

Procurement and governance choices for collaborative infrastructure projects

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Abstract

Collaborative approaches to infrastructure procurement are increasingly popular around the world due to their potential to provide improved project performance compared to more traditional approaches. The problem is that project outcomes continue to be unpredictable. The authors' previous research shows that this is the case regardless of whether the chosen procurement approach is based on price or non-price selection of the project team. This is a major choice that clients make, but the current research shows that governance choices for project execution are more important. This is significant because clients tend to focus more on procurement choices and typically do not differentiate governance based on those choices. This needs to change as the authors show optimal governance configurations vary on the basis of the chosen type of team selection. For example, three specific governance arrangements for workshops are highlighted for single-teams, while two specific governance arrangements for risk/reward sharing are highlighted for multiple teams. This study identifies these governance actions that are associated with superior time and cost outcomes on collaborative infrastructure projects in Australia run by experienced public sector clients, under the two procurement scenarios. Based on a survey of 320 senior managers, independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare the application of governance actions between three distinct groups of projects, based on type of team selection and type of project outcome. The study provides evidence of the most effective approaches to project governance, in a country that is a world leader. The results provide much needed recommendations for improved project performance, based on large scale quantitative analysis, which before now has not existed. Overall, the study recommends more attention is paid to non-contractual governance under both approaches to team selection, although the specific actions recommended vary.

Author keywords

Collaborative projects; project governance; relational governance; infrastructure, Australia, project outcomes, relational governance, project procurement, Project Alliance, Partnering, Integrated Project Delivery, Early Contractor Involvement

Introduction

52 The problem addressed by this study is that infrastructure project outcomes continue to be
53 unpredictable, even under the two main approaches to procurement of collaborative
54 infrastructure projects which comprise (1) single-team approach and (2) multiple-team
55 approach. These approaches are differentiated by the degree of price competition evident in
56 tender selection, with the single-team approach involving no price competition (sometimes
57 called ‘pure’) and a multiple-team approach involving price competition (sometimes called
58 ‘competitive’) (Lahdenperä 2009; Love et al. 2010). Is it best to select a single team, based on
59 non-price competition, with whom to negotiate project cost, or is it best to have multiple teams
60 engage in price-based competition to determine project cost? This is a major choice that clients
61 make, but this paper shows that governance choices for project execution are even more
62 important.

63 Governance is defined here as the meta-framework that guides decision making on
64 projects. Regardless of the clients’ approach to team selection, governance choices for the on-
65 going management of the project will need to be made. For major projects, these choices are
66 often captured in some form of collaborative procurement model (CPM) under which projects
67 operate. CPMs are used to formalize a relational approach to infrastructure delivery to enhance
68 cooperation between stakeholders on a project. This reduces litigation, which is a major
69 problem in the construction industry. A CPM is therefore defined here as a governance
70 structure that enhances cooperation between the client and service providers for the
71 construction and delivery of major infrastructure assets. There are several key types of CPMs,
72 including Project Alliances, Integrated Project Delivery, Early Contractor Involvement and
73 Partnering. Australia’s use and development of CPMs is based on early models developed in
74 the UK, such as Project Alliances and Partnering. Australia’s extensive experience with these
75 CPMs and later variants provides an important knowledge base, complementing the experience
76 of other leading regions, including the UK, and the US (Lloyd-walker and Walker 2015).
77 Australia’s experience in development of CPMs is reflected in investment of over 16 Billion
78 USD in Project Alliances to between 2004 and 2009 (Wood and Duffield 2009, 7). This vast
79 experience, combined with international demand for advice from Australian experts (Morwood
80 et al. 2008) indicates Australia’s leadership in this area.

81 CPMs aim to generate cooperative social behavior between the client and service
82 providers to manage the high risk of complex infrastructure projects (Love et al. 2010; Walker
83 and Rahamani 2016). This is a relational approach to infrastructure delivery. The management
84 literature suggests that large infrastructure projects have the transaction cost and supplier
85 features that favor such an approach (Gil 2009). These features include asset specificity,
86 uncertainty and strategically important suppliers. The multitude of suppliers on a large
87 infrastructure project creates very complex transactional arrangements between diverse parties
88 that are typically expensive to implement, monitor and reinforce. An infrastructure asset, such
89 as a road, bridge or hospital is also fit for only one use, reducing performance flexibility and
90 increasing the owner’s risk. Plus there are below-ground uncertainties and high-level skill
91 requirements driven by technical complexity. These features contribute to the need for effective
92 relationship management over the life of the project. CPMs manage these features through
93 governance structures. This happens through individual governance mechanisms that are, in
94 turn, based on underlying governance actions. This is achieved through the development of
95 sophisticated collaborative governance structures that apply both contractual and non-
96 contractual governance mechanisms (Lahdenperä 2012; Zimina et al. 2012; Abdi and Aulakh
97 2017). The governance structure comprises the overarching decision-making framework for
98 the project. The structure usually comprises two main types of governance mechanisms –
99 contractual and non-contractual, which can then be disaggregated into their constituent
100 individual governance actions. These relationships have been confirmed by the authors’
101 previous research, as demonstrated in Figure 1 and Table 3.

102 Clients can chose between a range of governance mechanisms. For example,
103 contractual governance mechanisms include actions to ensure fair risk and reward sharing
104 regimes. Non-contractual mechanisms include actions based on leadership and workshops to
105 build trust and an integrated project team (Abdi and Aulakh 2017). There are many governance
106 actions available to clients, but there is no disaggregated evidence concerning their relative
107 impact on the performance of CPMs. This gap in the literature is based on two sets of literatures:
108 general management and construction management.

109 *Establishing the Gap in the General Management Literature*

110 Existing general management literature acknowledges the need for carefully balanced
111 contractual and non-contractual governance mechanisms for effective inter-business
112 collaboration. From a governance perspective, there are two main bodies of thought. One is
113 concentrated on the evolution of optimal contractual conditions (actions) (eg. Reuer and
114 Devarakonda 2016) and one is concentrated on optimizing the outcomes of cooperation (eg.
115 (eg. Salvato et al. 2017). It is rarer to see studies that seek optimization across contractual and
116 non-contractual choices in the management of collaborative multi-disciplinary alliances, as
117 conducted in the current study. For example, the results of a recent high level broad review
118 article appearing in the Strategic Management Journal is dominated by articles focused on
119 either contractual or non-contractual governance (Reuer et al. 2016), rather than comparing
120 them as is the case here.

121
122 Nevertheless, there is group of scholars operating in this nexus (eg. Poppo and Zenger
123 2002; Krishnan et al. 2016). These scholars are focused on the relationship between the two
124 main types of governance – contractual and non-contractual. They ask: are these two forms of
125 governance complementary? Or are they substitutes? An early study of the German
126 telecommunications industry asked these questions, tied to the types of assets involved in the
127 alliances (Hoetker and Mellewigt 2009). Contracts were found to be best suited to property-
128 based assets and non-contractual governance was found to be best suited to knowledge-based
129 assets. The authors rightly point out that these two main types of governance are not mutually
130 exclusive, so mixed governance of some form is optimal. The current study extends this work,
131 by examining the optimal mix in the construction industry.

132 A more recent high-level study, in the context of US Fortune 500 firms, found different
133 types of uncertainty provided different types of answers (Abdi and Aulakh 2017). The current
134 study extends this work, by examining optimal arrangements in a particular industry; the
135 construction industry; where environmental uncertainty is often driven by ground and weather
136 conditions, rather than by international political uncertainty, as with the previous study.

137 The general management studies of collaborative governance focus on different types
138 of alliances than those that dominate in the construction industry. Most of the existing literature
139 in general management focuses on strategic alliances of some form. These alliances are on-
140 going and extend over multiple projects, such as international research and development
141 alliances. In the construction industry, alliances tend to dissolve at the end of a particular
142 project. Nevertheless, the current study draws on key streams from the general literature,
143 particularly transaction cost economics and the resource-based view of the firm.

144 The enormous body of knowledge on governance appearing in the general management
145 literature informed the derivation of governance actions in the authors' previous work (Chen
146 and Manley 2014). This was based on the streams mentioned above, and more generally on
147 relevant literature that drew on the inter-linked disciplines of strategic management,
148 organization theory, behavioral economics and institutional economics. While the current study
149 provides a novel empirical context, the authors also contribute to conceptual discussion about
150 the relative role of the two main forms of governance, finding that high levels of behavioral

151 and environmental uncertainty require an emphasis on non-contractual governance to achieve
152 superior project outcomes.

153 154 *Establishing the Gap in the Construction Management Literature*

155 Turning to the second set of literature underpinning the current work, existing construction
156 management literature focuses on assessing the impact of a single governance mechanism on
157 project performance, in the absence of rigorous comparison or meaningful disaggregation
158 (Ross 2008; Lahdenperä 2012). There are a number of important tangential contributions that
159 relate to the contribution of the current paper.

160 In the field of alliance studies, the seminal work of Derek Walker and Beverley Lloyd-
161 Walker cannot be overlooked. Working with the authors of the current paper and with the same
162 industry association, these authors have focused on the role of CPMs in building innovation
163 capabilities (Peansupap and Walker 2006; Davis and Walker 2009; Lloyd-walker et al. 2014).
164 Clearly the ability of CPMs to encourage innovation supports improved time and cost outcomes.
165 The contribution of the current paper is to focus specifically on those outcomes.

166 Other authors examine how the animation of particular innovations can be enhanced
167 within a CPM environment. The cooperation inherent in these delivery systems is useful in
168 enhancing the adoption and benefits of disruptive innovations, such as Building Information
169 Modelling (BIM) and Lean Construction. Indeed a recent action-research study of 12
170 construction projects in the USA concluded that project cost predictability is improved by using
171 CPMs and lean construction concepts (Zimina et al. 2012). The governance actions covered in
172 the current paper pick up some of these concepts, related to design integration in particular.
173 The value the authors add is in considering a much broader range of governance actions and
174 employing a robust quantitative methodology, allowing for greater generalization.

175 In a similar vein, an even more recent paper examines the impact of formal and informal
176 relations on BIM-enabled supply chain partnerships (Papadonikoklaki et al. 2017). This
177 mirrors the current study, in many ways, including the finding that strong informal relations
178 are essential to support the ability of a contract to deliver good outcomes. The current study
179 complements this leading contribution, which was based on two Dutch case studies, by
180 providing large scale quantitative evidence in support of the same conclusion. The current
181 study also contributes an essential focus on project time and cost as the dependent variable,
182 and provides much greater disaggregation of potential governance actions under two key
183 procurement scenarios.

184 No previous studies of note examine the relative importance of a broad range of
185 mechanisms and actions in the construction context. The contribution of this paper is to unpack
186 governance mechanisms into their constituent actions and to compare their effectiveness in
187 terms of time and cost outcomes. The main comparison is between price-based tender selection,
188 which involves multiple teams in the pricing stage of a project, and non-price based tender
189 selection, which involves a single-term negotiating project cost with the client, after having
190 won the right to do so based on competition between profit margins and other non-price criteria,
191 such as reputation, innovation and safety. The governance impact of these scenarios is critical
192 because practitioners need to understand the relative efficacy of detailed courses of action

193 In response to the above knowledge gaps, this paper reports on the results of a survey
194 which captured the governance perceptions of senior participants of collaborative infrastructure
195 projects in Australia that had experienced public sector clients. Experienced public sector
196 clients run the vast majority of major infrastructure projects in Australia as elsewhere in the
197 world.

198 199 *The Current Study*

200 The objective of the study is *to explore which governance mechanisms and their underlying*
201 *actions are most influential on time and cost efficiency under two key procurement options:*
202 *single-team and multiple-team.* This addresses a major problem for public sector clients who
203 continue to achieve suboptimal project performance despite a slew of investigations into the
204 construction industry's performance and an active community of scholars undertaking related
205 research. CPMs were introduced to overcome performance problems, but they continue to yield
206 unpredictable outcomes. The research question driving this study is: 'What is the best
207 combination of contractual and non-contractual governance for optimal time and cost outcomes
208 on collaborative infrastructure projects under single-team and multiple-team projects?'

209 The study is of great interest to policy makers and academics as there is currently
210 vigorous debate concerning the best combination of contractual and non-contractual
211 governance mechanisms (Morwood et al. 2008; Department of Main Roads 2009; Department
212 of Infrastructure and Transport 2011; Kelly 2011; Walker et al. 2015; Walker and Lloyd-
213 Walker 2016). We show that this depends on procurement choices. Experts disagree about the
214 benefits of the alternatives presented in this paper. The current absence of statistical evidence
215 fuels ambiguity in the literature (Ross 2008; Department of Treasury and Finance 2009; Kelly
216 2011).

217 A large scale survey was assessed as the best method to investigate the research
218 question. A rare opportunity to undertake such a study presented itself in Australia, given the
219 relatively long history of collaborative contracting in that country and the matching
220 development of a very large and active industry association representing the interests of
221 participants. Their contribution resulted in the generation of rare and valuable data set upon
222 which the current study draws. Even with this strong practitioner collaboration, it was not
223 possible to obtain 'hard' data due to the confidentiality clauses and political sensitivity
224 surrounding large infrastructure projects. Nevertheless, the study's strong theoretical
225 framework helps to organize and interpret the perceptual data in a rigorous fashion.

227 **Theory**

228 The study is based on the previously validated model shown at Figure 1.

230 [Insert Figure 1]

232 This model is based on Chen and Manley (2014) which validated two contractual governance
233 mechanisms of relevance here: 1) risk and reward sharing regimes; and 2) service provider
234 responsibilities. Five mechanisms of non-contractual governance were also validated: 1)
235 leadership; 2) team workshops; 3) communication systems; 4) relationship managers; and 5)
236 design integration. The discussion below summarizes the operation of these mechanisms.

239 ***Contractual Governance Mechanisms***

240 *Risk and reward sharing:* In collaborative projects, risk and reward sharing governance
241 actions are usually adopted. These include, for example, comparing the actual outturn costs
242 with the agreed Target Outturn Cost (Love et al. 2011; Hosseinian and Carmichael 2014).
243 Traditionally, it is expected that in collaborative arrangements, the client and service providers
244 will share equal proportions of profit due to cost underrun and the liability for loss due to cost
245 overrun (Morwood et al. 2008). The profit or loss allocated to the key service providers is
246 expected to be split fairly between them, and the overall risk for each service provider is capped
247 at a level equivalent to the loss of their service fee (Morwood et al. 2008).

248 In recent years, however, it has been argued that collaborative risk mechanisms leave
249 the client to carry the entire project overrun if the project becomes distressed, thus undermining

250 the concept of risk and opportunity sharing (Department of Treasury and Finance 2009;
251 Department of Infrastructure and Transport 2011).

252 *Service provider responsibilities:* It has been suggested that the key service providers
253 should carry the responsibility for rising costs, and be liable for paying a penalty if completion
254 dates are not met (Department of Infrastructure and Transport 2011). The complexity (legal or
255 commercial) associated with achieving a balance between clients versus service providers in
256 terms of responsibilities can result in governance actions that impede positive collaborative
257 behaviors, and may cause additional costs for the client (Kelly 2011).

258 ***Non-contractual Governance Mechanisms***

259 *Leadership:* In collaborative projects, project leaders are selected based on project
260 specific experience and capabilities, cultural alignment to CPMs, and capacity to influence
261 resource availability (Morwood et al. 2008; Love et al. 2015). The literature highlights that the
262 capability to achieve ‘best-for-project’ decision-making and stakeholder engagement are
263 essential to good leadership (Davis and Walker 2009; Walker and Rahamani 2016). Indeed, a
264 recent study of a large on-going program alliance, used an exploratory case study approach to
265 highlight the value of authentic leadership in enabling collective learning across projects (Love
266 et al. 2015).

267 *Team workshops:* Team workshops are important for facilitating organizational
268 alignment (Love et al. 2010; Lahdenperä 2012), joint learning (Love et al. 2015), post-project-
269 review assessment and innovation development (Morwood et al. 2008). In order to be effective,
270 workshops should involve all levels of seniority, a broad range of participant types, and an
271 independent facilitator (Morwood et al. 2008). Due to the time consuming nature of workshops,
272 the degree to which they are applied in infrastructure projects varies (Kelly 2011).

273 *Communication systems:* Collaborative projects need a shared information technology
274 (IT) system to facilitate information flow (Azhar et al. 2015) such as BIM (Azhar et al. 2015;
275 Love et al. 2015). Likewise, communication tools, such as an expectation matrix, which is used
276 to align partners’ commitments (Love et al. 2010), are also important.

277 *Relationship management:* Literature asserts the importance of relationship
278 management for collaborative projects (Davis and Walker 2009; Walker and Lloyd-Walker
279 2016). Client organizations often introduce relationship managers to collaborative project
280 teams for the purpose of aligning the expectations of and maintaining the relationships amongst
281 all team members (Morwood et al. 2008).

282 *Design integration:* The literature indicates that contractors and suppliers should be
283 involved in project design from the early stages to ensure the constructability of the
284 infrastructure (Love et al. 2014).

285 Although the authors’ previous work shows that these mechanisms contribute to
286 performance outcomes, the current study assesses their relative merit to *time and cost*
287 performance specifically and assesses the relative value of 28 previously validated governance
288 actions. In the current paper, our interest is in the impact on time and cost performance as the
289 dependent variable, which was confirmed as a combined variable in our previous research,
290 based on factor analysis.

291 The mechanism categories in this theoretical framework provide structure for
292 interpretation of results. The mechanism descriptions provide detail concerning the types of
293 contractual and non-contractual governance that potentially impact time and cost outcomes on
294 infrastructure projects. Thus the framework enables a fuller understanding of the research
295 question and its results. In order to answer the research question, a quantitative survey method
296 was chosen.

297 **Methods**

300 A quantitative survey was considered a better approach than qualitative methods, such as case
301 studies, because the research question comprises two sets of rigorous comparisons and
302 demands an assessment of the ‘best’ outcomes. Such rigor is best accomplished with a
303 quantitative survey method, especially as the authors’ previous work has validated key
304 constructs. It was also considered that maximum extension of the knowledge base was achieved
305 through a quantitative survey, as previous research is dominated by qualitative methods.

306 The sampling procedure is reported in detail in Manley and Chen (2016). Project
307 respondent characteristics are summarized in Table 1. Results are reported for collaborative
308 contracts in general across eight project types, with alliance contracts dominating. Projects
309 procured by inexperienced clients and private clients were excluded from the current study to
310 provide a focus on the most common type of procurement, which is undertaken by experienced
311 public sector clients. Hence, the analysis here captured 244 of the 320 survey responses (76%).
312 This is a sufficient proportion of the sample to ensure the analysis results are reliable and
313 representative.

314
315 [Insert Table 1 here]

316
317 The measurement scales used in this study were developed and validated using
318 exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

319 *Project Governance:* The ‘Project Governance’ scale employed here comprises two
320 contractual mechanisms: 1) risk and reward sharing regimes and 2) service provider
321 responsibilities; and five non-contractual mechanisms: 1) leadership; 2) team workshops; 3)
322 communication systems; 4) relationship managers; and 5) design integration. Each of these
323 mechanisms is underpinned by a series of actions, which represent individual governance
324 features that might be applied in a project. Survey respondents were required to indicate the
325 degree to which they perceived that each action had been implemented in their projects using
326 a 7 point Likert scale framed with: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = moderately disagree; 3 = disagree
327 slightly; 4 = neutral; 5 = agree slightly; 6 = moderately agree; 7 = strongly agree.

328 *Project Performance (time and cost):* Survey respondents were required to indicate the
329 degree to which the pre-agreed performance targets were achieved in their projects using a 7
330 point Likert scale framed with: 1 = substantially below target; 2 = moderately below target; 3
331 = slightly below target; 4 = target achieved; 5 = slightly above target; 6 = moderately above
332 target; 7 = substantially above target.

333 Our previous work examined the role of client characteristics on the performance of
334 collaborative infrastructure projects. That study validated six project groups using cluster
335 analysis, ANOVA tests and independent sample t-tests. The confirmed groups were defined by
336 client sector (public/private), client experience (yes/no), client approach to team selection
337 (single team/multiple teams in the pricing stage) and project outcomes (ranked from very high
338 to very low). The current study draws on four of the six confirmed groups, to provide the focus
339 on experienced public sector clients, excluding clients without direct experience on
340 collaborative projects and excluding private sector clients. Thus the current paper focuses on
341 the most common types of projects. Table 2 shows the project groups forming the basis of the
342 comparisons in the current paper, which assesses the role played by governance in determining
343 the project outcomes. Independent sample t-tests were used to compare the intensity of
344 implementation of each governance action between pairs of project groups and to determine
345 whether the intensity difference between the groups was significant. Those outcomes are tied
346 to the two main approaches to team selection employed by clients, to provide the granulated
347 advice they require in the face of current heated debates in Australia and Europe, regarding the
348 best approach.

[Insert Table 2 here]

Results

For each project group, the mean degree to which respondents perceived that each governance action was implemented in their projects was calculated. This provided an indication of whether each action was applied at a high or low level of intensity by each project group. Results are shown in Table 3. Generally speaking, the table shows that more attention to governance provides better project outcomes. The highest scoring average means, were, perhaps unsurprisingly, recorded by the Very High Group. This suggests that the best performing collaborative infrastructure projects are those that use selected governance actions most intensively.

In comparisons between the groups using t-tests, all significant differences occurred where the governance action was used more intensively by the better performing project group. There were no significant differences where the poorer performing group used a governance action more intensively, reflecting the veracity of the previously validated conceptual model.

Governance actions are applied in two main contexts by clients. At the project procurement stage, clients make a choice about delivery systems that shapes the relative importance of governance mechanisms during the project. This involves the choice between 1) a single-team participating in the pricing stage, where the team is selected based on competition between benchmarked profit margins and non-price criteria and 2) multiple-teams participating in the pricing stage, with the selection of the ultimate team being based on competition between tender prices. T-test comparisons were undertaken within these two scenarios, each of which comprises one well-performing group and one poor-performing group. T-tests were conducted between three pairs of project groups: (1) between the single-team projects: Low v Very High; (2) between the multiple-team projects: Very Low v High; and (3) between the best performing projects: Very High v High. The resultant significant governance actions are shown in Table 4.

Of the four project groups in Table 2, two groups used a single team approach, while two groups used a multiple team approach. Within each pair, very different time and cost performance is evident. How might the use of governance mechanisms explain these differences? These pair-wise comparisons allow us to control for team selection approach and focus on the impact of the governance mechanisms. T-test results indicated significant differences, as shown in Table 4.

Single team selection: Mechanisms associated with high time and cost efficiency

The Low Group and the Very High Group were compared to identify the mechanisms of optimum performance in projects that adopted *single team selection*. As illustrated in Table 4, the tests revealed no significant differences in the implementation of *contractual* governance mechanisms between these two groups; whilst the results indicate significant differences related to the implementation of the *non-contractual* mechanisms ‘leadership’ and ‘team workshops’. In the Very High Group, project leaders appeared to have stronger communication and logistical skills, and engaged with stakeholders more actively; workshops seemed to involve a broader range of participant types, and be used more often for innovation development and team integration. These findings suggest that within collaborative projects that adopted *single team selection*, leadership strategies and more effective workshops could help improve project time and cost efficiency.

398 ***Multiple team selection: Mechanisms associated with high time and cost efficiency***

399 The Very Low Group and the High Group were compared to identify the governance
400 mechanisms of optimum performance in projects adopting *multiple team selection*. As shown
401 in Table 4, it was noticeable that the High Group implemented three *contractual* governance
402 actions at a significantly more intense level than the Very Low Group namely: equal share of
403 profit between the client and key service providers due to cost underrun; downside risk capped
404 at a level equivalent to the loss of each key service provider's fee; collective share of project
405 risk through a single agreement of the parties. Regarding *non-contractual* actions, the results
406 in Table 4 revealed that project leaders in the High Group practiced 'best-for-project' based
407 decision making to a larger degree than in the *very low* efficiency projects.

408
409 [Insert Tables 3 and 4 around here]

410
411 Now, let us allow for heterogeneity in the approach to team selection to explore what
412 differentiated the leading projects.

413
414 ***How did the top group of projects gain their edge?***

415 The t-test results in Table 4 indicate that the Very High Group implemented a number of
416 collaborative mechanisms at significantly more intense levels than the High Group. In the Very
417 High Group, the client and key service providers shared more equally the proportions of loss;
418 service providers shared profit more fairly; and, to a greater degree, each key service provider's
419 overall downside risk was capped at a level equivalent to the loss of its fee. In addition, the
420 project leaders appear to have stronger communication and logistical skills, to make decisions
421 more on a 'best-for-project' basis, and to more actively encourage cooperation between parties,
422 engaging more with community stakeholders. Furthermore, in the Very High Group,
423 workshops involved a broader range of participant types, and were used more to integrate key
424 service providers and facilitate innovation development; the main contractors were also
425 involved to a greater degree.

426
427 These results provide a number of perspectives on the most important governance
428 requirements. The first perspective compared the two groups of single-team projects; the
429 second compared the two groups of multiple-team projects; the third perspective described the
430 governance actions that are applied intensively by the two groups of well performing projects;
431 and the final perspective described what separated these two leading groups.

432
433 **Discussion**

434 The problem addressed by this study is that project outcomes continue to be unpredictable,
435 even under the two main approaches to procurement of collaborative infrastructure projects. Is
436 it best to select a single team, based on non-price competition, with whom to negotiate project
437 cost, or is it best to have multiple teams engage in price-based competition to determine project
438 cost? This is a major choice that clients make, but the current paper shows that on-going
439 governance choices are even more important. We show that the same size does not fit all.
440 Optimal governance configurations change on the basis on the chosen delivery system, with
441 specific non-contractual governance actions determining outcomes under the price-based
442 scenario and specific contractual governance actions being more important under the non-price
443 scenario. It seems that governance for project execution needs to complement governance for
444 project procurement. Hence if procurement governance is heavily contractual (price
445 competition), then execution governance needs to be heavily non-contractual to provide
446 balance, and vice versa.

447 The results of this study are useful in answering four questions that are important to
448 clients considering infrastructure procurement.

- 449 1. If I pursue a single team approach, what are the critical governance requirements?
- 450 2. If I pursue a multiple team approach, what are the critical governance requirements?
- 451 3. What governance actions drive optimal performance?
- 452 4. Does increased governance result in a better performing project?

453
454 Although the single-team approach can yield the highest project performance, and a
455 multiple-team approach can yield the lowest performance; neither approach yield cost
456 predictability. The findings here indicate that regardless of approach to team selection,
457 governance mechanisms will determine performance outcomes. This is a momentous finding
458 given that the choice between team approaches is often discussed by practitioners as critical.
459 This is clearly not the case. Instead, the results indicate that governance is more important.

460 Overall, the results here find some support for earlier findings that non-contractual
461 governance mechanisms are a key driver of performance. Firstly, the five highest scoring
462 governance actions belong to the non-contractual group of governance mechanisms. Secondly,
463 it has been shown that under a single-team approach, the difference between very high time
464 and cost performance, compared to low performance, is predicated entirely on the extent to
465 which non-contractual governance actions are animated.

466 Yet the evidence is not straight-forward, as the different performance outcomes for
467 projects based on a multi-team approach to pricing owes more to contractual differences than
468 non-contractual differences. These multi-team projects contain greater variation in the use of
469 collaborative contract clauses, than the single-team projects. Thus the finding reflects the fact
470 that multi-team projects comprise a wider range of delivery systems, ranging from alliances
471 through to 'lump-sum with collaboration'. The single-team approach is typically only an option
472 under alliance delivery systems, which appear to contain a closer family of common contract
473 clauses.

474 Multi-team projects also contained less variation in the use of non-contractual actions,
475 than single-team projects. In this case, non-contractual action was not a key determinant of
476 project outcomes. The literature indicates that competition based on project cost, which marks
477 these projects, is associated with lower levels of trust than a single-team approach where non-
478 price competition is employed to award contracts. It could be that the lower trust engendered
479 by multi-team projects, puts greater emphasis on collaborative contract clauses in determining
480 outcomes. This dynamic fits in with previous research concerning governance and
481 opportunistic behavior (Hoetker and Mellewigt 2009), although there is always the risk that
482 formal contracts will be seen as a sign of distrust, and encourage the opportunistic behavior
483 they are trying to avoid (Poppo and Zenger 2002). Overall, the findings here provide stronger
484 support for the notion that 'formal contracts and relational governance function as
485 complements', rather than substitutes (Poppo and Zenger 2002, 707).

486 This mixed approach is thought to best manage behavioral and environmental
487 uncertainty (Krishnan et al. 2016), both of which are rife in the construction industry, where
488 inter-disciplinary teams engender intra-team suspicion, for instance, between engineers and
489 architects; and between client and non-client partners. As well as the risk of strategic distortions
490 due to behavioral uncertainty, the construction industry involves earthworks to support built
491 assets, and these 'below-ground' conditions are a key source of environmental uncertainty. The
492 weather is another key source of environmental uncertainty in construction, as it has a big
493 impact for on-site work. So, for this industry, project governance is bound to require mixed
494 actions. More than this, the results here emphasize the value of non-contractual governance in
495 highly uncertain situations.

496 The mixed approach is also considered to be optimal in managing a context marked by
497 high use of knowledge and property assets (Hoetker and Mellewig 2009), such as occurs in
498 construction. The value provided here is in unpacking the precise mix of actions that are
499 expected to optimize time and cost performance under the two main methods of procuring
500 projects. On balance, the current study adds weight to conceptual assertions concerning the
501 important role of non-contractual actions during construction projects (Morwood et al. 2008;
502 Love et al. 2010; Walker and Lloyd-Walker 2016). For example, the necessity of non-
503 contractual governance actions in developing team integration and increasing project
504 performance generally has been previously demonstrated (Zimina et al. 2012; Ibrahim et al.
505 2015; Love et al. 2015; Papadonikoklaki et al. 2017). These earlier studies employ a
506 combination of case studies, action research and expert elicitation to support their findings. The
507 large scale quantitative support provided here yields greater generalizability and canvasses a
508 broader array of possible governance actions.
509

510 **Conclusions**

511 The current study has provided evidence concerning the disaggregated governance drivers of
512 time and cost performance on collaborative infrastructure projects under two main procurement
513 scenarios, based on a large scale survey. No topic is closer to the hearts of major construction
514 clients, who will appreciate the specific guidance provided here.
515

516 ***Theoretical contribution***

517 Figure 1 shows that seven governance mechanisms underpin the performance of collaborative
518 infrastructure projects. The current study has unpacked the specific governance actions that
519 drive superior time and cost performance under two main procurement scenarios. Under a
520 single-team approach, these differentiating actions, which separate the poorly performing
521 projects from the effective projects, are all non-contractual and fall under the Leadership and
522 Team Workshop mechanisms shown in Figure 1. Under a multiple-team approach, there are
523 two differentiating contractual actions, falling under the Risk and Reward mechanism, and one
524 differentiating non-contractual action, falling under the Leadership mechanism in Figure 1.
525 This does not mean that other actions underlying the mechanisms in Figure 1 are unimportant,
526 it just means that in each scenario, particular attention needs to be paid to the identified actions.
527 These actions are summarized as follows:
528

529 *Actions that differentiate effective projects under a single-team approach*

530 *Leadership*

- 531 1. Strong communication skills.
- 532 2. Strong logistical skills.
- 533 3. Decisions on a ‘best-for-project’ basis.
- 534 4. Encourage cooperation between parties.
- 535 5. Engage with community stakeholders.

536 *Team workshops*

- 537 1. Workshops involved a broad range of participant types.
- 538 2. Workshops were used for innovation development.
- 539 3. Workshops were used for integration of key service providers.

541 *Actions that differentiate effective projects under a multiple-team approach*

542 *Risk and reward sharing regime*

- 543 1. The client and key service providers shared equal proportions of profit due to cost
544 underruns.

545 2. A single agreement was developed to acknowledge that the parties would collectively
546 share project risk.

547 *Leadership*

548 1. Decisions on a ‘best-for-project’ basis.

549

550 The current study finds that the higher the degree to which the identified actions were
551 implemented, the higher the time and cost efficiency of the project. This knowledge refines the
552 model shown at Figure 1, by isolating the *key drivers of time and cost* performance

553 More broadly, the paper contributes to general management debates concerning the
554 appropriate roles of contractual and non-contractual governance, by unpacking optimal mixes
555 in key circumstances. This study in the construction industry context supports earlier findings
556 in the general management literature that (1) contractual and non-contractual governance are
557 complements, not substitutes; and that (2) non-contractual governance becomes more
558 important in contexts with high uncertainty, high asset specificity and/or strategically important
559 suppliers.

560

561 *Managerial implications*

562 Given the habit of construction participants to focus on contractual obligations, the findings in
563 this paper encourage both clients and construction firms to pay more attention to non-
564 contractual collaborative actions that support overall governance structures rather than just
565 focusing on specific contractual incentives.

566 The discrete governance actions noted above are for particular attention by construction
567 clients seeking improved project outcomes. The study provides a detailed description of key
568 governance actions based on the client’s chosen approach to team selection. Thus the study
569 provides differentiated advice based on the extent to which the client relies on price
570 competition, as opposed to other forms of competition, when choosing the construction team.

571 The findings are based on Project Alliances and Partnering projects in particular, given
572 their dominance in the study sample. Similar lessons apply for emerging contract types which
573 typically encourage early-contractor-involvement and rely on the same types of governance
574 actions. Indeed, collaborative contracts share common features that provide the findings with
575 a high level of generalizability, given the trend towards improved collaboration on major
576 construction projects across developed countries.

577 The extensive granulation in the analysis also provides clients with governance actions
578 that lead to best practice performance. The highest level performance was achieved when
579 clients awarded construction contracts based on competition which put more focus on profit
580 margins and non-price criteria, rather than basing contract award on competitive price tenders.
581 This is a hotly debated topic and although the evidence presented here indicates project
582 outcomes can vary a lot either way, clear advice is given here concerning the role governance
583 mechanisms play in determining the fate of projects.

584

585 *Limitations and future research*

586 In this study, each of the 28 governance actions have been treated as independent. Clearly,
587 there will be interaction effects between the actions and complementary qualitative research is
588 planned to explore underlying dynamics, probably through a case study approach. The effects
589 of factors other than governance on project performance are already extensively covered in the
590 literature, but could be explored in future research. Likewise, the effects of factors other than
591 the clients approach to team selection on the choice of governance structures should be
592 investigated. It would also be beneficial to investigate the reasons for the apparent under-use
593 of the governance mechanisms ‘relationship management’ and ‘communication systems’ in the

594 Australian infrastructure sector. It may also be beneficial to replicate the research approach
595 adopted here to investigate collaborative projects in other regions and/or industry sectors.

596
597 Finally, future research is recommended to adapt the approach employed here to
598 contribute more specifically to debates in the general management literature concerning the
599 governance implications of uncertainty (behavioral and environmental) and asset types
600 (knowledge and property), given that the construction industry provides an interesting case
601 study with its complex profile along both dimensions.

602 **Data Availability Statement**

603 Requests for data should be directed to the corresponding author.

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605
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