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Ye, Kunhui, Shen, Liyin, Xia, Bo, & Li, Bingheng (2013) Key attributes underpinning different markup decision between public and private projects : a China study. *International Journal of Project Management*, *32*(3), pp. 461-472.

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.06.001

- Key Attributes Underpinning Different Markup Decision between Public and Private Projects:
 A China Study
- 3

4 ABSTRACT

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In the construction industry, contractors have to improve the efficiency of markup decision-making 6 to survive from fierce business competition. The effect of client type on markup decision has been 7 aware in previous studies and contractors are advocated to take account of decision factors properly 8 when they are confronted with different types of projects. Nevertheless, the rationales behind the 9 inclusion of different factors in markup decision-making for different projects sustain unknown. In 10 this study, fifty-three factors were identified after extensive literature review and interviews with 11 professionals. The identified factors were afterwards grouped under the headings of nine attributes 12 and compiled in a questionnaire for survey in China. Using the Hotelling's T-square test, it is found 13 that three attributes (i.e., project characteristic, client characteristic, and macro condition) can 14 explain the effect of client type on contractors' markup decision. The research findings provide 15 useful insights into the cognition of bid pricing as well as the improvement of bidding efficiency. 16 While the research works were situated in China, contractors in other countries could benefit from 17 the research findings in a similar vein. 18

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20 KEYWORDS

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22 Bidding, markup decision, decision factors, competitiveness, China

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24 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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26 Previous studies have shown that managerial decision-making usually lasts several minutes and only

ten percent of the decision-making activities exceeds one hour's duration (Mintzberg, 1971). The

short period of time given to decision-making spells out the prominent role of both intuition and experience in business management. Managerial decision is in nature triggered from individuals' sentiment, psychology and emotion, and it can be made in a dissimilar way subject to personal divergence. Hence, both the extent to which managerial decision adheres to cognition and the discrepancy between cognition and decision-making deserve much attention in the discipline of management science.

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This is the case in the construction industry. In this industry, competitive bidding has gained 35 burgeoning popularity of awarding construction contracts (Christodoulou, 2010). The main tenet of 36 construction bid decision is to price contracts competitively to strike the trade-off between 37 competitiveness (i.e., pricing as lowly as possible) and profitability (i.e., pricing as highly as possible) 38 (Chapman et al., 2000; Dawood, 1995). Bid pricing is a complicated and time-consuming process of 39 decision-making, as there are many determinants related to project characteristic and economic 40 situation that cannot be interpreted easily (Chua et al., 2001). The complexity of pricing activities 41 necessitates a proper cognition of bidding business. Along this strand of thoughts, a large volume of 42 43 literature has addressed the subject of construction bidding from the perspectives of contract type (Drew and Skitmore, 1997), industrial experience (Fu et al., 2003), competitiveness (Lu et al., 2008), 44 bid/no bid decision (Bageis and Fortune, 2009; Egemen and Mohamed, 2007), and markup decision 45 (Christodoulou, 2010). Nonetheless, contractors in practice appear to make bid decision subjectively, 46 and intuition derived from a mixture of gut feelings, experience and guesses seems to precede 47 quantitative approaches (Ahmad, 1990; Chua et al., 2001; Lowe and Parvar, 2004). Therefore, whilst 48 the subject of construction bidding has been explored at full length, the discrepancy between 49 cognition and decision-making can still be found in the sphere of construction business competition. 50

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Recent years have witnessed academic disputes over the factor of client type in relation to construction bidding. On one hand, it has been emphasized that client type is a typical markup decision factor (Akintoye, 2000; Fayek, 1998; Ling and Liu, 2005; Phillips et al., 2008). This factor, 55 in the view of Flanagan and Norman (1982b), has a major impact on contractors' bidding behaviours. As echoed by Bageis and Fortune (2009), client type (public/private) ranks third in the minds of 56 contractors when they are making decision on markup size. In accordance with these prior studies, 57 different types of clients may have different requirements and expectation, and contractors have to 58 manage construction projects differently (Egemen and Mohamed, 2006). On the other hand, a 59 negligible role of this factor has been reported in some other studies in the same vein. Watt et al. 60 (2009) asserted a slight difference between public and private clients in the categories used to select 61 suppliers. Wong et al. (2000) claimed that clients, whatever public or private, may adopt equivalent 62 approaches to measure the competitiveness of contractors. Furthermore, the prevalence of 63 public-private partnerships (PPP) in construction project procurement reflects that both public and 64 private clients are manageable to achieve common project goals. Behind PPP-based projects are 65 business agreements between a public entity and a private partner to secure the financing, 66 construction, and operation of a public infrastructure (Regan et al., 2011). To summarize, the 67 ongoing disputes over the effect of client type on bid decision signify that the questions whether and 68 why markup decision-making should be handled differently between public and private projects 69 remain inexplicit. 70

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The aim of this study is therefore to investigate the rationales behind contractors' markup decision 72 for different types of clients. Data for analysis were gathered from the Chinese construction industry. 73 The study is expected to assist both clients and contractors in improving the cognition of bidding, 74 thus bid decision can be made in due ways. It is vitally important that clients, whoever public or 75 private, can receive value for money through the smooth running of a competitive tendering 76 mechanism (Drew and Skitmore, 1992). In reverse, business failures might arise when "the identity 77 of client" has not received much attention (Odusote and Fellows, 1992). The remainder of the paper 78 is organized into eight sections. Section II and Section III present relevant theories on contractors' 79 markup decision. Section IV introduces competitive bidding practices in China. Research 80 methodology and data analysis are described respectively in Sections V and VI. Findings and 81

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84 2. KEY FACTORS AFFECTING MARKUP DECISION

discussion are addressed in Section VII. The last section concludes the research.

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The shift of contractor selection philosophy from "lowest-price wins" to "multi-criteria selection" 86 has appealed to contractors to innovate business paradigm in a timely fashion. In the lowest price 87 approach, value for money is difficult to secure (Holt et al., 1995), as the overemphasis on 88 construction cost is unbeneficial to the attainment of combined project goals (e.g., schedule, quality, 89 environment, and social responsibility) (Lo et al., 2007). In the multi-criteria approach, the bottom 90 line of tendering is to determine most competitive contractors to satisfy the multi-dimensional 91 demands of clients. Clients' diverse demands are formed in some specific industrial environments, 92 which according to Newcombe (1990), have two layers of determinants in common. One refers to 93 general environment factors such as politics, law, economics, sociology and technology; and the 94 95 other is competitive environment factors including finance, plant, labour, management, suppliers, subcontractors, consultants, and clients. There is no doubt that different types of clients may place 96 97 emphasis on different environmental factors, and contractors' bidding behaviours should be adjusted accordingly. 98

99

Pricing bids efficiently favours contractors to outperform competitors and to make a profit (Egemen 100 and Mohamed, 2006; Oo et al., 2008b). In practice, contractors first estimate the possible cost of 101 resource elements including labour, equipment and materials, and then give a marginal rate to 102 formulate a bid price (Shash, 1993). Within a limited timeframe for bidding, contractors are inclined 103 to choose those projects on which they have the strength of pricing (Oo et al., 2008b). The empirical 104 study by Aibinu and Pasco (2008) have demonstrated that the estimates of smaller projects are more 105 subject to bias than those of larger projects, and the pre-tender building costs are more often 106 overestimated than underestimated. Such estimate difference is attributable to the effect of bid 107 pricing factors. As disclosed by Elhag et al. (2005), in addition to the experienced-based nature of 108

pre-tender cost estimation, the key factors determining cost estimation include client characteristic; 109 consultant and design parameters; contractor heterogeneity; project characteristic; contract 110 procedures; procurement methods; and market condition. Nevertheless, the main challenges in bid 111 pricing arise from the determination of markup size (Dawood, 1995). Drew and Skitmore (1992) 112 stated that markup decision should take account of contingency, while subsequent studies (e.g., 113 Christodoulou, 2010; Shash, 1993) have complemented with two factors - office overhead and profit. 114 Through an extensive literature review, a larger amount of markup decision factors are given in 115 Table 1. Given the complexity of markup decision factors as shown in Table 1, a proper 116 understanding of markup is a prerequisite to successful bid pricings. 117

118

119 <<<*Insert Table 1 here>>*

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121 **3. EFFECT OF CLIENT TYPE ON MARKUP DECISION**

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123 Clients' roles in construction competition

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125 Constructing a project involves a hybrid process comprising the components of both products and services (Maloney, 2002). In this process, clients are the demanders of products/services, while 126 construction firms stand on the other side to supply the products/services (Myers, 2004). Clients set 127 the scene for contractors to compete against each other and kick off the competition for contracting 128 out construction works. First, clients observe, interpret and translate end-users' need, expectation and 129 desire into specifications of construction products/services. Second, they lay down investment 130 intention and produce drawings specifying the form, components and size of prospective projects. 131 Third, they formulate tender documents; invite contractors to bid; and screen out gualified main 132 contractors. Lastly, clients will select subcontractors, management contractors, materials suppliers, 133 specialists, and labour contractors after main contractors are determined. 134

Lowest price is a traditional approach that has been broadly used to measure contractor 136 competitiveness. In this approach, clients often invite too many contractors to tender for pre-defined 137 contracts, which will intensify business competition at the project level as a consequence (Flanagan 138 and Norman, 1985; Fu et al., 2003). Intense business competition in turn renders clients stronger 139 bargaining power than before (Egemen and Mohamed, 2006). The probability of winning 140 construction competition depends on the extent to which contractors meet clients' requirements and 141 expectation with reasonable prices. Therefore, the role of clients in construction business 142 competition is devising a game rule for a pool of contractors to compete and running the game as a 143 144 referee. Such role implies that contractors' bidding behaviours is embedded in a proper cognition of clients' requirements and expectation, and it is essential that contractors are able to maintain good 145 interactive relationships with clients through organizational and individual learning (Fu et al., 2003). 146

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148 **Public and private clients**

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Client type is multi-faceted in the discipline of institutional economics. It could refer to the status 150 quo of resource ownership, task allocation, governance structure, and investor relationship. The 151 152 categories of clients in construction range widely from a government agency, a local authority, to an industry or a property owner in the form of legal entity or natural person. A prevalent approach in the 153 domain of construction management and economics is to divide clients into two categories - public 154 and private. Pubic clients are governments or public authorities that rely on public budgets to 155 sponsor a spray of projects, such as urban infrastructures, municipal buildings, and public residential 156 housings, for the welfare of greater communities. A private client is an individual/ organization who 157 enlists the services of a construction company for commercial interests. Private projects come in all 158 different shapes and sizes, including commercial residential buildings, commercial facilities (e.g., 159 building restaurants, grocery stores, shopping centers, sports facilities, hospitals, private schools and 160 universities), and industrial projects (e.g., power plants, manufacturing plants and refineries). 161

Previous studies have been aware of the difference between public and private clients in the domain 163 of construction project management. Holt et al. (1995) revealed that public clients acquire less costly 164 projects but suffer time overrun, while private clients complete project construction on time with 165 more flexible methods but the management costs more money. The study by Bageis and Fortune 166 (2009) found that public clients are less likely to default on payment, suggesting that in contrast to 167 private clients, public project managers might be less worried about project financing. In addition, 168 Shen and Song (1998) asserted that quality and credibility are major preferences of public clients in 169 the Chinese competitive tendering mechanism. Furthermore, there are a couple of studies as listed in 170 171 Table 2 that delineate different tendering rules between public and private sectors. The different tendering rules indicate that public and private clients differ from each other in many aspects, such 172 as project financing, corporate governance, and resource utilization, and the difference necessitates 173 distinguishing decision-making on markup size between the two types of projects. 174

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176 <<u><<Insert Table 2 here>></u>

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178 4. CONSTRUCTION BIDDING PRACTICES IN CHINA

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China has implemented a tendering system since the turn of the last century (Wang et al., 1998). The 180 implementation of tendering system has advanced the old planned economy to a socialist market one 181 (Shen and Song, 1998). It has been shown that the tendering mechanism facilitates the improvement 182 of construction investment efficiency and the internationalisation of construction business (Wang et 183 al., 1998). The competitive tendering approach has to date gained extensive application and has been 184 very popular nationwide (Liu et al., 2007). The conventional governmental-free allocation of China 185 has been replaced with more flexible financings such as commercial loans from banks. As a result, 186 numerous private projects emerge all over the country. By far, private construction sectors, such as 187 collective-owned firms, private investment firms, and joint ventures have become important 188 ingredients of the whole construction industry (Shen et al., 2004). 189

China's tendering system is characterised by its unique social, cultural and economic background 191 (Wang et al., 1998). The tremendous economic growth in China has vielded huge demand for 192 infrastructure projects which are usually commissioned and funded by public sector clients (Walker 193 et al., 1998). In accordance with China's Tender Law enacted in 1999, public works shall all be 194 contracted out through a competitive tendering approach (Shen et al., 2004), but this arrangement is 195 optional to private sectors. The fierce business competition for either public or private projects in 196 China brings to the fore contractor competitiveness. In light of the characteristics of China's business 197 198 environment, Shen et al. (2004) identified some key parameters including management skill, technical ability, financing ability, organization structure, marketing ability, social influence and 199 contribution to project objectives for the assessment of contractor competitiveness. Based on these 200 parameters, Lu et al. (2008) revealed that contractor competitiveness in China is concerned with 201 project management skills, organization structure, resources, competitive strategy, relationships, 202 bidding, marketing, and technology. These two studies concur with the findings by Shen et al. (2006) 203 that contractor competitiveness is partly determined by project type. 204

205

206 5. METHODOLOGY

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The quantitative approach was adopted as the research methodology for this study. Four main steps were taken accordingly. First, a set of preliminary markup decision factors were derived by using the techniques of literature review and interview. Second, the identified factors were grouped for the formulation of questionnaire. Third, a questionnaire survey was thereafter conducted to collect empirical data. Last, the collected data were analysed to detect the importance levels of the identified factors.

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215 **Identifying preliminary factors**

A thorough literature review was conducted to identify those factors that have potential impacts on 217 contractors' markup decision. A tentative list of sixty-five factors was derived at first. As these 218 factors were identified from leading international journals and not all of them are suitable to China's 219 construction industry, five senior professionals from Chongqing, Shenzhen, Shanghai, Zhejiang, and 220 Beijing were invited to make comments and suggestions on the tentative factors. These respondents 221 were interviewed just because they have much knowledge of construction business nationwide. 222 Their comments help remove those obviously unsuitable factors and add some factors that are of 223 merits to the study. Feedbacks of the professionals were well compared by the research team. If three 224 225 or more professionals agreed highly on an item, it would then be removed or added accordingly. As a result, fifty-three factors were documented in Table 3. 226

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The factors listed in Table 3 were grouped in light of the attributes of clients they reflect. To collect quality feedbacks, workshops, of which the participants include academicians, professionals, and local government officer, were conducted to cluster the factors into nine groups (Table 4).

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The nine attributes are described as follows based on their relevance to bidding business as indicatedby the workshop participants.

- 238
- (a) Project characteristic the fundamental project features in terms of size, type (e.g.
 infrastructure, private residential buildings), and construction complexity.
- 241 (b) Tendering procedure qualification of tenderers, tendering activities, and tendering rules.
- 242 (c) Contract requirement key issues that clients require contractors to promise in the
 243 subsequent contracts.

244	(d) Construction plan - the supports and preliminary arrangements of onsite construction
245	activities.
246	(e) Client characteristic - the features of clients in terms of track record, reputation, capability,
247	and competitiveness.
248	(f) Potential competitors - potential tenderers who are to submit tenders for the same contract
249	work.
250	(g) Procurement - project procurement with respect to procedure, cost, and procurement
251	environments.
252	(h) Contractor heterogeneity - the state of competitive advantages of being heterogeneous.
253	(i) Macro condition - market situation, industrial status, economic prosperity, relevant
254	regulations and policies.
255	
256	Data collection
257	
258	Evaluating relative importance is a useful approach to identify key factors from a number of
259	alternatives. The Likert scale is usually used to facilitate the evaluation of relative importance
260	through collating respondents' opinions. In this study fifty-three factors (Table 3) were compiled in

collating respondents' opinions. In this study, fifty-three factors (Table 3) were compiled in 260 a questionnaire for survey. The questionnaire form contains two sections. The first section introduces 261 the objectives and scope of the survey. This section is also used to collect demographic data 262 regarding the respondents' education background, professional areas, years of work, position, and 263 company names. The other section serves for respondents' opinions on the importance level per 264 factor. In this section, all factors are tabulated with two columns (public and private), and 265 respondents are reminded to answer each factor on both columns. Otherwise, the completed 266 questionnaire will be considered invalid. A five-point Likert scale (5-extremely important, 267 4-important, 3-neutral, 2-umimportant, 1-extremely unimportant) was adopted to collect 268 respondents' answers. 269

The works by Lu et al. (2008) identified a number of critical success factors for the competitiveness 271 of contractors in China. In view of the similarity, the sampling configuration and the survey 272 procedure by Lu et al. (2008) were followed in this study. For simplicity, the details of survey 273 process are not repeated in this paper. Overall, a postal survey of 500 randomly selected contractors 274 were undertaken and 133 questionnaires returned in a usable format, giving a response rate of 26.6%. 275 Of the returned questionnaires, three were abandoned as the responses are incomplete or the 276 respondents indicate that they have limited knowledge of either public or private construction 277 business. The demographics of the respondents are given in Table 5. While it is quite difficult, if not 278 impossible, to measure the extent to which the participated respondents represent the whole 279 construction industry, their diverse backgrounds and work experiences hopefully prevent bias and 280 prejudice in the study. 281

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285 Hotelling's T-square test

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287 In order to test the difference of the nine attributes, which are composed of a number of factors, between public and private projects, the Hotelling's T-squared (HT2) test was considered. The 288 distribution of HT2 is a generalization of Student's t distribution that can be used to assess the 289 statistical significance of the difference between two sample means. HT2 test applies to multivariate 290 statistics in undertaking the tests of differences between multivariate means of different samples. 291 There are some versions of HT2 test, such as one sample *t*-test, paired *t*-test, and two sample *t*-test. 292 In viewing the structure of the collected questionnaire data, multivariate paired HT2 test was 293 conducted in this study. The null hypothesis of the multivariate paired HT2 test in the study is that 294 given a factor classified under an attribute, it has an indifferent importance level between public and 295 private projects. 296

298 6. DATA ANALYSIS

299

300 Data conversion

301

Respondents' judgments on each factor were grouped into paired samples - Group 1 for public clients and Group 2 for private clients. The returned questionnaires were classified into twenty-one groups according to the provincial construction sectors that respondents indicate. Mean values per factor per group were derived with reference to the following equations to make sure that the derived mean values can follow a continuous distribution on the range (1, 5).

307

308
$$X_{ijk} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} x_{ij}}{n}$$
, and $\overline{X}_{j} = (x_{1j} + x_{2j})/2$

309

Where *i* refers to 1 and 2, representing public and private projects respectively; x_{ij} refers to the importance score given by respondents to factor *j* for project *i*; x_{ijk} refers to the importance level of attribute *k* for project *i*; $\overline{x_{ijk}}$ refers to the mean value of importance of factor *j*.

313

The importance coefficients listed in Table 6 show that the nine attributes have effect on the determination of contractors' different markup decision, as their mean values are all larger than 3 (neutrally important).

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320 Data validation
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322 The converted data were examined for validation prior to the HT2's test.

(1) Testing normal distributions for each factor. The above data conversion leads to the development of nine matrixes which comprise a number of factors. Each factor has twenty-one mean values and the values were used to test whether the mean values obey the requirements of normal distribution. The test is based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) coefficients. It was found that all K-S coefficients for Group $X_{1j} + X_{2j}$, Group X_{1j} , and Group X_{2j} have Pr- values larger than 0.05, indicating that both Group X_{1j} and Group X_{2j} can satisfy the normal distribution.

330

331 (2) Testing variances between Group X_{1j} and Group X_{2j} . The structured mean values were analysed to 332 test whether the factors have significantly indifferent variances. The derived P values for a vast 333 majority of factors are all larger than 5%. This suggests that the factors have significantly indifferent 334 variances, and the collected data be used to conduct HT2 test.

335

336 **Results**

337

Recall that the test is intended to identify whether the attributes differ from each other in contributing to markup decision between public and private projects. According to the principle of HT2 test, if both Wilks' λ and Hotelling's trace P value for an attribute are smaller than 5%, the null hypothesis can be rejected. The rejection of the null hypothesis means that the paired samples are distinguishable in terms of the relevant attribute. Results of Hotelling's T-square test include the values of intra-group P, indicating the variability of the factors under an attribute with regard to their possible causes. Results of the HT2 test are listed in Table 7.

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As given in the table, the values of Wilks' λ and Hotelling's trace range from 0.000 to 0. 602; the largest values of intra-group P, ranging from 0.181 to 0.967, are underlined in the left column to 350 highlight the most possible reason for the corresponding attribute. Results of the data analysis show that both Wilks' λ and Hotelling's trace P for three attributes (i.e. project characteristic, client 351 characteristic, and macro condition) are less than 0.05, suggesting that their null hypotheses can all 352 be rejected. This means that these three attributes can be used to explain why markup decision 353 factors should differ when contractors are bidding for different types of projects (public or private). 354 In reverse, six attributes, namely contract requirements, construction plan, procurement, contractor 355 heterogeneity, potential competitors, and tendering procedure have larger values of both Wilks' λ and 356 Hotelling's trace than 0.05, suggesting that their null hypotheses cannot be rejected. This implies that 357 some markup decision factors can be treated similarly in tendering for either public or private 358 projects. 359

360

361 7. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

362

363 Different markup decision factors

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The results of data analysis show that three attributes can differentiate the markup decision-making on one type of projects from that on the other type of projects. These attributes will be discussed as follows with respect to their importance and implications to bidding practices.

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369 Project characteristic

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The significance of this attribute to bid decision has been pinpointed in previous studies (Dulaimi and Hong, 2002; Egemen and Mohamed, 2007). As pointed out by Flanagan and Norman (1982a), bid decision is in part determined by construction managerial complexity. The larger the project size, the higher the construction managerial complexity. This is probably the reason why contractors usually determine marginal scale in line with project sizes (Fayek, 1998). Dulaimi and Hong (2002) pointed out that project characteristic is a major category of common factors that researchers often

cite to explore the theme of construction bidding. While this research agrees with previous studies on 377 the importance of project characteristic to bid decision, it is found that the different characteristics 378 between public and private projects deserve much attention in the determination of markup size. As 379 shown in Table 5, the significance of this attribute is mainly devoted by the type of project works 380 (SF-1). In effect, public project works are technically complicated than private project works 381 (Chiang et al., 2001), and contractor competitiveness is changeable with project types (Shen et al., 382 2006). Therefore, contractors are recommended to make due response to different projects' 383 competition to reach a high level of competitiveness. 384

385

386 Client characteristic

387

Another key attribute underpinning contractors' different markup decision between public and 388 private projects is client characteristic. This attribute presents the status quo of clients from many 389 perspectives including company size, organizational structure and reputation. As discussed in 390 Section 3, different clients have their own ways in selecting business partners, though they might be 391 under certain market condition (Egemen and Mohamed, 2006). For instance, Phillips et al. (2008) 392 393 disclosed that clients' concerns precede other aspects used to differentiate bids in the UK social housing sector. Hence, it is very important that contractors can respond to clients' requirements and 394 expectation appropriately. In this sense, experienced contractors are able to own more 395 competitiveness than inexperienced contractors in bidding (Fu et al., 2003). The primary reason is 396 that experienced contractors usually have a better perception of the characteristics of clients, and 397 they know how to manage inherent project risks effectively. The importance of this attribute is 398 mainly contributed by the factor of clients' unreasonable requirements (SF-25). As shown in Table 2, 399 the intention of private clients in constructing projects is for the pursuit of profits. They may impose 400 some unreasonable requirements onto contractors such as delay in payment, longer time of guaranty 401 of quality, and tighter schedule to reap a certain level of profits. Therefore, it is implied that 402 contractors should be able to evaluate unreasonable requirements of clients and improve the 403

404 efficiency in the compilation of bid prices.

405

406 *Macro condition*

407

Contractors' success in a given market environment is to acquire a set of environmental rules of 408 thumb that enable them to prevent pitfalls in bid decision-making process (Oo et al., 2008b). 409 Previous studies have suggested that economic and political conditions be included to achieve a 410 rigorous markup size decision (Dulaimi and Hong, 2002; Egemen and Mohamed, 2007; Fayek, 411 1998). In effect, macro condition is multifaceted and composed of politics, law, economics, 412 sociology, and technology (Newcombe, 1990). Doubled by some factors such as local industrial 413 situation, current workload, and future available works in the market, macro condition has been 414 recognized as a principal external determinant of bidding behaviours (Drew and Skitmore, 1997; 415 Flanagan and Norman, 1982a). As indicated in Table 7, the importance of this attribute is 416 underscored by the factor of SF-52 (social demand of the project types). Comparing contractor 417 competitiveness between Hong Kong and Singapore, Oo et al. (2008b) pinpointed that Hong Kong 418 contractors are more influenced by market condition in the markup decision-making phase. Such 419 420 difference can be ascribed to the fact that Hong Kong contractors can maintain a long-term coordinated interaction with local market (Kim and Reinschmidt, 2006). 421

422

423 Common markup decision factors

424

There are six common attributes behind markup decision factors for both public and private projects,indicating that they can be handled similarly as discussed below.

427

428 Contract requirements

429

430 Contract requirements are essential to compile tenders and can be a key determinant of bid pricing

(Lowe and Parvar, 2004). The study by Drew and Skitmore (1997) found that different bidders prefer 431 to different characteristics of contracts (e.g., size and type) and different degrees of selectivity in 432 contracts to derive an optimal markup size. However, it is found that project type, whatever public or 433 private, makes no sense to the selectivity. The main reason is two-faceted, namely unreasonable 434 contractual clauses (SF-14) and construction schedule requirement (SF-15). Shash and Abdul-Hadi 435 (1992) revealed that the size of contract together with the availability of required cash and labour are 436 often stressed in making markup decision in Saudi Arabia. A highly standardized contract facilitates 437 contractors to follow clients' demand and to price bids in due course (Fu et al., 2003). 438

439

440 Construction plan

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A construction plan describes contractors' pre-arrangement to undertake prospective construction 442 activities with the focus on construction methods, quality and safety, site layout, occupational measure, 443 construction plant and equipments, labor allocation, and project team (Zou, 2007). Detailed 444 instruction will be offered in a construction plan for contractors to estimate construction cost. 445 Contractors' responsiveness to a construction plan mirrors the competitiveness of contractors. The 446 447 main contributor of this attribute is the readability of planning and design drawings (SF-20). Dyer and Kagel (1996) pointed out that two aspects of knowledge should be acquired from past 448 contracting experience, namely requirements of workmanship standards and attitudes to accepting 449 alternative construction methods of the same client, and cost information of similar projects. As 450 discussed above, public clients are accountable to local society, while private clients are usually apt for 451 high construction quality of projects. However, in light of this attribute, it is found that contractors can 452 adopt a similar approach to examine construction plans for both public and private projects when 453 making markup decision. 454

455

456 **Procurement**

Efficient management of subcontractors and suppliers convinces tenderers to mitigate the uncertainty 458 of procurement at an early stage. Therefore, procurement determines the efficiency of markup 459 decision (Fayek, 1998). Construction labor, major construction materials and equipment, and social 460 relationship cost are grouped under this attribute. These sub-items accord with the status quo of the 461 Chinese construction industry. For instance, China's construction firms have been confronted with the 462 shortage of manpower and a sharp increase in labor cost (Lu et al., 2013). Market supply of labor 463 (SF-37) is the major contributor to this attribute. The identification of the factor (SF-37) echoes 464 previous studies on that tenderers apt at entering lower bids have much more possibility of owning a 465 certain level of competitiveness (Drew and Skitmore, 1997; Fayek, 1998), and can extend the findings 466 of Elhag et al. (2005) which attach the importance of construction cost only to the pre-tender stage. 467

468

469 *Contractor heterogeneity*

470

Contractor heterogeneity means firms' capability or resources that are unobservable by their 471 competitors. This attribute aligns with the critical success factors for the competitiveness of Chinese 472 contractors (Lu et al., 2008), and can supplement the work by Shen and Song (1998) that outline it 473 474 simply in the selective tendering and negotiation approaches. There exists in nature heterogeneity across contractors in terms of their (i) intrinsic bid/no-bid preferences, and (ii) responses to decision 475 to bid factors (Oo et al., 2007). Dulaimi and Hong (2002) grouped several factors determining 476 markup size decision, such as contractor characteristics. Furthermore, Oo et al. (2008a) pointed out 477 that there is heterogeneity in the population of contractors, and individual contractors exhibit 478 different bidding behaviours when encountering a given set of bidding variables. Oo et al. (2010) 479 found that contractors' bid decisions are dependent on many unobserved individual firm-specific 480 heterogeneity. The unobserved heterogeneity in the opinions of Gonzalez-Diaz et al. (2000) includes 481 the capability of manager, the quality of output and competitive strategy. However, findings of this 482 study show that competitive strategy of the contractor (SF-42) is a key determinant of contractors' 483 heterogeneity and it plays parallel role in the determination of markup decision. 484

486 **Potential competitors**

487

This attribute describes the population, actions and competitiveness of potential competitors. 488 Potential entrants are a key variable of Porter's (1980) five forces model. According to this model, 489 the competition for a construction work contract encompasses the existing competition among 490 established firms and the potential competition imposed by new entrants. Previous studies have 491 investigated these two parts of competition and found that potential competitors are more able to 492 493 dominate the trend of project competition (Ye et al., 2008). A high level of profitability pulls potential entrants to pack into the project competition, giving rise to fiercer business competition and 494 lower tender prices as a result (Park and Chapin, 1992). With this in mind, the aspiration of 495 contractors to bid for project contracts can fade with the increase in the density of bidders (Oo et al., 496 2008b). In this study, contractors have to face the parallel role of this attribute in the sphere of 497 498 markup decision for both public and private projects. The parallel role is subject to the common effect of the relationships between clients and potential competitors (SF-28). Therefore, to achieve a 499 500 competitive bid, contractors need to have adequate knowledge of potential competitors when 501 competing for some known construction works, whatever public or private.

502

503 Tendering procedure

504

This attribute is an element of tendering environment and it has attracted close attention in the area of construction bidding. Lowe and Parvar (2004) described this attribute as a key determinant of bid/no-bid decision, while Dulaimi and Hong (2002) revealed that bidding situation is one of the factors frequently used to examine contractors' markup decisions. The factor of project costing methods (SF-5), specifying a bill of quantity based or cost quota - based approach, is usually stipulated as a main content of tendering procedure in China. A recurrent bidding situation characterised by standardized bidding rules or procedures stimulates contractors to develop

situation-specific learning (Fu et al., 2003). For instance, the tendering evaluation procedure in the public sector should ascertain public accountability (Alsugair, 1999; Wong et al., 2001). With this in mind, a couple of factors such as the relationships with stakeholders, innovation, and social responsibility in construction are often employed to constitute the paradigm of markup decision-making as far as possible (Langford and Male, 2001; Tan et al., 2010).

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518 From cognition to markup decision

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The above discussion has disclosed three key attributes that underpin contractors' different markup 520 decision between public and private projects. The identification of these attributes reinforces the 521 notion of project-based contractor competitiveness (Shen et al., 2006) and situation-specific learning 522 (Fu et al., 2002). These three attributes are useful for contractors to reconsider markup 523 decision-making approaches when they are involved in different types of projects. Meanwhile, there 524 are six attributes that contractors can treat in similar ways in the determination of markup size for 525 whatever public or private projects. The research findings revise those previous studies (e.g., 526 Egemen and Mohamed, 2007; Watt et al., 2010) that place emphasis on key markup decision factors 527 528 as shown in Table 1 without taking into account the effect of client type. The key attributes hopefully support contractors to achieve a proper perception of bid pricing, and thereby tender prices can be 529 formulated correctly. Markup decision-making is challenging, as many uncertain and complex 530 factors should be considered (Bageis and Fortune, 2009). Therefore, while the key attributes shed 531 some lights on the improvement of competitiveness, contractors have a long road to walk from 532 proper cognition to efficient markup decision. 533

534

There are some markup decision approaches such as the utility theory model by Dozzi et al. (1996), the competitive bidding strategy model by Fayek (1998), the artificial neural networks by Li et al. (1999), and the computer-based markup decision support system by Li and Love (1999). A major limitation of these models is that they only take account of significant factors that can be readily

quantified. In effect, in line with the key attributes identified in this study, these quantitative 539 approaches are oversimplified and are unable to reflect the complexity and uncertainty of bidding 540 situation (Egemen and Mohamed, 2008). In practice, contractors might be subject to low efficiency 541 if the different characteristics between public and private projects are not well interpreted. A series of 542 recent advances in computational analysis, such as matrix calculations, expert systems, ANN and 543 fuzzy logic, have allowed for the inclusion of a couple of quantitative and qualitative factors in the 544 development of bidding models (Christodoulou, 2010). Hence, these decision models are expected to 545 advance to interpret the difference between public and private projects in China. 546

547

548 8. CONCLUSIONS

549

Contractors are subject to low tendering efficiency if they rely on an unchangeable set of decision 550 factors to bid for different types of projects. The research found that project characteristic, client 551 characteristic and macro condition can be used to explain the difference of markup decision between 552 public and private projects. Meanwhile, there are six common factors that contractors can treat 553 similarly in the determination of markup size for both the two types of projects. The six factors are 554 contract requirements, construction plan, procurements, contractor heterogeneity, potential 555 competitors and tendering procedure. Interestingly, the different markup decision factors can be 556 appreciated at the early stage of project competition, while the common decision factors are based on 557 construction activities. The research findings are of values for construction firms to achieve a better 558 notion of markup decision and to improve the efficiency in markup decision. Thereby, they are able 559 to advance the cognition of decision factors and the advanced cognition paves the way for the 560 improvement of markup decision-making approaches in the future. As there exist sub-categories of 561 public or private projects, findings of the research can shed lights on different markup decision 562 within a single sector of clients. Future studies are recommended to look at the difference of markup 563 decision between sub-categories of projects within private or public sectors. 564

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691 _____Table 1 Markup decision factors in previous studies

Reference	Data/Sample	Factor number ^a	Key Factors
(Ahmad and Minkarah 1988)	400 of the top general contractors in the United States	31 (8)	type of job, location, size of job, need for work, owner, subcontractors, degree of hazard, degree of difficulty
(Seydel and Olson 1990)	The case of a small firm (FBK builders)	5	profitability, risk reduction, continuity, capital exposure, work force continuity
(Drew and Skitmore 1992)	Quantity surveying practice in Hong Kong	3	bidder size, contract value and project type
(Herbsman and Ellis 1992)	The USA and Singapore construction industries	7	cost, time, quality, safety, durability, security, and maintenance
(Shash 1993)	300 top contractors in the UK	55	the need for work, the number of competitors, the amount of experience on such projects, the degree of difficulty, the risk involving owing to the nature of the work, the current work load
(Hatush and Skitmore 1997)	Eight construction personnel in the north west of England	20 (8)	past failures, financial status, financial stability, credit ratings, experience, ability, management personnel, management knowledge
(Fayek 1998)	A sample engineering construction contractor	93 (11)	project characteristics, design characteristics, cost estimate characteristics, project-related characteristics, project-related opportunities, company characteristics, corporate and budgetary considerations, the client, competition, characteristics of subcontractors and suppliers, economic and political conditions
(Akintoye 2000)	Eighty-four UK contractors in various firm sizes	24(7)	complexity of the project, scale and scope of construction, market conditions, method of construction, site constraints, clients' financial position, buildability and location of the project
(Chua et al. 1999)	153 top contractors in Singapore	28 (4)	competition, risk, need for work, and company's position in bidding
(Dulaimi and Hong 2002)	General building contractors in Singapore	40 (5)	project characteristics, project documentation, company characteristics, bidding situation, the economic environment
(Ling and Liu 2005)	Contractors in Singapore	52 (21)	payment record of client, size of client, type of client, etc.
(Egemen and Mohamed 2007)	Contractors in the Northern Cyprus and Turkish	42	firm-related factors, project-related factors, market conditions/expectations and strategic considerations
(Phillips et al. 2008)	Contractors in the UK social housing sector	35 (1)	understanding of clients objectives, innovative management, successful track record, innovative construction practices, quality management procedures, transparency of cost data, understanding of partnering, established policy (health & safety, environmental), understanding of best value, technical ability
(Watt et al. 2010)	Several international organizations and Australian construction companies	3	past performance, technical expertise, and cost

692 Note: a – number of preliminary factors (number of key factors)

96 Table 2 Different concerns between public and private projects

Factors	Public sector contracts	Private sector contracts	References
Profitability expectation	Low	High	(Holt et al. 1995)
Flexibility of Tendering procedure	Strict	Loose	(Shen et al. 2004; Drew and
			Skitmore 1997)
Accountability requirements ^a	High	Low	(Drew and Skitmore 1997; Holt
			et al. 1995)
Diversity of works	More	Less	(Drew and Skitmore 1992)
Design and specification	Complicated	Simplified	(Drew and Skitmore 1992)
Bidding methods	Competitive	Selective or competitive	(Drew and Skitmore 1992;
			Herbsman and Ellis 1992)
Lowest-price wins	Less frequently	Frequently	(Drew and Skitmore 1992)

697 a - i.e. cost limits and specification stipulations.

700 Table 3 Markup decision factors identified

Code	Factors	References	Code	Factors	References
SF-1	Type of public project	Fu et al., 2003	SF-28	Relationships between the client and tenders	Egemen and Mohamed, 2006
SF-2	Project size	Drew and Skitmore, 1997	SF-29	Competitiveness of potential competitors	Oo et al., 2008
SF-3	Project complexity	Flanagan and Norman, 1982	SF-30	Irregular/illegal tendering behaviours of potential competitors	Oo et al., 2008
SF-4	Tender preparation cost	Fayek, 1998	SF-31	Operation order of local construction market	Drew and Skitmore, 1992
SF-5	Project costing methods	Zou, 2007	SF-32	Strengths of the designer	Dyer and Kagel, 1996
SF-6	Availability of time for tender preparation	Oo et al., 2008	SF-33	Efficiency of the tendering agency	Wang et al., 1997
SF-7	Tendering methods (open/invited)	Zou, 2007	SF-34	Availability of major construction materials	Liu et al., 2007
SF-8	Track record of project consultants	Phillips et al., 2008	SF-35	Cost of manpower	Shash, 1993
SF-9	Tender evaluation methods	Wong et al., 2001	SF-36	Market supply of equipment and machinery	Zou, 2007
SF-10	Contract types (lump sum/unit rate)	Drew and Skitmore,	SF-37	Market supply of labour	Shash, 1993
SF-11	Project financing	1997 Han and Diekmann, 2001	SF-38	Social relationship cost	Zou, 2007
SF-12	Advance payment by contractors	Han and Diekmann, 2001	SF-39	Cooperation between the contractor and the client	Ling and Liu, 2005
SF-13	Reimbursement of auditing fees	Zou, 2007	SF-40	Partnerships between the contractor with local governments	Wang et al., 1997
SF-14	Unreasonable contractual clauses	Chan and Au, 2007	SF-41	Competitiveness of the contractor	Shen et al., 2004
SF-15	Construction schedule requirement	Watt et al., 2009	SF-42	Competitive strategy of the contractor	Shen et al., 2004
SF-16	Construction quality requirement	Zou, 2007	SF-43	Status quota of business operation (the contractor)	Drew and Skitmore, 1992
SF-17	Engineering technical requirement	Zou, 2007	SF-44	Risk management competence (the contractor)	Seydel and Olson, 1990
SF-18	Environmental protection requirement	Zou, 2007	SF-45	Cost management competence of the contractor	Fayek, 1998
SF-19	Adequacy of geotechnical engineering information	Zou, 2007	SF-46	Experiences of similar projects	Fu et al., 2003
SF-20	Readability of the planning and design drawings	Holt et al., 1995	SF-47	Current workload (the contractor)	Drew and Skitmore, 1992
SF-21	Governmental approval on public project construction	Shen et al., 2004	SF-48	Macro-economic policy	Wang et al., 1997
SF-22	Number of projects under construction (the client)	Flanagan and Norman, 1982	SF-49	Annual investment size of public projects	Drew and Skitmore, 1992
SF-23	Reputation of the client	Bageis and Fortune,	SF-50	Prosperity of local economy	Flanagan and Norman,
SF-24	Professionalism of the client	2009 Bageis and Fortune,	SF-51	Status quota of real estate market	1982 Egemen and Mohamed,
SF-25	Unreasonable requirements of the client	2009 Drew and Skitmore,	SF-52	Social demand of the project types	2007 Drew and Skitmore,
SF-26	Project financing sources of the client	1992 Shen et al., 2004	SF-53	Sustainable construction policies	1992 Zou, 2007

SF-27 Number of potential competitors Oo et al., 2008	
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 Table 4 Categorization of the key factors affecting markup decision

Factors	Factors
Project characteristic	SF-1, SF-2, SF-3
Tendering procedure	SF-4, SF-5, SF-6, SF-7, SF-8, SF-9
Contract requirement	SF-10, SF-11, SF-12, SF-13, SF-14, SF-15, SF-16, SF-17, SF-18
Construction plan	SF-19, SF-20, SF-21
Client characteristic	SF-22, SF-23, SF-24, SF-25, SF-26
Potential competitor	SF-27, SF-28, SF-29, SF-30
Procurement	SF-31, SF-32, SF-33, SF-34, SF-35, SF-36, SF-37, SF-38
Contractor heterogeneity	SF-39, SF-40, SF-41, SF-42, SF-43, SF-44, SF-45, SF-46, SF-47
Macro condition	SF-48, SF-49, SF-50, SF-51, SF-52, SF-53

707 Table 5 Demographics of the respondents

	Beijing	Chongqing	Fujian	Guangdong	Guizhou	Hubei	Hunan
Source*	10/25	15/20	5/15	16/28	3/10	2/10	3/14
Source	Jiangsu	Liaoning	Shandong	Shanghai	Sichuan	Yunan	Zhejiang
	16/30	9/20	8/32	11/28	14/26	3/8	15/35
	Ton monogora	Departmental	Project	First-line			
Position	Top managers	managers	managers	operators			
	18	35	29	22			
Expertise	quantity surveying	tendering	construction technology	quantity surveying plus tendering	Relevant fields		
	48	23	31	14	5		
Work yoor	1-2	3-5	6-10	10 above			
Work year	25	46	35	24			

note: (a) * - successful response / mails sent; (b) there are totally 199 questionnaires that were sent out to other 17

709 provinces, but the research team did not receive any response.

711 <u>Table 6 Mean values of the attributes</u>

	Project	Tendering	Contract	Construction	Client	Potential	Procurement	Contractor	Macro
	characteristic	procedure	requirements	plan	characteristic	competitors		heterogeneity	condition
Public	3.92	3.46	3.78	3.59	3.27	3.77	3.70	3.75	3.59
private	3.28	3.38	3.73	3.54	3.58	3.78	3.72	3.79	3.64

Table 7 Results of the Hotelling's T-square Test

Key Factors	Factors		Wilks'λ		Hote	elling's trac	e	Intra-group
-		λ	F	Р	Trace	F	Р	Р
	SF-1							<u>0.181</u>
Project characteristic	SF-2	0.378	28.802	0.000	00 1.642	28.802	0.000	0.000
	SF-3							0.000
	SF-4							0.238
	SF-5							0.782
Tendering procedure	SF-6	0.713	2.348	0.052	0.402	2.348	0.052	0.150
Tendering procedure	SF-7	0.715	2.540	0.052	0.402	2.540	0.052	0.633
	SF-8							0.058
	SF-9							0.167
	SF-10							0.457
	SF-11							0.392
	SF-12							0.541
	SF-13							0.817
Contract requirements	SF-14	0.747	1.203	0.327	0.338	1.203	0.327	0.967
	SF-15							<u>0.967</u>
	SF-16							0.187
	SF-17							0.812
	SF-18							0.516
	SF-19							0.186
Construction plan	SF-20	0.923	1.056	0.379	0.083	1.056	0.379	0.383
	SF-21							0.288
	SF-22							0.001
	SF-23							0.002
Client characteristic	SF-24	0.687	3.282	0.015	0.456	3.282	0.015	0.115
	SF-25							0. <u>468</u>
	SF-26							0.214
	SF-27							0.440
Potential	SF-28					0.749		0. <u>854</u>
competitors	SF-29	0.925	0.749	0.565	0.081		0.565	0.800
	SF-30							0.515
	SF-31							0.823
	SF-32							0.226
	SF-33							0.633
	SF-34							0.431
Procurement	SF-35	0.816	0.929	0.565	0.225	0.929	0.565	0.453
	SF-36							0.150
	SF-37							0. <u>842</u>
	SF-38							0.359
	SF-39							0.295
Contractor	SF-40							0.666
heterogeneity	SF-41	0.813	0.820	0.602	0.231	0.820	0.602	0.885
	SF-42							0. <u>950</u>

	05.40							0.400
	SF-43							0.409
	SF-44							0.842
	SF-45							0.174
	SF-46							0.453
	SF-47							0.880
	SF-48	0.555	4.675	0.001	0.801			0.093
	SF-49							0.079
Macro condition	SF-50					4.675	0.001	0.347
Macro condition	SF-51	0.555				4.073	0.001	0.007
	SF-52							0.822
	SF-53							0.035