opción

New Theoretical Framework Corporate Social Responsibility: The Case Of Islamic Development Bank's Sustainable Social Program

1Nail Zaki Elden, 2Mohd Syaiful Rizal Bin Abdul Hamid, 3Chew Boon Cheong, 4Sayed Samer Ali Al-Shami, 5Abdelrafe

Elzamly and 6Mohamed Doheir

1,2,3Faculty of Technology Management & Technopreneurship, Universit Teknikal Malaysia Melaka, Malaysia

4Institute of Technology Management and Technopreneurship

Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka

5Faculty of computer and information technology, Al-Aqsa University, Palestine

6Faculty of Information and Communication Technology of, Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka

Abstract

The concern of this study is to propose theoretical framework for corporate social responsibility. Additionally, this paper also provides the suggestions to improve the role of IDB on incorporate social responsibility and sustainability. This research brought new evidence about the impact of social programme from IDB perspective which is one of the first studies in this field. But this study stated that IDB develop standards for sustainable social programs which mix impact with positive, there is cooperation between all IDB's related departments and cross departments committees to initiate, manage, monitor and evaluate sustainable social programs in coordinating with local government and local executing agent or NGOs; IDB's departments know how to determine beneficiaries and the access to them through their local partners with standards and series of approvals for proposed projects and when the project complete will be transferred to local agency or government. Theoretical framework for corporate social responsibility includes corporate social responsibility, sponsors, social sustainable programs, charitable organizations & NGOs, social goals. The research is a single case study where the focus is only CSR in IDB and Abo-Halima Project. Other researchers who are interested about the research can opt to conduct the researches in other MDBs. Thus, this research developed the following objective to address this gap.

Keywords: Software Project, Software Risks, Risk Control Techniques, Software Development Lifecycle (SDLC), software risk management

Nuevo Marco Teórico Responsabilidad Social Corporativa: El Caso Del Programa Social Sostenible Del Banco De Desarrollo Islámico

Resumen

La preocupación de este estudio es proponer un marco teórico para la responsabilidad social corporativa. Además, este documento también ofrece sugerencias para mejorar el papel del BID en la incorporación de la responsabilidad social y la sostenibilidad. Esta investigación aportó nueva evidencia sobre el impacto del programa social desde la perspectiva del BID, que es uno de los primeros estudios en este campo. Pero este estudio indicó que el BID desarrolla estándares para programas sociales sostenibles que combinan impacto con positivo, existe cooperación entre todos los departamentos relacionados y comités interdepartamentales del BID para iniciar, administrar, monitorear y evaluar programas sociales sostenibles en coordinación con el gobierno local y el agente ejecutor local. u ONG; Los departamentos del BID saben cómo determinar los beneficiarios y el acceso a ellos a través de sus socios locales con estándares y series de aprobaciones para los proyectos propuestos y cuándo se completará el proyecto será transferido a la agencia local o al gobierno. El marco teórico para la responsabilidad social corporativa incluye la responsabilidad social corporativa, patrocinadores, programas sociales sostenibles, organizaciones caritativas y ONG, objetivos sociales. La investigación es un estudio de caso único donde el enfoque es solo la RSE en el BID y el Proyecto Abo-Halima. Otros investigadores que estén interesados en la investigación pueden optar por realizar las investigaciones en otros MDB. Por lo tanto, esta investigación desarrolló el siguiente objetivo para abordar esta brecha.

Palabras clave: proyecto de software, riesgos de software, técnicas de control de riesgos, ciclo de vida de desarrollo de software (SDLC), gestión de riesgos de software

1   Introduction⌐⌐⌐

Social welfare is a nation's system of programs, benefits, and services that help people meet those social, economic, educational, and health needs that are fundamental to the maintenance of society (Charles, 2010). Therefore, the aim of social welfare is to fulfill the needs of everyone in a society. The provision of social services has become one of the most important activities in our society in terms of the money spent and the number of people served. Social welfare institutions are composed of social service programs and social service organizations. In addition to chronic poverty, certain groups are especially vulnerable, including children, the elderly, people living in large households with little human capital, and rural households suffering from low agricultural productivity and underemployment. For some who view social welfare broadly—from the concept that a society pools its resources for the general welfare of all—social welfare encompasses public facilities such as libraries, public parks, and hospitals. Karen proposed a new name of social welfare and social justice to highlight social justice as a primary value and function of social work. NASW (Founded in 1955, NASW is the largest professional social work organization in the United States. NASW has 55 chapters in 50 states serving nearly 132,000 members), the National Association of Social Workers Code of Ethics (2012-2014) in analyzing Peace and Social Justice and uses the Social Work Dictionary definition to define social justice as an ideal condition in which all members of a society have the same basic rights, protections, opportunities, obligations, and social benefits. CSWE (Founded in 1952, CSWE is a non-profit national association for professional social work education in the United States. CSWE represent more than 2,500 individual members, as well as graduate and undergraduate programs), the Council on Social Work Education (2012) states in their most recent Educational Policy Accreditation Standards, that curriculum must advance human rights and social and economic justice. Social workers recognize the global interconnections of oppression and are knowledgeable about theories of justice and strategies to promote human and civil rights. Social work incorporates social justice practices in organizations, institutions, and society to ensure that these basic human rights distributions equitably and without prejudice.

2   **Theoretical Framework for Corporate social responsibility**
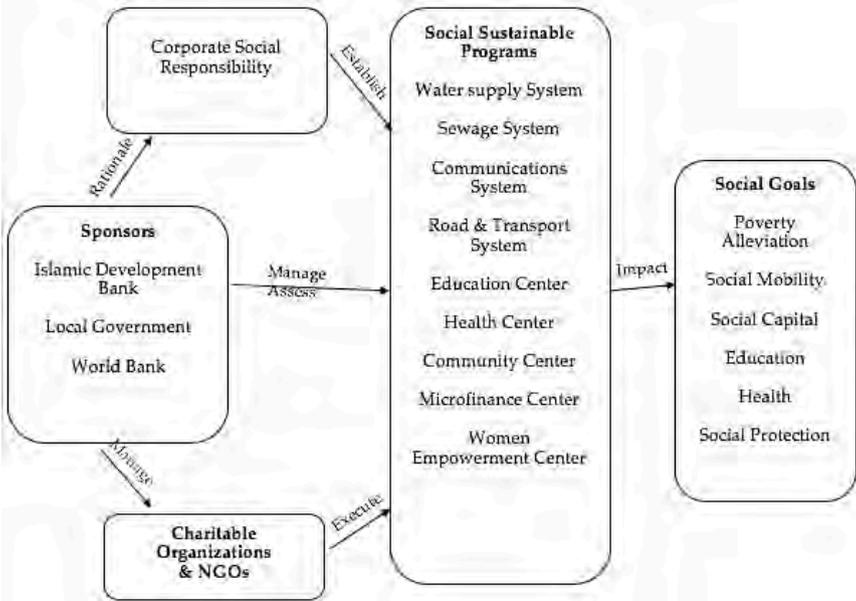
3   Social Safety Net Programs

Monchuk (2014) defines the role of safety nets as a non-contributory transfer generally targeted to the poor, in addressing inequality by raising the consumption of beneficiaries is well known and is largely a function of targeting efficiency as well as the impact of receipt of public transfers on private remittances and on labour supply. While there is ample heterogeneity in both coverage and generosity of safety nets globally, they can contribute substantially to the resources of the beneficiaries. Safety nets aim to increase households' consumption—either directly or through substitution effects—of basic commodities and essential services. Safety nets are targeted to the poor and vulnerable—that is, individuals living in poverty and unable to meet their own basic needs or in danger of falling into poverty, because of either an external shock or socioeconomic circumstances, such as age, illness, or disability. Safety nets form a subset of broader social protection programs along with social insurance and social legislation. Hence, social protection includes both contributory and non-contributory programs, whereas safety nets are non-contributor (Monchuk, 2014). Therefore, safety nets target the poor and vulnerable who cannot contribute to other social protection contributory programs. Moreover,

the costs in time, paperwork and administration involved in maintaining a non-contributory program are much lower than those contributory programs, which involve tracking individual contributions. These concepts indicate that social programs are the sole responsibility of governments. However, financing for social programs comes from public sector (the state and aid donors) or private sector (non-profit organizations, private firms, charities, and informal household transfers). Safety net transfers include (Cash transfers; Food-based programs Conditional cash transfers; Price subsidies for food, electricity, or public transport; Public works and Fee waivers (Monchuk, 2014).

4   Social Entrepreneurship

Kickul & Lyons (2012) defines social entrepreneurship as the application of the mindset, process, tools, and techniques of business entrepreneurship to the pursuit of a social and/or environmental mission. Therefore, social entrepreneurship brings to bear the passion, ingenuity, innovativeness, perseverance, planning, bootstrapping abilities, and focus on growth characteristic of business entrepreneurs on the work of meeting our society's most pressing challenges (Kickul & Lyons, 2012). Bornstein and Davis (2010) support this concept and define Social Entrepreneurship as a process by which citizens build or transform institutions to advance solutions to social problems, such as poverty, illness, illiteracy, environmental destruction, human rights abuses and corruptions, in order to make life better for many. However, Mackey and Sisodia (2013) expressed the explanation of social entrepreneurship in conscious capitalism as business leaders can liberate the extraordinary power of business and capitalism to create a world in which all people live lives full of purpose, love, and creativity – a world of compassion, freedom, and prosperity. John defined the main characteristic of a leader as conscious. John believes that the primary purpose is to inspire the creation of more conscious businesses in which businesses galvanized by higher purposes that serve and align the interests of all their major stakeholders, businesses with conscious leaders who exist in service to the company's purpose and businesses with resilient, caring cultures. (Mackey and Sisodia, 2013). In addition, Kickul and Lyons (2012) believes that capitalism lowers people trust in governments. As the size of government grew, a mutant variation of capitalism has also grown, spurred on by those unable to compete in the marketplace by creating genuine value and earning the affection and loyalty of stakeholders. Kickul and Lyons (2012) emphasize that people are in dilemma and frustration on where to find the real social entrepreneurs who appear when a social problem oc-

curs and passionate about applying business acumen in order to solve the problem. Society suffers due to government position of lake of interest and resources for solving social problems; the society is in frustration by an overall lack of progress toward solving our most pressing social and environmental problems. However, the success of such programs will depend on how to overcome government policy and budget constrains in order to be sustainable, in another word, we should incorporate sustainability in order to create a sustainable social program. Sustainable Social Program (SSP) is a mechanism of financially self-generated for self-sufficiency social program execution, which are sustainable in terms of social and financial aspects for the long term. It comes in various business models, which aim to generate profits, but it has the mission to contribute to the general society similar to a public social program. However, it differs from private business which focus only on profit maximization, the (SSP) is not only for-profit generation body, but also safeguard the development of the society in building human capital (social capital).

5   Corporate Social Responsibility and the Needs for Sustainable Social Program

5.1   Corporate Social Responsibility

Horrigan (2010) describes Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as an emergence of a distinctive current movement worldwide as the 21st century is witnessing the emergence and convergence of different movements in a global corporate responsibility and sustainability. Horrigan (2010) relates current movements to reorienting the constituencies and lessons of the anti-corporate and anti- globalization movements, the human rights movement, the women's movement, the socially responsible investing movement, and other movements too, including earlier incarnations of the CSR movement itself, given the change in its manifestations and orientations over time. According to Oluwaseyi and Babalola (2014), the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been around for well over 50 years, with an increasing adoption by large companies, and industry associations in form of measures to improve environmental management systems, and health and safety of stakeholders in partnerships with non-governmental organizations, non-profit organizations and agencies. In contrast, Lisa and Julie (2012) relate the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) to the general belief held by many that modern busi-

nesses have a responsibility to society that extends beyond the stockholders or investors in the firm that responsibility, of course, is to make money or profits for the owners. These other societal stakeholders typically include consumers, employees, the community at large, government, and the natural environment. The CSR concept applies to organizations of all sizes, but discussions tend to focus on large organizations because they tend to be more visible and have more power. In addition, as many have observed, with power comes responsibility (Lisa and Julie, 2012). However, organization responsibility for other societal stakeholders and adoption of corporate social responsibility is not mandatory according to United Nation definition of CSR (UNEP, 2011). United Nation Environmental program (2011) understand CSR as a form of voluntary self-regulation by private enterprises, organizations, and other entities. UNEP (2011) concludes that CSR has a dynamic and evolving nature that changes according to societal expectations. However, UNEP (2011) predict that there is currently no universally accepted definition of CSR, at a minimum; it requires that companies go beyond their legal obligations. In another word, CSR encourages companies to not only serve the traditional needs of shareholders, but also the needs of other stakeholders, including civil society groups, community leaders, customers, employees, government entities, international organizations, media, suppliers, trade unions, trustees, and future generations (UNEP, 2011). The competitive advantage of being socially responsible according to United Nation Global Compact (2010) is that pieces are in place to move forward to an era of sustainability. UNGC (2010) believes that corporate leaders increasingly see the business landscape though a lens where the world's challenges are in sharp focus; and for a single business, sustainability practices are an essential element for protecting and building its long-term value. When undertaken by a critical mass, corporate responsibility can help deliver a more sustainable, peaceful and prosperous future to all corners of our plan. (UNGC, 2010). Another essential element of corporate social responsibility is organization transparency and business ethics. According to ISO-26000 (2010), organization should consider social responsibility for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society and the environment through transparent and ethical behaviour, which contributes to sustainable development, including the health and the welfare of society. Organization should consider the expectations of stakeholders; complies with applicable law and consistent with international norms of behaviour and is integrated throughout the organization and practised in its relationships (ISO-26000, 2010).

5.1.1 Elements of Corporate Social Responsibility

According to Horrigan (2010), debate around the role of corporations in the community versus their role in maximising shareholder profits fire up where the business case for corporate social responsibility is very clear that corporate social responsibility isn't a case of a stockholder versus stakeholder argument, but is a critical part of maximising shareholder returns. Horrigan (2010) simplified corporate social responsibility as it is in the best interests of our shareholders and is fundamental to profit creation and sustainability. Other researchers (Katamba, Zipfel, Haag, Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2012) state that CSR is a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. Consequently, CSR covers economic, social and environmental issues, although the term "corporate social responsibility." does not contain these three main elements of corporate social responsibility. Katamba, Zipfel, Haag, Tushabomwe-Kazooba (2012) argues that CSR is not separate from business strategy and operations; it is about integrating social and environmental concerns into business strategy and operations. Despite CSR being a voluntary concept, CSR illustrate how enterprises interact with their internal and external stakeholders (employees, customers, neighbours, nongovernmental organizations, public authorities, etc.). Katamba, Zipfel, Haag, Tushabomwe-Kazooba (2012) examine another supporting concept of Business for Social Responsibility (BSR), which defines CSR as achieving commercial success in ways that respect ethical values and respect people, communities, and the natural environment. CSR is the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society (Katamba, Zipfel, Haag, Tushabomwe-Kazooba, 2012).

Consequently, corporate social responsibility goes beyond corporate giving, business or community relations, donations and corporate philanthropy, but it is a continuous strategic commitment established by a business or organization for economic, social and environmental development, which in the end, will yield a positive impact for both the beneficiaries and the company economic advancement to be sustained. Thus, the social, economic and environmental issues must appear in the definitions and conceptualizations, or in the interpretation of the concept of CSR.

5.1.2   Corporate Social Responsibility and charitable organizations
Diener (2013) sets forth a new model of corporate social responsibility: the charitable responsibilities model where businesses can avoid the common pitfalls of corporate strategic philanthropy, increase profit, and build consumer trust. Diener (2013) aims to mitigate the uncertainty that arises from the five paradoxes of corporate strategic philanthropy by examining of the traditional corporate social responsibility pyramid as set forth in Archie Carroll's classic article "The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders"; and extending the pyramid with a new level of strategic philanthropy. The charitable responsibilities model of corporate social responsibility mitigates the negative effects of the five paradoxes of corporate philanthropy while simultaneously preserving the strategies of competitive context and strategic philanthropy within the economic base of the pyramid. Heister (2010) define Venture philanthropy (VP) as a concept that is also known under the terms "Strategic Philanthropy", "High Commitment Philanthropy" or "Philanthropic Investment". VP is a transfer of approaches of venture capital financing to the Philanthropy and borrows methods of traditional venture capital area, charities and initiatives supported under an active partnership in the. VP characteristics are a longer-term commitment, to support with financial resources, active participation or assistance in organizational development and the provision of know-how, the demand for an adequate performance measurement (Social Impact Assessment) and optionally a retreat (Exit) from the commitment at a time at which the organization.

Figure 2.1 Adapt from Diener (2013) Charitable Responsibilities Model Pyramid extends (Carroll 1991)

By including Philanthropic Responsibilities at economic base of the pyramid (adapt from Diener 2013), the researcher explains how to distinguish between non-strategic and strategic philanthropy, based on whether the

philanthropy concerns promoting business objectives. Diener (2013) identify non-strategic philanthropy as altruistic or benevolent philanthropy, involves benefitting the social welfare without concern for the financial profitability of a company. However, Strategic philanthropy maintains the dual objectives of benefitting social welfare and financial profitability (Maas and Liket 2011). Consequently, ethical obligations of the business will inherently affect believe of philanthropy as discretionary, and what type of philanthropy to engage in.

The corporate philanthropy literature to date interchangeably uses the concepts of charity and philanthropy, but within the context of the charitable responsibilities model, charity is to be defined as giving for the sake of giving, to the community one is located in, without regard to business objectives. Under this definition, charity is akin to what some authors refer to as non-strategic, altruistic, or benevolent philanthropy (Diener 2013). In contrast, corporate philanthropy is when businesses acting out of the dual motive of aiding the community and improving business objectives. By these definitions, charity can never be philanthropy and vice-versa because philanthropy involves the additional requirement of attempting to improve business objectives. By admitting the distinction between corporate philanthropy and charity, companies will achieve their objectives both strategically and altruistically. In conclusion, the charitable responsibilities model of corporate social responsibility mitigates the negative effects of the five paradoxes of corporate philanthropy while simultaneously preserving the strategies of competitive context and strategic philanthropy within the economic base of the pyramid.

5.1.3   Critiques of Corporate Social Responsibility

Idowu (2013) examine CSR from a neoliberal perspective and demonstrate a heated debate about whether it constitutes a legitimate activity for a corporation to engage in, and states that CSR is far from being harmless; the adoption of CSR threatens prosperity in poor countries as well as rich. Idowu (2013) expects CSR to reduce competition and economic freedom and to undermine the market economy; nevertheless, the pressure on corporations not simply to seek profit but to demonstrate their corporate citizenship by working with a range of stakeholders to further environmental and social as well as economic goals. Idowu (2013) argue that it is wiser for firms to act strategically than to coerce into making investments in corporate social responsibility and CSR policies and activities should only be undertaken when it appears that they can enhance the value of the firm, that is, when used as strategic CSR. Therefore, the

neoliberal perspective emphasizes on certain positive strategic advantages in the market derived from a CSR approach. Idowu (2013) summarize the general critiques of CSR as the lack of a sophisticated analysis of the political economic dimensions of corporate power that is manifest in the pro-voluntary, corporate practices such as transfer pricing, tax avoidance, the abuse of market power, and most significantly, CSR has not explicitly dealt with the poverty impacts of business activities. According to Brennan (2013), the damage inflicted by global firms is systemic, rather than piecemeal and CSR operating at the level of the individual firm, and often addressing eye-catching small-scale initiatives, is largely irrelevant to systemic phenomena. Brennan (2013) identifies several major trends that will affect the future of humanity: climate change, energy depletion, the rise of the BRIC nations, the genome revolution, and massive over-population of megacities largely located in the southern hemisphere. Brennan (2013) argues that the interests of global corporations intertwined with these major trends. The most powerful causal driver of the major trends is the capital accumulation process itself as it manifests across time and space through globalization, embodied most effectively in the institutional forms of the multinational corporation; and the dense networks of financial capital (Fleming and Jones, 2013). However, Brennan (2013) contrasts that CSR research almost completely ignores the major trends, while much of the time seeking to demonstrate that corporate goals and social good can be reconciled. Fleming and Jones contend that such reconciliation is fundamentally impossible, rendering most CSR research irrelevant.

5.2   The need of Sustainable Social Program

Monchuk (2014) identifies the most important rationale for safety nets, which is the large share of people, who are vulnerable, poor, and food insecure; and the gap between the extremely poor and the rising middle class is widening in many development countries. In addition, growing social, environmental, and economic fragility on the development countries, which makes it increasingly important for governments to maintain social peace and economic equilibrium. Moreover, Monchuk (2014) relates the aim of social protection policy frameworks to address problems of persistent poverty and vulnerability in a systematic way and to guide the harmonization and coordination of fragmented social protection programs. Although government's vision shapes social protection policy and their preferences

for providing resources directly to the poor, Monchuk (2014) argues that social protection policy is not an acceptable way of supporting vulnerable groups. Moreover, due to the extent of poor in development countries, safety nets cannot reach all the poor with the limited resources that are available. Such programs must therefore focus on reaching the extremely poor and the most vulnerable in order to reduce chronic poverty and poverty caused by shocks and help poor households invest in their livelihoods and their children's development over the long term and for maximum impact and affordability. Monchuk (2014) further illustrate that safety net programs are a subset of broader social protection policies and programs along with social insurance and social legislation (labor laws and health and safety standards), equity (human rights, health, education, financial services), and other policies aimed at reducing poverty and managing risk (figure 2.2). Ideally, safety net systems consist of several programs that complement each other as well as other public or social policies as a collection of well-designed and well-implemented programs. Consequently, sustainable social program is more than the sum of all parts because of complementarities. As shown in Figure 2, safety nets fit into the wider array of policies involved in poverty reduction, social risk management, and social protection. Safety nets are part, but not the whole, of each, and poverty reduction and risk management strategies overlap substantially but not entirely. Safety nets are not the only or even the principal tool for achieving any of the ends they serve, yet they can make a significant contribution. When situations are dire, they can help save lives. When situations are less dire—and programs are especially good—they can save or help build livelihoods as well.

Figure 2 Social Safety Nets in Development Policy
Source: (Grosh et al. 2008).

Monchuk (2014) summarize sustainability issues as follows:

(i)   Spending on safety nets in is low but is highly variable over time and has been increasing since the global crisis. However, in many countries, general subsidies are costly and do not proportionately benefit the poor.

(ii)   Donors finance a large share of safety nets and such financing will continue to be necessary in the medium term. Pooling and smoothing donor funding for safety nets would enable governments to prepare for crises in advance while continuing to build systems and scale up programs for the longer term.

(iii)   The concentration of safety net spending on scattered emergency and food-based programs means that neither donors nor governments have focused on funding sustainable safety nets designed to reduce long-term chronic poverty. A better allocation of social protection spending would make safety net programs more effective and more sustainable over the long term and make possible harmonization of disparate programs into a coherent national safety net.

(iv)   Well-targeted safety nets are affordable if inefficient universal and categorical programs is group bias and this spending directed to the poor and to specific vulnerable groups (depending on the objective of specific programs). Likewise, well-performing safety nets providing support to the most vulnerable groups can be important mitigating mechanisms to facilitate reform of expensive general subsidy programs.

(v)   Successfully reforming safety nets also depends on political viability. Shifting away from emergency and categorical programs toward better-targeted development-oriented instruments requires an in-depth understanding of administrative and political challenges. Careful political economy considerations are important when balancing tightly targeted programs with other investments that can benefit a wider set of people and contribute to improved social outcomes.

(vi)   Scaling up spending on safety nets should focus on those well-targeted programs that provide the most important effects while gradually reducing regressive or ineffective programs.

5.3   Assessing the success and failure of Social Program

5.3.1   Social Program Evaluation and Impact Assessment

McDavid, Huse and Hawthorn (2013) believes performance management, which is sometimes refer to as results-based management, has emerged as an organizational management approach that is part of a broad movement of new public management (NPM) in public administration, that has had significant impacts on governments worldwide. Andrew (2011) believes that one of the central features of the current public sector reforms is the emphasis on performance results. Managing for results requires the government to focus on the performance outputs/outcomes of its organizations instead of their administrative processes. This new approach enthusiastically embraced by many countries following the rise of New Public Management (NPM). McDavid, Huse and Hawthorn (2013) defines NPM grounds on principles that emphasize the importance of stating clear program and policy objectives, measuring and reporting program and policy outcomes, and holding managers, executives, and politicians accountable for achieving expected results. Increasingly, there is an expectation that managers will be able to participate in evaluating their own programs and get involved in developing, implementing, and publicly reporting the results of performance measurement. Information from program evaluations and performance measurement systems, which play a role in the way, managers manage their programs. Changes to improve program operations and efficiency and effectiveness driven by evidence of how good programs are doing in relation to stated objectives. The performance management cycle is a model that includes an iterative planning–implementation–evaluation–program adjustments sequence in which program evaluation and performance measurement play important roles as ways of providing information to decision makers who are engaged in leading and managing organizations to achieve results; where evaluations occurs at three stages which includes:

(i).   Ex-ante evaluation can occur at the stage when options are being considered and compared as candidates for implementation that assess program or policy options before any are selected for implementation. Ex-ante evaluation enables analysis of the anticipated impacts of the planned programme.

(ii).   Formative evaluations as a type of implementation-related evaluation that occur in conjunction with the implementation phase of the cycle.

(iii).   Summative evaluation, that is, evaluation that aims at answering questions about a program or policy achieving its intended results, with a view to making decisions about the future of the program (McDavid, Huse, and Hawthorn, 2013).

The main two key concepts in program evaluation are to what extent were the intended objectives met and was the program effective in achieving its intended outcomes, which includes the elements of program causality to outcomes and assessing program effectiveness (Figure 2.3).
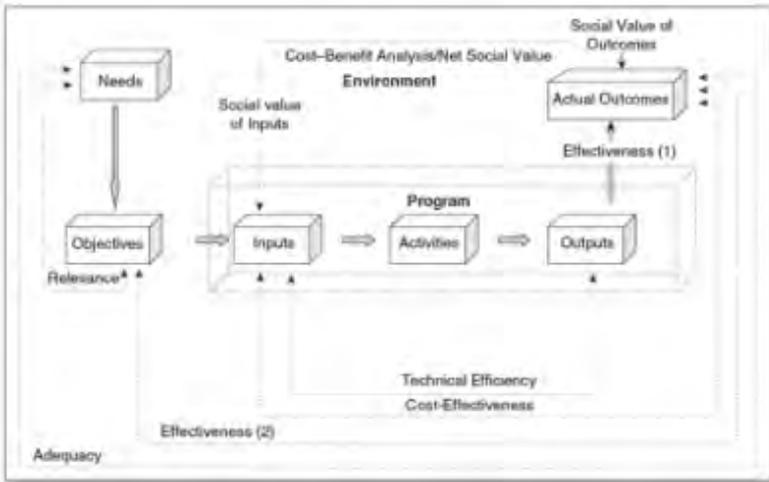

Figure 2.3 An Open Systems Model of Programs and Key Evaluation Issues. Source: McDavid, Huse, and Hawthorn (2013), adapted from Nagarajan and Vanheukelen (1997)

According to Knowlton and Phillips (2013), researchers have begun using theory of change and program logic models in the 1970s for program design and evaluation. Logic models are useful for visually summarizing the structure of a program. They are a part of a broader movement in evaluation to develop and test program theories when doing evaluations (Coryn, Schröter, Noakes, & Westine, 2011).

Program logic models are widely used to show the intended causal linkages in a program. There are many different styles of logic models (Funnell and Rogers, 2011) but what they have in common is identify¬ing the major sets of activities in the program, their intended outputs, and the outcomes (often short, medium, and longer term) that flow from the outputs (Figure 2.4).
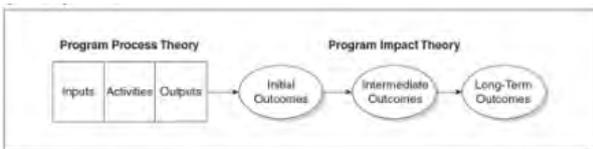

Figure 2.4 Linear Program Logic Model
Source: Coryn, Schröter, Noakes, and Westine (2011), adapted from Donaldson (2007).

Knowlton and Phillips (2013) conclude that theory of change is a structured process to help develop a description of how to link a program to development outcomes; helps build an impact-orientation program design; and draws on evaluation and social change traditions, combining logical process mapping with critical reflect. Logic models as both a tool and a strategic process offer considerable value to programs and, subsequently, organization effectiveness. They aim for different purposes at different times in the life cycle of an idea (program, project, or change effort). Theory of change models can dramatically influence program planning because they rely on knowledge to offer choices about doing the right work. Program logic models help creates precise decisions about which activities in each strategy are most effective. Program logic models support evaluation design. They can assist in pointing to optimal areas of inquiry and help to determine program progress and difference relative to results. See Figure 2 below.
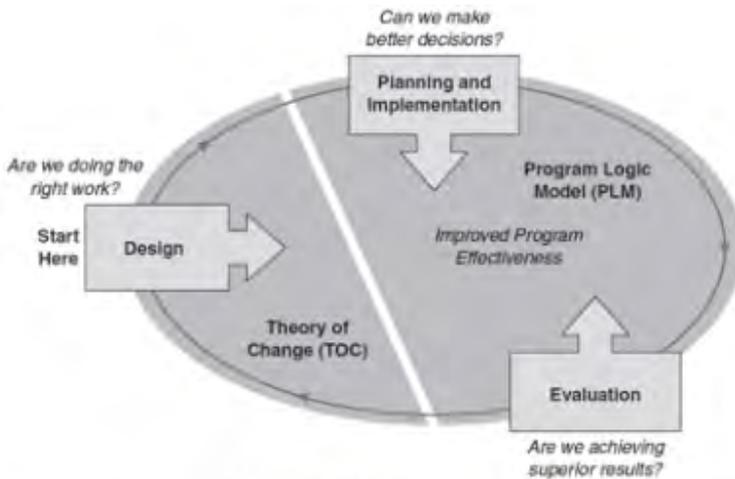

Figure 2 Effectiveness and Logic Models. Source: Knowlton and Phillips (2013).

5.4   Managing a successful Sustainable Social Program

5.4.1   Social Program Business models
In the capitalist system, two extreme types of corporate bodies exist, companies that are profit-maximizing businesses, whose purpose is to create shareholder value and the others are non-profit organizations exist to fulfill social objectives. Figure 2.5 shows how a social business borrows from both these entities: it should cover its full costs from its operations, and its

owners are entitled to recover their invested money, but it is more cause than profit driven. Its position in the lower right quadrant shows that it has both the potential to act as a change agent

Figure 2 . Social business vs. Profit and not-for-profit.
Source: Yunus, Moingeon and Lehmann-Ortega (2010)

Therefore, a social business design and operation is like a 'regular' business enterprise, with products, services, customers, markets, expenses and revenues. social business is a no- loss, no-dividend, self-sustaining company that sells goods or services and repays investments to its owners, but whose primary purpose is to serve society and improve the lot of the poor. Social business differs from NGOs, most of which are not designed to recover their total costs from their operations, and are therefore obliged to devote part of their time and energy to raising money. Because Social business seeks self-sustainability, a social business only relies on its investors at the beginning of a development project, as illustrate in Figure 2.6 below.
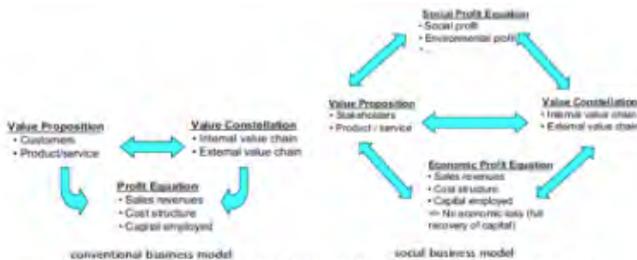
Figure 6. Conventional business model vs social business model.
Source: Yunus, Moingeon and Lehmann-Ortega (2010)

However, as noted above, investing in a social business is different from philanthropy in several ways the social business is self-sustaining, and investors get their money back whereas people who donate to charity do not. The investor also remains the owner of the company and can thus decide

its future course of action, so the social business is as a chance to provide money and offers business people an exciting opportunity to leverage their own business skills and creativity solve social problems.

5.4.2   Management of Charitable Organizations

A recent study "Venture Philanthropy in Development: Dynamics, Challenges and Lessons in the Search for Greater Impact" undertaken by the newly created Global Network of Foundations Working for Development (OCED netFWD, 2014) has been conducted during the period from 2011 to 2014, which supports the notion of impact investing join venture business model. OCED netFWD (2014), introduces a new business model of "Venture Philanthropy for Development", defined here as "an entrepreneurial approach to philanthropy that combines a variety of financial and non-financial resources to identify, analyze, co-ordinate and support self-sustaining, systemic and scalable (for-profit and not-for profit) solutions to development challenges aimed at achieving the greatest impact". Another elaborated definition of Venture Philanthropy and Social Investment defined is: "works to build stronger social purpose organizations by providing them with both financial and non-financial support in order to increase their societal impact.", which also suggest that a set of widely accepted characteristics are common to this approach. These are high engagement, tailored financing, multi-year support, non-financial support, involvement of networks, organizational capacity building, and performance measurement (EVPA, 2013). Helping to put venture philanthropy into a broader landscape of investment and engagement. The illustration below plot venture philanthropy and venture capital together and shows how both practices emphasis the role of engagement (high involvement strategies) between investor and investee and the importance of the non-financial often-managerial support that both deploy (Figure 7).
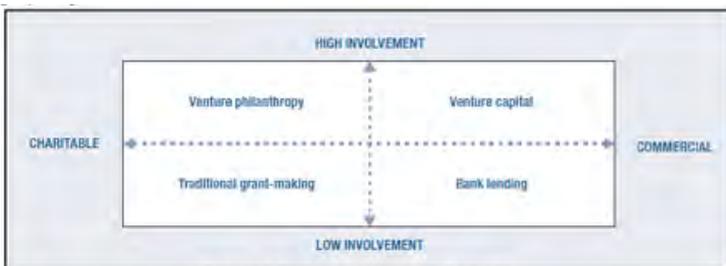
Figure 7 the involvement profit matrix –
Source: EVPA, (2013) adapted from Emerson et al., (2007).

Results shows that organizations become more sophisticated in using their tools to measure impact (94% measure social impact) and utilized financial instruments that demonstrate their engagement and support for impact measurement such as due diligence, co-investing, capacity building, effective non-financial assistance and exist.

5.5   Closing the Gap between the Targeted Population and Charitable Organizations

5.5.1   Social Programs Operation Barriers

 As traditional philanthropic ideologies for alleviating poverty evolved and became market-based solutions, a new era evolved in the year 2013 where traditional boundaries of development and capitalism are blurred and overlapping; Non-governmental organizations (NGO) are pursuing business activities, and large corporations are pursuing development activities. Therefore, the term 'inclusive capitalism' is on the rise, meaning that everyone on the planet ought to be included in the market as consumers, producers, distributors, and that the market should ensure that it is catering responsibly to everyone's needs. On the other hand, the four billion people living for less than $4 a day have been counted out of the commercial market thinking, as they were too poor to be expected to have purchasing power, and too difficult to reach. Instead, Non-governmental organizations (NGO) were responsible for catering the poor through philanthropic giving, or not catered for at all. This separation between reachable people by the commercial markets and the poor in need of aid assistance is under investigation and challenge. Nobel prize-winning professor Muhammad Yunus (2010), popularized and scaled out micro-credits, and proved to the world that by giving small loans to the poor, they could become entrepreneurs and lift themselves out of poverty. Furthermore, creating opportunities for poor people to start businesses proved a more sustainable approach to alleviating poverty than handouts. Yunus (2010), argued that what the poor need is an opportunity. This thinking continued with Prahalad (2010), who encouraged big business to break with the dominant logic of seeing the poor as victims. Instead, the poor is a business opportunity, the market of the majority. Prahalad (2010), referred to this forgotten market as the Bottom of the Pyramid (BoP), later the Base of the Pyramid. Prahalad (2010), argued that there was a 'fortune' hidden in the BoP, and that it was a matter of finding the right business strategies to tap into it. In the last decade, many businesses, multilateral organizations and social enterprises have attempted to unlock this fortune, but most have failed. BoP advocates

have been eager to shine success stories, however, there are few. The legitimacy of BoP thinking is in danger that this new approach does not prove to alleviate poverty as well as to earn profits.

D'Souza (2013) analysed Prahalad (2010) theory during 2004, which introduced the notion that business could alleviate poverty as well as earn profits by targeting the four billion poorest people on the planet referred to as the Bottom of the Pyramid (BoP). Since then, BoP advocates have been busy promising a fortune as well as cheering business on as the new pioneers of eradicating poverty. D'Souza (2013), highlighted basic flaws within the BOP hypothesis, which is lack of knowledge about what BoP consumers want and desire. Most BoP studies have been concerned with strategies for earning profits in the BoP (BoP 1.0) and later how mutual value co-created in order to ensure poverty alleviation as well as profits (BoP 2.0) and the latest evolution is BoP 3.0 2, which embraces an embedded structural and open innovation for sustainable development (Simanis and Hart,2009; Cañeque and Hart, 2015)

5.5.2   Social Business Innovations

According to recent study conducted by Johansson (2012), which emphasizes on innovations on the Bottom of the Pyramid (BoP) market, that multinational firms and private sector have underserved and overlooked these people as the Bottom of the Pyramid (BoP) for decades. Lately however, companies realize and paid more attention to these markets as that there is an opportunity for trade and success here (Prahalad, 2010). Targeting these new markets and consumers is nonetheless a challenge to most companies and will compel them to adapt to new settings, new cultures and people who might be unfamiliar with most technical innovations introduced. Reaching out to the consumers on the BoP market is also a great challenge in terms of awareness and availability. However, increasing awareness and availability is difficult in the BoP market due to the inaccessibility of social media and advertising in combination with a population spread over a vast area accessible only through poorly maintained roads the spreading of awareness becomes a great challenge.

Johansson (2012) demonstrates that a close relation to the end-user is of importance for the success of an innovation on the BoP market together with a reciprocal awareness between innovator and user. The process of matching an innovation enables this close relation through actor involvement and co-creation with the end-users. Moreover, legitimacy is an important factor, and it becomes evident that how you legitimize your

innovation depends on the level of awareness and interest in the context where you wish to legitimize it. Hence, there might be a difference in how companies legitimize their products depending on the context. In order for companies to be successful in matching their products with a new context there is a need for them to create awareness about their product; the purpose of the product and why it is of value to the consumer. In areas where awareness is already present, it is understandably much easier to induct a product. "When it comes to e.g. the design of a car you basically know what the customer wants but when it comes to rural customers we don't know what their problems are until we are in their position – primarily, we need to know what kind of problem we are trying to solve. This is where the co-creation process helps a lot; we not only get input from the actual users but also use the design team to adopt the problem. No one in our design team is from a rural background, everybody is city born – so in order to learn we have to be on the field to learn and capture knowledge." - Nehja Juneja (Mande, 2011)

5.5.3 Sustainability Livelihood Approach

The term sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) was officially introduced by the Brundtland Commission Report in the 1987 (Solesbury 2003). The SLA is perceived as a way of linking socioeconomic and ecological considerations in a cohesive, policy-relevant structure especially in the rural areas where people are farmers or make a living from some kind of the primary self-managed production (Krantz 2001). The modern definition of sustainable livelihood approach goes beyond the traditional definition that focuses on specific areas of poverty such as income to be a holistic framework for poverty reduction, socioeconomic, and social development (Krantz 2001). A sustainable livelihood provides a guide for livelihood development with sustainable environment, economy, institutions, and social (DFID 1999). The sustainability of livelihood can be evaluated by many dimensions of environment or social sustainability (Chambers and Conway 1999, p. 4). However, in this research the term sustainability refers to social sustainability and the main focus is on the ability to improve and maintain a livelihood. The sustainability from the perspective of social livelihood refers to the ability to enhance livelihood while improving the local and global assets and capabilities on which livelihood depends (Chambers and Conway 1999, p. 4).

5.5.4 The Outcomes of Sustainable Livelihood Approach

The concept of SLA has no consensus definition. There are three defini-

tions suggested by three schools, namely the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), CARE, and the British Department for International Development (DFID). The aim of using those three approaches is because each approach works slightly differently (Krantz 2001).

First, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines the concept of sustainable livelihood from the perspective of assets and how men and women use these assets in short as well as long term. In this perspective, sustainable livelihood refers to:

"Means, activities, entitlements, and assets by which people make a living. Assets are defined as natural or biological (land, water, common-property resources, flora, fauna), social (community, family, social networks), political (participation, empowerment – sometimes included in the 'social' category); human (education, labour, health, nutrition); physical (roads, clinics, markets, schools, bridges); and economy (jobs, savings, credit) (Krantz 2001, p. 16).

UNDP identifies the concept of sustainable livelihood from the perspective of asset-based approach which argues that a sustainable access to resources leads to alleviating people poverty. It focuses on four points of sustainability which are able to cope with uncertain shocks or stresses, economic effective, ecologically sound, and socially equitable. Second, CARE describes sustainable livelihood from the perspective of the household livelihood security (HLS) (Krantz 2001). The HLS is embedded with three constructs, namely human capabilities such as education, health, skills and psychological orientation, access to tangible and intangible assets and economic activities, and finally interaction between these three constructs (Chambers and Conway 1992; Krantz 2001). The interaction between these three constructs defines the strategy of livelihood at the household level which emphasises on strengthening people capabilities that allows them to secure their livelihood and empower them in their community.

Third, the British Department for International Development (DFID) defines sustainable livelihood as

"A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources), and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base" (Chambers and Conway 1992, p. 6)

Scoones (1998) suggests that livelihood sustainability can be achieved through accessing to working days, poverty reduction, well-being and

capabilities, livelihood adoption, vulnerability and resilience, and natural
resource-based sustainability as shown in Figure 2.8.
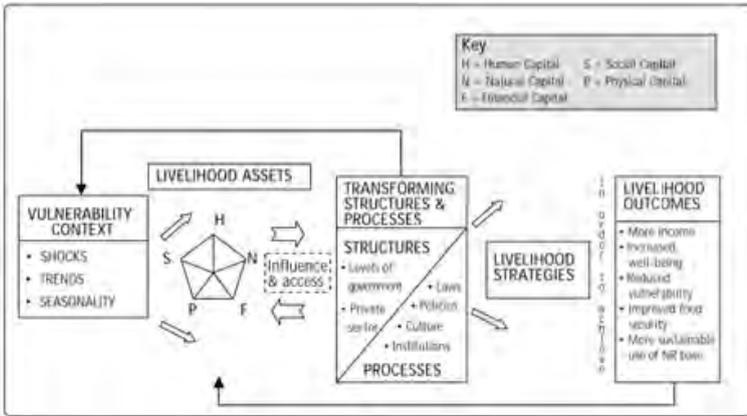
Figure 2.8: A sustainable Livelihood Framework Resource (Scoones, 1998)

5.5.5   Livelihood Resources

Resources (assets) are important determinants for livelihood because they
present the level of household wealth, vulnerability, and wellbeing (Cor-
bet 1988; Sherraden 1991). As shown in Figure 2.8, Bebbington (1999)
and Scoones (1998) classified the resources (assets) into four wide groups;
first, natural capital which refers to the natural resource stocks (soil, wa-
ter, air, genetic resources, etc.) and environmental services (hydrological
cycle, pollution sinks, etc.) from which resource flows and services useful
for livelihoods are derived. Second, economic or financial capital which
includes the capital base (cash, credit or debt, savings, and other economic
assets, including basic infrastructure and production equipment and tech-
nologies) which are essential for the pursuit of any livelihood strategy.
Third, human capital has skills, knowledge, ability and good health and
physical capability. Finally, social capital which is the social resources
(networks, social claims, social relations, affiliations, associations) upon
which people draw when pursuing different livelihood strategies requiring
coordinated actions.

6   Conclusions

The concern of this study is to propose theoretical framework for corporate
social responsibility. Additionally, this paper also provides the suggestions
to improve the role of IDB on incorporate social responsibility and sustain-
ability. This research brought new evidence about the impact of social pro-

gramme from IDB perspective which is one of the first studies in this field. But this study stated that IDB develop standards for sustainable social programs which mix impact with positive, there is cooperation between all IDB's related departments and cross departments committees to initiate, manage, monitor and evaluate sustainable social programs in coordinating with local government and local executing agent or NGOs; IDB's departments know how to determine beneficiaries and the access to them through their local partners with standards and series of approvals for proposed projects and when the project complete will be transferred to local agency or government. Theoretical framework for corporate social responsibility includes corporate social responsibility, sponsors, social sustainable programs, charitable organizations & NGOs, social goals. The research is a single case study where the focus is only CSR in IDB and Abo-Halima Project. Other researchers who are interested about the research can opt to conduct the researches in other MDBs. Thus, this research developed the following objective to address this gap.

REFERENCES

Kickul, J. and Lyons, T. 2012. Understanding social entrepreneurship: The relentless pursuit of mission in an ever-changing world. New York, NY: Routledge.

Monchuk, V., 2014. Reducing Poverty and Investing in People: The New Role of Safety Nets in Africa. World Bank Publications. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Alderman, H., and Yemtsov, R., 2013. How Can Safety Nets Contribute to Economic Growth? World Bank Publications. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Morgaine K., 2014. Conceptualizing Social Justice in Social Work: Are Social Workers "Too Bogged Down in the Trees?" Journal of Social Justice, Vol. 4, 2014 Available from: http://www.transformativestudies.org

Charles Z., 2010, Introduction to Social Work and Social Welfare, Tenth Edition, ISBN-13: 978-0-495-80952-4, ISBN-10: 0-495-80952-7. Linda Shreiber Brooks/Cole, Cengage Learning, CA 94002-3098, USA.

Ambrosino, R., Ambrosino, R., Heffernan, J., Shuttlesworth, G., 2012.

Social Work and Social Welfare: An Introduction, Seventh Edition, ISBN-13: 978-1-111-30476-8, ISBN-10: 1-111-30476-9. Brooks/Cole, Cengage Learning, CA 94002-3098, USA.

National Association of Social Workers (NASW), 2012. Social Work Speaks: National Association of Social Workers Policy Statements 2012-2014 (9th ed). Washington, DC.

Council on Social Work Education, 2012. Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards. Available from:
http://www.cswe.org/File.aspx?id=13780

Fenton M., 2012. Why and How We Can Teach Social Entrepreneurship in a Capstone Course. Journal of College & Character. V.13, No.4. Available from:
http://journals.naspa.org/jcc/
Mackey, J. and Sisodia, R., 2013. Conscious Capitalism: Liberating the heroic spirit of business. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.

Council on Social Work Education, 2012. Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards. Available from:
http://global.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/551539/social-welfare-program

Belciug, A., V., Corcheş, L., and Creţu, D., 2014. Designing Social Programs in Circumstances of Informational Asymmetry. Economics World, ISSN 2328-7144, Vol. 2, No. 1, 11-24, David Publishing.

Al-Qaradawi , Y., 2011. Fiqh Al-Zakat: A comprehensive study of zakah regulations and philosophy in the light of the Qur'an and Sunnah, Islamic Book Trust, Malaysia.

Bornstein D. and Davis, S., 2010. Social Entrepreneurship What Everyone Needs To Know, Oxford University Press Inc.

MacMillan, I., C. and Thompson, J. D., 2013. The Social Entrepreneur's Playbook, Wharton Digital Press.

Ayres, S., 2014. The Safety Net Is Good Economic Policy, Center for

American Progress.

Winship, S., 2014. How Would Paul Ryan's Opportunity Grants Affect Poverty?
Available from:
http://www.forbes.com/sites/scottwinship/2014/07/28/how-would-paul-ryans-opportunity-grants-affect-poverty/

Waldfogel, J., 2012. The War on Poverty and the safety net for families with children, Columbia University.

Wimer, C., Fox, l., Garfinkel, I., Kaushal, N., and Waldfogel, J., 2013. Trends in Poverty with an Anchored Supplemental Poverty Measure. Columbia University.

UNGC, 2010. United Nations Global Compact Annual Review 2010
Available from:
https://www.unglobalcompact.org/docs/news_events/8.1/UN_Global_Compact_Annual_Review_2010.pdf

ISO-26000, 2010. Guide to Corporate Social Responsibility, ISO/Guide 82:2014(en). Available from:
https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:26000:ed-1:v1:en:sec:3

Lisa, C., and Julie N., 2012. SAGE brief guide to Corporate Social Responsibility, SAGE Publications, Inc., Thousand Oaks, CA, Available from:
doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243986

Adedipe, O., A. and Babalola, A., 2014. Corporate Social Responsibility: Panacea to Corporate Growth, Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development, ISSN 2222-1700 (Paper) ISSN 2222-2855 (Online), Vol.5, No.12, 2014. Available from:
http://www.iiste.org

Idowu, S., O., I., 2013. Encyclopedia of Corporate Social Responsibility, ISBN 978-3-642-28035-1, ISBN 978-3-642-28036-8 (eBook), ISBN 978-3-642-28087-0, DOI 10.1007/978-3-642-28036-8, Springer Heidelberg New York Dordrecht London.

UNEP, 2011. Corporate Social Responsibility and Regional Trade and Investment Agreements, United Nations Environment Programme, Geneva, Switzerland Available from: http://www.unep.ch/etb/publications/CSR%20publication/UNEP_Corporate%20Social%20Responsibility.pdf

Horrigan, B., 2010. Corporate Social Responsibility in the 21st Century: Debates, Models and Practices across Government, Law and Business. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Katamba, D., Zipfel, C., Haag, D., and Tushabomwe-Kazooba, C., 2012. Principles of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). A guide for students and practicing managers in developing and emerging countries. Strategic Book Publishing.

Diener, K., W, 2013. The Charitable Responsibilities Model of corporate social responsibility. Journal of Academic and Business Ethics (JABE). Academic and Business Research Institute (AABRI). Available from: http://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/121341.pdf

Maas, K. and Liket, K., 2011. Talk the Walk: Measuring the Impact of Strategic Philanthropy. Journal of Business Ethics 100, 445-464, 445. Available from:
http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007%2Fs10551-010-0690-z

Brennan, R., 2013. Review of "The End of Corporate Social Responsibility: Crisis & Critique by Peter Fleming and Marc T. Jones", SAGE Publications, Inc., Thousand Oaks, CA,
Available from:
http://researchprofiles.herts.ac.uk/portal/files/1841488/JBBM_Book_Review_May_2013.docx

Fleming, P., and Jones, M., T, (2013). The End of Corporate Social Responsibility: Crisis & Critique. London: Sage.

McDavid J., C., Huse, I., and Hawthorn, L., R., L., 2013. Program Evaluation and Performance Measurement. An Introduction to Practice. Second ed. SAGE Publications.

OCED netFWD, 2014.Venture Philanthropy in Development: Dynamics, Challenges and Lessons in the Search for Greater Impact. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Centre, Paris. Available from:
http://www.oecd.org/dev/Venture%20Philanthropy%20in%20Development-BAT-24022014-indd5%2011%20mars.pdf

Knowlton, L., W. and Phillips, C., C., 2013. The Logic Model Guidebook. Better Strategies for Great Results Second Edition. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Funnell, S., C. and Rogers, P., J., 2011. Purposeful Program Theory: Effective Use of Theories of Change and Logic Models. Jossey-Bass.

European Venture Philanthropy Association, 2013. European Venture Philanthropy and Social Investment 2011/2012 – The EVPA Survey. Available from:
        http://evpa.eu.com/downloads/?pdf=2010/11/Online_EVPA-Survey_2011_2012.pdf

Elzamly, A. et al. (2016) 'A New Conceptual Framework Modelling for Cloud Computing Risk Management in Banking Organizations', International Journal of Grid and Distributed Computing, 9(9), pp. 137–154.

Elzamly, A. et al. (2017) 'Predicting Critical Cloud Computing Security Issues using Artificial Neural Network (ANNs) Algorithms in Banking Organizations', International Journal of Information Technology and Electrical Engineering, 6(2), pp. 40–45.

Elzamly, A. and Hussin, B. (2014a) 'A Comparison of Fuzzy and Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis Techniques for Managing Software Project Risks: Implementation Phase', International Management Review, 10(1), pp. 43–54.

Elzamly, A. and Hussin, B. (2014b) 'An Enhancement of Framework Software Risk Management Methodology for Successful Software Development', Journal of Theoretical and Applied Information Technology, 62(2),

pp. 410–423.

Elzamly, A. and Hussin, B. (2014c) 'Evaluation of Quantitative and
Mining Techniques for Reducing Software Maintenance Risks', Applied
Mathematical Sciences, 8(111), pp. 5533–5542.

Vogel, I., 2012. ESPA guide to working with Theory of Change for re-
search projects.
Available From:
http://www.espa.ac.uk/files/espa/ESPA-Theory-of-Change-Manual-FI-
NAL.pdf

James, C., 2011.Theory of Change Review. A report commissioned by
Comic Relief, Comic Relief. Available from:
http://mande.co.uk/blog/wp-content/uploads/2012/03/2012-Comic-Re-
lief-Theory-of-Change-Review-FINAL.pdf

Cameron, L. and Shah, M., 2012. "Can Mistargeting Destroy Social Cap-
ital and Stimulate Crime?" Evidence from a Cash Transfer Program in In-
donesia. IZA Discussion Paper No. 6736, Institute for the Study of Labour,
Germany.

Alatas, V., Banerjee, A., Hanna, R., Olken, B., A., and Tobias, J., 2012.
Targeting the Poor: Evidence from a Field Experiment in Indonesia. Amer-
ican Economic Review 102(4): 1206–1240 Available From:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/aer.102.4.1206

Pogutz, S., 2014. IKEA and the Better Cotton Initiative. Università Boc-
coni, Italy.
Available From:
http://oikos-international.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/oikos_CWC_
CS_TRACK_2014_ikea.pdf

Yunus, M., Moingeon, B., and Lehmann-Ortega, L., 2010. Building So-
cial Business Models: Lessons from the Grameen Experience. Long Range
Planning 43 (2010) 308e325.
Available From:
http://www.elsevier.com/locate/lrp

D'Souza, A., V., 2013. Building a bloody bop business: A case study of

Ruby Cup and the needs and wants of consumers at the base of the pyramid. Frederiksberg. Available from:
http://hdl.handle.net/10417/4058

Hockerts, Kai (2014): "Makit Ltd: A Price Above Rubies - From Classroom Exercise to Social Business in Kenya," The Ruby Cup Business Plan. Copenhagen Business School, Denmark.

Johansson, J., 2012. Innovation in Underserved Markets. A study of innovation capabilities in social business ventures. Stockholm, Sweden. Available from:
https://gupea.ub.gu.se/bitstream/2077/29738/1/gupea_2077_29738_1.pdf

African Population and Health Research Centre, 2010. Experiences and Problems with Menstruation among Poor Women and Schoolgirls in Nairobi, Kenya. Policy Brief, 20.

Prahalad, C., K., 2010. The Fortune at the Bottom of the Pyramid – Eradicating poverty through profits. Pearson Education.

Mande, A., 2011. They ditched high salaries to follow their dreams. Rediff. Available From:
http://www.rediff.com/getahead/slide-show/slide-show-1-achievers-interview-with-neha-juneja-and-ankit-mathur/20110804.htm

Heister, P., 2010. Finanzierung von Social Entrepreneurship durch Venture Philanthropy und Social Venture Capital. Wiesbaden: Gabler.

Grosh, M., del Ninno, C., Tesliuo, E. and Ouerghi, A., 2008. For Protection and Promotion: The design and implementation of Safety Nets, World Bank, Washington D.C

Sulle, A., 2011. Result-Based Management in the Public Sector: A Decade of Experience for the Tanzanian Executive Agencies. Journal of Service Science and Management, 2011, 4, 499-506. Available From:
http://www.scirp.org/journal/PaperInformation.aspx?PaperID=9017

Cañeque, F. C, & Hart, S. (2015). Base of the pyramid 3.0: sustainable development through innovation and entrepreneurship. Sheffield: Greenleaf

Publiching.

Simanis, E., & Hart, S. L. (2009). Innovation from the inside out. MIT Sloan Management Review, 50(4), 77-86.

Krantz, Lasse. (2001). The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to Poverty Reduction An Introduction. SWEDISH INTERNATIONAL DEVELOP-MENT COOPERATION AGENCY S-105 25 Stockholm, Sweden.

Chambers, Robert & Conway, Gordon. (1992). Sustainable rural liveli-hoods: practical concepts for the 21st century. IDS Discussion Paper. 296.

DFID (1999a, 1999b, 2000d, 2001) Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheets, Numbers 1–8, London: Department for International Development (also available on www.livelihoods.org).

Carney, D. 1999. Introduction to sustainable rural livelihoods: What differ-ence can we make? London: Department for International Development.

Chambers, R. 1999. Relaxed and participatory appraisal: Notes on practi-cal approaches and methods. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Scoones, Ian. (1998). 'Sustainable rural livelihoods: A framework for analysis'. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex. Working Paper 72. www.ids.ac.uk/files/dmfile/Wp72.pdf
Sherraden, Michael. (1991). Assets and the Poor . Armonk, N.Y.: M.E. Sharpe
Bebbington, Anthony. (1999). Capitals and Capabilities: A Framework for Analyzing Peasant Viability, Rural Livelihoods and Poverty. World Devel-opment. 27. 2021-2044. 10.1016/S0305-750X(99)00104-7.
Corbett. .J., 1988, 'Famine and household coping strategies World Devel-opment vol 16 no 9. pp 1099- 1112

UNIVERSIDAD
DEL ZULIA

opción