

1 **Impact of Institutional Distance on Environmental and Social Practices in** 2 **Host Countries: Evidence from International Construction Companies**

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4 5 **Abstract**

6 Construction businesses expanding internationally often need to devise corporate social responsibility
7 (CSR) as an indispensable component of their competitive strategies. Companies will customize their
8 CSR programs in line with host countries' institutional environments, meanwhile, this customization
9 will be unavoidably influenced by the institutions at home countries. This research aims to explore
10 whether the institutional distance between home and host countries matters to CSR, in particular its
11 related environmental and social practices. Data regarding the CSR practices in host countries are
12 extracted from CSR/sustainability reports by using content analysis and text mining. Logistic regression
13 models are then applied to test the roles of institutional distance and host country contexts on the two
14 types of CSR practices. It is found that the institutional distance has no impact on environmental
15 practices in host countries, but the embedded contexts of host countries positively affect the practices.
16 It is also found that the institutional distance is positively correlated with social practices; however, the
17 positive relationship is less pronounced when the host country's development level is higher. The
18 novelty of this research lies in considering both host countries' contexts and the institutional distance.
19 The findings offer companies new insights on how to engage in environmental and social practices and
20 develop CSR strategies in international construction markets.

21

22 **Keywords:** Institutional distance, corporate social responsibility, environmental practice, social
23 practice, legitimacy, host country context

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24 **1. Introduction**

25 In line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) increasingly promoted by the United Nations
26 (2015), the Paris Climate Agreement, and the worldwide agreement on Carbon Neutrality, companies
27 nowadays are expected to balance environmental, social, and economic sustainability (Mio et al. 2020).
28 Nevertheless, construction companies are often criticized for their adverse environmental and societal
29 effects (Lu et al. 2016). This is particularly true when construction companies are competing in the
30 international arena with different environmental, social, and economic conditions. Without fully
31 considering these different conditions, international construction companies (ICCs) may be faced with
32 criticism, loss, and even project failure. For example, the media reported a big concern on the potential
33 damage to the environment and communities from Chinese-backed hydropower projects along the
34 Mekong River (Gokkon 2018), and the construction of the dam in Myanmar has been even suspended
35 by the local government after nationwide protests due to their concerns on the loss of livelihoods, wide-
36 scale environmental damage, and destruction of cultural heritage sites (HumanRightWatch 2019). ICCs
37 are compelled to embrace environmental and social practices to respond to public concerns, build
38 reputations, and attain legitimacy in the long term (Bondy et al. 2012; Zheng et al. 2015).

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40 According to institutional theory, environmental and social practices are shaped, mediated, and
41 channeled by the institutional environment faced by companies (Jackson and Rathert 2016). When
42 operating in international markets outside their home countries (i.e., “host countries”), ICCs are
43 sensitive to host-country attributes (Lee et al. 2016) because construction business is very much site-
44 specific and cannot be disconnected with a local social, economic, environmental, and legal context.
45 Local conditions and corresponding expectations from stakeholders and the general public in a
46 particular context are the most crucial factors for construction companies (Jackson and Rathert 2016)
47 to gain social acceptability and credibility in host countries (Scott 2008) and to survive and thrive in a
48 competitive market.

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50 Whilst the importance of local conditions for a construction business is constantly emphasized, scholars
51 also stress the importance of capturing home-country institutional forces simultaneously. It is
52 understandable that the powerful influence of a head office, as well as culture and norms along with the
53 entire organization, will impact the overall strategies, capabilities, and core operations of the
54 organization (Kolk 2005). Hence, researchers in international business emphasize the importance of
55 institutional distance between a country pair to reflect the in-between tension of diverse institutional
56 environments (Kostova and Zaheer 1999). Kostova (1997) defines institutional distance as “the extent
57 of dissimilarity between regulatory, cognitive, and normative institutions of two countries”, which has
58 been used as a theoretical lens to examine corporate social responsibility (CSR) of multinational
59 enterprises. Campbell et al. (2012) state that a greater distance from home countries may on the one
60 hand strategically motivate companies to conduct host-country CSR to reduce the liability of
61 foreignness, while they may have less willing or reduced ability to engage in CSR on the other.
62 Jacqueminet (2017) argues that the relationship between the institutional distance and CSR relies on
63 the subsidiaries’ relative needs for internal versus external legitimacy. However, little research has
64 considered construction companies’ concerns on environmental and social practices, and whether
65 institutional distance still matters to their CSR practices in host countries.

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67 This research aims to explore whether the institutional distance has impacts on the environmental and
68 social practices by focusing on the relationship in the international construction context. Firstly, the
69 construction industry provides a particular context, where construction business is largely embedded in
70 host countries. The host-country effects may be more significant due to the industry’s project-based and
71 field-oriented production characteristics. Secondly, the controversial feature of the construction
72 industry leads to two diverse considerations of the practices: environmental practices are conducted to
73 decrease the negative externality, compliance with regulative standards in specific countries; while
74 social practices are to increase positive externality by responding to moral pressures or legitimate
75 requirements arise from local communities (Bustamante 2011; Ye et al. 2020). This research seizes the
76 opportunity to address the different kinds of practices and figure out the diverse effects on
77 environmental and social practices rather than treating CSR as a whole. Thirdly, this research examines

78 specific practices in the environmental and social aspects in host countries. Rather than relying on the
79 database, which can only provide CSR performance for the entire company, data with respect to
80 environmental and social practices is extracted by using content analysis with the assistance of text
81 mining.

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83 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides a theoretical background for
84 this research, based on which, hypotheses are developed and illustrated in a conceptual framework.
85 Section 3 introduces the sample and the process of extracting environmental and social practices from
86 CSR reports by using content analysis and text mining. It also elaborates the steps of using logistic
87 regression models. Section 4 presents the results of the tests. Section 5 discusses the results and Section
88 6 draws the conclusion.

89

90 **2. Theoretical background and hypotheses**

91 *2.1 Environmental and social practices*

92 Environmental practices are responses to environmental issues, which loom large in the CSR agenda
93 being addressed by construction companies (Jones et al. 2006; Lu et al. 2018). Construction activities
94 have significant adverse impacts on the environment, including dust and greenhouse gas emissions,
95 noise pollution, discharged water and waste, and land degradation (Lu et al. 2016). To this end,
96 construction companies emphasize environmental practices attempting to minimize their negative
97 impacts on the environment (Jiang and Wong 2016). For instance, ISO 14000 series environmental
98 management systems are applied by many construction companies to guarantee their environmental
99 practices. Some construction companies demonstrate their energy-intensive activities and operate in
100 strict regulatory environments. Environmental practices are always treated under international standards
101 such as UN Global Compact since environmental protection attracts global attention with a common
102 set of values, core strategies, and policies across the company (Bustamante 2011).

103

104 From a social perspective, the construction industry is a critical component of the labor market and
105 generates large numbers of jobs (Zhao et al. 2012). However, with regards to the controversial nature
106 of the construction industry, construction companies are supposed to contribute extra efforts to improve
107 social welfare (Jiang and Wong 2016). For example, they emphasize the commitments and
108 responsibilities they have to the communities in which they work (Jones et al. 2006). Ye et al. (2020)
109 also emphasize the on-site community engagement practices for the conduct of construction projects
110 because they need to get the operating license. Construction businesses are helpful to deal with social
111 issues, including the support for community construction (Jones et al. 2006), reconstruction for disaster
112 relief (Ye et al. 2018), and building schools and providing electricity (Ye et al. 2020). These social
113 issues are cultural grounds with culture-specific expectations (Bustamante 2011; Ye et al. 2020). Social
114 practices are seldom regulated but conducted with local CSR strategy responsive to the local context
115 and local stakeholders (Collinge 2020; Duran and Bajo 2014).

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117 ***2.2 Institutional distance and business operations***

118 Institutional distance, meaning “the extent of dissimilarity between host and home institution” (Kostova
119 1997), is derived from a strand of institutional theory where institutional environment influences firm
120 structure and behavior (DiMaggio and Powell 1983). Organizational theorists have suggested that
121 institutional environments comprise a variety of institutions, including regulations, educational systems,
122 norms and cultures, and so on (Kostova and Zaheer 1999). Operating in both home and host countries,
123 companies are faced with multiple institutional environments and thus with a divergence of institutional
124 environments. The main explanation of why institution matters here is regarding legitimacy- countries
125 have diverse institutions, and therefore, diverse ways of conducting certain functions to be viewed as
126 “legitimate” (Kostova and Zaheer 1999).

127

128 Institutional distance has been used to explain multinational enterprise behaviors, such as location
129 choice (Xu and Shenkar 2002), entry mode choice (Hernández and Nieto 2015), ownership strategy
130 (Eden and Miller 2004), and staffing strategies (Ando and Paik 2013) mainly with a basic argument
131 that institutional distance affects “the liability of foreignness operating in host countries” (Eden and

132 Miller 2004), which refers to the costs of doing business abroad (Quer et al. 2019) due to the lack of
133 familiarity with the local environment. This largely affects the location choice and modes of entry
134 strategies, and once they have entered the market, institutional distance impacts the “establishment of
135 organizational legitimacy in host countries” (Kostova and Zaheer 1999). In other words, the larger
136 degree of dissimilarity between the two countries referring to the larger institutional distance, the more
137 possibilities that companies’ activities are improper or inappropriate in host countries, leading to greater
138 pressures on companies for local responsiveness (Prahalad and Doz 1987).

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140 CSR, environmental and social practices particularly, has been conceptualized as a set of legitimation
141 strategies that multinational enterprises adopt to refine the role of business in society (Castelló and
142 Lozano 2011) and to respond to different forms of normative and coercive stakeholder influence
143 (Rathert 2016). Multinational enterprises at a greater distance from the home countries should therefore
144 be strategically motivated to engage in host-country environmental and social practices (Campbell et
145 al. 2012), but they may have less ability for these practices because they have fewer resources and the
146 adaptation to local norms is too expensive (Jacqueminet 2017). Meanwhile, the influence of institutional
147 distance is largely in line with CSR strategies drawn from the underlying global-local considerations
148 (Bustamante 2011) and types of isomorphism pressure (Ye et al. 2020).

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150 ***2.3 Host country context, institutional distance, and environmental practices***

151 In line with the global sustainable development goals and mitigating climate changes, countries around
152 the world have their own environmental concerns, regulations, or policies, which are formulated by
153 governments or customer green demands (Qiu et al. 2020). Some of these regulations are not specific
154 to the construction industry, but they inevitably regulate it owing to construction’s roles. By exploring
155 ICCs’ environmental practices, Ye et al. (2020) state that environmental practices are conducted under
156 compliance pressures with well-established regulations, rules, or laws. Institutional theory suggests
157 firms conform to prevailing societal rules and beliefs regarding environmental protection in the
158 operating context (Wang et al. 2019) to establish regulative legitimacy (Scott 2008) or normative
159 legitimacy (Suddaby et al. 2016). Environmental practices are thus highly conditioned by the

160 institutional profiles of the different countries where firms operate. Babiak and Trendafilova (2011)
161 echo that executives are motivated to address environmental issues to conform to external institutional
162 pressures, such as acquiescence to government directives or facilitating compliance with environmental
163 laws and regulations.

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165 With regards to the specific environmental regulations in different host countries, Rasoulkhani et al.
166 (2020) report that the whole process of capital projects in infrastructure sectors would be significantly
167 affected. Chowdhury et al. (2020) try to propose a regulatory future-proofing process that includes
168 instructions and guidance for regulated entities in construction and infrastructure sectors to proactively
169 adapt to the outside environmental regulatory context. Lu et al. (2013) also report the reasons why
170 construction companies conduct environmental practices, one of which is the government regulation
171 motivations and the increasing pressure from large green companies on the supply chain. The context
172 where construction companies operate with higher environmental performance provides them with
173 either regulative or normative pressure to conduct environmental practices. Therefore, the first
174 hypothesis is that:

175 *H1: The environmental practice is positively correlated with the host country context where companies*
176 *are embedded*

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178 Host country context sets a regulative baseline for international companies to conduct environmental
179 practices, especially for ICCs, whose construction business is largely embedded in the contexts. The
180 regulative baseline is strong enough that every company needs to follow. Aguilera-Caracuel et al. (2013)
181 state that considering environmental regulations as coercive, companies exhibit different levels of
182 environmental practices that correspond to each country's legal requirements. There are two distinct
183 situations: 1) when the legal requirements are high in the host countries, ICCs intend to conduct
184 environmental practices to achieve regulative and normative legitimacy in the context regardless of the
185 existing institutional distance. For example, due to the high level of energy requirements in Germany,
186 ICCs operating there mandate a certain percentage of energy to be obtained from renewable or
187 alternative sources. When the compliance pressure in the host country is high, ICCs prefer to reach the

188 regulative baseline but are restricted to conduct more for best practices. 2) When the requirements on
189 environmental issues in the host country are lower than those in the home country, ICCs would also
190 demonstrate their home-country environmental practices in the host countries, for example, Spanish
191 construction companies would like to conduct environmental practices, such as energy-efficient
192 equipment and waste management in Latin American markets even though these countries are with
193 lower environmental requirements (Ye 2018). However, institutional distance makes no sense in these
194 two situations. So, there comes the second hypothesis that:

195 *H2: The institutional distance between home and host countries does not matter to companies'*
196 *environmental practices in the host countries*

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198 **2.4 Host country context, institutional distance, and social practices**

199 Organizations need to conform to or be consistent with established cognitive structures in the society
200 to pursue legitimacy (Kostova and Zaheer 1999). Jackson and Apostolakou (2010) find that firms in
201 high-impact industries would respond to the pressures by adopting more extensive practices. Ye et al.
202 (2020) describe social practices as contextualized practices that are characterized by a strong cultural
203 grounding or societal needs in the context of the international construction business. For example,
204 disaster-relief initiatives are always conducted as the priority in disaster-prone countries, such as
205 donations and initiatives related to the construction business, i.e. structural assessments and
206 infrastructure evaluation.

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208 When in a country with a lower development level, the country may be faced with higher societal needs,
209 various poverty issues, healthy issues, or education problems, it is easier for companies to seek
210 legitimacy by social practices. For example, ICCs can initiate activities called “answer to hunger” or
211 “relief for the poor” in some African countries and deal with the clean water problem to respond to
212 poverty issues; provide free medical care or suitable medical infrastructure to respond to health issues;
213 and build schools and provide electricity to deal with basic education problems. While in a country with
214 a higher quality of life, social practices are less implemented for companies for the purpose of

215 establishing legitimacy with the most frequently mentioned social practices in the CSR reports being
216 communication with local communities. The third hypothesis is:

217 *H3: The social practice is negatively correlated with the development level of the host country where*
218 *companies are embedded*

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220 When going abroad, a company often faces entry barriers (e.g. culture shock) in a host country market
221 (Eden and Miller 2004). Institutional distance between home and host countries undoubtedly enhances
222 the barriers. For example, it increases the liability of foreignness, which can be decomposed into
223 unfamiliarity, relational and discriminatory hazards (Eden and Miller 2004; Salomon and Wu 2012). In
224 other words, the institutional distance reduces the legitimacy of existing practices of companies from
225 home countries and increases demands to establish cognitive legitimacy (Meyer and Scott 1983). For
226 example, initiatives to deal with the basic education of children are not suitable for the developed
227 countries.

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229 The institutionally distant host country increases the salience of a given social issue, whereby
230 stakeholders are seen as legitimate claimants to practices in the absence of regulation (Rathert 2016).
231 For construction companies, social issues stand out due to the industry's controversial features. For
232 example, construction projects always affect the living environment of local communities with their
233 adverse impacts such as land occupation, noise and dust pollution, and even hazardous substances.
234 Distinguished from the environmental practices, which are conducted with the compliance pressure,
235 ICCs are expected to conduct more social practices to address the social issues and gain cognitive
236 legitimacy from stakeholders in the institutional distant host country. Meanwhile, companies'
237 operations are placed in a stricter examination context than domestic companies in the host countries,
238 compared with which, construction companies are expected to undertake social practices to meet
239 societal needs, to build their reputation, and to seek cognitive legitimacy. There thus comes the fourth
240 hypothesis that:

241 *H4: The social practice is positively correlated with the institutional distance between home and host*
242 *countries*

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Based on the literature review and hypothesis formation, a conceptual framework of this research is developed, as shown in Fig.1.

<<Insert Fig.1. here>>

3. Research Methods

The research methods are devised to test the hypotheses as derived in the last section. They comprise three interconnected steps: (1) Data preparation, (2) Defining variables and measures, and (3) Hypothesis testing.

3.1 Data preparation

3.1.1 Sample and document collection

The sample of international construction companies (ICCs) is derived from two sources: one is the top international contractor lists compiled by *Engineering News Records (ENR)*, a construction, building, and engineering-oriented magazine, and the other is the Sustainability Disclosure Database of Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), which incorporates a detailed overview of CSR/sustainability reports of ICCs published from 1999 to 2018. By excluding some of the companies due to a lack of CSR/sustainability reports, 68 ICCs are chosen as the sample for the analysis.

CSR/sustainability reports of the sampled ICCs over seven years (2011-2017) are retrieved from their websites or the GRI's database. Either sustainability or CSR reports are collected as both disclose similar contents regarding environmental and social practices. Not all ICCs disclose reports every year and some 2017 CSR reports are not included as they are not yet released at the collection date (March 2018). In total, 369 CSR/sustainability reports are collected for the analysis (shown in Table 1).

<<Insert Table 1 here>>

270 *3.1.2 Environmental and social practices extraction*

271 Environmental and social practices of ICCs in specific host countries (as dependent variables) were
272 extracted from CSR/sustainability reports by using a latent semantic analysis (LSA)-assisted content
273 analysis. LSA is defined as “a theory and method for extracting and representing the contextual-usage
274 meaning of words by statistical computations applied to a large corpus of text” (Landauer et al. 1998)
275 and has been applied to analyze construction documents (Mahfouz and Kandil 2010; Yalcinkaya and
276 Singh 2015). It can derive measures of the similarity of the word meanings from texts, assisting the
277 content analysis by allocating words (i.e., input) or texts into categories (i.e. output). Particularly, it can
278 automatically process a large volume of documents. Therefore, LSA is adopted in this study by
279 allocating the texts in the CSR/sustainability reports into topics of environmental and social practices.
280 The LSA-assisted content analysis process is presented in Fig. 2 and elaborated as follows.

281 <<Insert Fig.2 here>>

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283 Firstly, topics related to environmental and social practices are identified based on the GRI’s (2014)
284 Construction and Real Estate Sector Supplement (“CRESS”) Guidelines. They are illustrated in Table
285 2 to help decode CSR reports to different topics as interested.

286 <<Insert Table 2 here>>

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288 Then, manual decoding is conducted to provide a reliable baseline for the subsequent text mining using
289 machine. A total of 50 CSR/sustainability reports from 8 ICCs were chosen. Texts were first coded
290 according to the country names using the qualitative data analysis software *NVivo Pro 11*. Coded texts
291 were then manually classified into the 9 topics shown in Table 2. For example, if the text mentioned
292 “biodiversity”, this text was classified into the topic of biodiversity conservation (EN2) marked with
293 “1”. CSR reports were regarded as a group over the past seven years to identify environmental and
294 social practices in host countries. Through this decoding method, the researchers care about which topic
295 has been demonstrated over the years in each country regardless of the specific year. In total, there were
296 139 groups of extracted texts describing the ICCs’ environmental and social practices in each country.
297 This manual decoding process was conducted by 2 coders to ensure the reliability of the results.

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299 Next, a pilot LSA text mining is then conducted using the 50 CSR reports chosen from the 8 ICCs as a
300 sample. It is conducted by using *gensim* (version 3.4, available at: [https://github.com/RaRe-](https://github.com/RaRe-Technologies/gensim)
301 *Technologies/gensim*) in Python 3.6.5. Evaluation method (F_1 score) and cross-validation with the
302 manual decoded results are then conducted to validate whether the LSA can be scaled up to the 369
303 CSR reports from all the 68 ICCs.

304

305 Finally, the LSA-assisted text mining process is applied to all the collected reports to extract the data
306 of environmental and social practices for this study. The text mining process is quite useful and robust.
307 However, it is too technical and lengthy to be presented in this paper. Therefore, it is added as
308 supplementary material to keep the main storyline of this paper.

309

310 *3.1.3 Extracted data of environmental and social practices*

311 After the extraction process, the documents can be allocated to a specific topic with the doc-to-topic
312 similarity score and the score can be further converted into a “0-1” binary score based on the threshold
313 of the topic. “1” indicates ICCs have conducted the practice while “0” indicates not. Therefore, we can
314 get “0-1” data for the environmental and social practices of each ICC in specific host countries. The
315 data were further cleaned by removing items with the same home and host countries. As a result, 811
316 items describing environmental and social practices in 55 host countries for 66 ICCs are derived for this
317 study.

318

319 **3.2 Variables and measures**

320 *3.2.1 Dependent variables*

321 The dependent variables would be environmental and social practices of ICCs in host countries, which
322 are shown in the section “Extracted data of environmental and social practices”. There are only two
323 possible values for the dependent variable, represented by a dichotomous variable “1” and “0”. One
324 assumption here is involved that the country names were mentioned in the reports only when ICCs
325 conduct specific environmental or social practices.

326

327 *3.2.2 Independent and moderating variables*

328 Based on the hypothesis, independent and moderate variables are different for environmental and social
329 practices. Basically, institutional distance and host country contexts (including environmental
330 performance index and human development index) are the two variables, either as an independent or a
331 moderating variable.

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333 *Institutional distance* is described as the degree of dissimilarity in institutions between two countries
334 (Gaur and Lu 2007). To measure institutional distance, the Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI)
335 are selected, encompassing the broadest range of institutional issues (Ando and Paik 2013). WGI is a
336 research dataset summarizing the views on the quality of national governance, with six dimensions
337 “voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness,
338 regulatory quality, the rule of law, and control of corruption”, describing a wide range of evaluation on
339 governance including “the capacity of a government to effectively formulate and implement sound
340 policies, the respect of citizens, and the state for the institutions that govern social and environmental
341 interactions among them” (WorldBank 2021). To operationalize institutional distance, this research
342 used the Euclidean distance measure following Gaur and Lu (2007) and Konara and Mohr (2019) (see
343 Equation 1).

344
$$DIS_INS = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^6 (I_{ki} - I_{kj})^2}$$
 Equation 1

345 Where, *DIS_INS* is the institutional distance between country *i* and country *j*, *I_{ki}* is country *i*'s score
346 of the *k*th dimension in WGI, there are 6 dimensions involved in WGI.

347

348 *Environmental Performance Index (EPI)* is a method of quantifying and numerically marking the
349 environmental performance of a country's policies on the environment, which includes 32 indicators
350 organized into 11 issue categories in two policy objectives of environmental health (40%) and
351 ecosystem vitality (60%), such as air quality, sanitation, and drinking water, heavy metals, waste
352 management, biodiversity and habitat, ecosystem services, climate change, and water resources. This

353 index provides a data-driven summary of the state's sustainability around the world, which can reflect
354 the operating context for environmental practices.

355

356 *Human Development Index (HDI)* is a concept developed by the United Nations, describing a
357 comprehensive approach comprising health, education, and economic dimensions (UNDP 2016). Each
358 country has scores ranging from 0 to 1 based on the three dimensions. The HDI considers national
359 policy choices to measure economic growth and human development. It is thus regarded as a proxy to
360 describe the development levels of countries, reflecting the health of the economy, the development of
361 industries, the rise of non-profit organizations, and communication and education, thus describing the
362 operating context for social practices.

363

364 3.2.3 Control variables

365 Two corporate-level control variables are chosen for the analysis: firm size and degree of
366 internationalization. *Firm size.* With greater influence on society, ICCs with larger firm sizes are desired
367 to conduct more environmental and social practices. They are also assumed to have the ability and
368 financial support for the practices. Firm size is measured by using a natural logarithm of the average
369 total revenue from 2011 to 2016, which reflects the average size during the period of collected CSR
370 reports. *Degree of internationalization.* When their degree of internationalization is higher, ICCs may
371 have more opportunities to implement environmental and social practices in overseas markets to
372 establish their legitimacy. The degree of internationalization is measured by the average proportion of
373 overseas revenue in total revenue during the period from 2011 to 2016.

374

375 Two variables are used to control the characteristics of the host markets. *Regions* indicate whether the
376 host markets are in the same region as the country-of-origin of ICCs. It is assumed that host markets
377 which are geographically close to the country of origin should have more transportation and
378 communication links. The *degree of openness* of the host markets to foreign companies is controlled by
379 using the prevalence of foreign ownership in the Global Competitiveness Index.

380

381 **3.3 Estimation methods**

382 Three steps are conducted for a logistic regression model. *Step 1* is to form a logistic regression model
383 and to test the relationships between the dependent, independent, and moderating variables (described
384 above). In this step, p-values for variables are calculated to indicate the goodness fit of the coefficients.
385 *Step 2* is to carry out the odds ratio test to indicate the effects of independent variables. *An odds ratio*
386 is a measure of association between the independent variable and the dependent variable. An odds ratio
387 greater than 1 indicates that the independent variable is connected with higher odds of the dependent
388 variable; while an odds ratio of less than 1 indicates the opposite situation (Menard 1995). *Step 3* is to
389 carry out tests to indicate the goodness fit of a logistic regression model, such Wald test, and the
390 Hosmer-Lemeshow test. *The Wald test* is a statistical test used for comparing the goodness of fit of two
391 statistical models. If the p-value is less than 0.05, it indicates the model fits well. *Hosmer-Lemeshow*
392 *test* is used to further indicate the goodness fit of the logistic regression model. A Hosmer-Lemeshow
393 (H-L) statistic with a p-value greater than 0.05 is considered a good fit (Hilbe 2009).

394

395 **4. Analyses and results**

396 **4.1 Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics**

397 Table 3 shows the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics. The mean values indicate that, on
398 average, 35% of the whole items (N=811) show engagement in environmental practices, and 53% in
399 social practices. The correlation matrix in Table 3 shows that the institutional distance has correlations
400 with the environmental and social practices ($r=-0.18$, $p<0.01$ and $r=0.087$, $p<0.05$ respectively), the host
401 country environmental performance index (Host_Envi) correlates with environmental practices
402 ($r=0.217$, $p<0.01$) and the host country human development index (Host_HDI) correlates with social
403 practices ($r=-0.146$, $p<0.01$). The host country environmental performance index and human
404 development index are highly correlated ($r=0.896$, $p<0.01$). Whether the region of the host country is
405 the same as the country of origin (the dummy variable) has negative correlations with the institutional
406 distance, indicating that geographical distance can affect the institutional distance.

407

<<Insert Table 3 here>>

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409 **4.2 Results of hypotheses testing**

410 The hypotheses testing was conducted by using *R programming*. Three parts of results following three
411 steps of logistic regression models are presented in Table 4, including the regression results, the
412 goodness of fit of coefficients, the results of odds ratios tests, and the Hosmer-Lemeshow tests to
413 indicate the goodness fit of the model. Models 1 and 2 reflect the effects of institutional distance and
414 environmental contexts of host countries on environmental practices; while Model 3 and Model 4 report
415 the effects of institutional distance and social contexts of host countries on social practices.

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<<Insert Table 4 here>>

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418 Model 1 presents a significant positive effect of Host_EPI on environmental practices of ICCs with the
419 coefficient of 0.033 ($p < .001$). The odds ratio for Host_EPI is 1.0337, indicating that the odds of a one-
420 unit increase in Host_EPI would make the odds of environmental practices increase by 3.37%
421 (calculated by 1.0337 minus 1). The p-value for the Wald test is below 0.001, indicating the addition of
422 independent variables to the model is significantly better than the constant-only model. The Hosmer-
423 Lemeshow statistic for Model 1 is 13.481, resulting in a p-value of 0.096, which provides statistical
424 evidence of a well-fitted model. *H1* is thus supported that the host country environmental context has
425 positive impacts on environmental practices. By adding the indicator of institutional distance, Model 2
426 presents the effects of Host_EPI and the interaction with institutional distance on environmental
427 practices, but the results show a non-significant effect of institutional distance and the Host_EPI's effect
428 is significant at the 10% level. Therefore, *H2* can be supported.

429

430 Model 3 concerns the social practices of ICCs. The coefficient of Host_HDI is -3.337, which is negative
431 and significant ($p < .001$). The odds ratio for Host_HDI is 0.0356, indicating that the odds of a one-unit
432 increase in Host_EPI would make the odds of social practices decrease by 96.44% (calculated by 0.0356
433 minus 1). The p-value for the Wald test is below 0.001, indicating the addition of independent variables
434 to the model is significantly better than the constant-only model. The Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic for

435 Model 3 is 4.143 with a p-value of 0.844 presenting statistical evidence of the well-fitted model as well.
436 *H3* is thus supported.

437

438 Model 4 presents an interesting result that Host_HDI's effects on social practices become not significant
439 when considering the institutional distance. It shows that the institutional distance has a significant
440 positive impact on social practices at the 10% level, and the positive impact would be negatively
441 affected by the Host_HDI since the coefficient of the interaction term of Host_HDI and institutional
442 distance is negative and significant at the 10% level. The odds ratio of the institutional distance is 0.7937,
443 indicating that the odds of a one-unit increase in the institutional distance would make the odds of social
444 practices decrease by 20.63% (calculated by 0.7937 minus 1). The p-value for the Walt test in Model 4
445 is below 0.001 and the Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic is 4.146 with a p-value of 0.844, indicating the good
446 addition of the independent variables and a well-fitted model. The results can refine *H4* that social
447 practices are positively correlated with the institutional distance and the host country social context
448 would decrease the effects of the institutional distance.

449

450 The firm size is found to have no effects on both environmental and social practices, which means these
451 practices are conducted regardless of their size influence on society. It is found that the degree of
452 internationalization matters to the environmental and social practices at the 10% level, indicating that
453 ICCs with a higher degree of internationalization have more possibilities to conduct environmental and
454 social practices. Whether the host markets are in the same region as the country-of-origin of ICCs does
455 not matter to the environmental and social practices. But the degree of openness of the host markets has
456 positive impacts on social practices at the 1% level, indicating that when the host market is more open,
457 ICCs are more likely to conduct social practices.

458

459 **5. Discussions**

460 The macro-institutional pressures from the companies' embedded environment have influences on their
461 environmental and social practices (e.g. Campbell 2007; Jackson and Apostolakou 2010). The

462 influences would be high for construction companies in particular, due to the industry's fixed final
463 product, long production cycle, and disruptive nature of construction projects to the environment and
464 society. Ye et al. (2020) emphasize the impacts of the local grounding on environmental and social
465 initiatives for ICCs. Our results confirm that the host country contexts where ICCs are embedded have
466 impacts on environmental and social practices (in line with *H1* and *H3*).

467

468 The results further show that these two kinds of practices on the environment and society present distinct
469 concerns. The higher environmental requirements of host countries lead to more environmental
470 practices (consistent with *H1*) since environmental practices are under formal power acting as the
471 standards-based practices to establish regulative and normative legitimacy (DiMaggio and Powell 1983).
472 For example, tougher regulations on green buildings and waste management for projects lead to better
473 practices on green buildings and waste management when comparing the green building projects of the
474 US and China (Chi et al. 2020). Social practices, on the contrary, are conducted in the absence of
475 regulation to meet societal needs and gain cognitive legitimacy. The societal needs are opposite to the
476 development levels of the host countries so that higher development levels lead to fewer social practices
477 (consistent with *H3*). This may be because social practices in less developed countries are easily
478 regarded as best practices to be reported for establishing legitimacy.

479

480 For construction companies, the influence of institutional distance cannot be investigated without regard
481 to the host country context due to the characteristics of the construction business as stated previously.
482 The results show that the institutional distance does not matter to ICCs' environmental practices
483 (consistent with *H2*) by considering the impacts of both institutional distance and host country contexts.
484 On the one hand, when the compliance pressure in host countries is strong, i.e. with strict regulations
485 or policies on the environment, ICCs have no choice but to follow the regulations to establish regulative
486 legitimacy (Scott 2005). Under this circumstance, ICCs from large institutional distant countries have
487 no need to practice more to establish legitimacy because the baseline is so high that they need abundant
488 investments to meet the requirement. On the other hand, when the compliance pressure is low in host
489 countries, ICCs may promote an integrated approach among the company in case of environmental

490 issues as these issues are globally concerned (Bustamante 2011; Ye et al. 2020). In this sense, ICCs
491 may not consider too much on the institutional distance which reflects the in-between tensions of the
492 countries.

493

494 Social practices, however, are with diverse considerations. There are usually no policies or regulations
495 for practices with regard to social issues. Social practices are conducted with positive externality to
496 establish legitimacy and are expected as one way to deal with the concerns caused by the institutional
497 distance (Campbell et al. 2012). ICCs prefer to conduct straightforward social practices, such as
498 donation, community volunteer work, or disaster relief, to address the needs in the host markets as well
499 as to avoid cultural conflicts when the institutional distance is large (consistent with *H4*). The results
500 also find that the development levels of host countries negatively affect the relationship between
501 institutional distance and social practices. It is argued that ICCs are more likely to “do the right thing”
502 to recede the impacts caused by the institutional distance, and this can be easily addressed when the
503 societal needs are obvious in host markets where the development levels are low.

504

505 **6. Concluding remarks**

506 This research reports on whether the institutional distance between home and host countries matters to
507 the environmental and social practices a construction company conducts in a particular country. Using
508 empirical data, it tested the effects of host country contexts and institutional distance, as well as their
509 interactive effects in the context of international construction. The results support the effects of host
510 country contexts measured by the environmental performance index on environmental practices to be
511 significantly positive, but the institutional distance does not matter to the environmental practices in the
512 host countries. However, strong evidence is presented that social practices of ICCs are positively
513 correlated with the institutional distance between home and host countries while the positive
514 relationship would be less pronounced when the development level of the host country is higher.

515

516 This research makes three contributions to the knowledge of connecting institutional theory to
517 environmental and social practices. First, by extracting environmental and social practices from ICCs'
518 CSR/sustainability reports, this research emphasizes the specific practices instead of evaluating
519 corporate social performance scores. Second, it is argued in this research that CSR is not a single
520 practice, but involving different kinds of concerns and practices. Environmental and social practices are
521 analyzed with distinct considerations. The effects of the institutional distance and host country contexts
522 are reflected to be different in this research and we also call for independent discussions on different
523 dimensions of CSR. Third, this research enriches the knowledge of the interactive effects of host country
524 contexts and the institutional distance on environmental and social practices in the context of
525 international construction responding to the characteristics of the industry, where host country contexts
526 cannot be neglected.

527

528 One practical implication is that ICCs need to examine the host country contexts as well as the tensions
529 of the home and host countries to engage in environmental and social practices and develop CSR
530 strategies in international construction markets. Other recommendations to the companies are host
531 country contexts are vital to the implementation of the construction projects and even the success of the
532 projects. ICCs need to evaluate the contexts to determine whether and how to exploit environmental
533 and social practices to establish legitimacy. Another implication is that ICCs are suggested to
534 distinguish environmental and social practices- one is under regulations with a purpose to decrease
535 negative externalities and the other is in the absence of regulation to increase positive externalities.
536 While environmental practices are conducted to reach the baseline, social practices have the role to
537 eliminate the negative effects caused by institutional distance and establish legitimacy.

538

539 This research is not immune from a shortcoming, therefore, requires future investigation. First, our
540 sample and data on environmental and social practices are largely based on CSR/sustainability reports.
541 Companies from developed countries with greater needs for CSR disclosure are more likely to be chosen
542 as the sample for this research. Future studies are recommended to exploit multiple methods including
543 interviews for collecting data. Second, to improve the accuracy of the logistic regression model applied

544 in the quantitative approach for hypotheses testing, future studies can use a more specific proxy for
545 measuring institutional distance. Third, future studies can extend the research to further explore other
546 CSR aspects such as practices regarding labor and human rights with considerations on the internal and
547 external legitimacy establishment.

548

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551 University of Hong Kong.

552

553 **8. Data Availability Statement**

554 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
555 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

556

557 **9. Supplemental Materials**

558 Appendixes S1 and S2, Figs. S1 and S2, and Tables S1 and S2 are available online in the ASCE Library
559 (www.ascelibrary.org).

560

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729

730 **Table 1.** The numbers of CSR/sustainability reports collected

Year	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Total
CSR/sustainability reports	45	57	61	60	59	63	24	369

731

732 **Table 2.** Topics of environmental and social practices

Code	Category	Topic
EN	Environmental practice	EN1-Energy and carbon emission
		EN2-Biodiversity conservation
		EN3-Waste management
SO	Social practice	SO1- Local community communication
		SO2-Donation
		SO3-Disaster relief
		SO4-Poverty caring
		SO5-Medical caring
		SO6-Youth and education

733

Table 3. The correlation matrix and descriptive statistics (N=811)

		Mean	SD	Max	Min	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Prac_Envi	0.35	0.016	1	0	1								
2	Prac_Social	0.53	0.017	1	0	0.036	1							
3	DIS_Ins	2.80	0.054	7.13	0.22	-0.180**	0.087*	1						
4	Host_EPI	72.08	0.457	88.91	41.77	0.217**	-0.127**	-0.597**	1					
5	Host_HDI	0.77	0.005	0.939	0.418	0.222**	-0.146**	-0.617**	0.896**	1				
6	Comp_size	9.10	0.041	11.62	3.39	-0.052	0.004	-0.034	-0.026	-0.019	1			
7	Comp_inte	0.48	0.010	1	0	0.079*	0.060`	0.013	0.076*	0.070*	-0.220**	1		
8	Dummy_reg	0.35	0.016	1	0	0.027	-0.009	-0.132**	0.088*	0.100**	0.043	-0.246**	1	
9	Host_open	4.77	0.029	6.13	2.92	0.161**	0.002	-0.538**	0.603**	0.558**	-0.075*	0.082*	0.053	1

Note: Prac_Envi= Environmental practice; Prac_Social= Social practice; DIS_INS= institutional distance; Host_Envi= host country environmental performance index; Host_HDI= host country human development index
 `p < .1, *p < .05, **p<.01

Table 4. Testing results of logistic regression models

Variables	DV= Prac_Envi (Odds Ratio)		DV= Prac_Social (Odds Ratio)	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Comp_size	-0.063 (0.9393)	-0.070 (0.9322)	0.042 (1.0430)	0.045 (1.0462)
Comp_inte	0.495 [`] (1.6407)	0.508 [`] (1.6618)	0.581* (1.7884)	0.490 [`] (1.6327)
Dummy_reg	0.094 (1.0989)	0.066 (1.0686)	0.105 (1.1111)	0.084 (1.0875)
Host_open	0.107 (1.1131)	0.049 (1.0504)	0.305** (1.3568)	0.319** (1.3762)
Constant	-3.290*** (0.0372)	-2.345 (0.0959)	-0.527 (1.6938)	-2.131* (0.1187)
DIS_Ins	-	-0.070 (0.9323)	-	0.761** (0.7937)
Host_EPI	0.033*** (1.0337)	0.029 [`] (1.0294)	-	-
DIS_Ins * Host_EPI	-	-0.001 (0.9995)	-	-
Host_HDI	-	-	-3.337*** (0.0356)	-0.231 (0.7937)
DIS_Ins * Host_HDI	-	-	-	-0.940** (0.3905)
N	811	811	811	811
Log-likelihood	-499.75 (df=6)	-498.32 (df=8)	-545.53 (df=6)	-541.78 (df=8)
Model fit	Wald $\chi^2 = 45.8$ (p < 0.001)	Wald $\chi^2 = 48.7$ (p < 0.001)	Wald $\chi^2 = 30.5$ (p < 0.001)	Wald $\chi^2 = 38.0$ (p < 0.001)
Hosmer-Lemeshow	13.481	8.501	4.143	4.146
C statistic#	p-value =0.096	p-value =0.3861	p-value =0.844	p-value =0.844

Note: [`], *, **, and *** indicates significance at the 0.1, 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, respectively.

1. df refers to the degree of freedom; 2. A Hosmer-Lemeshow (H-L) statistic with a p-value greater than 0.05 is considered a good fit

Figure captions:

Fig. 1 The conceptual framework

Fig. 2 A latent semantic analysis (LSA)-assisted content analysis for extracting environmental and social practices data

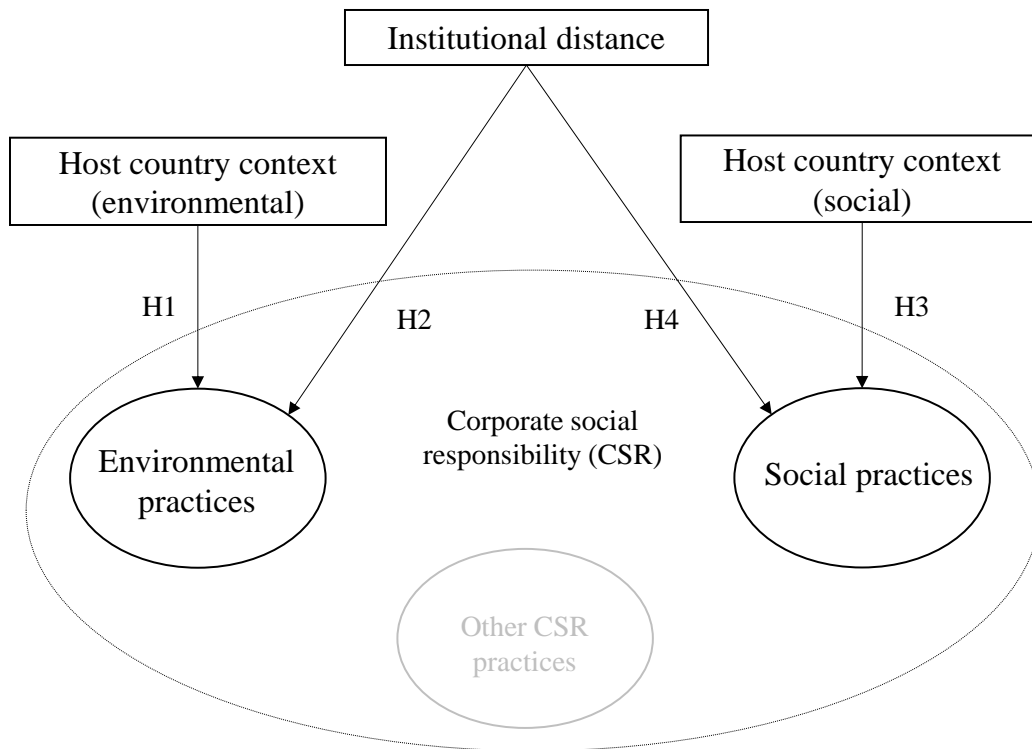


Fig.1. The conceptual framework

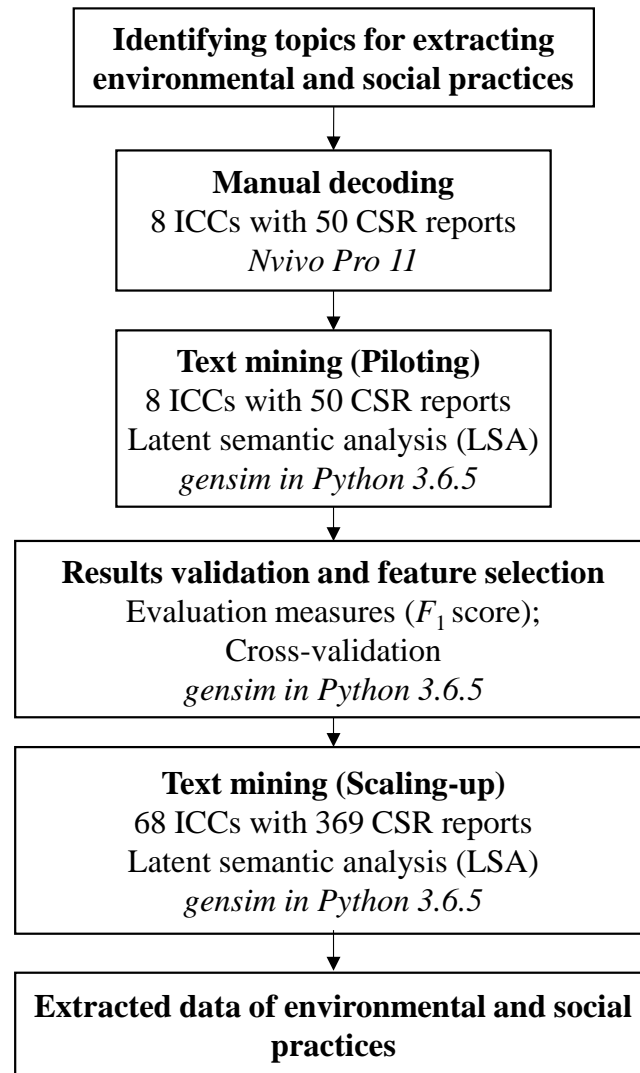


Fig.2. A latent semantic analysis (LSA)–assisted content analysis for extracting environmental and social practices data