

Corporate social responsibility ‘glocalisation’: Evidence from the international construction business

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Abstract

This paper aims (a) to enrich the CSR globalisation-localisation dyad (called ‘glocalisation’) by positioning it amid relevant theoretical discourses, and (b) to map out CSR glocalisation patterns by focusing on international construction as a revealing business sector. It does so by triangulating field studies with content analyses of 68 international construction companies’ (ICCs’) CSR reports over seven years (2011-2017) assisted by a text mining approach. By examining how categories of CSR issue are valued in different host countries, the research positions CSR glocalisation in a four-quadrant grid model to illustrate their relationships. It is found that ICCs adopt glocalisation to strike a balance between CSR globalisation/standardisation and localisation/contextualisation to enhance the consistency and efficiency of their CSR strategies while maintaining responsiveness to the local environment. Demystification of the concept of CSR glocalisation will encourage further theoretical debate and practical applications of CSR and sustainable development in the international construction business.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility (CSR), glocalisation, international construction, sustainable development

1. Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a contentious subject in academia and in the business world. Numerous definitions of CSR have been proposed since it was coined by Bowen (1953). For example, in its renewed EU strategy 2011-14 for CSR, the European Commission (EC) (2011, p. 6) defines it as “the responsibility of enterprises for their impact on society”. ISO 26000:2010 defines social responsibility as “the responsibility of the organisation with corporates included for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society and the environment, through transparent and ethical behaviour; takes into account the expectations of stakeholders; is in compliance with applicable law and consistent with international norms of behaviour; and is integrated throughout the organisation and practised in its relationships”. This echoes Carroll’s (1991) ‘Pyramid of CSR’, comprised of economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities, which illustrates that a socially responsible firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical and be a good corporate citizen. Dahlsrud (2008) identifies more than 37 definitions of CSR even without considering the academically derived definitions. Despite this lack of clarity, CSR has grown in prominence as a core business issue confronting industries and their organisations.

A conspicuous trend of CSR development is to place it on the global agenda (e.g. Michael, 2003; Murray, Dainty, & Murray, 2008). In recent years, with the increasing businesses in international markets, some social and environmental challenges and issues, such as human rights violations, global warming, and disease, become remarkable and universal (Scherer & Palazzo, 2008). Companies, multinational corporations (MNCs) in particular, need to minimise the negative impacts of their business in host countries and maximise its positive effects on society by integrating CSR as a core part of their international operations. As the classic internationalisation literature (e.g. Prahalad & Doz, 1987) asserts, standardised strategies can help achieve consistency, efficiency, and cost advantage. Hence, it is a natural strategy for an MNC to adopt a centrally standardised CSR programme across multiple local subsidiaries. Nevertheless, “one size does not fit all”. MNCs’ social and environmental concerns may differ across locations according to culture, social norms and value systems of local stakeholders (Bustamante, 2011). CSR activities need to be adapted accordingly. It is within this context CSR localisation is usually emphasised to capture MNCs’ CSR globalisation/localisation dilemma. In describing this dilemma, researchers (e.g. Kraidy, 2003; Maynard & Tian, 2004; Maynard, 2003; Roudometof, 2016) have inherited the term ‘glocalisation’ (Robertson, 1994) and adopted it in the CSR discourse (e.g. Jain & De Moya, 2013).

A general sentiment, however, is that clear understanding of CSR glocalisation is lacking. In discussing CSR, the terms of CSR ‘localisation’ and ‘globalisation’ are often, respectively, confused with CSR ‘customisation’ and ‘standardisation’, although they are to varying extents intertwined. While launching expensive CSR programmes, MNCs still struggle with questions such as “Why do we have to consider both CSR globalisation and localisation?”, “Where is a line drawn between a global and a local CSR strategy?” and “Should the host market profile determine our CSR glocalisation strategy?”. Clarification of CSR globalisation and localisation is urgently needed from both a theoretical perspective and a practical perspective in order to inform MNCs’ CSR glocalisation strategies.

The objectives of this research are twofold: (a) to enrich the concept of CSR glocalisation by positioning it amidst relevant theoretical discourses, e.g., CSR globalisation vs. localisation, and CSR customisation vs. standardisation; and (b) to map out companies’ CSR glocalisation patterns. In response to the calls for linking of CSR to specific industries/economies so that it is more manageable at both conceptual and operational levels, the empirical part (i.e. Objective [b]) of this research focuses on international construction as a heterogeneous and revealing business sector. The remainder of this paper is structured into six sections. Following this introduction, a literature review is conducted in Section 2 with a view to combing out theories relating to CSR glocalisation. Section 3 describes the context of international construction and related CSR issues. Section 4 provides a detailed description of the research methods, at the core of which is a mixed method approach to triangulate the qualitative and quantitative data gleaned from field studies, ICCs’ CSR reports, and other sources, augmented by an innovative, tailor-made text mining tool. Section 5 presents the analyses and findings, and our CSR “glocalisation” model is further discussed and elaborated in Section 6. Conclusion and limitations are presented in the last section.

2. Literature review

The ways in which MNCs model relationships between headquarters and subsidiaries, and with the contexts they operate in, referred to as ‘international strategies’ (Noorderhaven & Harzing, 2003), are important in helping MNCs achieve their strategic goals. The development of international strategy is far more complex than that of domestic strategy. In formulating an international strategy, MNCs must consider political systems, government policies, governance requirements, as well as the culture and language of multiple countries. In other words, MNCs are faced with incomplete cross-border integration, referred to as ‘semi-globalisation’ (Ghemawat, 2003). This implies neither extreme geographical fragmentation nor complete

integration of international and national markets (Arregle, Miller, Hitt, & Beamish, 2016; Arregle, Beamish, & Hébert, 2009; Rugman & Verbeke, 2004). Typically, one of the four generic international strategies is adopted: home replication, multidomestic, global or transnational strategy (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2002; Griffin & Pustay, 2007). These four categories of international strategy can be characterised against criteria put forward by Prahalad and Doz (1987) in their *integration-responsiveness grid* mapped to assess the relative importance of the demands faced by firms for global integration and local responsiveness.

While generic international strategies are characterised by the term *integration vs. responsiveness*, *standardisation vs. localisation* is most commonly employed to refer to functional areas (Pudelko & Harzing, 2007), such as marketing, human resource management, and CSR management. A controversial question on MNCs is the extent to which subsidiaries' practices resemble those of the parent company (standardisation) versus the extent to which they act and behave as local firms (localisation) (Edwards, Sanchez-Mangas, Jalette, Lavelle, & Minbaeva, 2016; Cheon, Cho, & Sutherland, 2007; Pudelko & Harzing, 2007). The standardisation and localisation strategies can be also explained in the convergence-divergence debate (e.g. Jamali & Neville, 2011; Kolk, 2005; Pudelko & Harzing, 2007). Standardisation is generally understood as implementation of strategies in line with management practices employed by MNC headquarters, reflecting the country-of-origin effect (Pudelko & Harzing, 2007) and aligning with the concept of 'convergence'; a means of implementing superior, universal form (Jamali & Neville, 2011; Budhwar, Varma, & Patel, 2016). Localisation, on the other hand, considers the inherent diversity of each international market and treats subsidiaries as 'cultural beings' whose considerations and behaviours are framed by the cultural context in which they are embedded (Singh, 2011). Applying the concept of 'divergence', cultural values, path dependencies, and the advantages of differentiation act upon the extent of localisation (Jamali & Neville, 2011).

The distinct considerations consistent with the "convergence-divergence" debates could be characterised and integrated into the "glocal" argument. A portmanteau of 'globalisation' and 'localisation', the term 'glocalisation' was advanced by Robertson (1995) as a refinement of 'globalisation', referring to "the simultaneity -the co-presence- of both universalising and particularising tendencies" (Robertson, 1997). The term 'glocal' is defined in the Oxford Dictionary as "reflecting or characterised by both local and global considerations" and glocality is defined as experiencing the global locally or through local lenses (Roudometof, 2016). Originally used in the context of adaptation of farming techniques to local conditions (Robertson, 1994), glocalisation is further applied and perceived in the context of international

business, as “the process whereby global corporations tailor products and marketing to particular local circumstances to meet variations in consumer demand” (Maynard, 2003). To unpack the glocalisation of an organisation, Drori, Höllerer, and Walgenbach (2014) attempt to specify “the dimensions of the complexity” based on ‘what’, ‘who’ and ‘how’, as well as “axes of multidimensionality”, such as vertical axe (the difference among hierarchically nested entities), horizontal axe (the difference between equivalent entities) and temporal axe (differences in era or stage of process). In this regard, glocalisation refers to “the duality of sameness and variance, thus inherently a catchphrase for complexity and multidimensionality” (Drori et al., 2014).

Amid the CSR agenda, a glocal strategy aims to create an appropriate balance by implementing a universal CSR strategy in a locally sensitive manner with a profound understanding of local contexts and societal needs (Jain & De Moya, 2013). Similarly, a CSR glocalisation strategy combines a global CSR strategy, viewed as a homogeneous CSR strategy managed and controlled by the headquarters of MNCs (Muller, 2006), with a local CSR strategy, responsive to the local context and local stakeholders (Muller, 2006; Duran & Bajo, 2014). Just as Prahalad and Doz (1987) acknowledge that few businesses are totally global, similarly few are totally local; thus, CSR practices are implemented neither completely globally nor completely locally. While a global CSR strategy maximises consistency and efficiency and ensures that CSR efforts are centrally coordinated and integrated, a local approach provides a means of respecting the local context and local stakeholders (Muller, 2006). A glocal approach to CSR integrates the best practices of global and local approaches and is therefore superior to both (Jain & De Moya, 2013; Maynard & Tian, 2004).

However, existing literature on CSR glocalisation strategy regards CSR as a single practice, ignoring the dissimilarities among different types of CSR. Carroll (2016) concluded that there are four empirically interrelated, but conceptually independent components of CSR including economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities. Xia et al. (2018) summarised CSR dimensions from deductive content analysis to involve social, environmental and economic dimensions. The European Commission also emphasised the aspects of CSR to respond to social, environmental, ethical, human rights and consumer concerns (EC, 2011). The glocal strategy regarding multiple types of CSR, with stakeholders’ expectations and social concerns, need to be further explored.

3. The context of international construction

The construction industry offers a unique context in which to investigate CSR globalisation. It contains many paradoxes for CSR (Lu, Ye, Flanagan, & Ye, 2015). Construction by nature is socially responsible, making significant contributions to a nation's economy and creating many jobs (Alaghbari, Al-Sakkaf, & Sultan, 2019). It helps to determine the nature, function, and appearance of construction products, such as buildings, roads, and bridges, all of which influence human health, economic activities, social behaviour, cultural identity, and civic pride (Pearce, 2003; Lu, Ye, Chau & Flanagan, 2018). Based on which, Murray et al. (2008, p. 9) emphasise that "it is the impact that the industry's products have on society's well-being that provides the most compelling reasons for raising the profile of CSR". However, construction is consistently alleged to be slow in embracing CSR (Lin, Ho, & Shen, 2018). Construction projects are disruptive (creating noise and causing congestion on roads, for example), and produce waste and pollution, which can harm the ecosystem. In addition, to survive in the competitive sector, construction companies sometimes sacrifice societal well-being, resulting in disordered working environments that fail to meet occupational health and safety standards (Lu, Ye, Flanagan, & Ye, 2015).

Today, construction is a significant component of international business, while international organisations such as the World Bank and regional development banks sponsor construction projects as a means of achieving their institutional goals. To give an example of the scale of this business, *Engineering News-Record (ENR)* statistics show that the top 250 international construction companies (ICCs) lodged US\$482.4 billion in contracting revenue in 2017 from projects outside their home countries, along with US\$1043.1 billion in revenue from domestic projects (Tulacz & Reina, 2018). Unlike manufactured goods, construction products (e.g. a road or a dam) cannot be designed and constructed in advance and sold 'off-the-shelf'; rather, they are bespoke, purposely designed and individually constructed for a client, and a final product is fixed in a locality to make enduring impacts, positive or otherwise (Ye, Lu, Flanagan, & Ye, 2017). The construction industry is thus widely perceived as heterogeneous in considering CSR issues.

International construction markets provide new possibilities and insights for CSR issues. Hill (2013) identifies common ethical issues in this context: "employment practices, human rights, environmental issues, corruption, and the moral obligation of MNCs". The widely adopted global standards for sustainability reporting in the Global Reporting Initiative's (GRI's) Construction and Real Estate Sector Supplement (CRESS) reflect three categories of CSR issue: economic, environmental and social issues, with the latter involving several sub-categories,

including labour practices, human rights, society and product responsibility. Lu et al. (2015) explored the trends and prospects of CSR disclosure in international construction businesses, finding that the three most frequently reported CSR indicators are ‘emissions, effluents, and waste’, ‘community’, and ‘occupational health and safety’.

These issues emerge in contexts characterised by different social concerns. Husted and Allen (2006) indicate that a distinction between CSR issues, with some able to be considered global, such issues regarding human rights and environmental protection, while others are local, existing according to the needs and contexts of each community. For example, needs to improve basic living conditions, to build or update infrastructure, or address the AIDS crisis are powerful in many African countries, but do not form any part of the CSR agenda in some other places. Similarly, Bustamante (2011) introduces the two kinds of CSR issues: issues are concerned globally, and those are characterised by a strong cultural grounding.

4. Research Methods

Mixed-method research is adopted in this paper to demystify the concept of CSR glocalisation. CSR reports as disclosed by ICCs were used as the main means of understanding how these ICCs interpret and practise CSR strategies in different localities, facilitated by content analysis combining a manual coding approach with a text mining approach. Patterns of CSR glocalisation are presented by exploring how different categories of CSR issues are practised and valued in the contexts of host countries described by the Human Development Index (HDI). The authors also conducted interviews in the UK, Africa, and Southeast Asia to collect data to be triangulated with the CSR report analyses. The details of the mixed methods are described as follows.

4.1 Extracting data using content analysis

Data for the content analysis are from the CSR/sustainability reports of ICCs. ICC sampling was determined by referencing two sources: the top 250 international contractors (TIC) lists compiled by the ENR and the GRI’s Sustainability Disclosure Database. Some ICCs were excluded due to lack of CSR /sustainability reports, with 68 ICCs remaining for CSR report collection. CSR/sustainability reports of the selected ICCs over seven years (2011-2017) were retrieved from their websites or the GRI’s Database. Not all ICCs disclosed their CSR reports every year. In total, 369 CSR/sustainability reports were collected for the content analysis.

An analytical framework was developed to guide the content analysis (see Table 1), mainly according to the GRI’s CRESS Guidelines and further specified based on the CSR reports. There are thus 6 categories with 15 sub-categories of indicators in the analytical framework.

Table 1: The analytical framework for decoding CSR reports

Code	Category	Sub-category	Keywords
EC	Economic initiatives	EC1- Job creation; EC2-Supply chain responsibility	job creation; supply chain
LA	Labour practice	LA1- Training and education; LA2- Occupational Health and Safety	training; health; safety; occupational
PR	Product responsibility	PR1- Quality of products	quality
SO	Social initiatives	SO1- Local community communication; SO2-Donation; SO3-Disaster relief; SO4-Poverty caring; SO5-Medical caring; SO6-Youth and education	community; donation; disaster; poverty; hunger; disease; medical; disability; children; student; sport
HR	Human rights	HR1-Non-discrimination	discrimination
EN	Environmental initiatives	EN1-Energy and carbon emission; EN2-Biodiversity conservation; EN3-Waste management	carbon emission; biodiversity; ecosystem waste

The steps of content analysis are shown as follows: (1) Coding reports manually. A total of 50 CSR reports from eight ICCs are chosen to be interpreted with the assistance of qualitative data analysis software *NVivo Pro 11*. Texts were coded according to host country names, then, coded texts were classified into the six categories in the analytical framework. (2) Preparing documents for text mining. Similar to the manual coding approach, texts were firstly extracted from the CSR/sustainability reports according to country names. Each text describes possible CSR practices of ICCs in one host country. The texts are cleaned to be “bags of words” by eliminating stop words such as function words (e.g. is, having, when, etc.), pronoun (e.g. it, you, etc.) and some symbols (e.g. *, \$, @, etc.). (3) Identifying keywords for each category (see Table 1). (4) Calculating semantic similarity scores between keywords and bags of words. One text mining approach, latent semantic analysis (LSA), is applied in this step by representing words as a vector and comparing the cosine of the angle between the vectors to find the similarity of the words (Dumais, 2004). This process was implemented on top of a well-known LSA software *gensim* (version 3.4, available at: <https://github.com/RaRe-Technologies/gensim>) in Python 3.6.5. The English vector space model for *gensim* is *fastText* (available at: <https://fasttext.cc/docs/en/english-vectors.html>), which was pre-trained by Facebook Research (Mikolov, Grave, Bojanowski, Puhersch, & Joulin, 2017). (5) Summarizing semantic similarity scores between words to doc-to-category relatedness scores. Maximize calculation method is applied to indicate that once one keyword is mentioned, the documents

are relevant to the category involving that keyword. A high doc-to-category relatedness score indicates the implementation of CSR practices in that category in a specific country. (6) Validating text mining results based on the results of the manual coding approach, and converting doc-to-category relatedness scores into “1-0” scores to indicate whether that category was actually mentioned or not.

To establish the reliability of results, precision and recall can be measured (as shown in Equation 1 and 2) by examining true positives (TP), false positives (FP), true negatives (TN) and false negatives (FN) (Salama & El-Gohary, 2013). In this research, precision expresses the proportion of the results (marked with 1) identified by text mining which are exactly those identified by the manual coding approach, while recall expresses the ability of the text mining method to find all the relevant instances identified by the manual coding approach. By considering both precision and recall, F_1 scores were proposed as a measure of a test’s accuracy (see Equation 3). The validation results present the F_1 score to be 0.8502, which makes the text mining results relatively reliable for the following analysis. A qualitative approach is also needed to ensure its accuracy.

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

$$F_1 = 2 \times \frac{precision \times recall}{precision + recall} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

By removing items with no CSR practices and items with the same home and host countries, there remain 825 items describing CSR practices in different host countries. An excerpt of the results of content analysis is shown in Table 2. Each line is one item, describing CSR practices in 6 categories for one ICC in one specific host country, “1” represents ICCs did that category of CSR practices, and “0” represents they did not conduct.

Table 2: An excerpt of the results of content analysis

ICC No. *	Country of origin	Host country	Economic practice	Environmental practice	Labour practice	Human rights	Product responsibility	Social practice
1	Spain	Canada	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	Spain	USA	1	0	1	0	1	0
1	Spain	Mexico	0	1	1	0	1	1
1	Spain
2	Germany	UK	1	1	1	0	1	1
2	Germany	Qatar	1	1	1	0	0	0
2	Germany	Australia	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	Germany	South Africa	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	Germany
3	USA	Canada	0	1	1	0	0	0
3	USA	Haiti	0	0	0	0	0	1
3	USA	Angola	1	0	1	0	0	1
3	USA
4	France	Canada	0	1	0	0	0	0
4	France	Russia	1	1	1	0	0	1
4	France	Japan	0	1	0	0	0	0
4	France	Nepal	0	0	0	0	0	1
...
68	Indonesia	Algeria	1	0	1	0	0	0

Notes: Totally, 68 ICCs are involved in the dataset. Each line is one item, describing CSR practice implementation in four categories for one ICC in one specific host country. There are 825 items in the dataset.

4.2 Sampled host markets

Data of various host markets are reorganised from the results of content analysis, which comprise 56 host countries as the sample for the following analysis (shown in Table 3). The number of ICCs conducting CSR practices in each host country could be counted (represented with N_0). Similarly, the number of ICCs conducting CSR practices in each category for each host country (N_i , $i=1,2,\dots, 6$) could be counted (see Table 3). Taking the United Kingdom in Table 3 as the example, there are 36 ICCs implementing CSR practices in the United Kingdom ($N_0=36$), of which, 17 ICCs implement economic practices ($N_1=17$), 22 implement environmental practices ($N_2=22$), etc.

Table 3: An excerpt of sampled host countries

No.	Host countries	The number of ICCs conducting CSR practices (N_0)	The number of ICCs conducting CSR practices in each category (N_i)					
			EC (N_1)	EN (N_2)	LA (N_3)	HR (N_4)	PR (N_5)	SO (N_6)
1	United Kingdom	36	17	22	23	2	13	18
2	India	31	10	6	19	1	7	18
3	China	28	6	15	13	0	11	13
4	Singapore	27	6	8	22	0	11	16
5	Australia	27	9	14	20	2	11	15
...

Total	56	825					
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Notes: EC, EN, LA, HR, PR, and SO represents economic initiatives, environmental initiatives, labour practices, human rights, product responsibility and social initiatives, respectively. (Shown in Table 1)

4.3 Measurements for CSR glocalisation patterns

Patterns of CSR glocalisation are presented by exploring how different categories of CSR issue are practised and valued in host country contexts. How the CSR issues are valued can be described by proportion (p_i) for each category, while the contexts of host countries are indicated by the HDI.

4.3.1 Proportion (p_i) for each category

Proportion (p_i) for each category is calculated (see Equation 4) to indicate ICCs’ preferences for specific categories of CSR issues in host countries.

$$p_i = \frac{N_i}{N_0} \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, 6) \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

where N_0 represents the number of ICCs who implement CSR practices in each host country; N_i represents the number of ICCs who implement CSR practices in the specific category (i) in each host country.

Back to the example of the United Kingdom, among the 36 ICCs implementing CSR practices, 61% (22 out of 36) of ICCs mentioned environmental practices, 64% (23 out of 36) mentioned labour practices while only 6% (2 out of 36) mentioned human rights practices.

4.3.2 Human development index (HDI)

The HDI, created by the United Nations to comprehensively measure critical dimensions of human development, was applied in this research to measure the development levels and contexts of host countries. Three dimensions are used to assess the human development, including (a) health, assessed by life expectancy at birth, (b) education, measured by mean of years of schooling and expected years of schooling, and (c) economic dimension, measured by gross national income per capita. Each country has scores ranging from 0 to 1 based on the three dimensions, with a higher HDI score indicating higher human development level. The comprehensive approach of the HDI means that it looks not only at human development in the context of economic growth but also by considering national policy choices. It is thus regarded as a proxy to describe the context for CSR practices.

5. Data analysis and findings

5.1 Patterns of CSR practices in host markets

As mentioned above, patterns of CSR practices can be described by presenting proportions for each category of CSR in different host contexts indicated by HDI. By presenting all the six categories, patterns for the conduct of six categories of CSR practices are shown in Figure 1.

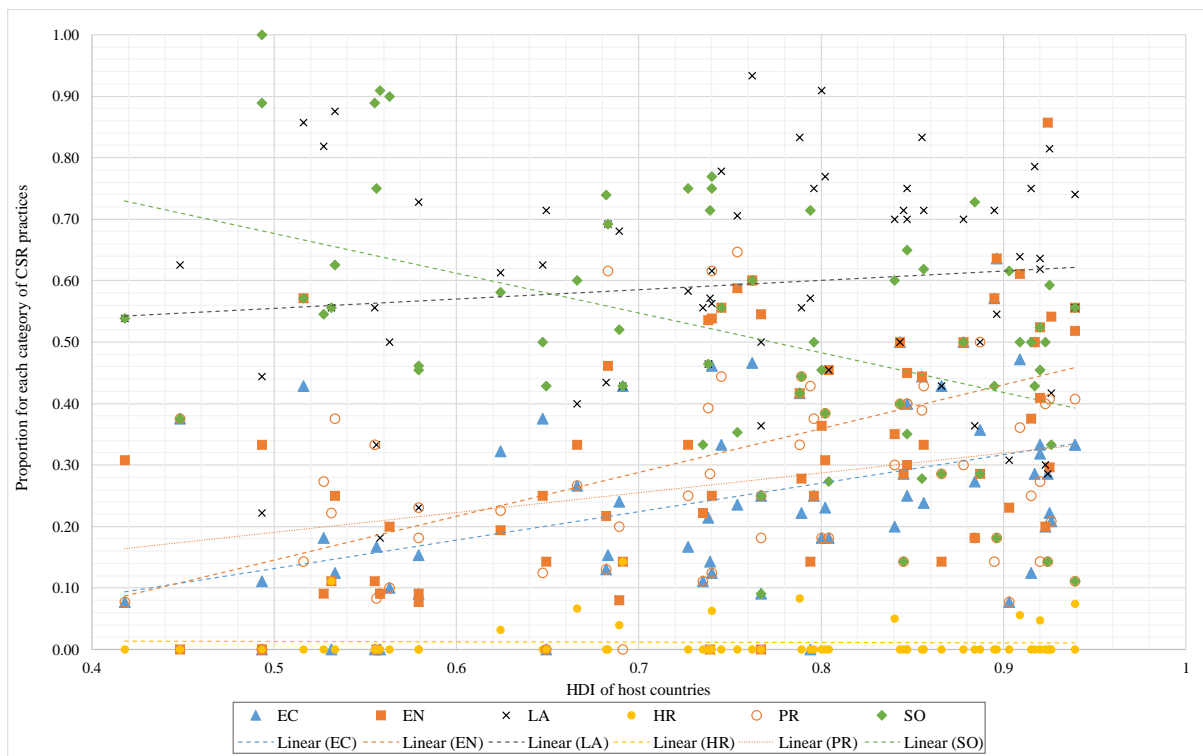


Figure 1: Patterns for the conduct of different categories of CSR practice in host countries

Figure 1 presents different patterns and distributions for different categories of CSR practice (see the trend lines in Figure 1) in international markets (over 56 host countries). This indicates that CSR issues matter in the conduct of CSR practices in overseas markets. The different categories of CSR practice are analysed separately.

5.2 Patterns of human rights in host markets

Figure 2, which is derived from Figure 1 by only demonstrating the category of human rights, shows that human rights practices are seldom conducted in the host markets due to the low proportion.

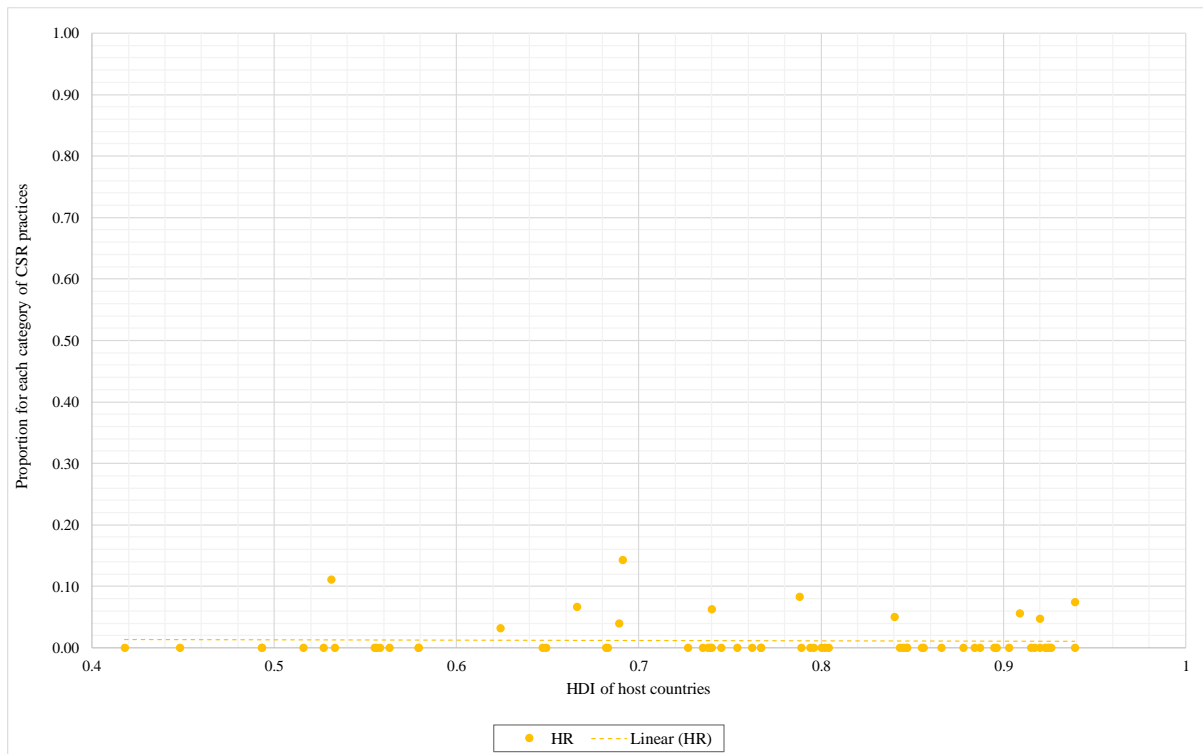


Figure 2: Patterns for conducting HR practices in host countries

To explore whether or not this category is seldom valued by ICCs, the content analysis approach as described above was used again but the step of extracting texts according to country names was skipped. The results (Results 2) thus reflect CSR practices of the ICCs in both international markets and their domestic market. More than 80% of the ICCs (56 out of 68) disclosed their human rights practices (coded by keywords “discrimination”, and “human rights”). By comparing the two results (the results shown in Figure 2 and Results 2), it is indicated that human rights practices are regarded as the practices/guidelines for ICCs, not for specific countries.

Many of the ICCs mentioned that their human rights practices were demonstrated through their commitment to the principles of the *United Nations Global Compact*. In this regard, human rights practices are always embedded in the code of business conduct, as described in the CSR reports. For example, Amec Foster Weeler showed its “commitment to human rights in Code of Business Conduct” in their sustainability reports in 2014. Hochtief indicated “... human rights standards have been incorporated into the Hochtief Code of Conduct” in their sustainability reports. Some ICCs also endorsed global standards on human rights, such as “the United Nation’s Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights”, and “the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights”.

5.3 Patterns of product responsibility in host markets

Figure 3 is derived from Figure 1 by only demonstrating the category of product responsibility.

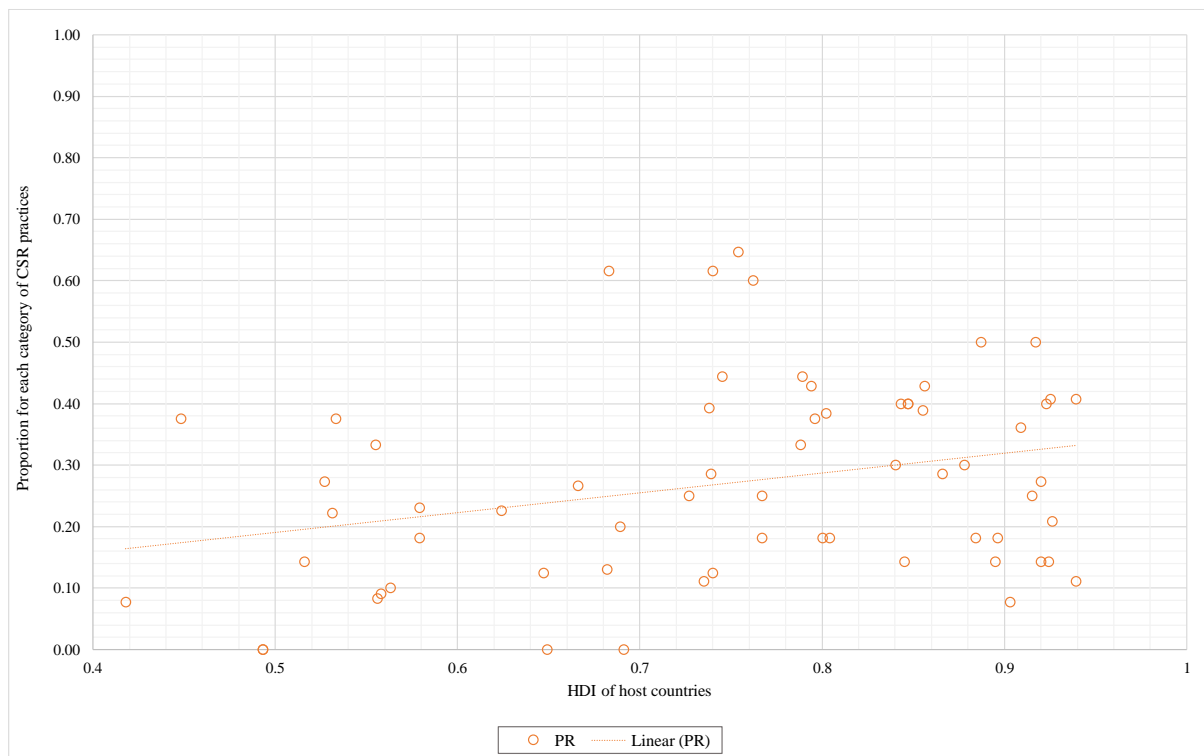


Figure 3: Patterns for conducting PR practices in host countries

The results of content analysis (coded by the keyword “quality”) show not only initiatives for product quality, but also the quality of life, air quality, safety quality, etc. In fact, product quality was mentioned relatively less by ICCs in the specific host countries, as it

“accompanies all projects regardless of their characteristics and geographic location”. (Company 19, Annual report, 2015)

Compared with the category of human rights, quality is regarded as a basic guideline, applied all over the world and emphasised by ICCs. CSR reports mention “...to help achieve the highest quality standards in every environment” (Company 44, Annual report, 2011), and “the Group has always set itself a standard of ‘Each and Every Detail of Each and Every Project’ in terms of quality” (Company 48, CSR report, 2015).

The quality management system/ quality control system is applied by more than half of the sampled ICCs to address their product responsibility practices, and is largely based on *ISO 9001* and other applicable government and industry standards. For example,

“Our company creates and promotes Quality Management System complying with Quality Management System (ISO9001)...” (Company 49, CSR report, 2012); and
“(Company 23) has implemented a Quality Management System (QMS) conforming to ISO 9001....” (Company 23, CSR report, 2016)

Product quality is regarded as a basic guideline for ICCs, although some emphasised it if a project was awarded or highly rated on an aspect of project quality.

5.4 Patterns of labour practices in host markets

Labour practices were emphasised in almost all the host countries. In 42 (out of 56) host countries, more than 50% of ICCs mentioned and demonstrated this category, as shown in Figure 4.

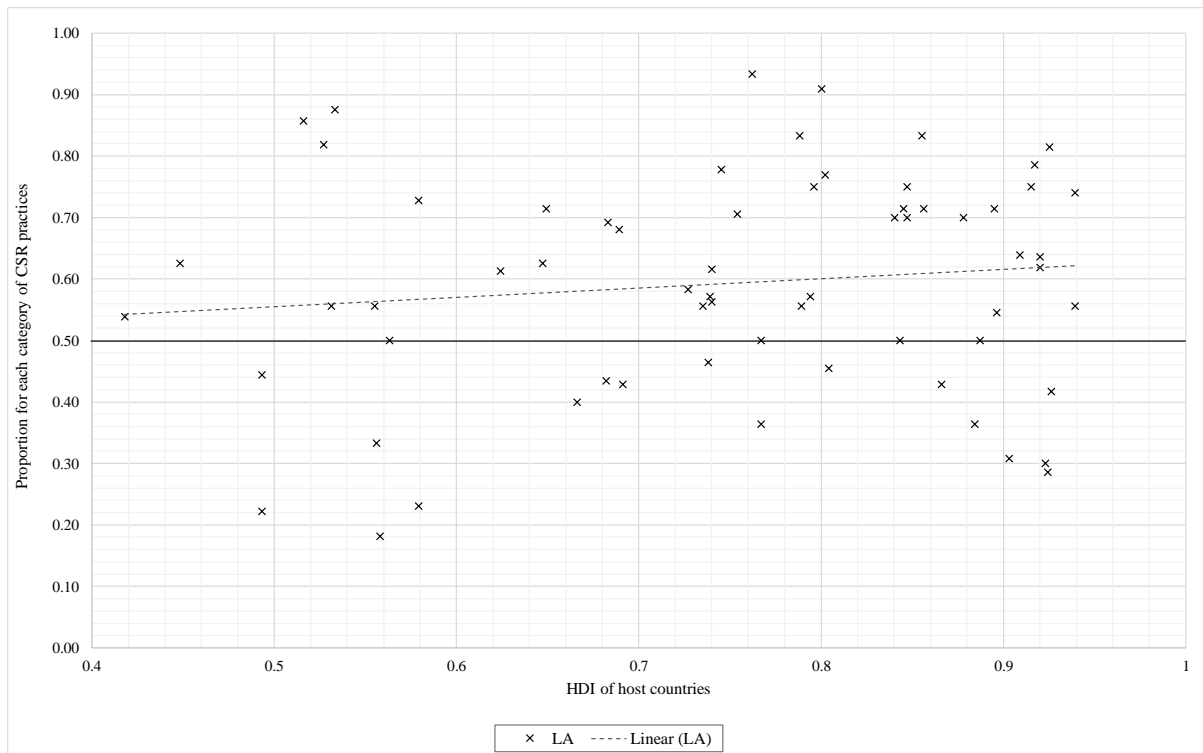


Figure 4: Patterns for conducting LA practices in host countries

Interestingly, although the categories of human rights and labour practices are both concerned with employees as stakeholders, they present completely different pictures. Labour practices are always regarded as best practices to be conducted and reported in response to either compliance pressure or instrumental demands. Notably, by exploring the sub-categories

of labour practices, training and education and health and safety issues were both found to be highly regarded in all host countries.

5.5 Patterns of environmental initiatives in host markets

Environmental initiatives were demonstrated to a relatively less extent in countries with low HDI, shown in the trend line in Figure 5 (developed from Figure 1 by only demonstrating environmental practices), which reveals that the proportion of environmental practices is more likely to be greater with the increase of HDI scores of host countries.

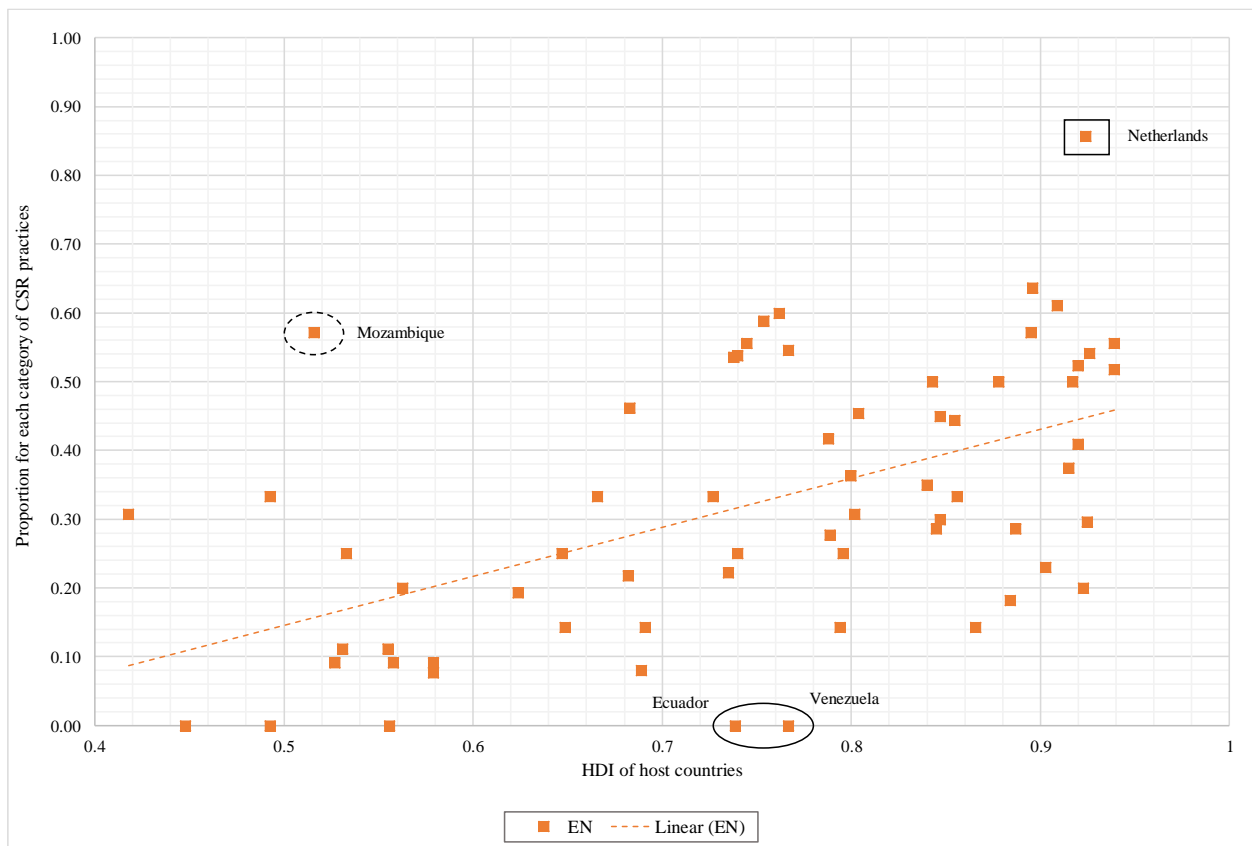


Figure 5: Patterns for conducting EN practices in host countries

Regression analysis was thus used to explore whether the implementation of environmental initiatives is related to HDI of the host countries. The proportion of environmental practices (p_2) calculated based on Equation 4 was as the dependent variable, and the HDI of host countries was regarded as the independent variable. The same analysis process was also conducted for the sub-categories of environmental initiatives, specifically

carbon emission, biodiversity and waste management, to further explore the specific implementation of environmental initiatives. The regression results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Testing results of environmental initiatives and HDI of host countries

Dependent variables	p_2	p_{21}	p_{22}	p_{23}
Intercept	-0.2292*	-0.3286***	-0.0066	-0.0458
HDI	0.7412***	0.6928***	0.0834	0.3074**
Goodness of Fit	***	***	-	**
R-square	0.3673	0.4507	0.0358	0.1249
Adjusted R-square	0.3556	0.4405	0.0180	0.1087
Observations	56	56	56	56

Note: *, **, and *** indicates significance at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, respectively.

The estimated value of the coefficient of HDI is 0.7412, which is significant at the 0.1% level, showing a strong positive correlation between HDI of host countries and the proportion of environmental initiatives (p_2). Which is to say, in the host countries with higher HDI, ICCs have more opportunities to conduct CSR practices related to environmental issues.

The testing results for sub-categories of environmental practice reveals slight disparities as shown in Table 4. The results present positive correlations between the HDI of host countries and the proportions of carbon emission (p_{21}) and waste management (p_{23}). In the countries with higher HDI, the compliance pressures are relatively higher, as described by one interviewee: “the related (environmental) regulations in the UK are stricter...”. Some CSR reports also demonstrated strict regulatory environments, such as Australia and Germany. No significant relationship is found between the HDI of host countries and the proportion of biodiversity (p_{22}). Initiatives for biodiversity were more likely to be conducted when the construction sites were located in a special environment. For example,

“(The project) is located within the Prairie Pothole Region (Canada), a critical habitat ... we created a series of 3,960 maps and updates to delineate the buffer zones that were then used to protect sensitive species habitats, such as the nests of the black tern and ferruginous hawk.” (Company 3, Sustainability report, 2015)

*“[Company 29 Mexico] ... contributed thus to preserve the country’s biodiversity and avoided the loss of the genetic diversity of *Erythrina Americana*.” (Company 29, Sustainability report, 2016)*

There are some outliers for this regression analysis. For example, in the Netherlands, the proportion of ICCs conducting environmental practices was extremely high, above the average (see the point marked with a solid box in Figure 5); in the Latin American countries of

Ecuador and Venezuela, ICCs never mentioned their environmental practices, although these two countries have a relatively high HDI (see the points marked with a solid circle in Figure 5). Mozambique is the opposite: although it has a low HDI, ICCs tried to conduct and emphasise environmental practices (see the point marked with a dotted circle in Figure 5). These outliers suggest that not only the host countries affect the implementation of environmental practices but also the home country.

5.6 Patterns of economic initiatives in host markets

Figure 6 also shows an obvious rising tendency of the conduct of economic practices with the increase of host country HDI.

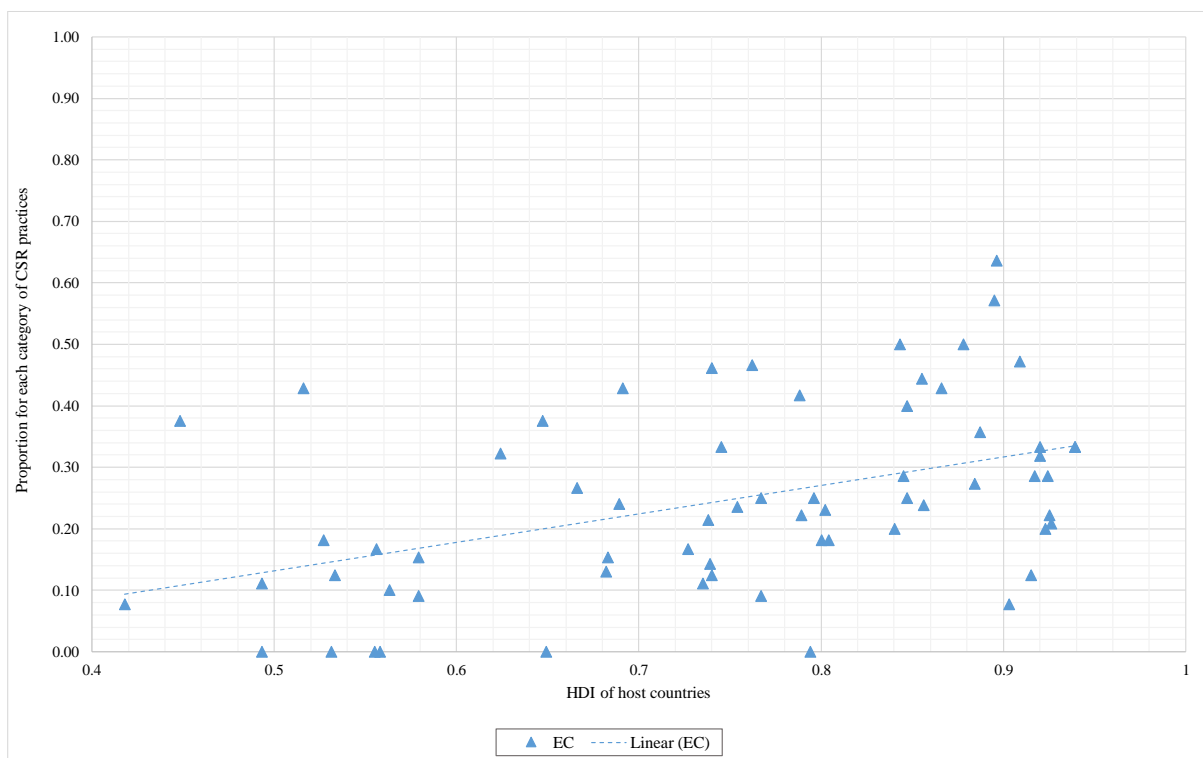


Figure 6: Patterns for conducting EC practices in host countries

Similar to environmental practices, regression analysis was used to explore the relationship between the implementation of economic initiatives, including job creation and supply chain responsibility, and HDI of the host countries. The proportion of economic initiatives (p_1) (job creation- p_{11} and supply chain responsibility- p_{12}) was calculated following Equation 4 as the dependent variable, and the HDI of host countries was regarded as the independent variable. The regression results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Testing results of economic initiatives and HDI of host countries

Dependent variables	p_1	p_{11}	p_{12}
Intercept	-0.1199	-0.0516	-0.1239*
HDI	0.4834***	0.3020**	0.2949***
Goodness of Fit	***	**	***
R-square	0.2505	0.1333	0.2609
Adjusted R-square	0.2367	0.1172	0.2472
Observations	56	56	56

Note: *, **, and *** indicates significance at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, respectively.

The testing results show a positive correlation between HDI of host countries and the proportion of economic initiatives significant at the 0.1% level, specifically, the proportion of job creation is significant at the 1% level and the proportion of supply chain responsibility is significant at the 0.1% level. In other words, in countries with higher HDI, ICCs are more likely to conduct economic practices, especially practices regarding supply chain responsibility. Interestingly, the results are distant from common sense drawn from local content requirements, which are always used by resource-rich countries (always with relatively low HDI) as a part of broad policy interventions to strengthen the productive structure of a particular economy (Tordo, Warner, Manzano, & Anouti, 2013), by using local materials, local staff, and local suppliers. However, it seems that developed countries also need to prosper the economy by increasing their employment rate. Supply chain responsibility is more valued in developed countries. For example,

“In the UK, several of our contractors helped establish the Supply Chain Sustainability School to promote a common approach and understanding for suppliers and subcontractors to address environmental and social sustainability issues.” (Company 3, Sustainability report, 2013)

5.7 Patterns of social initiatives in host markets

Social initiatives were widely implemented and reported in almost all the host countries listed in Table 3. The trend line shown in Figure 7 presents a descending trend in the proportion of ICCs for conducting social practices with the increase of host country HDI.

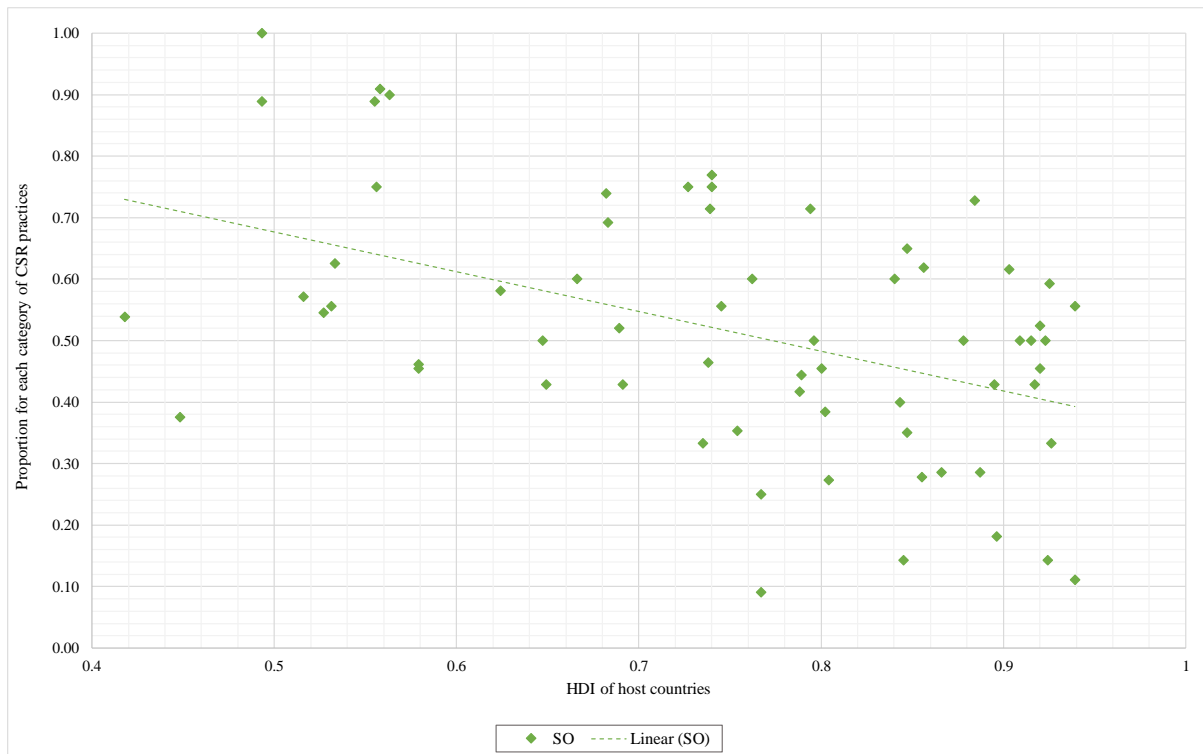


Figure 7: Patterns for conducting SO practices in host countries

With regards to sub-categories of social practices, disaster-relief initiatives were always conducted as the first priority when there were disasters in the host countries. This always occurred in disaster-prone countries, such as Haiti, Thailand, Japan, Nepal, and the Philippines. The most common approach for ICCs in disaster relief is to donate; thus donations and disaster-relief are always reported at the same time. Initiatives related to construction businesses were always conducted for disaster relief as well. For example,

“In April 2016 a major earthquake hit three regions in Ecuador. We sent a team to undertake urgent structural assessments.” (Company 44, Annual report, 2017)

“In the aftermath of Nepal’s massive earthquake in April 2015, our employees ... help run a disaster-risk management workshop... to provide technical evaluation of Nepal’s infrastructure” (Company 34, Sustainability report, 2015)

Poverty issues were less frequently mentioned by ICCs. Some related initiatives were conducted to “answer to hunger” or as “relief for the poor” in some African countries, such as Uganda and Kenya, where the issue of clean water was highly valued. Medical care practices

were always provided to the countries lacking suitable medical infrastructure, such as Ethiopia, Angola, Mozambique, Nigeria, and India.

Issues of youth and education were widely demonstrated in countries all over the world, although some disparities existed. The health of children was taken into account in some African countries, such as Angola and Morocco. For example,

“In Angola, developing an action, in partnership, of prevention in the health area, through screening for contagious diseases involving close to 1,300 children and young people of school age.” (Company 29, Sustainability report, 2012)

“Through the Youth Morocco Program, (Company 26) is providing a number of goods to orphanages and children’s welfare facilities in El Jadida region.” (Company 26, Sustainability report, 2012)

Basic education of children was valued in African, Asian and Latin American countries. Many initiatives related to construction businesses were conducted, such as building schools and providing electricity. Issues of youth and education were also valued by ICCs in developed countries. Related initiatives include healthcare for children, education initiatives such as protecting environment, sports, and skills/graduation programs for students.

Other initiatives related to the general issues of the community, which are not specific to one sub-category, were frequently reported. These included enhancing living standards, building infrastructure, culture communication, and communicating with local communities. Given the controversial nature of the construction industry, communication with local communities is necessary for the conduct of projects. One interviewee operating in the UK mentioned: “We need to claim to the local community that safety is ensured for our project. If there is no effective communication with the local community, we cannot even be permitted [to conduct projects] or get the license.” This was also mentioned in several ICCs’ reports. For example:

“In overseas construction sites in Morocco, Singapore, Mongolia, and Qatar, the company received thank you notes from residents for its environmental remediation, renovation of education facilities and sincere communications with the communities.” (Company 10, Sustainability report, 2015)

6. Discussion

The analyses above present interesting patterns of CSR practice based on the contexts of host countries. CSR issues can be categorised into two global and local issues which are assumed to shape CSR glocalisation strategy, and these patterns.

On one hand, globality of issues is considered. There is an inherent incentive for companies to follow universal principles or hypernorms (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1999; Miska, Witt & Stahl, 2016), such as those relating to human rights. A uniform approach is preferred by companies with regards to such issues. Issues with influential global impacts are also assumed to be global issues manifesting universal standards (Miska, Witt & Stahl, 2016), such as occupational health and safety, which are largely related to the business operations and are usually valued by global stakeholder groups for a standardised approach (Bustamante, 2011) or for striving to adopt best practices, which are universally valid and applicable (Pudelko & Harzing, 2007).

On the other hand, some issues “are characterised by a strong local cultural grounding and which would require the adaptation to the local environment” (Bustamante, 2011). Some local social issues including disaster relief, medical care, and education are examples. CSR adopted under the social pressure aimed at satisfying stakeholders’ expectations or special societal needs in different countries (Roszkowska-Menkes & Aluchna, 2017). Compliance pressures in specific countries, including laws, regulative frameworks, or standards, also described as coercive isomorphism pressure (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Roszkowska-Menkes & Aluchna, 2017), require local modifications of some CSR approaches, whether the issues are global or local. For example, carbon emissions are a global concern, but different levels of compliance pressures exist in different countries; local employment and supply chain management are examples of local and specific issues.

Drawn from the global vs. local considerations, the four-quadrant grid is developed to describe CSR glocalisation, with four kinds of CSR strategies involved: globalisation, standardisation, localisation, and contextualisation. Patterns of CSR practices in the six categories described above can be explained using this grid, as shown in Figure 8.

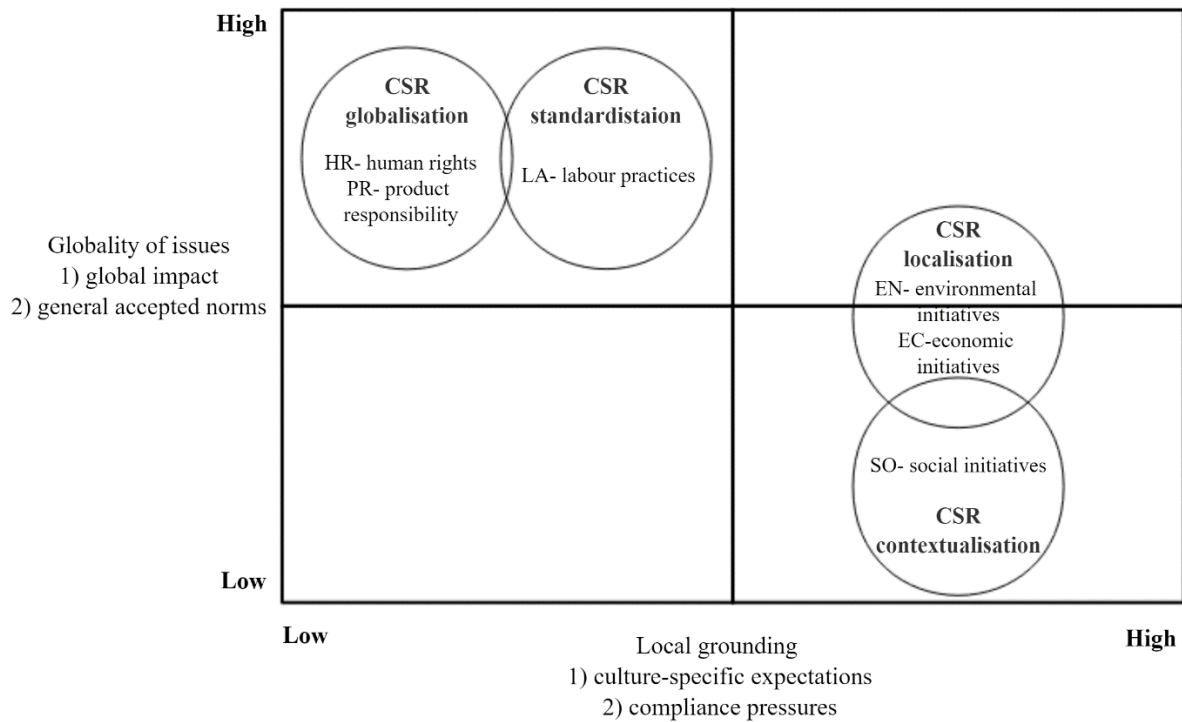


Figure 8: CSR glocalisation patterns: fitting CSR issues into the grid

CSR globalisation describes CSR issues that are of global concern as generally accepted norms, regarded as moral rights or general standards that are followed by all societies. Such issues are usually with all projects and operations regardless of their characteristics or geographic location. Human rights and product responsibility practices can be treated into the type, and they are emphasised in general terms in reports rather than being described as specific initiatives for a host country. For example, human rights practices are always embedded in the code of business conduct for the whole company, and a quality management system/ quality control system is applied to address overall product responsibility. Therefore, CSR globalisation presents a pattern that CSR issues are seldom mentioned in specific host countries.

CSR standardisation presents a pattern that CSR issues are emphasised in almost all the host countries. Different from CSR globalisation issues, standardisation issues are of concern globally but usually respond to either the compliance pressure or instrumental demands. Issues related to labour practices, specifically training and occupational health and safety, follow the type. For example, labour practices have global impacts and therefore present a CSR pattern that is highly regarded in all host countries and always regarded as best practices to be conducted and reported.

CSR localisation describes CSR issues which are of specific concern to host countries reflected in specific local laws, standards, or policies. For example, government policies to recruit local employees and develop a local supply chain shape the pattern of this type of CSR practice. Although environmental issues are of a global concern, environmental regulations and situations differ among host countries; therefore, environmental practices also follow the CSR localisation strategy. Patterns for CSR practices of this type largely depend on host countries. It is tested by regression models that the conduct of localised CSR practices (indicated by economic and environmental practices) is positively related to the developing levels of host countries.

CSR contextualisation is indicated by CSR issues which are characterised by a strong cultural grounding or strong societal needs, such as social issues. Different from the CSR localisation, contextualised CSR practices do not comply with local standards but respond to moral pressures or legitimate requirements arising from local communities, usually cognitive legitimate requirements (Meyer & Scott, 1983). CSR practices following the CSR contextualisation vary according to the specific issues of host countries and probably the culture of the countries-of-origin. Social practices present a pattern that CSR practices are widely emphasised over the host markets but in different forms adapting to the local environment.

CSR globalisation and standardisation are strategies which deal with global CSR issues. They are sometimes overlapping, if not used interchangeably, especially when there exist standards or control systems operating upon the whole company. For example, while product responsibility seems to be a generally accepted norm around the world, some companies still apply quality management/control systems to ensure the quality of their products. By implementing CSR globalisation or CSR standardisation strategies, companies could enjoy potential cost savings (Bustamante, 2011) and improve consistency and efficiency of their operations, leading to the harmonisation of CSR practices on a higher level (Muller, 2006).

CSR localisation and contextualisation deal with local groundings. There exists an overlap between the two when local communities' legitimate requirements are high. For example, good supply chain management (such as local sourcing and partner management) is expected by local communities, some related local laws are further released to maximise local sourcing or develop a mutual relationship with local partners. Through CSR localisation and contextualisation strategies, companies try to gain legitimacy in the host countries by either responding to compliance pressure or dealing with local issues and societal expectations.

7. Conclusion and limitations

This research elaborates CSR glocalisation by incorporating the global-local concerns of CSR issues. CSR glocalisation in this research is thus defined as the simultaneity of both CSR strategies not only with worldwide considerations of CSR issues by identifying generally accepted norms or with influential global impacts, but also, with the specific compliance pressures and culture-specific expectations of each host market. On the one hand, globality of issues is considered to shape CSR glocalisation strategy with two kinds of considerations: whether issues are generally accepted norms, and whether issues have influential global impacts. On the other hand, there are issues that are characterised by a strong local grounding, i.e. issues with compliance pressures, and issues with culture-specific expectations. Instead of one single strategy, four kinds of CSR strategies are involved in CSR glocalisation: globalisation, standardisation, localisation, and contextualisation.

By conducting content analysis with both text mining and manual coding approaches to explore how different categories of CSR issue are practised and valued in the contexts of host countries, patterns of CSR practices over host countries regarding each issue are presented. These patterns for each issue can also be classified into the four aspects involved in CSR glocalisation. (1) CSR globalisation describes the CSR practices relating to issues of global concern regarded as fundamental principles or universal standards followed by all societies. These CSR issues (e.g. human rights and product responsibility) are seldom mentioned in the overseas market. (2) CSR standardisation describes the CSR practices relating to issues of global concern with influential global impacts. Such CSR issues (e.g. labour practices) are widely emphasised over almost all host markets. (3) CSR localisation describes the CSR practices relating to issues of concern specific to the host countries, with specific laws, standards or policies issued by host governments. Patterns surrounding such issues (e.g. economic and environmental) largely depend on host countries. (4) CSR contextualisation describes the CSR practices relating to issues characterised by a strong cultural grounding or strong societal needs. Such issues (e.g. social) are widely emphasised over the host markets but in different forms reflecting adaptation to the local environment.

This research brings new insights by proposing the construct of CSR “glocalisation” to refute the “one-size-fits-all” view that ICCs implement either global CSR or local CSR. It presents an overview of patterns of CSR practices in the international construction industry. With a better understanding of the CSR issues and CSR practices in overseas markets, companies would conduct their CSR practices and address the proper CSR issues in the proper markets. This research thus gives multinational companies a view on how to make the

behaviour plan in the international markets to make their companies more responsible for sustainable development in the CSR-desired world.

This research also has its limitations. Firstly, the sample in this research was determined by referring to the top international contractors list and the GRI's Sustainability Disclosure Database. Although examining 68 ICCs' CSR reports over a period of seven years (2011-2017) is revealing and robust, it is still not a fuller coverage of all the 225/250 top ICCs. Moreover, companies from developed countries with more extensive CSR disclosure requirements have been selected, indicating a potential bias in the sample. Hence, the research should not be over claimed, e.g., its generalizability. More data from reports, websites, or interviews of ICCs from developing countries should be collected for further studies. Secondly, the patterns of CSR globalisation mainly describe the patterns presented in each host country, rather than comparing CSR practices in home and host countries. Further studies could be conducted to compare CSR practices conducted in home countries and various host countries to explore how the changes in context affect the conduct of CSR practices.

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