-psychological mechanism leading megaproject practitioners to engage in OCBEs.
540 To address this research gap, this paper investigates the external determinants of OCBEs in
541 megaprojects at the individual-level. The findings provide new insights into the use of
542 institutional forces to facilitate the improvement of the environmental performance in
543 megaprojects, especially for some developing countries (e.g., China, India, and Brazil) that
544 are undergoing a massive infrastructure construction. All these rapidly emerging major
545 economies are in a similar institutional environment and face common problems, such as
546 unpredictable or inconsistent government regulations, insufficient or limited industry
547 information, and lack of status and respect for markets (Gupta et al. 2014).

548 Although extant research contends that institutional pressures are essential determinants of
549 OCBEs (Boiral et al. 2015; Lülfs and Hahn 2013), this exploratory study indicates that the
550 nature and implications of these pressures are not monolithic in megaprojects. Mimetic

551 pressures are the most significant external determinant of OCBEs, followed by normative
552 pressures. Interestingly, coercive pressures from government bodies and agencies exert a
553 non-significant impact on OCBEs. Future studies on the external determinants of OCBEs
554 should not use one latent variable to represent different pressures from various institutional
555 constituents. This approach may mix the different impacts of institutional pressures and
556 weaken the explanatory power of institutional perspectives.

557 Additionally, this paper also shows that mimetic and normative pressures have both direct
558 and indirect effects on OCBEs, leading to the conclusion that these relationships are partially
559 mediated by organizational support. The findings suggest the usefulness of combining the
560 social exchange process (e.g., reciprocity between organizations and their members) with the
561 institutionalization process (e.g., search for social legitimacy) to enhance megaproject
562 practitioners' motivation to engage in OCBEs.

563

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569

570 **Supplemental Data**

571 Appendix S1 is available online in the ASCE Library (www.ascelibrary.org).

572

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778 **Fig.1.** Research framework

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780 **Fig. 3.** Results of PLS analysis for the original research model

781 **Fig. 4.** Results of PLS analysis for the alternative research model

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Table 1. Backgrounds of Interviewees

No.	Employer	Position	Years of megaproject experience	Involved megaprojects
1	Owner	Project manager	8	Shanghai West Bank Media Port
2	Consultant	Project manager	15	Suzhou–Nantong Bridge and Shanghai Disney
3	Government	Project manager	5	Shanghai Expo
4	Contractor	Project manager	6	Tianjin Heat Supply and Grid Connection
5	Academic	Professor	16	Shanghai Expo and Shanghai Disney
6	Academic	Professor	23	Shanghai Expo and Shanghai Disney

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Table 2. Demographic Information of Respondents.

Variable	Category	Number of respondents	Percentage
Project role	Owner/Government	72	36.36
	Contractor	61	30.81
	Consultant	39	19.70
	Designer	14	7.07
	Supplier	12	6.06
Project type	Large-scale exhibition facility/ industry zone	63	31.82
	Urban metro system	41	20.71
	Integrated transport hubs	37	18.69
	Energy source bases	25	12.62
	High speed railways	18	9.09
	Long-span bridge	14	7.07
Location ^a	East China	95	47.98
	South China	36	18.18
	North China	32	16.16
	West China	21	10.61
	Central China	14	7.07
Position	Project manager	58	29.29
	Department manager	31	15.66
	Professional executive	45	22.73
	Project engineer	64	32.32
Years of experience	≤5 year	55	27.78
	6-10 year	61	30.81
	11-15year	48	24.24
	16-20 year	19	9.59
	>20 year	15	7.58

Table 3. Component List of Institutional Pressures.

Measurement items	Factor loadings		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
NPs2	.851	.199	.082
NPs1	.829	.094	.178
NPs3	.755	.045	.303
CPs2	.126	.829	-.007
CPs1	.170	.810	.120
CPs3	.008	.788	.268
MPs1	.067	.181	.856
MPs2	.204	.141	.778
MPs3	.424	.031	.726
Variance explained (%)	24.432	23.016	22.917
Variance cumulatively explained (%)	24.432	47.448	70.365

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Table 4. Overall Goodness-of-Fit of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Categories of indicators	Indicators	Fitness criteria	Institutional Pressures	
			Values	Fitness judgment
Absolute fit indicators	RMR	<0.05	0.018	Yes
	RMSEA	<0.08	0.064	Yes
	GFI	>0.90	0.953	Yes
	AGFI	>0.90	0.913	Yes
Incremental fit indicators	NFI	>0.90	0.927	Yes
	IFI	>0.90	0.966	Yes
	TLI	>0.90	0.948	Yes
	CFI	>0.90	0.965	Yes
Parsimonious fit indicators	PGFI	>0.50	0.508	Yes
	PNFI	>0.50	0.618	Yes
	PCFI	>0.50	0.643	Yes
	χ^2/DF	<2.00	1.818	Yes
	AIC	Values of default model are lower than those of independent and saturated models	85.624<90.000 85.624<618.505	Yes
	CAIC	Values of default model are lower than those of independent and saturated models	175.678<282.972 175.678<657.099	Yes

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Table 5. Measurement Validity and Construct Correlations.

Constructs	CR	Cronbach's α	AVE	Correlation matrix				
				CPs	MPs	NPs	OS	OCBEs
CPs	0.866	0.771	0.683	0.826				
MPs	0.865	0.766	0.681	0.330	0.825			
NPs	0.880	0.795	0.710	0.296	0.442	0.843		
OS	0.842	0.750	0.571	0.293	0.501	0.473	0.756	
OCBEs	0.927	0.908	0.646	0.302	0.552	0.525	0.529	0.804

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Table 6. Cross Loadings for Measurement Items

Code	Item loadings				
	CPs	MPs	NPs	OS	OCBEs
CPs1	0.872	0.292	0.302	0.270	0.305
CPs2	0.791	0.194	0.213	0.212	0.196
CPs3	0.816	0.322	0.206	0.239	0.226
MPs1	0.314	0.835	0.277	0.384	0.431
MPs2	0.272	0.833	0.343	0.469	0.457
MPs3	0.233	0.808	0.469	0.383	0.476
NPs1	0.245	0.376	0.854	0.421	0.430
NPs2	0.291	0.314	0.862	0.399	0.465
NPs3	0.210	0.430	0.811	0.375	0.430
OS1	0.264	0.348	0.342	0.735	0.458
OS2	0.157	0.378	0.369	0.767	0.417
OS3	0.210	0.404	0.307	0.771	0.410
OS4	0.256	0.388	0.417	0.732	0.302
OCBEs1	0.172	0.383	0.362	0.413	0.774
OCBEs2	0.255	0.523	0.459	0.458	0.867
OCBEs3	0.301	0.416	0.407	0.484	0.761
OCBEs4	0.110	0.372	0.385	0.362	0.756
OCBEs5	0.264	0.484	0.418	0.379	0.814
OCBEs6	0.314	0.487	0.460	0.473	0.838
OCBEs7	0.250	0.417	0.449	0.392	0.808

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Table 7. Results of Hypotheses Testing

Path	Standardized path coefficient (β)	T-value	Inference
H1a: CPs→OS	0.093	1.483	Not supported
H1b: CPs→OCBEs	0.056	1.074	Not supported
H2a: MPs→OS	0.340	5.190	Supported
H2b: MPs→OCBEs	0.297	4.393	Supported
H3a: NPs→OS	0.296	5.147	Supported
H3b: NPs→OCBEs	0.264	4.925	Supported
H4a: OS→OCBEs	0.239	4.178	Supported

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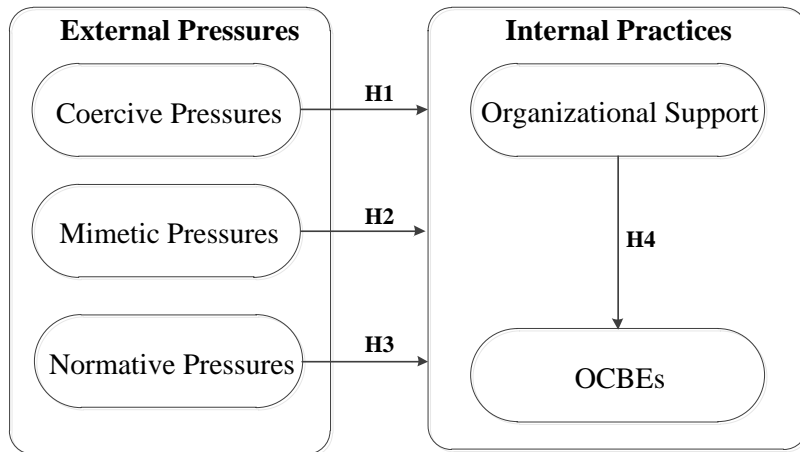


Fig.1. Research framework

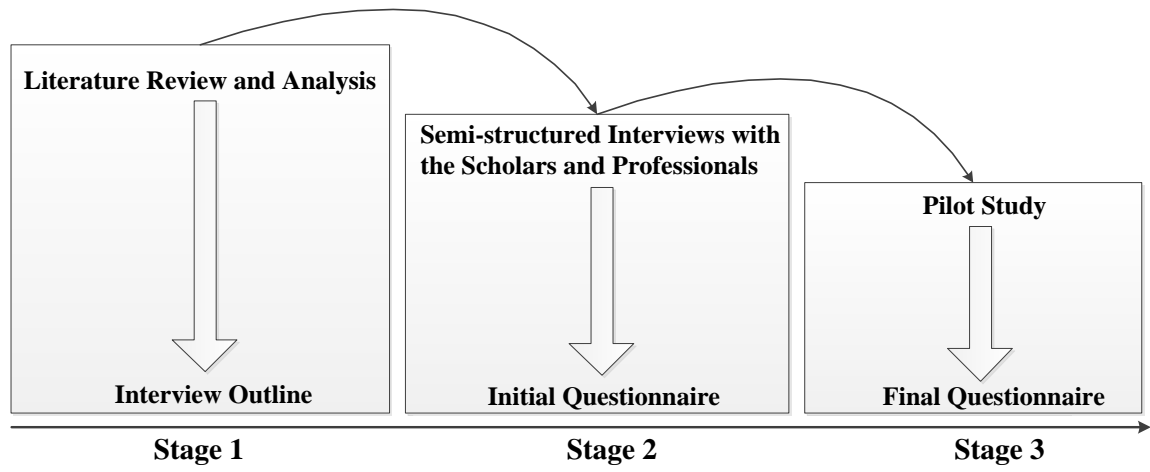


Fig.2. Flowchart of questionnaire development

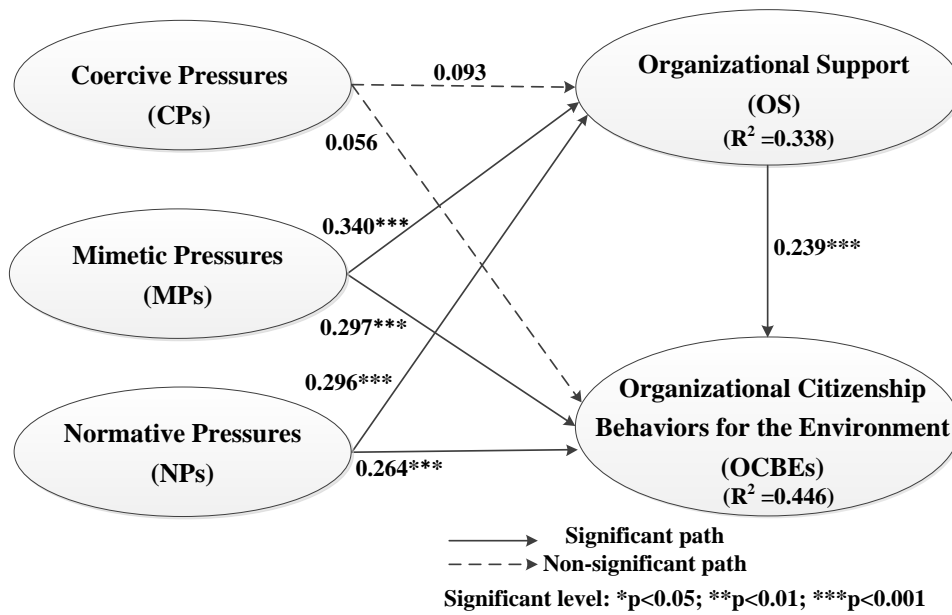


Fig. 3. Results of PLS analysis for the original research model

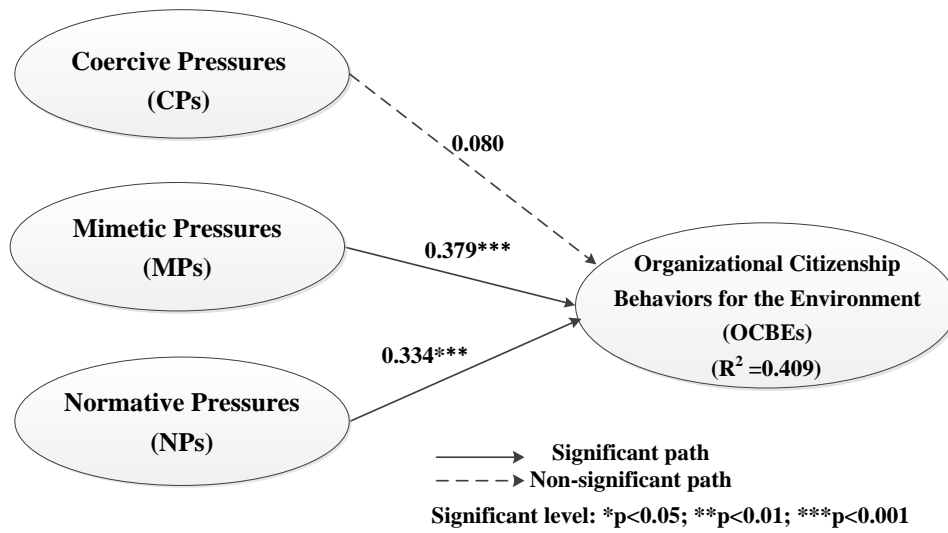


Fig. 4. Results of PLS analysis for the alternative research model

Appendix S1. Measurement items in the questionnaire

1. Coercive pressures (CPs)

CPs1: Government attaches importance to project environmental protection;

CPs2: Industry association attaches importance to project environmental protection;

CPs3: Third-party environmental supervision attaches importance to project environmental protection.

2. Mimetic pressures (MPs)

MPs1: Many similar projects earn a reputation by effective environmental management;

MPs2: Many similar projects achieve favorable effects in environmental practices;

MPs3: Peer project participants receive good recognition in environmental protection;

MPs4: Peer project participants all attach importance on environmental issues.

3. Normative pressures (NPs)

NPs1: Industry experts advise my project to attach importance on environmental issues;

NPs2: Consultant firms advise my project to attach importance on environmental issues;

NPs3: Academic communities advise my project to attach importance on environmental issues.

4. Organizational support (OS)

OS1: My project (manager) encourages environmental initiatives;

OS2: My project (manager) values inputs on environmental issues;

OS3: My project (manager) gives complete and accurate information regarding environmental issues;

OS4: My project (manager) provides a lot of opportunities to develop environmental skills.

5. Organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (OCBEs)

OCBEs1: I suggest new practices that could improve the environmental performance of my project;

OCBEs2: I encourage my colleagues to adopt more environmentally conscious behaviors;

OCBEs3: I stay informed of my project's environmental initiatives;

OCBEs4: I make suggestions about ways to protect the environment more effectively in my project;

OCBEs5: I volunteer for programs or activities that address environmental issues in my project;

OCBEs6: Even when I am busy, I spontaneously give my time to help my colleagues take the environment into account;

OCBE7: I undertake environmental actions that contribute positively to my project's image and interest.