



Exploring the impact of megaproject environmental responsibility on organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment: A social identity perspective

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Abstract

The importance of organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (OCBEs) has been clearly established in the environmental literature. However, the OCBEs construct has rarely been examined in the specific and increasingly important realm of megaproject environmental responsibility (MER). To fill this gap, this paper presents an individual-level analysis that explores the impact of project participants' perceptions of MER practices on their environmental commitment and OCBEs. The results show that project participants' perceptions of MER practices directed toward *internal* stakeholders (i.e., stakeholders linked by project contracts) are positively related to their OCBEs. This relationship is partially mediated by the environmental commitment of project participants. Conversely, project participants' perceptions of MER practices directed toward *external* stakeholders (i.e., the local community and general public) have only an insignificant impact on their OCBEs. These findings provide new insights for managing MER practices to stimulate the emergence of OCBEs and thereby improve environmental performance.

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1. Introduction

Megaprojects are temporary endeavors with a large investment commitment, vast complexities (especially in organizational terms), and long-lasting impacts on the economy, environment, and society (Brookes and Locatelli, 2015). In the engineering sector, megaprojects refer to large-scale infrastructure projects that are usually financed by governments and are characterized

by “enormous resource consumptions, significant environmental impacts, as well as a high level of risk, innovation, and complexity” (Flyvbjerg, 2014; Locatelli and Mancini, 2010; Locatelli et al., 2017a; Van Marrewijk et al., 2008).

In the global context of sustainable development, improving environmental performance is one of the most pressing and prominent objectives in megaproject management (Locatelli and Mancini, 2013; Zeng et al., 2015). As megaprojects increase their efforts in environmental management, the key challenge is to translate formal project policies into innovative and spontaneous individual initiatives (Locatelli et al., 2017b; Maier and Branzi, 2014). Where individual involvement is insufficient, the application of environmental management policies and systems tends to be disconnected from daily

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activities and to be implemented symbolically rather than substantively (Boiral et al., 2016).

1.1. OCBs in megaproject

Boiral (2009) defined organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment (OCBEs) as comprising “*individual, voluntary, and discretionary social behaviors that are not explicitly recognized by the formal management system and that contribute to effective environmental management by organizations.*” Examples of OCBs include helping to resolve environmental issues, suggesting solutions aimed at preventing pollution, and collaborating with environmental departments to implement green technologies.

The megaproject is an exemplary case of a complex, dynamic, and temporary organization. Compared to “regular projects,” megaprojects have more ambiguous roles and boundaries, and more informal coordination activities between teams (Hanisch and Wald, 2014; Sainati et al., 2017; Van Marrewijk et al., 2008). As a form of innovative and spontaneous initiative that goes beyond the prescribed role requirements (Ekrot et al., 2016), OCBs are essential to compensate for the limitations of formal management systems in megaprojects (He et al., 2015) and have far-reaching impacts on project success (Braun et al., 2013; Turner and Zolin, 2012).

The Shanghai World Expo project attached high importance to environmental protection and took a variety of environmentally conscious initiatives (Zhang, 2013). For example, it launched a “golden idea” activity to seek constructive suggestions from project participants and the application of these suggestions played an important role in reducing energy consumption and enhancing environmental protection (He et al., 2015). Astonishingly, although OCBs have been extensively valued by megaproject management (as in the Shanghai World Expo), this research area remains underdeveloped. Furthermore, the social–psychological mechanisms that lead project participants to engage in OCBs are as yet largely unexplored.

1.2. Research purpose and question

This paper contributes to megaproject management research by proposing and validating a predictive model for OCBs. The findings in this paper can serve as a guide for megaproject managers to promote OCBs and thereby facilitate the improvement of project environmental performance. According to the burgeoning OCBs literature, “if individuals are aware that becoming sustainable is an important objective of their organization and the organization demonstrates an interest in supporting environmental responsibility practices, they may be more prone to reciprocate by performing OCBs” (Paillé and Raineri, 2015; Raineri and Paillé, 2016). Nevertheless, why, how, and under what circumstances organizational environmental responsibility practices lead to individual OCBs remains largely unknown (Paillé et al., 2014; De Roeck and Delobbe, 2012). Environmental commitment refers to a sense of attachment to and identification with the environmental goals and values of an

organization, and it serves as a bridge between the organization’s environmental responsibility practices and individual OCBs (Raineri and Paillé, 2016). Therefore, this study empirically investigates the relationships between project participants’ perceptions of megaproject environmental responsibility (MER) practices and their OCBs, considering the mediating effect of their environmental commitment.

To date, scholars have explored the contextual antecedents of individual-level OCBs in terms of organizational-level practices, including environmental management practices (Paillé et al., 2013), organization environmental policies (Raineri and Paillé, 2016; Paillé and Raineri, 2015), and human resource management (Paillé et al., 2014). The authors leveraged this body of knowledge, along with primary data, to provide guidelines for managing OCBs in megaprojects. To analyze how project-level factors influence individual-level OCBs, this study developed an empirical model in which MER practices were reflected by the perceptions of individual project participants. In the questionnaire survey, only on-site project participants who were directly involved in MER practices were considered as targeted respondents. These respondents were senior and professional individuals (with knowledge of MER practices), including project owners, contractors, and consultants.

This paper adopted a stakeholder-oriented conceptualization of MER practices, which refers to “megaproject environmental initiatives taking into account the interests of different stakeholder groups, including governments/owners, non-owner stakeholders (i.e., contractors, consultants, designers, and suppliers), the local community, as well as the general public” (Zeng et al., 2015). MER practices directed toward the four abovementioned stakeholder groups manifest themselves in very different ways. To better explain and predict OCBs, it is necessary to distinguish how project participants perceive the four types of MER practices. These considerations lead to the following research question:

How do project participants' perceptions of MER practices directed towards the four stakeholder groups affect their environmental commitment and, in turn, their OCBs?

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides the theoretical foundations and presents the research hypotheses based on a literature review. Section 3 illustrates the research methods and analytical procedures. Section 4 presents the data analysis results. Section 5 discusses the research findings and their implications for megaproject environmental management. Section 6 summarizes the key ideas and suggests a research agenda.

2. Theoretical foundation and hypotheses

2.1. Defining OCBs in megaprojects

Recent research findings make a convincing case to include voluntary pro-environmental behaviors as part of the “organizational citizenship behaviors” (OCBs) domain—otherwise known as organizational citizenship behaviors for the

environment (OCBEs) (Boiral, 2009; Daily et al., 2009; Raineri and Paillé, 2016). Inspired by the taxonomy of OCBs proposed by Organ et al. (2006), Boiral and Paillé (2012) further classified OCBEs into five categories—helping, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, individual initiative, and self-development. On this basis, the possible applications of OCBEs and their natures in megaprojects are discussed as follows:

Helping includes altruism with regard to environmental protection and collaboration to promote environmental initiatives. The megaproject is characterized by a high level of uncertainty (Van Marrewijk et al., 2008). It has ambiguous role boundaries and must rely on project participants to make a concerted effort to achieve environmental goals, e.g., helping colleagues to better understand project environmental goals and encouraging them to adopt more environmentally conscious behaviors or to express their ideas and opinions on environmental issues. Consequently, helping behaviors can be viewed as a common cooperative effort to improve the environmental performance of a megaproject (Invernizzi et al., 2016).

Sportsmanship refers to the tolerance of and positive attitude toward the inconveniences and additional work that can be associated with environmental practices, e.g., willingness to make time to support the project environmental department when unexpected environmental problems occur (e.g., extreme climate events). Megaprojects are carried out under conditions of high complexities (Locatelli et al., 2014) and face huge environmental risks (Flyvbjerg et al., 2003). Considering the complexity and diversity of the environmental problems in megaprojects (Zeng et al., 2015), addressing these problems requires not only a rapid response by the project environmental department, but also the prompt assistance of project participants working in other departments (e.g., safety, quality, and labor departments).

Organizational loyalty means the day-to-day adherence to environmental policies and goals, e.g., voluntary compliance with the formal and informal (i.e., both stated and unwritten) project environmental policies and procedures. Megaprojects bring together differing and competing stakeholders, interests, and values (Locatelli and Mancini, 2012a; Ruuska et al., 2011; Van Marrewijk et al., 2008). More often than not, the success of environmental management practices is based on the discretionary adherence of multi-stakeholders to the overarching environmental goals (Daily et al., 2009).

Individual initiative is based on personal involvement and participation in environmental activities, e.g., making suggestions to minimize construction wastes and providing early warnings to prevent on-site pollution accidents. Creativity is perceived to be an essential ingredient for ensuring the success of a megaproject (Maier and Branzei, 2014). The goal of this dimension is to facilitate the improvement of overall environmental performance by stimulating the proactive and innovative initiatives of project participants.

Self-development involves the development of personal knowledge with respect to environmental protection. The roles of knowledge transfer and self-learning have been recognized as crucial for improving organizational adaptabilities, especially in complex megaprojects (Van Marrewijk et al., 2008). There are

two approaches to self-development—active participation in project training programs (e.g., environmental protection lectures) and the effective acquisition of environmental information through self-learning during the course of daily work activities.

2.2. The relationship between environmental commitment and OCBEs

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), environmental commitment is a frame of mind that denotes a sense of both attachment and responsibility to the environmental targets of an organization. Through the lenses of reasoned action theory (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) and value–belief–norm theory (Stern et al., 1999), specific attitudes that are either context-dependent or have behavioral direction are more likely to be enacted and reified (Raineri and Paillé, 2016). With the growing concern about environmental issues, the positive environmental performance of a megaproject may lead project participants to feel increased levels of self-esteem and to recognize the environmental values of the project in which they play a part. The environmental commitment engendered by project environmental practices can make participants feel that they share environmental values with other project participants. As such, they are more likely to engage in discretionary extra-role behaviors (e.g., OCBEs) that benefit other project participants. In addition, they may tend to devote additional efforts to meeting the environmental goals of the project. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1. The environmental commitment of project participants is positively related to their OCBEs.

2.3. Impact of project participant perceptions of MER practices on their environmental commitment and OCBEs

2.3.1. Taxonomy of MER practices

Environmental responsibility, an important and distinct component of corporate social responsibility (CSR), is typically seen as a set of environment-friendly practices intended to positively affect stakeholders (Rahman and Post, 2012). The stakeholders of a megaproject are those who affect or are affected by project practices, including both *internal* stakeholders (i.e., owners/governments, contractors, consultants, designers, and suppliers) and *external* stakeholders (i.e., the local community and general public) (Zeng et al., 2015).

Considering the differences between project roles, *internal* stakeholders can be further divided into two types: 1) governments (i.e., regulators and owners) and 2) non-owner stakeholders (i.e., contractors, consultants, designers, and suppliers). Governments, which typically initiate megaprojects, play a dual role that incorporates supervision (in terms of laws and regulations) and participation (in terms of project contracts). In contrast, contractors, consultants, designers, and suppliers are linked only through project contracts. Similarly, *external* stakeholders can also be classified into two categories: 1) the local community and 2) the general public (Zeng et al., 2015). The local community is directly affected by the implementation

process of megaprojects, e.g., land expropriation, housing demolition, as well as changes in property values and living environments. Apart from the local community, other external stakeholders are included in the general public category.

Through the lens of social identity theory (SIT), membership in different social categories is considered to convey social identity that defines one's attributes as a member of that group (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Specifically, one's social identity provides benchmarks by which people can know what they should feel and think, as well as how they should behave. The term corporate organization can be viewed as a social categorization (Turker, 2009b). According to Newman et al. (2015), when employees view their organization as socially responsible, organizational identification processes will promote extra-role behaviors that augment the employer's CSR practices. With respect to a megaproject, the project-based organization serves as a social categorization of its participants. According to SIT, and in combination with insights from Newman et al. (2015), this study argues that project participants' perceptions of MER practices can motivate their engagement in OCBs as a function of project identification processes that promote pride in and attachment to the environmental goals and values of the project. As such, this paper proposes Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 3a, 3b, 4a, 4b and 5a, 5b in the next sections.

2.3.2. MER practices directed toward governments

The first group of selected stakeholders is governments. The compliance of a megaproject with the environmental obligations pursuant to laws, regulations, and contracts is likely to be viewed in a positive light. This is due to the megaproject's high degree of uncertainty and complexity (Van Marrewijk et al., 2008). It is notable that this tendency leads megaproject participants to develop high levels of self-esteem and to identify themselves with the environmental values of the project. According to SIT, and based on insights from the OCBs literature (Carmeli et al., 2007; Newman et al., 2015), MER practices directed toward governments (MER-G) encourage project participants to exert further effort to achieve project environmental goals and to transcend their job roles to assist others whom they perceive as having similar environmental values. On this basis, the following hypotheses are presented:

H2a. Project participants' perceptions of MER-G are positively related to their environmental commitment.

H2b. Project participants' perceptions of MER-G are positively related to their OCBs.

2.3.3. MER practices directed toward non-owner stakeholders

Environmental responsibility directed toward non-owner stakeholders, i.e., contractors, consultants, designers, and suppliers, may manifest in a variety of ways. Such manifestations include suitable on-site working and living environments, commitments to justice in dealing with environmental issues, and opportunities for the development of environmental knowledge and skills. When project participants perceive that a megaproject meets their personal environmental needs and those

of their colleagues, they are likely to perceive that the megaproject shares environmental values similar to their own. Through the lenses of SIT and the literature on OCBs (Newman et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014), MER practices directed toward non-owner stakeholders (MER-N) make project participants more likely to engage in discretionary extra-role behaviors (e.g., OCBs) that benefit others involved in the project and to exert additional efforts to achieve project environmental goals. Given this finding, the following hypotheses are presented:

H3a. Project participants' perceptions of MER-N are positively related to their environmental commitment.

H3b. Project participants' perceptions of MER-N are positively related to their OCBs.

2.3.4. MER practices directed toward the local community

Megaprojects substantially alter regional ecological environments and local communities are among the first to be affected. Consistent with SIT and previous OCBs research (Bartels et al., 2010; Newman et al., 2015), project participants are likely to show an interest in environmental activities, as well as to identify with the environmental values of a project, if the megaproject receives positive feedback from the local community regarding its environmental practices. Therefore, MER practices directed toward the local community (MER-L) are likely to foster feelings of a shared environmental commitment and responsibility on the part of project participants, thereby leading them to exert additional effort to meet project environmental goals, perform at a high level, and engage in discretionary OCBs. All of the above reasoning suggests the following hypotheses:

H4a. Project participants' perceptions of MER-L are positively related to their environmental commitment.

H4b. Project participants' perceptions of MER-L are positively related to their OCBs.

2.3.5. MER practices directed toward the general public

Environmental responsibility directed toward the general public refers to the eco-friendly philosophy of megaproject managers and their targeted measures for secondary (i.e., indirect and external) stakeholders. Based on SIT and the OCBs literature (Bartels et al., 2010; Newman et al., 2015), when a megaproject undertakes environmental measures that benefit the whole society (even at the risk of budget overruns or schedule delays), this tends to build a sense of environmental commitment on the part of project participants via identification with and adherence to the environmental goals of the project. Moreover, this outcome may lead to the project participants and their colleagues feeling that they possess similar attributes and shared values. Rather than simply focusing on achieving their own goals, MER practices directed toward the general public (MER-P) cause project participants to be more likely to engage in risky discretionary behaviors that benefit others (e.g., OCBs). Thus, the following hypotheses are developed:

H5a. Project participants' perceptions of MER-P are positively related to their environmental commitment.

H5b. Project participants' perceptions of MER-P are positively related to their OCBEs.

2.4. Control variables

To isolate the variations within the organizational and project contexts (Cao et al., 2017), four control variables were included in the analysis of the relationships between project participants' perceptions of MER practices and their OCBEs. As the first control variable, project role was operationalized as a dummy variable reflecting whether or not the surveyed respondents were owners (0 = yes; 1 = no). With regard to the remaining three control variables, project size was measured by the investment value of the surveyed project (1 = below CNY 500 million; 2 = between CNY 500 and 1000 million; 3 = between CNY 1000 and 5000 million; 4 = between CNY 5000 and 10,000 million; 5 = above CNY 10,000 million); project type was measured as a dummy variable indicating whether or not the surveyed project is a basic infrastructure (0 = basic infrastructure; 1 = non-basic infrastructure)¹; and project duration was measured by the construction period of the surveyed project (1 = less than 24 months; 2 = between 24 and 36 months; 3 = between 36 and 48 months; 4 = between 48 and 60 months; 5 = more than 60 months).

3. Research methods

3.1. Questionnaire design

This study used a questionnaire survey to collect primary data. This questionnaire was designed and developed with the support of literature reviews, project observations, and semi-structured explorative interviews conducted prior to the survey.²

The construct environmental responsibility is derived from CSR to reflect an organization's social performance in dealing with environmental issues. As such, the environmental responsibility section of the questionnaire was initially adapted from CSR measurement items (Turker, 2009a). This kind of measurement adaptations has been validated over a large spectrum of organizations and industries (De Roeck and Delobbe, 2012; Ho et al., 2012; Sparks et al., 2013).

In this study, environmental responsibility items with respect to the general public, the local community, non-owner stakeholders, and governments were adapted based on CSR constructs

related to society, customers,³ employees, and the government, respectively. All 18 related measurement items in Turker's (2009a) CSR scale were modified to suit the environmental management perspective in the megaproject context. Moreover, these items were further refined and validated through a series of interviews with researchers and practitioners who have extensive experiences in megaproject management.

With respect to environmental commitment (EC), seven measurement items were adapted from Raineri and Paillé (2016) to reflect project participants' sense of attachment to environmental concerns in the megaproject. As for OCBEs, seven measurement items developed by Boiral and Paillé (2012) were used to reflect how project participants initiated innovative and spontaneous behaviors directed at environmental improvement. All the OCBEs items were integrated into a construct to better understand the relationships between project participants' perceptions of MER practices and their overall OCBEs performance.

The measurement items developed by Raineri and Paillé (2016) and Boiral and Paillé (2012) were selected in this study because they are relatively general and therefore applicable to a variety of organizations, activity sectors, occupations, and/or circumstances. Similarly, EC and OCBEs items were also refined and contextualized after the rounds of interviews.

All the abovementioned variables were operationalized as reflective constructs. Appendix A shows the measurement items in detail. These measurement items were rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Although the questionnaire was originally developed in English, it was subsequently translated into Chinese to facilitate the respondents' comprehension. This study employed the back-translation technique to establish linguistic equivalence between the two versions.

3.2. Participants and procedures

A pre-test involving 23 megaproject professionals⁴ was conducted to identify ambiguous expressions and to test the validity of the related constructs in the questionnaire. In view of the feedback from those pre-test respondents, the questionnaire was further revised. For example, the expression "environmental impacts" in the environmental responsibility item "Our project implements green and low-carbon technologies to mitigate the environmental impacts" was rephrased to "negative environmental impacts" in the questionnaire.

¹ Basic infrastructures refer to energy, transportation, and communications projects that provide fundamental and essential services for social production and everyday life. Non-basic infrastructural megaprojects, e.g., skyscrapers, exhibition facilities, and industrial parks, provide specialized value-added services for culture, business, and so on.

² The four interviewed project managers from a large construction consulting corporation have engaged in several influential megaprojects in China, e.g., Shanghai World Expo, Shanghai Disney Resort, and Suzhou–Nantong Bridge. The two interviewed professors from Tongji University have conducted megaproject research for over 15 years.

³ Construction projects are typically operated through the "production-to-order" system, with the aim to meet the demands of clients (Cao et al., 2014). Local communities are the primary users of megaprojects and play a role analogous to that of "customers" who are directly affected by the "product" (i.e., the megaproject).

⁴ The 23 pre-test respondents were senior and professional individuals with jobs related to construction environmental management (e.g., environmental training and supervision). They were familiar with environmental codes, laws, and project policies; and all had more than five years of experiences in megaproject management.

The survey was conducted from November 2015 to March 2016 in China. After contacting the megaproject owners,⁵ the project departments and participants involved in MER practices were preliminarily identified for this survey. There was a short communication prior to the formal questionnaire survey. The respondents were informed of the survey purpose, assured of the data confidentiality, and offered small gifts⁶ for completing the questionnaire.

With the support of the megaproject owners, the questionnaire was distributed to the targeted respondents. To improve the representativeness of the surveyed samples, this study distributed the questionnaire to respondents from different megaprojects and to those who had assumed different roles in MER practices. In this survey, respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire based on their most recently experienced megaproject. In consequence, respondents provided a relatively clear description of the projects' environmental practices and thereby avoided preferentially selecting their most successful experience with environmental protection, which ultimately reduced the risk of socially desirable responding (SDR). According to Milfont (2009), SDR has little impact on the way people answer questions related to their environmental attitudes and ecological behaviors in anonymous questionnaires. For these reasons, SDR effect is limited in this survey.

In addition, to further determine the respondents' perceptions of their projects' environmental practices, this survey included the question "Are you familiar with the project's environmental policies and measures?" with the options of "Yes," "No," or "Unsure." The inclusion of the "Unsure" option was based on the work of Norton et al. (2014) to prevent respondents from having to make a forced-choice response. Finally, only the respondents who provided a conclusive answer of "Yes" were retained, while the "No" or "Unsure" answers were discarded as invalid responses. After omitting invalid responses and deleting outliers, a total of 172 completed questionnaires were ultimately included in the subsequent analysis. Of the 172 respondents, 58 (33.72%) were senior managers (i.e., project managers), 70 (40.70%) were middle managers (i.e., department managers and professional executives), and 44 (25.58%) worked at the operational level (i.e., project engineers).

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the surveyed projects and associated respondents. Of the 172 valid responses, 41.28% were collected via on-site visits and the remaining 36.63% and 22.09% were collected via a survey system (<http://www.sojump.com>) and e-mails, respectively. An analysis of variance (ANOVA)⁷ indicates that no statistically significant differences exist in the answers from the three response groups (p-values ranged from 0.118 to 0.861).

Table 1
Demographic information of respondents.

Variable	Category	Number of respondents	Percentage
Project role	Owner/government	72	41.86
	Contractor	61	35.47
	Consultant	39	22.67
Project type	Large-scale exhibition facility/industry zone	54	31.40
	Urban metro system	35	20.35
	Integrated transport hubs	31	18.02
	Energy source bases	23	13.37
	High speed railways	16	9.30
	Long-span bridge	13	7.56
	Location ^a	East China	76
	South China	32	18.60
	North China	29	16.86
	West China	21	12.21
	Central China	14	8.14
Position	Project manager	58	33.72
	Department manager	29	16.86
	Professional executive	41	23.84
	Project engineer	44	25.58
Years of experience	≤ 5 year	45	26.16
	6–10 year	51	29.65
	11–15 year	42	24.42
	16–20 year	19	11.05
	>20 year	15	8.72

^a Location refers to the project site where the respondent was employed at the time of the survey.

3.3. Tools for data analysis

In this study, factor analysis (FA) was used to analyze the collected primary data. FA has been extensively adopted as an effective statistical technique for identifying individual factors that represent sets of interrelated variables (Hon et al., 2013). Exploratory FA with principal component analysis (PCA) makes it possible to identify the underlying grouped factors and to condense the measurement items (He et al., 2016).

To test the hypotheses proposed in Section 2, partial least squares (PLS) technique was employed to develop an estimation method for analyzing the path model (Fig. 1). PLS is a technique that combines PCA, path analysis, and regression to simultaneously estimate multiple dependent variables in a single structural equation model (Ringle et al., 2012).

Of the two structural equation modeling (SEM) approaches, the PLS-SEM was chosen over the covariance-based SEM method due to the following reasons: (1) it is distribution-free and thus suitable for data from perception-based measurement items of unknown distributions (Aibinu and Al-Lawati, 2010); (2) it works efficiently with small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2014), whereas covariance-based SEM considers 200 to be the critical sample size for accurate assessments of model fits (Hoelter, 1983); (3) it avoids factor indeterminacy by estimating constructs as exact linear combinations of the measurement items (Hair et al., 2011); and (4) it is most appropriately applied in early-stage theory development and testing (Astrachan et al., 2014), which

⁵ Megaproject owners refer to project-specific owner companies, e.g., Shanghai World Expo (Group) Co., Ltd.

⁶ Each of the participants was given a set of souvenirs (i.e., notepad, gel pen, and bookmark) with the Tongji logo or a cash gift through WeChat.

⁷ ANOVA tests were conducted on the three response groups (on-site visits, survey system, and e-mail); the p-values for MER-P, MER-L, MER-N, MER-G, EC, and OCBs are 0.643, 0.118, 0.861, 0.431, 0.256, and 0.601, respectively.

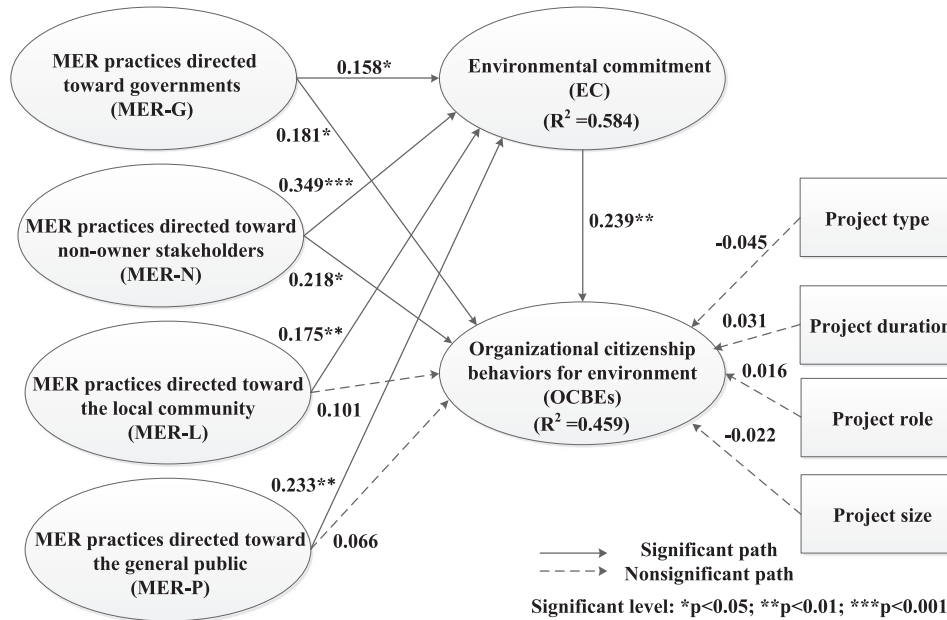


Fig. 1. Results of PLS analysis for the research model.

fits well with the exploratory nature of this study. Indeed, PLS-SEM has enjoyed steady popularity as a key multivariate analysis method in the study of cooperative behaviors (Aibinu et al., 2008), relational behaviors (Ning and Ling, 2013), environmental behaviors (Yusof et al., 2016), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Lim and Loosemore, 2017) in construction projects.

4. Data analysis and results

4.1. Factor analysis

In this study, FA was employed to investigate 18 items related to MER practices. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value is 0.927 > 0.6, thereby indicating excellent sample adequacy (Field, 2009). In addition, Bartlett’s test of sphericity (BTS) produced an approximation of $\chi^2 = 2131.110$ (df = 153, p = 0.000 < 0.001), which suggests that the correlations between variables are sufficiently strong to conduct PCA (George, 2003). As expected, the FA analysis extracted four factors reflecting the MER-P, MER-L, MER-N, and MER-G constructs. Table 2 shows that the rotated loadings of the manifest items with regard to their intended constructs are all above the recommended threshold of 0.5 and are greater than the loadings on other constructs. These results validate the appropriateness of using the 18 listed MER items to reflect the four proposed constructs. Similarly, FA procedures were also applied to extract measurement items for EC and OCBEs. And no EC or OCBEs items were removed from the measurement model.

4.2. Evaluation of the measurement models

The validity of all measurements was further assessed in terms of internal consistency, convergent validity, and

discriminant validity. Internal consistency was assessed by estimating the composite reliability. Table 3 shows that the composite reliability values are all greater than 0.7, thereby indicating a satisfactory reliability level of the internal indicators for each construct (Hair et al., 2011). Convergent validity measures the extent to which the items underlying a particular construct actually represent this conceptual variable. Initial evidence of convergent validity was reflected by the values of the average variance extracted (AVE). Table 3 shows

Table 2 Component list of MER practices.

Measurement items	Factor loadings			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
MER-N4	.915	.089	.136	.083
MER-N5	.902	.088	.146	.059
MER-N1	.813	.128	.189	.265
MER-N2	.707	.345	.181	.274
MER-N3	.703	.470	.184	.151
MER-N6	.584	.408	.305	.333
MER-P4	.236	.815	.245	-.004
MER-P5	.186	.795	.336	-.006
MER-P6	.221	.785	.188	.107
MER-P2	.159	.755	.061	.393
MER-P1	.064	.668	-.048	.525
MER-P3	.150	.559	.371	.456
MER-L1	.154	.325	.773	-.066
MER-L2	.237	.242	.721	.249
MER-L3	.092	-.248	.697	.412
MER-L4	.416	.284	.579	.074
MER-G2	.358	.164	.195	.723
MER-G1	.302	.198	.412	.550
Variance explained (%)	23.99	22.73	15.18	11.15
Variance cumulatively explained (%)	23.99	46.72	61.90	73.05

Bold values represent the factor loadings of each measurement item on its intended construct.

Table 3
Measurement validity and construct correlations.

Construct	CR	AVE	Correlation matrix					
			MER-P	MER-L	MER-N	MER-G	EC	OCBEs
MER-P	0.92	0.66	0.81					
MER-L	0.86	0.61	0.58	0.78				
MER-N	0.94	0.74	0.58	0.60	0.86			
MER-G	0.89	0.81	0.54	0.58	0.59	0.90		
EC	0.93	0.67	0.62	0.61	0.68	0.59	0.82	
OCBEs	0.93	0.66	0.50	0.52	0.59	0.55	0.59	0.81

CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Bold values on the diagonal represent the square root of AVE.

that the AVE values are all greater than 0.5, thereby suggesting a satisfactory level of convergent validity of the constructs (Hair et al., 2011). Further evidence of convergent validity was provided by the factor loadings of each measurement item. The standardized factor loadings of all the respective constructs of the items are above the threshold of 0.7 and there was no evidence of any cross-loading problem (Table 4). In addition, the square roots of AVE (i.e., values on the diagonal of the correlation matrix in Table 3) are all greater than the absolute value of the inter-construct correlations (i.e., off-diagonal values), which indicates that the constructs have satisfactory discriminant validity.

Harman’s single-factor test was used to analyze the possibility of common method bias. The test results reveal no single dominant factor, with the largest factor accounting for only 14.72%⁸ of the total measurement variances. Therefore, common method bias is limited in this survey.

4.3. Comparative analysis

The respondents had a mix of project roles, including 41.86% project owners, 35.47% contractors, and 22.67% consultants (Table 1). Compared with project owners and consultants, contractors had more direct experiences in the implementation of project environmental initiatives and provided more positive feedback on MER practices, as shown in Table 5. However, ANOVA test results indicate that none of these differences are statistically significant at the 5% level (p-values range from 0.125 to 0.744). Furthermore, the ANOVA test for EC and OCBEs reveals no significant difference in environmental-behavior-related decision making between project owners, contractors, and consultants. All these results provide evidence that differences in project roles have insignificant impacts on the surveyed respondents’ perceptions of MER practices and their EC and OCBEs.

4.4. Hypothesis testing and results analysis

To compute standard errors and test the statistical significance of the path coefficients, a bootstrapping procedure with 5000

⁸ Harman’s one-factor test was performed for both independent and dependent variables (MER-P, MER-L, MER-N, MER-G, EC, and OCBEs) and for four control variables. The five largest factors account for 14.72%, 13.25%, 12.92%, 12.25%, and 7.76% of the total variances.

Table 4
Cross loadings for measurement items.

Code	Item loadings					
	MER-P	MER-L	MER-N	MER-G	EC	OCBEs
MER-P1	0.76	0.32	0.38	0.42	0.46	0.36
MER-P2	0.85	0.42	0.48	0.46	0.51	0.33
MER-P3	0.80	0.61	0.51	0.50	0.63	0.47
MER-P4	0.83	0.50	0.50	0.39	0.41	0.35
MER-P5	0.83	0.52	0.48	0.41	0.48	0.42
MER-P6	0.83	0.46	0.49	0.42	0.52	0.48
MER-L1	0.47	0.77	0.40	0.38	0.38	0.33
MER-L2	0.51	0.86	0.51	0.50	0.55	0.45
MER-L3	0.32	0.71	0.35	0.42	0.42	0.33
MER-L4	0.50	0.79	0.57	0.49	0.53	0.50
MER-N1	0.42	0.51	0.87	0.52	0.57	0.52
MER-N2	0.57	0.51	0.86	0.57	0.62	0.51
MER-N3	0.64	0.53	0.87	0.51	0.61	0.55
MER-N4	0.34	0.45	0.87	0.46	0.54	0.44
MER-N5	0.34	0.44	0.86	0.42	0.50	0.47
MER-N6	0.65	0.61	0.83	0.56	0.66	0.50
MER-G1	0.49	0.57	0.52	0.90	0.54	0.51
MER-G2	0.47	0.46	0.55	0.89	0.52	0.48
EC1	0.52	0.55	0.63	0.53	0.84	0.54
EC2	0.42	0.45	0.50	0.40	0.82	0.48
EC3	0.40	0.46	0.50	0.40	0.73	0.34
EC4	0.60	0.58	0.62	0.56	0.81	0.53
EC5	0.50	0.50	0.54	0.45	0.83	0.45
EC6	0.65	0.47	0.58	0.55	0.85	0.53
EC7	0.41	0.45	0.47	0.45	0.84	0.48
OCBEs1	0.35	0.44	0.45	0.40	0.42	0.77
OCBEs2	0.44	0.45	0.51	0.49	0.53	0.87
OCBEs3	0.38	0.36	0.44	0.37	0.42	0.76
OCBEs4	0.42	0.43	0.43	0.42	0.45	0.79
OCBEs5	0.45	0.42	0.45	0.47	0.49	0.80
OCBEs6	0.41	0.46	0.56	0.47	0.56	0.86
OCBEs7	0.40	0.42	0.49	0.50	0.51	0.85

Bold values represent standardized factor loadings of the items on their respective constructs.

resamples was performed (Fig. 1). The R² value of the dependent variable (i.e., OCBEs) is 0.459, thereby suggesting that most of the variances in the construct are explained by the research model. Fig. 1 shows that the influence of EC on OCBEs is significant ($\beta = 0.239, p < 0.01$); thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. The results of the bootstrapping analysis also indicate that the MER-G–EC link ($\beta = 0.158, p < 0.05$), MER-N–EC link ($\beta = 0.349, p < 0.001$), MER-L–EC link ($\beta = 0.175, p < 0.01$), and MER-P–EC link ($\beta = 0.233, p < 0.01$) are all significant, thereby providing evidence supporting Hypotheses 2a, 3a, 4a, and 5a, respectively.

Regarding the relationships between MER practices and OCBEs, only the influences of project participants’ perceptions of MER practices directed toward internal stakeholders (i.e., MER-G and MER-N) are found to be significant when the effect of EC is included ($\beta = 0.181, p < 0.05$; $\beta = 0.218, p < 0.05$). Thus, Hypotheses 2b and 3b are supported. Together with the significant links between MER-G and EC and between EC and OCBEs, this finding further indicates that the influence of MER-G on OCBEs is partially mediated by EC. A similar conclusion is also reached for MER-N.

Table 5
Results of descriptive and comparative analysis.

Construct	Full sample		Project owners		Contractors		Consultants		ANOVA	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F-test	p-value
MER-P	3.35	0.62	3.31	0.65	3.40	0.59	3.33	0.62	0.296	0.744
MER-L	3.63	0.50	3.60	0.51	3.70	0.48	3.60	0.51	0.751	0.474
MER-N	3.75	0.68	3.74	0.67	3.86	0.69	3.58	0.65	2.101	0.125
MER-G	4.17	0.55	4.13	0.60	4.21	0.51	4.17	0.53	0.415	0.661
EC	3.84	0.63	3.82	0.66	3.88	0.60	3.79	0.65	0.277	0.758
OCBEs	4.03	0.60	3.98	0.63	4.08	0.56	4.08	0.59	0.586	0.558

Mean = arithmetic means, SD = standard deviation.

To further investigate the effects of project participants' perceptions of MER practices on their OCBEs, an alternative model without the mediator was tested. Fig. 2 presents the PLS analysis results for the alternative research model. Although the intermediating effect of EC is excluded, the direct influences of MER-L and MER-P on OCBEs are still insignificant. Therefore, Hypotheses 4b and 5b are not supported by the data. In addition, with regard to the control variables, project duration, project type, project role, and project size, all exert insignificant influences on OCBEs in both models.

5. Discussion and implications

5.1. Discussion of findings

Currently, unprecedented levels of urbanization have led to massive government-financed megaprojects in China. With the emergence of newly built, restructured, or expanded megaprojects, environmental issues have become increasingly prominent and have aroused considerable concern among megaprojects

managers. The success of megaproject environmental management lies in the willingness of project participants to support continuous change and take responsibility for environmental protection on a discretionary basis. Therefore, OCBEs play an important role in improving the efficiency of megaproject environmental practices, specifically through the development of preventive approaches that call for the voluntary commitment of project participants to environmental protection.

Different types of environmental responsibility practices affect OCBEs differently. The project participants' perceptions of MER-N emerge as the principal predictor of their OCBEs, with a path coefficient of 0.292 (Fig. 2). Such a strong link between MER-N and OCBEs was expected at the beginning of the survey, because the related items are all closely connected with the respondents' rights and interests, e.g., working conditions, training opportunities, and procedural equalities. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the MER-N practices in megaprojects fill a high-order need for individual self-actualization. Establishing environmental management systems (e.g., ISO 14000) and introducing green technologies have become

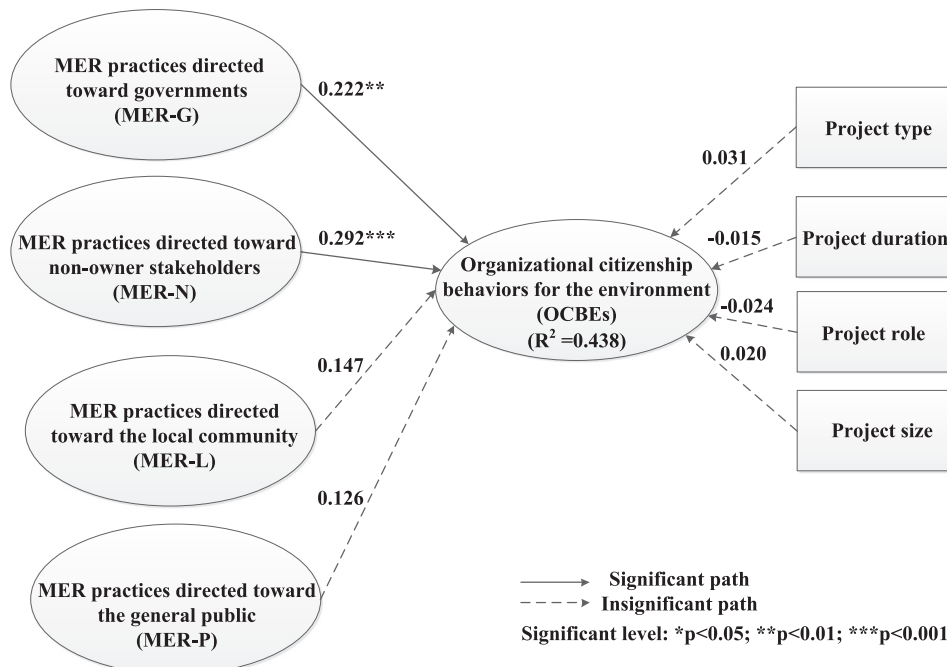


Fig. 2. Results of PLS analysis for the alternative research model.

increasingly popular in megaprojects, whereas there are few incentives for megaprojects to invest in “soft areas” (i.e., human considerations). The empirical results of the current study provide evidence that MER-N practices are perhaps implemented to reap organizational rewards for promoting project participants’ OCBs. Although the initial investments in human capital and training may be unattractive to megaproject managers, continuous MER-N efforts are likely to pay off over the long term by eliciting high levels of EC among project participants.

Project participants’ perceptions of MER-G emerge as the second principal predictor of their OCBs, with a path coefficient of 0.222 (Fig. 2). Interestingly, the effect of MER-G on EC and OCBs is inconsistent with the findings of previous research. In particular, [Turker \(2009b\)](#) determined that employees’ perceptions of CSR practices directed toward governments are insignificant factors affecting their organizational commitment. Meanwhile, [Newman et al. \(2015\)](#) argued that employees’ perceptions of CSR practices directed toward governments do not result in high levels of OCBs. The findings of the current study may be explained by the dual governmental roles. In China, most megaprojects are initiated by the central or local governments while also involving environmental supervisory departments (e.g., the Ministry of Environmental Protection) ([Zeng et al., 2015](#)). Therefore, governments have partially achieved a role transition in megaprojects from external supervisors to internal stakeholders (i.e., owners). MER-G practices are expected to meet both the legal requirements of regulators and the contractual agreements with owners. Megaprojects in China that perform MER-G practices are likely to be considered significant endeavors due to the complexity and diversity of the environmental issues. This perspective might lead project participants who work for such megaprojects to develop high levels of self-esteem and to identify with the environmental values of the project.

Project participants’ perceptions of MER-L and MER-P represent the least significant set of predictors of their OCBs. Interestingly, the effects of MER-L and MER-P on OCBs, as determined in this study, also differ from those of prior empirical studies. As noted by [Newman et al. \(2015\)](#), employees’ perceptions of CSR directed toward social and nonsocial stakeholders (e.g., the local environment and general public) strongly influenced their OCBs. The results of the current study may be related to the essential mission of megaprojects. Megaprojects are committed to providing fundamental public services that benefit local communities and, consequently, the country in general. The ecological protection of the local natural environment is the primary objective of megaprojects. Thus, the more the project participants take MER-P or MER-L for granted, the more ineffective they will perceive it to be. This perspective might lead project participants to respond less positively to MER-P or MER-L than to MER-G and MER-N practices.

Although MER-P and MER-L practices have received considerable attention, megaprojects have not demonstrated ideal environmental performance. In the course of preliminary interviews with megaproject managers, several interviewees were skeptical about the real effectiveness of MER-P and MER-L practices. Some MER-P and MER-L practices are little

more than environmental slogans and have yet to achieve their expected goals. For example, an interviewee with more than 15 years of experience in managing megaprojects indicated that “a substantial part of the MER-P and MER-L practices are more often established to gain a better social reputation rather than to improve actual environmental performance or project participants’ environmental skills”—otherwise known as “green-washing.” In this regard, “green-washing” appears to be the external projection of a positive image of a megaproject that is not reflected in its internal initiatives regarding environmental issues ([Testa et al., 2015](#)). On this basis, a megaproject’s MER-P and MER-L practices are unlikely to engender high levels of project identification or to subsequently affect OCBs.

5.2. Implications

This study makes several contributions to the fields of megaproject management, environmental responsibility, and OCBs. First, it extends previous research on the environmental citizenship in permanent corporate organizations and the OCBs in temporary project organizations by providing further insights into the mechanisms underlying project participants’ willingness to sustain and support the environmental efforts of megaprojects. Although most previous studies have tended to consider environmental responsibility, the current study shows that MER practices directed toward the four groups of stakeholders account for the unique variance at the EC level, thereby affecting OCBs differently. The analysis of empirical data supports the claim of [Raineri and Paillé \(2016\)](#) that EC plays a pivotal role in connecting organizational environmental practices with OCBs. However, this study indicates that OCBs are only positively related to project participants’ perceptions of MER practices directed toward *internal* stakeholders, whereas these behaviors have no significant association with MER practices directed toward *external* stakeholders.

Slogan propaganda, which highlights concerns related to the local community and general public, is often posited as an effective approach for enhancing individual awareness of environmental issues and promoting their participation in environmental protection. Although the findings of the current study confirm this key role, macro-policy advocacy is insufficient for encouraging the pro-environmental behaviors of project participants. Megaproject managers should be aware of the priority to improve MER practices directed toward *internal* stakeholders. They should also provide project participants with increased opportunities to access environmental training and to obtain equal rights in expressing environmental appeals. MER practices directed toward *external* stakeholders have often been described as “a means of increasing social reputation” in megaprojects. In the implementation process of project environmental policies, establishing clear goals and supportive measures is a method by which to avoid confusion on the part of project participants regarding the goal of MER practices. Initiatives aimed at improving environmental performance should be accompanied by effective internal communication and project

participants' involvement in environmental practices to ensure their positive perceptions of MER practices.

Second, this study is novel as it investigated how the principal dimensions of OCBs could be applied to the environmental practices of megaprojects. Successful environmental practices are linked with the input of a multitude of social, economic, and technical elements that cannot be entirely covered by prescribed tasks (Locatelli and Mancini, 2012b). Daily et al. (2009) indicated that the success of environmental practices may hinge on individual behaviors that are beyond the scope of formal contractual systems. Therefore, extra-role OCBs are necessary to promote the implementation of formal management systems and to compensate for their deficiencies, facilitate tacit knowledge sharing, and stimulate collaboration in dealing with environmental issues (Boiral, 2009). OCBs do not underestimate the value of formal management practices or undermine the establishment of considerably robust management systems, but can co-exist with formal environmental methods. Building an integrated and reasonable system of rewards and punishments that go beyond contractual agreement is necessary to encourage the emergence of OCBs.

6. Conclusions

OCBs are constituted by individual, informal, and discretionary behaviors that contribute greatly to the efficiency of environmental practices. Prior studies on environmental management have overlooked the key role of OCBs in megaprojects. However, megaproject managers have realized their importance in dealing with the increasing challenges of environmental management, e.g., the complexity of environmental issues, the deficiencies of formal management systems, the need to consider tacit knowledge, the significance of helping relationships, and the promotion of the environmental legitimacy of projects. Under the increasing pressures to ensure environmental protection, project participants become considerably aware of environmental issues during the implementation of megaprojects. The research presented in this paper takes an SIT perspective and addresses how project participants' perceptions of MER practices directed toward four stakeholder groups influence their EC and OCBs.

The strong link between project participants' perceptions of MER practices and their EC indicates that investments in environmental responsibility practices, particularly those directed toward *internal* stakeholders, yield significant benefits. This paper also clarifies how MER practices directed toward the four stakeholder groups could be used to effectively stimulate the emergence of OCBs in megaprojects. If they are to foster the widespread "buy-in" of project participants, MER practices should be genuine (i.e., internalization) as opposed to symbolic (i.e., "green-washing"). With this perspective, internalization refers to the substantive rather than superficial integration of specific practices and principles proposed by MER in daily project activities.

Despite its valid contributions, this study has limitations and open questions that call for future research. Firstly, this study focused on China's megaprojects. Although some of these are

international megaprojects (e.g., Shanghai World Expo and Shanghai Disney Resort), this sampling technique limits the generalizability of research findings with respect to other geographic contexts. Considerable variance in terms of MER practices in different geographical contexts might amplify the significance of research findings.

Secondly, after analyzing the social–psychological processes (i.e., antecedents) leading project participants to engage in OCBs, a natural extension of the current study would be to investigate the consequences (or impacts) of OCBs. Specifically, future studies could address how different OCBs categories at the project-level—including helping, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, individual initiative, and self-development—make an impact on project environmental performance.

Thirdly, leadership has been recognized as one of the most critical factors influencing the emergence of OCBs. However, it remains unclear which leadership styles are most suitable in fostering project participants' OCBs. Future research could explore these relationships and bridge the gap between emerging OCBs research and more established literature based on leadership theory (e.g., transformational and transactional leadership) and environmental management.

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.04.008>.

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