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Exploring environmental collaboration and greenwashing in construction projects: An integrative governance framework

Zilun Wang¹, Qinghua He, Ph.D.², Giorgio Locatelli, Ph.D.³, Ge Wang, Ph.D.^{4,*}, Yang Li⁵

Abstract

Environmental collaboration between organizations involved in construction projects enables the efficiency of environmental management to gain environmental sustainability. Yet, in many projects, this collaboration is gamed promoting contractor greenwashing behavior, thereby diminishing the effectiveness of environmental management. What is unclear are the underpinning mechanisms to concurrently increase environmental collaboration and decrease contractor greenwashing behavior in construction projects. We used an integrated theoretical framework based on social exchange theory and transaction cost economics to evaluate the potential linear, curvilinear, and combined influence of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts on environmental collaboration and contractor greenwashing behavior. Drawing evidence from questionnaire surveys, we find that two categories of inter-organizational trust yield positive impacts on environmental collaboration and different curvilinear impacts on greenwashing behavior. Two categories of formal contracts exert an inverted U-shaped effect on environmental collaboration and heterogeneous effects on greenwashing behavior. We also find that formal contracts negatively moderate the effects of inter-organizational trust on environmental collaboration, and inter-organizational trust negatively moderates the impact of formal contracts on greenwashing. We provide novel insights into the inter-organizational governance mechanisms regarding greenwashing in construction projects relevant for construction managers concerned with the environmental “efficiency-effectiveness”.

Keywords: Environmental collaboration; Greenwashing behavior; Inter-organizational trust; Formal contracts; Social exchange theory; Transaction cost economics

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35 **Introduction**

36 Construction project delivery is responsible for enormous resource consumption and greenhouse gas emissions
37 (Wang et al. 2022a), imposing a severe environmental sustainability challenge. Project stakeholders are increasingly
38 concerned with environmental performance (Green and Sergeeva 2019). Environmental performance refers to the
39 outcomes of environmental management aiming to protect the environment (Yusof et al. 2020). An increasing body
40 of literature evaluated environmental performance from two managerial dimensions: efficiency and effectiveness
41 (Zhan et al. 2022). Efficiency means “*producing as many outcomes as possible with specific resource consumption,*”
42 while effectiveness means “*the achievement of the final objectives*” (Hu and Liu 2018 p. 783). The project team hence
43 assumes greater responsibility for delivering an environmentally efficient and effective construction project (Zhan et
44 al. 2022).

45 Construction projects are vehicles of change, whereas the agents of change are the organizations involved
46 (Musawir et al. 2020). The organizations’ representatives, brought together under the project team, carry on these
47 collaborative activities (Denicol et al. 2021). Environmental performance largely depends on environmental
48 collaboration between the organizations delivering the projects (Li et al. 2022). Paulraj et al. (2014) defined
49 environmental collaboration as “*cross-organization collaborative activities which exceed the traditional scope of*
50 *organizations’ tasks to pursue the environmental sustainability agenda*” (p. 6990). Previous literature has identified
51 the following aspects of environmental collaboration: 1) frequent communication regarding environmental tasks
52 (Zhao et al. 2021); 2) participation in others’ environmental activities through construction charrette or other channels
53 (Homayouni et al. 2021); 3) resource sharing towards green construction technology (Li et al. 2022); and 4) providing
54 technical or financial support (He et al. 2022). Environmental collaboration increases the efficiency of environmental
55 management among the project team, including promoting a shared environmental goal and developing more
56 efficient environmental management routines (Li et al. 2022; Yang 2017 p. 307).

57 Environmental collaboration has both positive and negative aspects. While positive aspects are apparent, the
58 discussion about negative aspects (the subject of this paper) is subtler. Literature increasingly cautioned about the
59 potential negative consequence of collaboration (Villena et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2014). Zhou et al. (2014) argued that
60 collaboration could harm performance by creating pressure to reciprocate with partner organizations. Villena et al.
61 (2011) posited collaborative inter-organizational relationships could cause relational inertia that hinders organizations’
62 ability to meet goals. Galvin et al. (2021) indicated that collaboration between organizations involved in construction
63 projects could cause opportunism. Although highly collaborative organizations can work empathetically and be
64 supportive, organizations may be “*reluctant to act according to conscience*” (Tangpong et al. 2010 p. 410).

65 Particularly relevant is the opportunism of contractors, who, from a principal-agent perspective, are the agents in
66 construction projects (Zardkoohi et al. 2017). If contractors struggle to achieve the expected investment return,
67 construction projects are more prone to opportunism, even in a collaborative context (Galvin et al. 2021). Therefore,
68 contractor greenwashing behavior, one of the typical environment-related opportunism, attracted much attention from
69 academics and practitioners (He et al. 2020; Johnsson et al. 2020). Contractor greenwashing behavior refers to “*false*
70 *communication that misleads project stakeholders to form positive beliefs about contractors’ environmental*
71 *performance*” (He et al. 2022 p. 2). Wang et al. (2018) suggested that the symbolic deployment of the project
72 environmental management system is one common form of greenwashing. Yang (2017) found that one contractor of
73 a megaproject exploited manipulated construction-site pictures to feign compliance with the waste management
74 directives, with no substantial actions to organize the randomly piled construction waste (pp. 122-133). Contractor
75 greenwashing behavior can mislead other organizations’ judgments about the actual environmental performance
76 (Handley et al. 2019). This interferes with project managers making accurate environmental management decisions.
77 Contractor greenwashing behavior hence decreases the effectiveness of the environmental management (Johnsson et
78 al. 2020).

79 It is, therefore, urgent to establish the underpinning mechanisms to increase environmental collaboration and
80 decrease contractor greenwashing behavior concurrently. In this context, there are three relevant research gaps. First,
81 existing literature independently examined the approaches to strengthening environmental collaboration and
82 mitigating greenwashing behavior (Paulraj et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2020). Galvin et al. (2021) suggested that we need
83 a combined governance perspective that focuses on both. Second, the negative implications of inter-organization
84 collaboration are under-researched; e.g., Murtha et al. (2011) called for more awareness of the opportunism hidden
85 in inter-organization collaboration. Last, there are scarce empirical guidelines to mitigate greenwashing behavior in
86 construction projects. Extant corporate-related research has yielded insights into the mitigating role of external
87 institutions on greenwashing behavior (Lyon and Montgomery 2015; Testa et al. 2018). However, construction
88 projects are characterized by temporary and specific team structures (Braun et al. 2013). The project team comprises
89 multiple organizations with different goals, priorities, cultures, etc., (Bakker 2010). To a large extent, inter-
90 organizational relationships shape contractors’ decision-making (Musawir et al. 2020). Therefore, the existing
91 literature is insufficient to study and mitigate greenwashing behavior in construction-project contexts.

92 We thus focus on the inter-organizational governance of increasing environmental collaboration and decreasing
93 contractor greenwashing behavior. Musawir et al. (2020) identified inter-organizational governance as a framework
94 for creating an internal institutional context based on inter-organizational interactions in project-related research (p.
95 9). We examined inter-organizational governance with a novel theoretical framework leveraging social exchange

96 theory (SET) and transaction cost economics (TCE). Specifically, we integrated the social-mechanism factor (i.e.,
97 inter-organizational trust) from SET and the economic-mechanism factor (i.e., formal contracts) from TCE. SET
98 posits that bilateral relationships stem from a relationship-based willingness of the organization to affirm the other
99 organization's abilities and accept their vulnerability, which is inter-organizational trust (Nee et al. 2018). Such
100 relationships with reciprocal intention can serve the valuable function of collaborative activities (Wang et al. 2020b).
101 However, greenwashing behavior originates from organizations' decision-making based on economic calculations
102 (Truong and Pinkse 2019). Social exchange theory is inadequate to investigate the influence of inter-organizational
103 interactions comprehensively. Therefore, we apply TCE, which is functional to our problem-solving. TCE posits that
104 formal contracts, written contracts involving formal terms to stipulate economic-related responsibilities and
105 obligations of organizations (MacCormack and Mishra 2015), can safeguard against opportunism (Zhou and Xu
106 2012). We also explored the combined effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts on environmental
107 collaboration and contractor greenwashing behavior. Prior literature presented disparate findings on whether
108 combinations of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts benefit (Cao and Lumineau 2015; Wang et al. 2020b).
109 Hence, we investigated whether project managers should combine social- and economic- mechanisms to enhance
110 collaboration and mitigate greenwashing. Thus, this study addresses the following research questions:

111 *RQ1: How do inter-organizational trust and formal contracts individually influence (a) environmental*
112 *collaboration and (b) contractor greenwashing behavior?*

113 *RQ2: Does the combined utilization of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts affect (a) environmental*
114 *collaboration and (b) contractor greenwashing behavior?*

115 The rest of the paper is structured as follows. The subsequent section describes the theoretical foundations of
116 environmental collaboration and greenwashing behavior, followed by the theoretical framework and hypotheses
117 development. Then, we introduce a questionnaire survey for construction projects. The following articulates the data
118 analysis process using hierarchical regression analysis. Finally, we provide discussion and research implications to
119 strengthen environmental collaboration and mitigate contractor greenwashing behavior.

120 **Literature review and Hypotheses development**

121 **Environmental collaboration and contractor greenwashing behavior**

122 Construction project literature categorizes environmental practices in construction projects into three aspects:
123 contractors' environmental tasks, owner and supervisor's environmental monitoring, and inter-organization
124 environmental collaboration (EC) (Paulraj et al. 2014). Unlike the environmental tasks and environmental monitoring,

125 which are dealt with by contracts or project management manuals (Yang 2017 pp. 16–20), EC refers to a set of extra
126 cross-organization activities that signal a collaborative intention in implementing environmental tasks (Adomako and
127 Tran 2022; Dangelico and Pontrandolfo 2015). A telling example of EC is the owner providing extra-contractual
128 convenient conditions for contractors' waste disposal (He et al. 2022 p. 11). EC consists of frequent communications,
129 engagement in others' activities, resource sharing, and technical or functional assistance beyond the organizations'
130 scope of work (Yang 2017 p. 307). The benefits of EC include enhancing mutual understanding (Kitsis and Chen
131 2021), promoting shared environmental goals, developing the most integrated environmental solutions (Li et al. 2022),
132 and motivating environmental technology innovation (Greco et al. 2021). Li et al. (2022) indicated that EC, as a
133 social learning process, substantially motivates technology innovation for wastewater reuse systems (p. 3). Hence,
134 EC can boost the efficiency of environmental management in construction projects.

135 EC also has a grim side: inter-organizational collaboration might promote opportunism (Galvin et al. 2021).
136 (Heirati et al. 2016 p. 2). Contractors can leverage a cooperation-oriented atmosphere and symbolic collaborative
137 commitment to seek self-interest goals with individual rationality (Noordhoff et al. 2011; Xue et al. 2017). EC can
138 promote confusion about the division of environmental tasks (Xue et al. 2017), allowing the contractor to behave
139 opportunistically. Among opportunism, the most relevant to environmental management is contractor greenwashing
140 behavior (GWB), which is positive misleading communication accompanied by poor environmental performance
141 (Delmas and Burbano 2011). A typical example of contractor GWB happened in the Zhengzhou-Wanzhou High-
142 speed railway project that connects sixteen neighboring cities in central and southwestern China (Hubei Daily, 2018).
143 After the regulatory authorities found the dust pollution practices, four contractors exploited social media to build
144 fictional stories around green construction as opposed to implementing the rectification requirements (Lvsenanyang,
145 2019). GWB causes difficulty in pinpointing poor environmental performance, discouraging the effectiveness of
146 environmental management (Kurpierz and Smith 2020; Tashman et al. 2019). The literature has investigated the
147 mitigating effect of normative pressures (Testa et al. 2018) and government regulation ability (He et al. 2020), both
148 from the perspective of external institutions. However, in the context of construction projects, inter-organizational
149 relationships exert a significant influence on contractors' decision-making (He et al. 2021). There is limited
150 understanding regarding inter-organizational governance in relation to contractor GWB.

151 **An integrated theoretical framework**

152 We leverage social exchange theory (SET) to introduce a social-mechanism factor, i.e., inter-organizational trust.
153 SET postulates that multiple organizations establish positive inter-organizational social relationships through trust
154 activities (Nee et al. 2018). Child and Faulkner (1998) define inter-organizational trust as "*the willingness of one*
155 *organization to engage with others in the belief that other's activities are beneficial to the first organization, even*

156 *under unguaranteed circumstances*” (p. 45). Trust is at the basis of unspecified obligation and reciprocity, which are
157 essential elements of the social relationship exchange (Yan and Zhang 2020). Organizations tend to collaborate;
158 otherwise, they might get penalized by social relationships (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Also, mutual
159 expectations accompanied by trust incentivize organizations to invest in exchange-specific cooperation (Paulraj et al.
160 2014). More specifically, among project teams, inter-organizational trust promotes pro-active and voluntaristic
161 cooperation predicated on reciprocity norms (Feitosa et al. 2020). It is, therefore, reasonable to expect that inter-
162 organizational trust is beneficial in enhancing EC (we will test this later as a hypothesis). Leveraging Galvin et al.
163 (2021), we identified two distinct categories of inter-organizational trust: cognition-based trust (CT) and affect-based
164 trust (AT). CT depicts beliefs about other organizations’ competency and reliability based on assessment and existing
165 knowledge. AT refers to emotional bonds with other organizations coming from mutual concern and long-term
166 cooperation.

167 One of our research subjects, greenwashing behavior, stems from organizations’ interactions based on economic
168 calculations (He et al. 2020). We hence utilize transaction cost economics (TCE) to explore inter-organizational
169 interactions with an emphasis on economic issues. TCE provides a solid foundation for advancing our understanding
170 of the economic-mechanism factor, i.e., formal contracts. Transactions with uncertainty and asset specificity are prone
171 to organizations’ bounded rationality (Williamson 1979). In this case, formal contracts, written contracts with
172 stipulations of promises or obligations and enforcement, are effective mechanisms to restrain exchange hazards (Yan
173 and Zhang 2020). In line with Luo (2002), we explored two facets of formal contracts: contractual completeness (CC)
174 and contractual obligatoriness (CO). CC rests on the extent of contractual elaborateness and explicitness, comprising
175 terms specificity and contingency adaptability (Wang et al. 2022b). Term specificity delineates the extent to which a
176 formal contract stipulates detailed environmental responsibilities and risk allocation (Lu et al. 2016). Contingency
177 adaptability portrays how contracts contribute to the solution guide for unanticipated environmental emergencies and
178 contingencies (Ning 2018). CO, on the other hand, emphasizes the enforceability and application embedded in written
179 contract documents. This facet concerns the severity and binding force of disciplinary actions taken by the owner to
180 prevent breaches and violations of other organizations’ environmental obligations (Lu et al. 2016).

181 **Hypotheses development**

182 Fig. 1 presents the framework linking inter-organizational trust, formal contracts, environmental collaboration
183 (EC), and contractor greenwashing behavior (GWB). In the previous sections, we introduced the concepts of social
184 exchange theory (SET), cognition-based trust (CT), affect-based trust (AT), transaction cost economics (TCE),
185 contractual completeness (CC), and contractual obligatoriness (CO). In the framework, we included “interaction
186 terms” linked to RQ2 to investigate the combined use of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts.

188 **Inter-organizational trust and environmental collaboration**

189 Drawing upon SET, we argued that inter-organizational trust positively influences environmental collaboration.
190 SET suggests a high level of inter-organizational trust in construction projects represents a socially embedded project
191 culture with a close connection (Galvin et al. 2021). Increasing trust enhances organizations' involvement in activities
192 that guide relationship continuance. This relation-specific guiding principle enables each organization to pursue
193 multilateral decision-making that can ultimately decrease transaction costs (Heide 1994). With construction projects
194 proceeding, inter-organizational trust supports organizations in sense-making each other's resources, abilities, and
195 management systems regarding environmental management. Sharing fine-grained information and knowledge
196 increases relation-specific adaptation and collaboration across organizational boundaries (Tomlinson et al. 2020). CT
197 in projects stems from the organization's evaluation of other organizations' previous project practices and current
198 cooperative relationships (Yan and Zhang 2020). During the project teamwork, CT improves psychological safety,
199 mitigates perceived risks, and increases willingness for managerial and technical knowledge (Tomlinson et al. 2020).
200 AT promotes empathy across organizations, leading to voluntary actions where an organization is involved in
201 benevolent initiatives toward other organizations (usually a contractor) (Dunn et al. 2012). We thus proposed the
202 following research hypotheses:

203 **H1a.** Cognition-based trust is positively associated with environmental collaboration.

204 **H1b.** Affect-based trust is positively associated with environmental collaboration.

205 **Inter-organizational trust and contractor GWB**

206 Based on the literature discussed below, we developed the hypothesis that inter-organizational trust has a U-
207 shaped relationship with contractor GWB. In the first paragraph, we explain why we hypothesized that "with low
208 trust," an increase in trust can decrease GWB. In the second paragraph, we explain why we hypothesized that "with
209 too much trust," increasing the trust has a negative effect: increasing GWB.

210 For two reasons, we hypothesized that increasing inter-organizational trust in "low trust settings" can mitigate
211 contractor GWB. First, the organizational perspective of SET suggests that inter-organizational trust can bring
212 available resources to contractors for truly improving environmental behavior. Implementing actions to increase
213 environmental performance is a cost faced by the contractor (Tam et al. 2007). Therefore, the contractor sees a trade-
214 off between environmental sustainability (which often has a long-term perspective) and short-term economic interests
215 (Sydow and Braun 2018). The organizational perspective regards inter-organizational trust as one of the organizations'
216 strategies to access shared resources via relation-oriented connections (Gulati and Sytch 2007). Such resources allow

217 the contractor to focus on actual environmental performance instead of misusing opportunism for short-term
218 economic interests. Second, the sociological perspective of SET suggests that inter-organizational trust helps shape
219 informal power relations among project organizations. Sarhadi et al. (2018) indicated that informal power relations
220 could promote “participative project management”, emphasizing power distribution and improving project
221 communication. This sharing of information and communication limits the possibility for a contractor to implement
222 GWB because it would be easy for the other organization to spot inconsistency between the contractor’s
223 communication and the actual behavior.

224 For two reasons, we hypothesized that increasing inter-organizational trust in “high trust settings” can promote
225 contractor GWB. First, excessive inter-organizational trust can invalidate the control mechanism of formal contracts.
226 SET suggests that inter-organizational trust mainly strengthens organizations’ resource exchange through informal
227 relationships (Yan and Zhang 2020). The domination of excessive trust conflicts with the strict environmental
228 controls and monitoring of formal contracts (Poppo and Zenger 2002). Consequently, the conflict curtails the validity
229 of contractual controls, and contractor opportunism might not be detected. Second, SET indicates that excessive
230 informal power from trust blurs the boundaries of responsibility among organizations (Sarhadi et al. 2018). These
231 blurred boundaries can give the contractor some extra rights, which may exacerbate the information asymmetry
232 between organizations involved in the project (Zhong et al. 2017). For instance, when environmental emergencies
233 happen, the owner might “empower” the contractor to handle these emergencies due to excessive trust. This can
234 enable the contractor to access this “opportunity” to address these issues to pursue short-term economic interests
235 rather than considering the environmental sustainability of construction projects.

236 Combining the ideas presented in the two previous paragraphs, we hypothesized a U-shaped relationship
237 between inter-organizational trust and contractor greenwashing behavior:

238 **H2a.** Cognition-based trust exerts a U-shaped influence on contractor greenwashing behavior.

239 **H2b.** Affect-based trust exerts a U-shaped influence on contractor greenwashing behavior.

240 **Formal contracts and environmental collaboration**

241 Following the SET and TCE literature listed below, we derived the hypothesis that formal contracts have an
242 inverted U-shaped relationship with EC. In the first paragraph, we explain why we hypothesized that “with low
243 formal contracts,” increasing formal contracts positively affects EC. In the second paragraph, we explain why we
244 hypothesized that “with too many formal contracts,” increasing formal contracts can decrease EC.

245 We hypothesized that increasing formal contracts in “low formal contract settings” can promote EC for two
246 reasons. First, formal contracts can mitigate inter-organizational conflicts and help boost organizations’ knowledge
247 exchange through stable partnership relationships (Mesquita and Brush 2008; Wang et al. 2022b). CC clarifies the

248 environmental responsibilities, providing a clear managerial interface to regulate each organization's behavior (Abdi
249 and Aulakh 2017). This interface promotes effective environmental management procedures, including monitoring,
250 contingency adaptation, incentivizing, and dealing with violations (Yang 2017 pp. 77–79). Consequently, Multiple
251 environmental procedures are conducive to establishing shared goals and lowering environmental routines' ambiguity
252 (MacCormack and Mishra 2015; Wang et al. 2021). Second, owing to the safeguarding role of CO in curbing
253 opportunism, the contractor is required to truly fulfill the environmental responsibilities (Jiang et al. 2013). Therefore,
254 CO can motivate the contractor to proactively seek environmental collaboration, which helps the contractor minimize
255 the input to align with the responsibilities stipulated in the contract (Lu et al. 2016).

256 We hypothesized that increasing formal contracts in “high formal contract settings” can mitigate EC for two
257 reasons. First, the leading cause could be the adverse effect of rigidity. Construction projects are temporary endeavors
258 where “unforeseen events are inevitable” (Cerić et al. 2021 p. 327). Environmental tasks in projects are characteristic
259 of the uniqueness of diverse geographic appearances and structures in specific projects (Ibrahim 2016). When
260 exceeding a specific range of completeness, environment-related terms in a contract contain too many requirements
261 and alternatives. This can limit the flexibility of inter-organizational collaboration in addressing environmental issues
262 (Wang et al. 2022b). In this regard, over-detailed environmental management procedures set out the responsibilities
263 too clearly, thus leaving no space for cross-organization collaborative activities. Second, high enforceability and
264 penalty intensity expose the contractor to overwhelming pressures to achieve environmental objectives. These
265 pressures might cause intense conflicts between the owner and the contractor (Yang et al. 2017). Such conflicts
266 discourage initiatives of sharing environmental managerial experience and techniques (Dervin 1998). Engaging these
267 insights, we hypothesized an inverted U-shaped relationship between formal contracts and environmental
268 collaboration.

269 **H3a.** Contractual completeness exerts an inverted U-shaped influence on environmental collaboration.

270 **H3b.** Contractual obligatoriness exerts an inverted U-shaped influence on environmental collaboration.

271 **Formal contracts and contractor GWB**

272 We hypothesized that CC and CO could exert a mitigation effect on contractor GWB. TCE posits that
273 organizations can use formal contracts to curtail opportunism (Heide and John 1992). First, CC can deter opportunism
274 by stipulating environmental duties, obligations, risk allocation, and alternative solutions toward environmental
275 emergencies (Jiang et al. 2013). Specified and detailed environmental provisions help the owner effortlessly detect
276 the violation. This consequently narrows the scope of contractor opportunism (Lu et al. 2016). For instance,
277 atmospheric particulate matter requirements written in contracts specify the accurate threshold for contractors. In this
278 vein, definite risk allocation and responsibility division can help pinpoint the responsible organization promptly. This

279 can increase the probability of identifying GWB (Reuer and Ariño 2007). Therefore, a high level of CC can offer
280 sufficient evidence for the third-inspection organization to form a fair judgment. Second, CO exerts a negative effect
281 on opportunism. The obligatory enforceability of contract provisions enables contractors to carefully consider the
282 negative consequences of implementing opportunism. Consequently, CO can significantly diminish the potential
283 benefits of opportunism and mitigate contractors' motivation for GWB. Hence, we predicted the following
284 hypotheses:

285 **H4a.** Contractual completeness is negatively associated with contractor greenwashing behavior.

286 **H4b.** Contractual obligatoriness is negatively associated with contractor greenwashing behavior.

287 **The combined effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts**

288 We then turn to the combined effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts on EC and contractor
289 GWB. Regarding EC, we hypothesized that the higher the degree of formal contracts, the less beneficial the inter-
290 organizational trust to EC is. This is because formal contracts could interfere with establishing relationship exchanges
291 from the inter-organizational trust. As hypothesized, inter-organizational trust can promote EC by establishing a
292 relationship exchange. However, the controlling nature of formal contracts may alienate informal reciprocal
293 relationships. In an inter-organizational relationship, trust operates as a self-enforcing mechanism and moral binding,
294 which helps boost the relationship exchange. However, increasing CC and CO tend to signal that "other organizations
295 are neither trusted nor trustworthy without formal controls" (Ghoshal and Moran 1996 p. 24). This exerts an adverse
296 effect on the formation of collaborative intentions. In project settings, temporary partnership relationships exist (Cerić
297 et al. 2021), and environmental protection tends not to serve as the primary project goal (Wang et al. 2020a). Too
298 much attention to the formal control of environmental issues will likely drive a wedge into the trust-collaboration
299 path. Thus, among the above arguments, we predicted:

300 **H5.** An increase in formal contracts discourages the positive relationship between inter-organizational trust and
301 environmental collaboration.

302 Regarding contractor GWB, we hypothesized that the increase in inter-organizational trust would encourage the
303 mitigating role of formal contracts. It is because that inter-organizational trust can ease the contractor's pressure to
304 achieve environmental compliance. Formal contracts with high CC and CO curb contractor GWB and increase the
305 contractor's input to truly pursue environmental sustainability (Lu et al. 2016). Hence, formal contracts pressure the
306 contractor considerably, which may negatively affect inter-organizational relationships (Williamson 1991 pp. 271–
307 273). Inter-organizational trust can create a collaborative atmosphere due to relation-oriented exchange. This
308 atmosphere can help the contractor effortlessly and effectively fulfill their environmental responsibilities.

309 Consequently, inter-organizational trust can mitigate the contractor's motivation to greenwash. Kurpierz and Smith
310 (2020) suggested that pressures and opportunities are essential for organizations to rationalize opportunism. The
311 embeddedness of trust within formal contracts can further relieve contractors of the pressure to undertake
312 environmental tasks when the contract can limit the opportunity. We thus predicted the following:

313 **H6.** An increase in inter-organizational trust encourages the negative relationship between formal contracts and
314 contractor greenwashing behavior.

315 **Research methods**

316 **Sampling and data collection**

317 Our empirical investigation leveraged survey data from 586 Chinese project practitioners (including owners,
318 general contractors, subcontractors, and supervisors). These practitioners were knowledgeable about environmental
319 practices in construction projects. We administered the survey between March and June 2020, snowballing to access
320 a representative sample (Preacher and Hayes 2008). We asked respondents to complete questionnaires based on their
321 experience in a recent construction project. We received 903 questionnaires through an online survey system. We
322 followed two criteria to exclude invalid samples. First, we screened out questionnaires within a 200-second
323 completion time (N = 261). Second, we eliminated questionnaires in which respondents reported insufficient
324 knowledge of project environmental practices (N = 56). We set an extra question to investigate respondents'
325 familiarity with project environmental practices, "To which extent do you know the environmental practices of the
326 selected construction project". Eventually, we left 586 valid questionnaires for further analysis. As illustrated in Table
327 1, most respondents occupy manager and professional engineer positions (75.8%).

328 [Insert Table1 here]

329 **Questionnaire development and measurement**

330 Following Zhou and Xu (2012), we conducted three processes to develop the final questionnaire. First, we
331 compiled an initial pool of items based on theory and a thorough review of peer-reviewed literature. We then
332 contextualized these items with project environmental practices. Second, we conducted semi-structured interviews
333 with 10 scholars and 8 practitioners. We inquired scholars and practitioners about three aspects of questions in semi-
334 structured interviews: 1) their understanding of environmental collaboration and contractor greenwashing behavior;
335 2) their assessment and suggestions regarding the accuracy, consistency with project practices, and readability of
336 items, and 3) their thoughts on our research questions. Based on these interviews, we refined our scale items by
337 evaluating the accuracy, consistency with project practices, and readability of specific items. For instance, two experts
338 suggested that "specific environmental funds" prescribed in the contract should be listed to facilitate respondents'

339 understanding (Please see item CC3 in Table 2). Third, we finalized the questionnaire by performing a pilot survey.
340 We invited the 8 practitioners who participated in the semi-structured interviews and another 22 well-experienced
341 practitioners (recommended by 18 interviewees) to our pilot survey. We asked the 30 practitioners to complete the
342 questionnaire derived from the first two processes. We calculated 1) Corrected Item-Total Correlation for each item
343 and 2) Cronbach's α for each construct to evaluate item consistency. Each item's Corrected Item-Total Correlation
344 and Cronbach's α were evaluated, indicating no item should be excluded (Wu et al. 2017).

345 We used six and three items to measure *contractual completeness* (CC) and *contractual obligatoriness* (CO).
346 These nine items were derived from Luo (2002) and Liu (2017). CC assesses the extent to which environment-related
347 agreements are specific, detailed, and contingent, while CO examines the enforceability of environmental terms. We
348 adopted the measures of *cognition-based trust* (CT) and *affect-based trust* (AT) from McAllister (1995). Three items
349 of CT capture the rational evaluation of other organizations' reliability and dependability concerning environmental
350 issues. AT has three items describing the emotional attachment stemming from mutual care. The four environmental
351 collaboration (EC) items were adapted from Paulraj et al. (2014). These reflect the extent to which project
352 organizations are proactive in jointly solving environmental problems across organizational boundaries.
353 *Greenwashing behavior* (GWB) items in our study manage to capture contractors' misleading environmental
354 communication. Seven measurement items were drawn from the corporate-level literature (Testa et al. 2018) and
355 adapted to project research. This paper applied a five-point Likert scale ("1" denotes "strongly disagree", "2" denotes
356 "disagree", "3" denotes "neither agree nor disagree", "4" denotes "agree", and "5" denotes "strongly agree") criteria
357 to measure each item. criteria to measure each item. As in Wu et al. (2017), we developed the final questionnaire in
358 English and translated it into Chinese. Then we back-translated it into English to ensure conceptual equivalence.
359 Table 2 provides full details of these measurement items.

360 [Insert Table 2 here]

361 **Control variables**

362 Our study included four control variables to control for several sources of heterogeneity at the project and society
363 levels. First, Yang (2017 pp. 7–8) indicated that project delivery purpose can shape specific environmental guidelines
364 and objectives. We thus controlled for *project type* (i.e., residential buildings, public buildings, municipal
365 infrastructures, industrial projects, etc., see Table 1) to address this concern. Following Shinkle et al. (2021), we ran
366 the whole regression models with project-type fixed effects to partially out the type variance. Second, we controlled
367 for *project duration* because the time accumulation of cooperation is a factor in supporting trust and collaboration
368 development (Zhong et al. 2017). Project duration was operationalized by the construction period (" < 12 months",

369 “12-24 months”, “24-36 months”, and “> 36 months”). Third, we focused on the influence of *project size*, which
370 reflects the project’s complexity. Complex projects are characteristic of the priority of environmental objectives
371 (Wang et al. 2017) and are exposed to intricate contractual and non-contractual relationships (Cerić et al. 2021). We
372 thus controlled for *project investment*: “< 50 million”, “50-100 million”, “100-500 million”, “500-1000 million”, and
373 “> 1000 million” (The unit of investment is Chinese Yuan (CNY)). Finally, given our aim, we controlled for external
374 institutions (He et al. 2020) using three items adapted from Wang et al. (2016) to control for *regulatory uncertainty*
375 (RU), which captures the uncertainty regarding environmental policies and legal enforceability.

376 **Social desirability bias and common method variance**

377 A frequently raised issue concerning survey methodology is the social desirability bias (SDB) (Testa et al. 2018).
378 Considering the negative nature of contractor GWB, our study utilized four remedies to deal with SDB. First, we
379 adopted indirect questioning to enable respondents’ comfort in speaking the truth (e.g., highlighting project behaviors
380 as opposed to contractors’ behaviors, using a third-person perspective) (Fisher 1993). Second, we required
381 respondents to finish the questionnaires based on their most recent project. Third, we granted anonymity and
382 confidentiality during the survey (Wang et al., 2017). Fourth, following Ozer (2011), our questionnaire instructed
383 owners and supervisors to assess their partners’ (i.e., contractors’) GWB to mitigate self-rating bias. For instance, we
384 required the contractor respondents to score “the project’s” GWB. We required owners and supervisors to score “the
385 contractor’s” GWB (see GWB items in Table 2). Last, Kwak et al. (2021) concluded that social desirability does not
386 contaminate the estimate of a causal relationship if it influences only one dependent variable (i.e., contractor GWB
387 in our study). This further indicated that SDB was not a severe concern in our study.

388 As for nonresponse bias, we followed Armstrong and Overton (1977) to separate our sample into three groups
389 in line with the completion time of the questionnaire (i.e., “200-300 seconds”, “300-600 seconds”, and “more than
390 600 seconds”), and we checked that there were not statically significant differences. To evaluate standard method
391 variance (CMV), we performed two procedures referring to Podsakoff et al. (2012). Harman’s single-factor test
392 indicated that the most prominent factor contributed 36.77% of the measurement variances. This result revealed no
393 single dominant factor. Additionally, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis by adding CMV latent variables.
394 The Δ RMSEA (i.e., change in Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) is a measure used to assess the impact
395 of incorporating the CMV latent variables on the overall model fit (Podsakoff et al. 2012). Δ RMSEA here is 0.018
396 and below the recommended threshold of 0.05. As such, CMV is not a significant concern for this study.

397 **Construct reliability and validity**

398 This study utilized exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in keeping with Anderson and Gerbing (1988). We adopted

399 EFA because EFA serves as a preliminary step in survey-based research. EFA can assess item-construct relationships,
400 helping us evaluate the reliability of items in measuring the intended constructs (Hurley et al. 1997). We also applied
401 confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a crucial technique in survey-based research. CFA can assess the overall fit of
402 the measurement model and systematically evaluate the reliability and validity of the constructs (Hurley et al. 1997).
403 First, we employed EFA to investigate nine items associated with the contract. As shown in Table S1, the Kaiser-
404 Meyer-Olkin value and Bartlett test result indicated that the correlation coefficient was satisfactory for EFA
405 requirements (Field 2013). The loadings of nine items were above the recommended threshold of 0.5, suggesting that
406 these items were appropriately classified into two proposed constructs. We subsequently used EFA to analyze the
407 trust construct and validated its appropriateness. We performed CFA to assess the measurement models with all multi-
408 item constructs. The result showed that the measurement model fit the data satisfactorily: Root Mean Square Error
409 of Approximation = 0.062; Normed Fit Index = 0.991; Relative Fit Index = 0.989; Root Mean Square Residual =
410 0.033; Goodness of Fit Index = 0.993; Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index = 0.991; Parsimonious Goodness of Fit Index
411 = 0.776.

412 Additionally, we conducted a comprehensive item evaluation concerning internal consistency, convergent
413 validity, and discriminant validity. The composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's α values in Table 3 were above the
414 0.70 benchmarks, showing a good internal consistency (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The average variance extracted
415 (AVE) for each construct was above 0.50 (Field 2013). Another indicator of item convergent validity is standardized
416 factor loading (SFL) (Hair 2009). The SFL was higher than the threshold of 0.7 in our study (please see Table 2). An
417 examination of Table 3 revealed that the square roots of the AVE values (i.e., the diagonal elements of this matrix)
418 were larger than the correlations among all constructs (i.e., the off-diagonal elements). This offered strong evidence
419 of discriminant validity.

420 [Insert Table 3 here]

421 **Statistical models and analysis**

422 We used hierarchical regression analysis to test hypotheses. The reasons we selected hierarchical regression
423 analysis are as follows. First, hierarchical regression analysis is a robust and accurate technique for examining
424 curvilinear relationships among variables (Ren et al. 2022). Second, hierarchical regression analysis permits the
425 stepwise entry of variables based on the research framework (Li and Ning 2022). This facilitates specific hypothesis
426 testing regarding linear, curvilinear, and combined influences. The incremental R-squared values derived from this
427 method help quantify the additional variance explained by including variables. Third, hierarchical regression analysis
428 offers an easily interpretable approach for the relationships we explored (Chatterjee and Hadi 2015).

429 We added variables stepwise in the hierarchical regression to test the newly-added variables' effect under the
430 premise of controlling added variables (Wang et al. 2022b). Before that, we performed a test to validate whether the
431 data displayed violations of outliers, normality, and other problems. The test results indicated that these problems do
432 not exist, and our data were suitable for regression analysis. Since the basic reported analysis utilized an ordinary
433 least squares (OLS) regression procedure with robust errors, we mean-centered the independent variables of trust and
434 contract to eliminate the potential multi-collinearity problem (Aiken et al. 1991). All the variance inflation factor
435 values were less than 7.5, indicating multi-collinearity was of limited concern (Chatterjee and Hadi 2015). When
436 evaluating the significance of the U-shaped relationship, a large body of literature considered the significance of the
437 coefficient of quadratic terms. However, Lind and Mehlum (2010) deemed it insufficient to establish a significant
438 curvilinear relationship. Therefore, we adopted an extra two-step U-test approach through Stata 15.0 developed by
439 Hanns et al. (2016). Step one is to examine whether the slope of the quadratic term is significantly steep at both ends
440 of the data range. Step two is to ensure that the turning point (i.e., the vertex of the curve) is within the data range.

441 **Results**

442 This research investigated a series of models to show the explanatory power of each set of variables. We set
443 Model 1-4 and Model 5-8 to target environmental collaboration (EC) and greenwashing behavior (GWB),
444 respectively: Model 1 and 5 with control variables only, Model 2 and 6 with focal variables entered, Model 3 and 7
445 with quadratic terms included, and Model 4 and 8 with interaction terms added. Table 4 reports regression results for
446 hypotheses validating. Curvilinear and combined effects are graphically represented in Fig. 2-5.

447 **Linear and curvilinear effects of inter-organizational trust**

448 H1a and H1b posited positive linear relationships between trust and EC. Model 2 shows significant positive
449 coefficients of cognition-based trust (CT) ($\beta = 0.292$, $p < 0.001$) and affect-based trust (AT) ($\beta = 0.434$, $p < 0.001$),
450 and their quadratic terms are of insignificance exhibited in Model 3. These findings support H1a and H1b. To examine
451 H2a and H2b, Model 7 tested the effect of trust on GWB under a curvilinear relationship. The results suggest that the
452 quadratic term of CT is significantly positive ($\beta = 0.096$, $p < 0.05$), while that of AT is significantly negative ($\beta = -$
453 0.365 , $p < 0.001$). Both two quadratic terms passed the U-test evaluation. This result indicates that the curve of CT
454 would initially follow a negative slope and then turn to become positive, while that of AT shows the opposite trend,
455 as in Fig. 2. The U-test finding can help pinpoint the vertex of the curve (Haans et al. 2016). These results show the
456 existence of a U-shaped influence of CT with a vertex of 3.927 (Fig. 2 (a)) and an inverted U-shaped influence of AT
457 with a vertex of 3.145 on GWB (Fig. 2 (b)), supporting H2a but no H2b.

458 More specifically, we have two more nuanced findings. First, Fig 2 shows that with an increase in CT and AT,

488 GWB becomes more strongly negative at a high level of AT, which can be deemed a negative moderating effect.
489 Model 4 and Model 8 displayed adjusted R^2 of 67.4% and 29.7%, respectively. This is acceptable considering the
490 nature of the cross-sectional design (Sarstedt and Mooi 2014 p. 211) and the fact that we focus on the relationships
491 formed between variables rather than predicting (Moksoy 1999 pp. 131–132).

492 [Insert Fig.5 here]

493 **Robustness checks**

494 We conducted three sensitivity checks to assess the empirical analysis's robustness. First, given that our
495 dependent variables are the Likert-scale measure and many respondents rated 1 or 5 (i.e., the minimum endpoint or
496 maximum endpoint) on EC and GWB, we applied the censored Tobit analysis as a severe test of our results. Censored
497 Tobit analysis allows a better evaluation of the robustness of regression results with Likert-scale measures (Shinkle
498 et al. 2021; Tobin 1958). Tobit regression results indicated that the regression results are robust and confirmation of
499 hypotheses has remained stable. Secondly, because project investment may influence contractors' environmental
500 practices (Xu et al. 2013), this paper conducted a grouped regression regarding project investment structure to test
501 the sensitivity further. Following Wang et al. (2022a), we separated the sample into the state-invest group ($N = 316$)
502 and non-state-invest group ($N = 270$) and performed OLS regressions, respectively. Tables S2 and S3 show that the
503 results hold across diverse investment patterns, increasing confidence in our findings. Third, the descriptive statistics
504 (Table 3) suggest that inter-organizational trust correlates significantly with formal contracts. Extant research also
505 indicated the significant effect of contracts on trust among project organizations (Lumineau 2017; Yan and Zhang
506 2020). To correct for potential endogeneity of trust, we followed Poppo et al. (2016) and conducted an alternative
507 analysis using a three-stage regression model. In stage 1, we regressed CT and AT against control variables, CC, and
508 CO, to obtain the residual free from the contract effect. In stage 2, we utilized residual terms to indicate CT and AT
509 and consequently regressed EC and GWB against these residual terms, contract-, and control-related variables. In
510 stage 3, we created pertinent mean-centered quadratic and interaction terms and examined their effects. Table 5
511 illustrates similar results to those in Table 4, indicating that our results remain robust.

512 [Insert Table 5 here]

513 **Discussions**

514 This paper aims to investigate the individual (RQ1) and combined effect (RQ2) of inter-organizational trust and
515 formal contracts on environmental collaboration (EC) and contractor greenwashing behavior (GWB). Table 4
516 illustrates the results of hypothesis validation. We discuss relevant implications and react to the proposed research
517 questions using our findings and the literature. First, we discuss the nuanced findings related to RQ1 and RQ2. Second,

518 we discuss the theoretical and managerial implications of this study.

519 **The individual effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts (RQ1)**

520 Regarding RQ1, the results exhibit the different effects of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts on EC
521 and contractor GWB. Firstly, the results indicate that cognition-based trust (CT) and affect-based trust (AT) positively
522 influence EC, supporting H1a and H1b. This finding is consistent with Cheng et al. (2016) that relational governance
523 can promote process collaboration. We validated the role of inter-organizational trust in shaping “informal and
524 proactive environmental management practices” in project settings. Although Silvius and Schipper (2020) deemed
525 environmental sustainability as a strategic imperative to organizations, most of the discussions on projects are still
526 focused on the iron triangle (Tam et al. 2007), leaving environmental sustainability less discussed. Such imperative
527 and limited resources motivate project organizations to manage resource dependence by forming inter-organizational
528 trust. This motivation consequently builds environmental collaboration and support for other organizations (Wang et
529 al. 2018).

530 Secondly, the results suggest that CT exerts a U-shaped effect on contractor GWB, while AT exerts an inverted
531 U-shaped effect, supporting H2a but not H2b. Unlike Wang et al. (2019), the results indicate the curvilinear effect of
532 trust in analyzing opportunism. Here we discuss two more nuanced findings. First, GWB sees a generally downward
533 trend with CT and AT increasing. This finding demonstrates that inter-organizational trust can mitigate contractor
534 GWB in most cases. This corroborates that “trust counteracts the fear of opportunism” (Gulati 1995 p. 93). More
535 specifically, this finding is inconsistent with Stevens et al. (2015), which concerned the detriment of “excessive trust”.
536 The positive impact of AT on GWB within a range of high AT signifies the beneficial role of affectional bonds in
537 governing environmental issues. Villena et al. (2019) proposed that AT contributes to longer-lasting inter-
538 organizational relationships, extending beyond a single construction project. This finding should be further
539 interpreted in light of our research context (i.e., Chinese construction projects). Zhou and Xu (2012) indicated that in
540 emerging countries like China, the utilization of social relations is widespread (p. 678). An interviewee, who
541 participated in one of the 18 semi-structured interviews, suggests that “*in projects filled with a high level of AT, the*
542 *owner will not let the contractor work at a loss, and the contractor will endeavor to achieve overall project*
543 *environmental objectives*”. Our results and research context confirm Sydow and Braun (2018)’s view that stable inter-
544 organizational relationships “from the past and future” frame the behavior at the project level (p. 9). Second, we
545 identify the different trust ranges in increasing GWB (i.e., CT at a high-level range while AT at a low-level range).
546 The resource and exchange perspectives can explain the promoting role of CT at a high-level range. Resource
547 perspective suggests that high CT among projects tends to denote high confidence toward partners’ resources and
548 capabilities (Cerić et al. 2021; Gulati and Sytch 2007). This confidence can raise expectations for environmental

549 objectives, placing tremendous pressure on contractors. The exchange perspective indicates that CT may promote
550 opportunism beyond a certain threshold because of loosened monitoring and relational inertia in which the
551 organization cannot perceive performance deterioration (Fang et al. 2008). Taken together, high CT equips
552 contractors with the pressure to improve environmental performance and the opportunity to adopt opportunism. The
553 promoting role of AT low-level range indicates that under low-AT circumstances, seeking more emotional attachment
554 might be accompanied by opportunism. In this case, building trust does not aim to strengthen identity and a shared
555 project culture but for the organization's short-term interest (Noordhoff et al. 2011). In sum, the limitations of CT
556 and AT in mitigating GWB vary. We are required to pay attention to these limitations.

557 Thirdly, the results indicate that CC positively influences EC, whereas CO exerts an inverted U-shaped influence,
558 not supporting H3a but supporting H3b. As for CC, we find that high CC does not exhibit an inhibition effect on
559 proactive and informal environmental collaboration. Instead, environment-related contract terms specify
560 environmental objectives and standards, organizations' responsibilities, the scope for using environmental funds (e.g.,
561 civilized construction fee), and principles to adapt to changing institutional environment and handle environmental
562 contingencies (Yang 2017). Consequently, the project team establishes a set of "basic routines" regarding
563 environmental issues (You et al. 2018). These routines lay the solid foundation to promote flexible problem-solving
564 and environmental knowledge sharing. As for CO, we find that except for some projects with extremely high CO,
565 most environmental collaborative activities can benefit from increasing CO. Poppo and Zenger (2002) indicated that
566 high CO can cause conflicts and disagreements over environmental objectives, therefore discouraging the relation-
567 oriented exchange between the contractor and other organizations. In sum, CC and CO positively affect EC except
568 when the CO is at a high level.

569 Fourthly, the results suggest that CC exerts a U-shaped effect on contractor GWB and CO exerts a negative
570 effect, not supporting H4a but H4b. First, CC does not demonstrate a consistent mitigation effect on GWB. A specific
571 range (i.e., $x \in (3.813, \text{high contractual completeness})$ in Fig. 4) indicates incompetence of high CC. This differs from
572 prior studies emphasizing the consistent mitigating power of CC in opportunism (Lu et al. 2016). This finding can
573 be ascribed to the nature of GWB. Signaling theory deems GWB as the "environment-related signaling" that some
574 contractor issues to gain environmental legitimacy (Truong and Pinkse 2019). However, our result suggests that CC
575 is of limited use in judging the quality of this signal. Even if several projects have identified "fake certificate or photo"
576 as a "critical environmental risk" enclosed in the project contract (Yang 2017 pp. 121–123), many kinds of GWB
577 remain elusive. Tam et al. (2007) noted that organizations can declare their environmental performance via
578 newsletters, posters, and annual reports, even with social media (Jia et al. 2021). Thus, contractor GWB belongs to
579 passive opportunism in that specific organizations purposely withhold environmental efforts (Wathne and Heide

580 2000). In this regard, contractor GWB violates principles and norms implicit in contracts instead of violating specified
581 formal terms. This passive opportunism renders it laborious and ineffective to curtail GWB, even with relatively
582 straightforward and adaptive terms. Second, as for CO, its beneficial role aligns with prior literature's finding that
583 solid enforceability is indispensable in curbing GWB. Via strict reward and punishment mechanisms with high
584 enforceability, CO considerably raises the cost of issuing fictitious signals. Contractors face more challenges to gain
585 legitimacy through adopting "symbolic" communication. Consequently, high CO can eliminate the regulatory voids
586 to adopt GWB within projects. This elimination is an effective "self-regulation" mechanism echoing external
587 environmental regulations (He et al. 2020; Perez-Batres et al. 2012). In sum, CC and CO positively influence EC and
588 GWB at most ranges. However, the limitation of extremely high CC in mitigating GWB cannot be ignored.

589 **The combined effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts (RQ2)**

590 Regarding RQ2, the results show a substitute impact of CT and CC on EC, and a complementary impact of AT
591 and CO on contractor GWB, partially supporting H5 and H6. First, the substitute impact of CT and CC can be
592 explained by the opposing logic of trust and formal contracts. Ghoshal and Moran (1996) argued that the combined
593 use of relational governance and formal contracts is "fundamentally problematic" owing to conflicting structures and
594 processes. CT is a "quasi-rational calculation and confidence" of a perceived partner's capability (Zhong et al. 2017),
595 while high CC signifies confusion and questioning about the resources and capability owned by the other organization
596 (Lu et al. 2016). This opposing logic harms collaborative activities aimed at trust and resource exchange. Second, in
597 contrast, the complementary impact of AT and CO aligns with Poppo and Zenger (2002), which can be attributed to
598 our research context (i.e., Chinese construction projects). Emerging countries like China usually have relatively weak
599 regulations and cannot guarantee the legal enforceability of contracts (Zhou and Xu 2012). Additionally, the
600 utilization of social relations during business practices is prevalent in China (Xu et al. 2022). AT is thus conducive to
601 creating a "micro-level" institutional framework to ensure contractual execution, especially in emerging countries
602 (Zhou and Xu 2012). Therefore, the relationship exchange culture embedded in the contractual application will
603 constitute a beneficial complement to contracts. Overall, our findings on the combined role of trust and contract vary.
604 Whether complement or substitute depends upon the diverse categories of inter-organizational governance factors
605 involved.

606 **Theoretical implications**

607 This study contributes to communities of environmental sustainability and construction engineering and
608 management in four facets. First, our main objective is to address a sustainability-oriented problem existing in
609 construction project delivery, i.e., how to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of environmental management

610 concurrently. Construction management literature addressed environmental efficiency- and effectiveness-related
611 questions by exploring positive environmental practices (Rosenbaum et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2017). Rather, echoing
612 the call of Murtha et al. (2011), this paper sheds fresh insights into the negative aspects of the EC. We combined SET
613 and TCE to investigate the governance approaches of EC and GWB within an integrated framework. The results gain
614 novel knowledge about collaboration research from social- and contract- mechanisms. The results advance
615 environmental sustainability across multiple organizations involving construction engineering and management.
616 Second, this study conduces to a deepening understanding of GWB literature in project and emerging-country settings.
617 Through inter-organizational governance lenses, we identify a practical path to mitigate contractor GWB. We
618 recognize contractor GWB as a set of “passive opportunism” that implicitly violates environmental principles and
619 norms. This recognition provides a solid foundation for further research revealing contractor GWB’s characteristics.
620 Third, we derived curvilinear hypotheses to explore the U-shaped or inverted U-shaped effect of trust and contract.
621 This further contributes to SET and TCE perspectives. Combined with the specific curve shape (Fig 2-4), Our
622 regression analysis develops a fine-grained cognition of the particular range where trust and contract exhibit the “dark
623 side” (Locatelli et al. 2022). Therefore, our research helps develop a contingency view of trust and contract by
624 revealing their specific limitations in governing sustainability-oriented problems. Finally, analyzing the combined
625 effects of trust and contract, this research enriches the stream regarding “complementarity versus substitute debate”
626 in project governance literature. Our findings suggest that complementarity and substitute are not an “either-or”
627 situation. There could not be a universal combined relationship between social- and economic-mechanism factors
628 (Zhou and Xu 2012). By further analyzing the institutional characteristics of emerging countries such as China, the
629 results advance our understanding of the impact of institutional legal enforceability and the emphasis of social
630 relations on the combined roles of different governance factors.

631 **Managerial implications**

632 Project managers and policymakers have long faced the problem of improving environmental management
633 efficiency and effectiveness. Our findings have several implications for addressing the problem from perspectives of
634 environmental collaboration and greenwashing behavior, especially in emerging countries.

635 **Sensibly utilizing inter-organizational trust**

636 Cerić et al. (2021) indicated that the optimal extent of inter-organizational trust required in projects remains an
637 open question. Our results suggest that project managers should develop contingent strategies for building and
638 controlling two categories of trust. This paper offers nuanced practical implications to enable project organizations
639 to be aware of heterogeneous “trust traps”. First, we find that maintaining a relatively high level of CT (3.927 Likert
640 score in our research) can effectively alleviate contractor GWB. Owing to the quasi-rational nature of CT (Zhong et

641 al. 2017), we suggest that project owners constantly evaluate each organization's capability of performing
642 environmental tasks. For instance, the project owner should learn about the contractor's managerial, financial, and
643 technical abilities and reputation based on their previous project. The project managers should fully consider these
644 factors at the inception and bidding stage and manage to avoid the lowest-bid approach. Besides, project managers
645 are required to prevent "excessive" CT (> 3.927 in our analysis). Project owners should periodically "renovate" the
646 perception of contractors' capabilities to prevent opportunism tendencies. We thus suggest that project owners enable
647 more involvement in the environmental management activities, such as training programs and meetings. Besides,
648 project owners can develop a consistent monitoring system with supervisors to form a trust triad network to receive
649 feedback and continually revise their evaluation of contractors' capabilities. This initiative can also effectively
650 diminish collusion between contractors and supervisors. Second, our findings suggest that the trap of AT emerges at
651 a relatively low level (< 3.145 in our research). Project managers should be cautious about the affectional exchange
652 in low AT. However, when high AT exists within a project, reciprocal activities among project organizations can be
653 enhanced to curb contractor GWB further, especially in construction projects of emerging countries. It is also
654 suggested that project managers deploy proper rewarding mechanisms for satisfactory contractors' environmental
655 performance.

656 **Sensibly utilizing formal contracts**

657 This research can guide policymakers and project managers to design and apply contracts in a manner that
658 promotes EC and curb GWB. First, despite the positive effect of contractual completeness (CC) on collaboration, we
659 identify a potential trap of CC to GWB at a high level (> 4.213 in our research). In this vein, policymakers and project
660 managers should combine the model contracts of construction projects (e.g., Fédération Internationale Des Ingénieurs
661 Conseils (FIDIC) contract) to contemplate the efficiency of environment-related terms. The rules of environmental
662 management procedures for contractors are typically attached in the annex to the general contract (Yang et al. 2017
663 p. 78). Given that GWB is a kind of "passive opportunism", we recommend that model contracts include the principle
664 of "no intentional release of environmental misinformation" in the general contract and elaborate on the specific
665 manifestations of GWB in the annex. Emerging countries' policymakers should prioritize this issue because limited
666 legal enforceability renders it hard to identify GWB. Also, project managers can require contractors to disclose
667 sufficient environmental information on notice boards to make up for contractual terms. Furthermore, among specific
668 projects with the priority of environmental protection (e.g., water conservancy and hydroelectric projects), project
669 managers are required to avoid excessive CC, which exerts extreme pressure on contractors. Second, project
670 managers should keep CO relatively high (4.199 in our research) rather than an extreme level. This measure can help
671 projects embrace efficiencies from much EC and effectiveness from little GWB. Project managers should also

672 strengthen the oral description of enforceability. The description may enable contractors to be fully aware of the
673 severe consequences of GWB, especially in emerging countries where legal enforceability is not well established.

674 **Limitations and future research**

675 This study has three limitations that indicate fruitful directions for future research. First, we investigated the
676 influence of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts among multiple organizations in projects. However, our
677 data and research model cannot capture all potential governance factors of environmental collaboration and
678 contractor greenwashing behavior. Especially, Wang et al. (2022a) and Aguilera et al. (2021) suggested that the
679 characteristics of managers play a crucial role in influencing environmental communications. Future research can
680 leverage other research perspectives to explore how characteristics of project practitioners (especially project
681 managers) (e.g., academic background, project experience) affect environmental collaboration and greenwashing
682 behavior. Second, the institutional features (i.e., weak legal enforceability and strong social relationships) presented
683 in our research context (China) are commonly found in many emerging countries. This implies that our findings hold
684 applicability to other emerging countries. Nevertheless, these features may restrict the generalizability of our findings.
685 In future studies, it would be valuable to incorporate multi-country contexts to more comprehensively assess the
686 impacts of trust and contracts. Third, this research explores inter-organizational governance toward contractor GWB
687 within construction projects. Prior research on corporate GWB has provided deep insights into external institutions.
688 Unlike corporations, construction projects face more uncertain external institutional contexts (He et al. 2020). We
689 hence recommend that subsequent research place external institutions and inter-organizational governance
690 mechanisms within an integrated framework. This placement can help explore a more comprehensive governance
691 scheme.

692 **Conclusion**

693 Aimed at investigating the efficiency and effectiveness of environmental management, this study explores the
694 effect of inter-organizational trust and formal contracts on environmental collaboration and contractor greenwashing
695 behavior. We provide an integrated framework grounded on social exchange theory and transaction cost economics.
696 Our empirical analysis based on the quantitative survey data from China exhibits diverse linear, curvilinear, and
697 combined influences of trust and contract. Cognition-based and affect-based trust positively impact environment
698 collaboration, while they exhibit diverse curvilinear patterns to mitigate greenwashing behavior. We identify high
699 cognition-based and low affect-based trust as potential “trust traps” that cannot prevent opportunism. Our results also
700 reveal the positive relationship between contractual completeness and environmental collaboration and the inverted
701 U-shaped effect of contractual obligatoriness. However, the relationship between contractual completeness and

702 greenwashing behavior is U-shaped, whereas contractual obligatoriness can consistently help curtail greenwashing
703 behavior. Our findings further make nuanced analyses based on the vertex of curvilinear shapes. The interaction
704 analysis indicates trust and contract's partial substitution effect of collaboration and partial complementarity effect
705 of greenwashing behavior. This study enriches the stream of construction and engineering management from the
706 discussion on the efficiency and effectiveness of environmental management, especially in some emerging countries
707 with insufficient legal enforceability and strong social relations (Wang et al. 2022b). We also provide a new
708 framework for greenwashing knowledge from an inter-organizational governance standpoint in construction projects.

709 **Data availability statement**

710 Data generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author by request.

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715 **Supplemental materials**

716 Table S1-S3 can be found online in the ASCE Library (www.ascelibrary.org).

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