

1 Building Sustainable Organizational Social Capital: The Global 2 Leadership Challenge

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 Building social capital (SC) is increasingly recognized as essential for organizational and
9 social growth. However, there is a scant amount of literature on how leaders are expected to
10 develop SC as an individual and organizational competence. While this article develops new
11 frameworks for both SC and global leadership (GL), it offers practical suggestions to
12 practitioners in human resource development and management on how they can set up
13 strategies for developing both GL and SC.

14

15 **Index terms**— global leadership, social capital, human resource management and development.

16 **1 Introduction**

17 There has been a growing body of literature on social capital (SC) and its importance in organizational and social
18 development. Building and sustaining organizational social capital (OSC) is a necessity today and failing to
19 recognize it may negatively impact organizations (Burt, 1992; Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Nahapiet & Ghoshal,
20 1998). Leaders are expected to promote SC in their organizations at the same time they are expected to develop
21 their own SC. The dynamics occurring between leadership and SC are perhaps among the most underresearched
22 aspects of leadership (Brass & Krackhardt, 1999). Despite the recognition of the importance of SC in generating
23 learning, collaboration, innovation, creating value for the organization (Fukuyama, 1995; ??utnam, 1993), and
24 mobilizing HR around collective actions, the extant literature is still silent about the process of creating and
25 sustaining SC. Further, little attention has been devoted to the role of leaders in developing and leveraging SC.
26 Today, global leaders (GLs), who are acting across borders, zone times, cultures, and languages, appear to have
27 the most complex tasks to accomplish and the hardest roles to play. Although the concept of global leadership
28 (GL) is still in its conceptual stage, exploring the dialectic relationship between developing and strategizing SC
29 at organizational and global leadership levels seems of paramount importance.

30 In this article, we first define the constructs of SC and GL. Second, we explore how GLs can build their personal
31 SC as a global competence, and sustain the OSC. Third, we present six propositions aiming at contributing to
32 the extant literature and advancing the theory and the practice of GL. Finally, we identify some implications for
33 the field of HRD and provide directions for future research.

34 **2 a) Social Capital**

35 The concept of SC did not spring from organizational studies but from research in sociology conducted first by
36 Bourdieu back in the 1960s. Bourdieu (1997) defined SC as the sum of "actual or potential resources which are
37 linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance
38 and recognition? which provides each of its members with the backing of collectively owned capital" (p. 57). This
39 definition was supported by Coleman (1990) and ??utnam (1993) who both considered SC as social resources
40 composed of relationships, trust, norms, and values. SC is also defined as "social networks, reciprocities that
41 arise from them and the value of these for achieving mutual goals" ??Schuller, Baron, & Field, 2000, p. 1).

42 SC is a multi-dimensional (Putnam, 1995) and multidirectional concept and has been invoked across disciplines
43 to explore a variety of questions pertaining to different fields (politics, social development, education and

4 D) THE CULTURAL DIMENSION OF SC

44 schooling, economic development, etc.) (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Some authors complain about the usage of
45 the word capital because it was borrowed by social researchers from a economics (Baron & Hannon, 1994), and
46 has led to a "plethora of capitals" in the field. Opponents of this concept (e.g. ??olow, 1997) perceive SC as
47 different from other assets because it is very hard to be quantified although measures of its benefits are possible.
48 Opponents seem to be more interested in its metaphorical use, while proponents argue for the correctness of
49 the concept (Robison et al., 2002). Others posit that it is an "umbrella concept" (Adler & Kwon, 2002) or "a
50 wonderfully elastic term" ??Lappe & Du Bois, 1997, p.119) in the sense that it is used across disciplines and
51 levels (individual, group or team, community or society, organization, inter-organization), and is inclusive of
52 heterogeneous theoretical perspectives. While these statements may reflect the richness of this concept and its
53 openness to several interpretations and usages, they also show that it is an elusive term.

54 Recently, SC has gained currency in organization science, but it is still defined differently. Instead of
55 problematizing the definition of SC, we prefer to focus on its dimensions following the advice of clarification of
56 SC components as a research priority. We view OSC as a construct composed of four dimensions: (1) Structural
57 (networks); (2) relational (trust, collaboration, inspiration, synergy and sympathy, etc.); (3) cultural (values,
58 norms, identity); and (4) discursive (narratives, storytelling).

59 b) The Structural Dimension of SC It consists of the structure and the content of ties. The structure of ties
60 refers to the network configuration that provides channels for communication and information transfer. Nahapiet
61 and Ghoshal (1998) identified three characteristics of the network structure that were found to offer enough
62 flexibility and facilitate the information exchange. These are: density, connectivity and hierarchy. Burt (1992)
63 and ??oleman (1998) emphasized the structural holes and the closure of networks. While Burt contended that
64 a sparse network with fewer ties provides more benefits (cost effective resources), Coleman regarded closure as
65 a way to strengthen SC because it sustains trust in others and leads to the development of norms, solidarity,
66 and cohesiveness in the organization. Nevertheless, there are contingencies to take into account in both cases
67 and the empirical research is still ongoing to uncover these. For example, Hansen et al. (1999) found that
68 closure is appreciated when the tasks are uncertain as it helps creating an atmosphere conducive to sharing tacit
69 knowledge. The structural holes are more desirable though when tasks enjoy a relative level of certainty, because
70 they help exploring a wider range of information sources. Besides, density (closure), and structural holes, Rohe
71 (2004) specified other viable factors that impact on the network configuration. These factors contain the size
72 (number of people), diversity (race, ethnicity, social and cultural background, etc.) and location (geographically
73 close or far). People engage in relationships and use their contacts to get the needed information or have access
74 to particular resources. These may include job opportunities, new skills and knowledge, status and reputation,
75 etc.

76 3 c) The Relational Dimension of SC

77 The majority of the literature on SC emphasizes trust as a key element in building relationships. ??ight (2004,
78 p.5) defines SC as "relationships of trust embedded in social networks". Besides trust, trustworthiness is essential
79 to instigate others' support and initiate actions that induce cooperation and collaboration. While trust is a
80 characteristic of the relationship, trustworthiness is an attribute of individuals engaged in this relationship
81 (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). There are, however, some prerequisites for trust to flourish and contribute to
82 SC development. It should start with a willingness to cooperate with the other party (Leana & Van Buren,
83 1999; ??utnam, 1993). This willingness includes a belief in others' good intentions and motives, their ability
84 and competence in the field, their reliability and their perceived openness/collegiality and fairness (Ferguson &
85 Stoutland, 1999). All these are attributes that global leaders should have to be able to develop strong networks
86 and create value for themselves and their organizations. There is a need though to account for the level of
87 trust that characterizes the relationship. Fukuyama (1995) argues that high level of trust in an organization will
88 bring about cooperation and effectiveness while low level will generate costs. A neglected factor in the relational
89 dimension of SC is ethics. In this paper, ethics is considered as the basis of trust building. Lack of integrity
90 may destroy trust and hence relationships formed with the aim of networking and cooperating. It may ruin the
91 reputation of an organization and its leaders as well as affect the interorganizational relations.

92 Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) stressed the role of identification in the reinforcement of relationships. They
93 considered it as the process by which individuals identify themselves with other people or group of people.
94 Similarly, Leana and Van Buren (1999) defined identification as "the willingness and ability of participants in
95 an organization to subordinate individual goals and associated actions to collective goals and actions" (p. 541).
96 It involved according to them an affective component and skill-based component. The affective component is
97 based on the engagement in collectivist goals that will necessarily benefit the individual while the skill-based
98 component refers to the competencies one should have to be able to collaborate with others in the process of
99 achieving the desired goals. In this case, no individual can claim the exclusive ownership of social capital, but
100 the latter characterizes the relationship between all the players (Burt, 1992).

101 4 d) The Cultural Dimension of SC

102 The cultural dimension is not discussed in the mainstream literature on SC, but it appears to have considerable
103 importance. Culture is the set of beliefs, values, and norms that acts upon people's behaviors and directs their

104 actions. Leaders with a collectivistic background and working for an organization that promotes collectivism
105 will find it easy to associate themselves with the group and initiate actions toward the achievement of collective
106 goals (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). They will foster cooperation among individuals and groups and will tend to
107 encourage people to subordinate their personal objectives to those of the group. Conversely, in an individualistic
108 culture leaders will stress self-sufficiency and individual achievements (Leana & Van Buren, 1999). Studies
109 conducted on cultural differences have already emphasized these features and their impact on work (e.g., Ouchi,
110 1980). An interesting study by Chatman et al. (1998) has shown that a collectivistic organizational culture
111 will highlight shared objectives, interchangeable interests, and individualistic organizational cultures will stress
112 individuals' unique attributes and will promote differences among employees. Another concept with paramount
113 importance in building OSC is institutional collectivism. It implies "the degree to which institutional practices
114 at the societal level encourage and reward collective action" ??Gelfand et al., 2004, p. 463). Therefore, global
115 leaders working in societies with high institutional collectivism will find it easier to network than in societies that
116 are low in this dimension. Further, established norms as suggested by Coleman (1988) can be either a powerful
117 or fragile form of SC. Norms motivate, guide actions and promote exchanges when they are strongly embedded in
118 the cultural system of the organization and/or society. They bring about high levels of commitment in building
119 and sustaining SC, especially, if they are reinforced by other organizational practices (Leana & Van Buren, 1999).

120 e) The Discursive Dimension of SC Although there is no reference in the literature to this dimension, it is in our
121 sense, one of the strongest components to build and sustain SC. It is reflected in language, strategic narratives,
122 individual and organizational discourse and storytelling. The language is a key tool to construct and exchange
123 meaning. When it is shared, it has a powerful role to play in affecting perceptions (Pondy & Mitroff, 1979), and
124 advancing knowledge ??Nahapiet & Ghoshal, ??998). Both academic research and practice (Armstrong, 1992)
125 have demonstrated the benefits of using narratives and storytelling in creating strong organizational culture,
126 improving organizational practices, training, developing leadership, organization change, etc. to the extent that
127 Boje (2006) has been theorizing for the storytelling organization. Barry and Elmes (1997) perceive strategy
128 itself as a form of narratives that has to be polyphonic, polyvocal and pluralous. Therefore, leaders will use
129 stories to create and sustain values that consolidate SC and encourage organizational members to engage in
130 building networks. Also, leaders' discursive system, including discourse, metaphors, myths, speeches, and all
131 kinds of narratives will strongly act on organizational members' reinforcement of SC in their organization or
132 their willingness to involve themselves in networking with other organizations.

133 The dimensions of SC outlined above interact with each other to form the organizational SC. (See figure 1).

134 **5 Global Leadership**

135 Global leadership (GL) is an emerging concept that has attracted the attention of many academics and has
136 given rise to several definitions that reflect the intricacy of the global leader work (McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002).
137 Definitions provided up to now stress different perspectives and issues. Some of them are focused on the tasks
138 and functions to be conducted by GLs (e.g. ??arlette & Ghoshal, 1992), others are concerned with the cognitive
139 and behavioral skills that GLs should possess (e.g. Tichy, 1992), while few emphasized the difference between
140 GLs and expatriates or international managers ??Pucik & Sabat, 2002).

141 In this paper, all these views are reconciled in an integrative model that recognizes the interplay between what
142 GLs do and who they are. GLs are builders and architects who are supposed to craft innovative global/local
143 strategies, and create and sustain a strategic intelligence in their transnational corporations. They are also
144 responsible for developing successful leaders, promoting capabilities, creating and

145 **6 Personality Attributes**

146 The big five personality model provides a good taxonomy for classifying personality traits and it enjoys relatively
147 strong construct validity (Goldberg, 1993). Therefore, it will be used to emphasize personality traits needed
148 by GLs. The dimensions of the big five are: (a) Extraversion, (b) Agreeableness, (c) Conscientiousness, (d)
149 Emotional Stability, and (e) Openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Each dimension has been
150 proved as being crucial for GLs. In consistence with the research conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991),
151 other empirical studies on GLs have shown that conscientiousness (thoroughness, responsibility, achievement,
152 credibility, organization, planning and hard work) is positively related to boss performance rating for managers
153 in the high global complexity conditions (Dalton, et al. 2002).

154 Emotional stability refers to the ability to cope with stress, tensions, and challenging situations. Findings
155 are though anecdotal concerning the impact of this dimension on GLs' effectiveness (Holopainen & Bjorkma,
156 2005). An essential characteristic pertaining to GLs emotional stability is the ability to balance tensions in
157 the global arena between global integration and local responsiveness (Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998).
158 Second, extraversion refers to traits such as sociability, openness to others, and the willingness to engage in new
159 relationships. It was found to be a valid predictor of expatriates' success (Mendenhall & Oddou, 2001). It is
160 required for GLs (Black et al., 1999) as they are supposed to work and communicate effectively across several
161 cultures, languages and mindsets (Kohonen, 2005). Third, agreeableness is mentioned in the literature under
162 several names, such as sympathy, kindness, sensitivity to others' needs, courtesy, and emotional connection. This
163 dimension has been found as a key factor in helping GLs integrate culturally in diverse environments (Arthure

10 A) DEVELOPING SC AS A GLOBAL COMPETENCE: THE INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

164 & Bennett, 1995). Finally, openness to experience implies the will to take risks, make discoveries about cultures, 165 businesses, employees, etc. It is analogous to inquisitiveness that "is the fuel for increasing GLs global savvy, 166 enhancing their ability to understand people and maintain integrity, and augmenting their capacity for dealing 167 with uncertainty and managing tensions" ??Gregersen, Morrison, & Black, 1998: 23-24).

168 7 III.

169 8 Global Mindset and Global Identity

170 A global mindset is "a predisposition to see the world in a particular way that sets boundaries and provides 171 explanations for why things are the way they are, while at the same time establishing guidance for ways in 172 which we should behave..." ??Rhinesmith, 1992: 63). GLs need a global mindset to ensure survival, expansion 173 and good performance for their organizations (Crowne, 2008; ??ovvorn & Chen, 2011). Another component 174 interacting with the global mindset is "global identity" (Kohonen, 2005). It is defined as the strong will to 175 integrate other cultures' values, beliefs and behaviors. It entails an exposure of self to an ongoing process of 176 identity reconstruction in a multicultural/global context. Global mindset and global identity interact with and 177 affect each other and they involve cognitive, attitudinal and behavioral capabilities for better understanding of 178 other mindsets and identities.

179 9 f) Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

180 Cultural intelligence is an emergent concept that is in the state of developing. It is "a person's capability to 181 adapt effectively to new cultural contexts" ??Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 59). It consists of three interrelated 182 components: cognitive/metacognitive, motivational and behavioral capabilities. The cognitive/ metacognitive 183 facet implies a dynamic reshaping of selfconcept based on the ability of reasoning within social information 184 processing perspective. The motivational facet includes three major elements: self-enhancement, self-efficacy, and 185 self-consistency. If this facet is weak, adaptation does not occur. The behavioral facet of CQ "reflects a person's 186 capability to acquire new behaviors appropriate for a new culture" ??Earley & Ang, 2003: 83). New behaviors 187 may be languages, rituals, habits, etc. A high CQ leader has the ability to identify which new behaviors are 188 required, how to apply them. Finally, this proposed integrative model of GL is dynamic and based on a continuous 189 interaction between its components. There is rising evidence that SC has several benefits for both leaders and 190 their organizations. SC facilitates access to sources of information and fosters its exchange between corporations 191 (Adler & Kwon, 2002). More sensitive and richer information is transferred when networks are characterized by 192 trust and solidarity ??Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993). It helps acquire knowledge and skills especially through 193 interorganizational networking (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005) and is a key factor in developing intellectual capital 194 ??Nahapier & Ghoshal, 1998). It also promotes solidarity and commitment and reduces control and monitoring 195 (Ouchi, 1980). SC can also be a good source of influence and power (Coleman, 1988). Moreover, SC can enhance 196 the general performance of the company (e.g. Collins & Clark, 2001), and reduce turnover (Dess & Shaw, 2001) 197 especially when networks are large and internal. Besides improving effectiveness, SC may boost efficiency through 198 reducing transactions costs and decreasing the possibility for opportunism ??Putnam, 1993). Finally, SC plays 199 a significant role in enhancing social status of members of specific networks (Burt, 1992), and it leads to career 200 success ??Podolny & Baron, 1997). If SC enjoys all these benefits how should it be developed?

201 10 a) Developing SC as a Global Competence: The Individual Level

202 There is a dearth of literature on how GLs can develop their SC and therefore enrich their organization's repository 203 of SC . Day (2001) suggests that networking is a key factor in producing SC. It "is about investing in and 204 developing social capital with a primary developmental emphasis on building support" (p. 16). He mentioned 205 that creating opportunities to meet and exchange with partners from several practice areas all over the world is a 206 key factor in creating and consolidating leaders' networks. Further, networking helps in extending relationships, 207 diversifying them and crystallizing leadership competencies through coaching and mentoring, leading to new 208 SC (Lin, Fu, & Hsung, 2001). In addition to networking, other practices, such as action learning and job 209 assignments can be developmental for leaders (Day, 2001). Action learning helps explore opportunities for growth 210 and encourage creativity, innovation and a successful implementation of new ideas. Job assignments aim to foster 211 the leaders' global awareness. They could open horizons for GLs to enlarge and diversify their networks.

212 Inpatriation of leaders from host countries and third country nationals into the headquarters on a permanent or 213 semi-permanent basis is another way of developing GLs' SC along with other types of capitals, including cultural, 214 political and human capitals (Harvey & Novicevic, 2004). Nevertheless, leaders will differ in their capacity of 215 developing SC depending on the KSAs they possess. Any investment in developing SC at the individual level 216 will be reflected at the organizational level and will be considered as an investment in the OSC (Day, 2001). This 217 will be translated also in a development and enlargement of SC to include subsidiaries all over the world. In fact, 218 GLs who engage in developing their SC through all the practices aforementioned at the corporation and global 219 levels are likely to replicate in their organizations what they benefit from as individuals. This could happen when 220 GLs develop a full awareness and appreciation for social networks, and engage in trustworthy relationships with

222 different groups (Brass & Krackhardt, 1999). Proposition 1 : Leadership Development approaches that include
223 networking, action learning, job assignments, inpatriation, coaching and mentoring will enable global leaders to
224 build and enhance SC as a global competence at the individual level. Proposition 2 : GLs who develop SC in
225 themselves as a global leadership competence will be more likely to successfully enact all the practices that will
226 foster OSC.

227 **11 Global Leaders Social Capital Organizational Social Capital**
228 GLs with SC as a competence and with characteristics defining a successful GL, will engage in developing and
229 sustaining SC at organizational and global levels. They have to align SC development with the strategic goals
230 of the organization ??Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993). When an organization is acting at a global level, this fit
231 becomes more critical as the global environment is more complex and requires a variety of relationships, business
232 contacts, political, economic, social, cultural and legal awareness that pertains to multiple settings. There are
233 preponderant decisions to be made concerning the nature, the types, and the goals of the networks to be created.
234 A strategic OSC requires planning and involvement of all organizational members to be sustained. Concerning
235 the choice of networks, adopting a stakeholders approach will help

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238 **13 A**

239 GLs decide about the networks to build. Stakeholders include shareholders, employees, customers, buyers,
240 suppliers, competitors, government and non government agencies, professional associations, subsidiaries, unions
241 when they exist, and any other body that has a stake in the organization or could create new opportunities for it.
242 Building networks with stakeholders will provide the organization with incredible resources (knowledge, power,
243 status, opportunities, information, etc.) that will enhance the value creation and delivery to build dynamic
244 capabilities and improve the performance of the organization at global level (Griffith & Harvey, 2004). The
245 stakeholder model of organizational leadership supports the idea of taking into account stakeholders when building
246 and/or enhancing SC (Schneider, 2002). GLs will have to play a powerful role in initiating networks within their
247 organizations and encouraging inter-organizational networks and fitting them to the organizational strategy.
248 Proposition 3 : Adopting the stakeholder approach in developing organizational networks that are aligned with
249 the organizational strategy, will be positively related to strategic OSC development.

250 Another way to foster OSC is through creating a strong culture characterized by trust, cooperation, initiative,
251 open mindedness, and teamwork. This objective can be achieved through using a significantly influential discursive
252 system that includes storytelling, myths, symbols, artefacts, metaphors and all kinds of narratives. However, this
253 wouldn't be enough and would require that GLs act as role models to their followers. GLs have to cultivate trust
254 by being trustworthy and open and by fostering openness in others . They have also to show the highest level of
255 cooperation and collaboration with the organization members by adopting empowering styles of decision making
256 and taking into account people's ideas and suggestions. De-layered organizational forms at local and global levels
257 are more conducive to teamwork and exchange of resources (Harvey & Novicevic, 2002). "In many ways social
258 capital at its core is about the value created by fostering connections between organizational members" ??Hoffman
259 et al. (2005, p.94). These connections have no chance to be sustained without strong communication channels.
260 The latter enables employees to establish deep ties and experience closure (Coleman, 1988). It also facilitates the
261 process of creating strong social norms that are in line with the formal or informal organization system of ethics.
262 Using IT to develop networks that bridge geographical gaps promotes SC that reflects commitment to information
263 and knowledge exchange as a value at global level. Proposition 4 : creating a strong culture characterized by
264 trust, cooperation, initiative, open mindedness, and teamwork, will facilitate exchange in the organization and
265 help building OSC.

266 Proposition 5 : GLs' discursive system, including discourse, metaphors, myths, speeches, and all kinds of
267 narratives will strongly act on organizational members' reinforcement of SC in their organization and their
268 willingness to involve themselves in networking with other organizations.

269 Promoting values and norms that facilitate the creation of SC is not enough. Culture needs to be reinforced
270 and maintained using other practices. HRD and HRM functions have been proved to be effective in sustaining
271 actions in organizations, including the enhancement of social capital (Harvey & Novicevic, 2004). Nevertheless,
272 GLs are expected to adopt a strategic approach to HRD. In fact a strong social capital model will entail a high
273 performance and a lot of investments in training and development, selection of the most suitable employees, job
274 security, performance management and compensation. These practices will act positively on the psychological
275 contract that ties individuals to their organization, and on the relational (Rousseau, 1995). Compensation, if
276 it is team based will strengthen the team ties and sustain SC among the teams and the organization. There
277 are though some risks to it such as groupthink and social loafing (Campbell, Campbell & Chia, 1998). Rewards
278 remain though one of the strongest ways to reinforce behavior. In addition, selection needs to be based on methods
279 helping to select managers with high potential to build OSC; otherwise, selection itself will be an impediment to
280 OSC (Harvey & Novicevic, 2004).

281 Another HR practice that may consolidate OSC at global level is inpatriation. Inpatriates have great knowledge
282 of the host country environment that can be analysed and used to avoid the threats and seize opportunities for the
283 organization (Harvey & Novicevic, 2004). Inpatriates can play a great role as mediators between the headquarters
284 and the emerging markets. They are also supposed to offer mentoring to high potential leaders from the host
285 country to ensure a smooth succession. Mentoring managers in foreign countries on how to create and maintain
286 OSC will result in positive outcomes for the organization at local and global levels. A themselves and in their
287 organizations in order to have access to a global network that would enhance the organization's global integration
288 and performance. Finally, it offers some practical suggestions to practitioners in HRD on how they can set up
289 strategies for developing both GL and OSC. The paper recognizes however the complexity of this topic. The
290 latter, akin to an octopus, relates to a myriad of disciplines (sociology, psychology, economics, management,
291 anthropology, etc.) that need to be put together to be able to capture the diverse variables/ dimensions inherent
292 in both SC at all levels and GL. Moreover, this paper sets the ground for a beginning in theory building. Therefore,
293 testing all the proposed frameworks will be desirable although it will be faced by measurement problems. In fact,
294 both constructs (GL and SC) have concepts (trust, culture intelligence, global mindset) that researchers are still
295 trying to measure. Future research in HRD can also focus on the impediments and the risks of SC either those
296 related to GLs or organizations. While a great amount of literature is focused on its benefits for individuals,
297 organizations and communities, studying SC risks seems relevant to design viable strategies to prevent or reduce
298 its drawbacks. Further, it would be very useful that both HRD academics and practitioners explore the complex
299 interactions between GL and SC and determine viable ways of fortifying them. The challenge is also to design
300 strategic policies that holistically and coherently integrate all the practices in an attempt to sustain individual
and OSC.¹



Figure 1: Figure 1 :

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Figure 2:

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