Survey on the NGO sector in Portugal

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Catholic University of Portugal (UCP)

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PREFACE

The Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, within the overall framework of its philanthropic activities carried out to the benefit of its host community, has taken on an increasingly active role in rendering support to Civil Society Organizations, both through intervention in social responses and in defence of causes or in improving the workings of democracy.

This support has not only reached out to social intervention projects but also to the empowerment of Non Governmental Organizations as well as reflecting and promoting the mechanisms and processes that thus render the actions undertaken by these entities with altruistic vocations more sustainable, effective and with greater social impact.

This mission was recently strengthened by the Foundation's implementation of the Cidadania Ativa Programme following the selection process carried out by the countries funding the Financial Mechanism of the European Economic Area. This is the first broad programme exclusively dedicated to non governmental organization (NGO) initiatives and holds the ultimate goal of strengthening this sector and stimulating the more active participation of the populations in the design and implementation of the policies impacting on their lives.

The Cidadania Ativa Programme contains a four year duration – 2013 to 2016 –, involves €8.7 million in funding and also established the following priority areas: the participation of NGOs in the definition and implementation of public policies; human rights, non-discrimination and support for vulnerable groups; NGO empowerment; and the employability and social inclusion of young people.

In parallel to direct support for the projects run by Non Governmental Organizations, including cooperation with the donor countries, the Foundation launched diverse initiatives seeking, on the one hand, to update the information available and to better understand this sector, its restrictions in recent years and, on the other hand, to foster the terms necessary to endowing a greater level of visibility and sustainability to the development of these organizations.

Hence, this provides the context for the production of this study by the Catholic University of Portugal following a tender issued to all Portuguese universities. This sought to carry out a concise and up-to-date diagnosis of the NGO sector in Portugal, detailing to a greater or lesser extent its strengths and weaknesses and identifying those future paths to supporting the actions generating merit for the sector.

This study naturally began with a consideration of the actual Non Governmental Organization concept in order to define the universe of analysis. With the concept not typified by the Portuguese legal framework, the authors, inspired on the literature and international experience, had thus to define a coherent set of criteria capable of defining the set of philanthropic entities and justify their inclusion in an active civil society organizational support policy. Thus, this study would desirably serve as the basis for a broader reaching reflection on the subject, helping to cement the NGO concept.

Finally, a special mention of thanks to Professor Raquel Campos Franco and her team for the commitment shown in the production of this study, which enabled obstacles to be overcome and to submit, within a challenging timeframe, a high quality study that stands as a point of reference for Non Governmental Organizations in Portugal.

ISABEL MOTA
Member of the Board
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study was drawn up by the Catholic University of Portugal during 2014 for the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation with the aim of filling knowledge gaps on NGOs operating in Portugal. Its main contributions are as follows:

- definition of a **concept of NGO** based on **economic concepts** appropriate to this end and expressed in the form of a detailed description of the sectors of activities and of what NGOs and their legal statutes are believed to be;
- setting of a **database** that is consistent with that concept and built specifically for that purpose from an existing one (DES – Social Economy Directory) where all social economy organizations are included. This database is currently being built at the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto), and has made it possible to quantify **the total number of NGOs and their distribution by main sectors of activities, legal statuses and location**;
- a description of the **internal organization of NGOs** with regard to **governance and management, human resources, facilities, funding, networking and relationships with public bodies.** This description was based on an extensive nationwide survey conducted with 153 NGOs representing all the sectors of activities where NGOs operate; the latter was complemented by a smaller online survey conducted with 350 NGOs operating in the areas of Human Rights and Active Citizenship with a response rate of 20%; an econometric study of the factors influencing economic sustainability of IPSSs (social welfare entities); and 10 specific case studies on social NGOs and on NGOs operating in the sector of Human Rights and Active Citizenship.

THE CONCEPT OF NGO

According to the concept of NGO proposed in this study, non-governmental organizations are organizations that fulfill all the following criteria:

- They are **legal persons, civil and corporate**;
- They are **private** organizations, in the sense that they are a civil society initiative and, therefore, are not directly or indirectly administered by the State, are not part of the autonomous Public Administration and cannot be fitted within the category of collective interest undertakings;
- Their **governance is independent** from the State;
- Their **clients**, which generally do not coincide with their users, are **volunteers**, in the sense that they are free to contribute in cash, in kind or in voluntary work to the economic sustainability of these organizations;
- Their main mission is to encourage collective action to promote **relationships based on solidarity** between human beings and between the latter and the environment where they live;
- The overall outcome of the activities performed by these organizations when they carry out their main mission has the nature of a **public good** (e.g. reduction of poverty and of any other forms of social exclusion, protection of human rights, reduction of regional disparities, environmental protection, protection of architectural and cultural heritage, civil protection, improvement of public health, increasing knowledge in the public domain, etc.), although the goods and services they provide to their users individually can be private goods or services, or club goods, as long as that they are delivered in terms that do not undermine their mission but are instrumental to its completion (e.g. production of goods and services provided below cost by IPSSs to users who would not otherwise have access to them);
- **Surpluses** generated by these organizations are **reinvested** in the accomplishment of their mission and are not distributed amongst their owners, directors, employees, users or clients;
- The goods, which are the organization's assets, are managed according to the principle of **"universality"**, i.e., in a way that benefits society at large and not exclusively the owners, directors, employees, associates, clients or users of these organizations.

HISTORICAL ROLE OF NGOs IN THE PORTUGEUSE ECONOMY AND SOCIETY

In order to understand Portuguese NGOs today it is necessary to know their history, the diverse forms taken on by solidarity, either individually or collectively, what was behind the boosts they staged, what explains the control they have been subject to and the restrictions that have been imposed on them. These are the key moments in the history of NGOs, their institutions and main roles:

- Social solidarity organizations found in Portugal in the **Middle Ages** are either Church-related or strongly inspired by Christian values and by the works of mercy. Christian charity was the driving force behind the building of institutions.
- Brotherhoods are among the institutions that have taken a greater role in the Middle Ages. They are responsible for the building of hospitals, hospices and inns. The growth of medieval cities and the development of trades lead to the emergence of guilds, which are robust manifestations of lay associations.
- Poverty was instrumental: it is safe to assume that any projects led by the State or the Church to eradicate poverty were unessential since the poor were needed to strengthen the links of solidarity between the living and the dead for the redemption of the soul. Despite the absence of social concerns on the part of the State, welfare organizations were subject to royal and ecclesiastic scrutiny that regulated their performance.
- The service provided by the majority of these organizations did not stand out for its quality and there were recurring cases of mismanagement. This framework led to a restructuring of the welfare sector similar to what was happening elsewhere in Europe.
- In the **Modern Era,** the *misericórdias* became the most influential players in the welfare sector. These royal institutions with a Christian inspiration were founded by Queen Leonor in 1498 and were part of a larger movement that reorganized the welfare sector in Europe.
- The *misericórdias* were supported by the State right from the onset, which, in this way, sought to exert its control over their care-related activities.
- Brotherhoods also played a relevant role during this time in providing help to the needy while *corporações* (corporations) went on operating as charitable institutions.
- During the reign of José I the crown began to interfere more in the lives of institutions, not only in those that were under royal protection like the *misericórdias* and hospitals, but also in brotherhoods and *ordens terceiras* (third orders).
- The establishment of the constitutional monarchy marked the beginning of the **Liberal Era**, which entailed significant changes in the main areas of activity of the *misericórdias*. Some of the services that they provided were deleted and they began to be monitored and inspected by the administrative bodies created by the new political order.

- This was a period of intense development for associations with the emergence of societies, associations and clubs in different social and professional quarters and for various purposes. The extinction of *corporações* (corporations) in 1834 was followed by the creation of the first association in 1839. In the late nineteenth century, the number of associations connected to the labor movement was already relevant. Mutual societies appear in response to the difficult living and working conditions of the working classes, particularly laborers, who were unprotected and exposed to various risks. The last years of the nineteenth century are characterized by the appearance of the first cooperatives and trade associations which, similarly to mutual societies, were able to overcome the difficulties the country went through at the time. Farmers' unions gain momentum and associations of a Catholic nature appear.
- The eradication of poverty remained a pipe dream, only to be marginally compensated by the work of the *misericórdias,* brotherhoods and *ordens terceiras* (third orders) – the last two more focused on assisting their brethren – and of the Church. Despite the nineteenth-century secularizing intents, the Church continued to play a central role in assisting those in need.
- During the **Estado Novo** period, centralized power becomes wary of and hostile to civil society organizations, particularly mutual societies and cooperatives, seen as bodies of a collectivist nature. In an effort to control the activities of associations, the State drove out governing bodies, persecuted activists, extinguished certain associations and integrated others into corporate institutions that had been set up such as *Casas do Povo* (community meeting houses) and *Casas dos Pescadores* (meeting houses for fishermen).
- Welfare is basically dominated by the Church with its *Centros Paroquiais* (parochial centers), and the Portuguese Caritas comes into being after the Second World War.
- After the **25th of April 1974**, civil engagement became particularly dynamic in different areas of activity and citizens got increasingly involved in various types of associations such as unions, employers' organizations, social solidarity institutions, aid agencies, cultural, sports and recreational associations. After Portugal joined the European Economic Community, the number of organizations, particularly associations and cooperatives, increased significantly.

The level of engagement of Portuguese civil society in social movements is low. The country, however, has known a few social movements in recent centuries although they have not been as significant here as in other countries.

- Examples of **"early social movements"** are to be found in Portugal in the beginnings of the liberal capitalist society in the first half of the nineteenth century. They took the form of subsistence riots and acts of banditry led by gangs of thieves that operated in the most isolated parts of the country.

- The process of industrialization in Portugal happened later and at a slower pace than in the other industrial nations. As a result, the **labor movement** also developed more slowly.
- From the 1870s, Portuguese workers begin to let go of the bourgeoisie's patronizing protectionism and become truly class conscious.
- As the country entered the twentieth century and a new regime was established, the tension in the relations between the working class and the power groups was not defused. Social unrest which led to strikes, persecutions and arrests, got worse when Portugal entered the First World War and the living conditions in the country began to deteriorate, especially for the people living in the urban centers.
- After the setting up of the authoritarian regime, the labor movement entered into a period marked by repression and persecution, during which workers were forced to carry on their resistance underground or under semi-clandestine conditions.
- The Portuguese **women's movement** is linked to the creation of the *Liga Portuguesa da Paz* (Portuguese Peace League), which included a feminist section from 1906 and gained importance with the rise of republican currents. The arrival of the Republic awarded certain civil rights to women although they continued to be denied political rights such as the right to vote, which was not recognized until 1931 under specific conditions. Due to its elitist nature, the women's movement was not marked by violence unlike some of its counterparts.
- During the *Estado Novo* only the women's organizations that were supported by the regime were allowed. In the 1950s, women took part in opposition movements to the regime. In the late 1960s and in the 1970s mostly, the women's movement became more vibrant although it pursued different goals and focused more in issues like sexuality, love and career.
- From 1974, the women's movement takes up new causes and focuses on new fights such as the decriminalization of abortion and the right to contraception. However, immediately after the end of the authoritarian regime many of the women's claims became less pressing given the myriad of problems faced by Portuguese society.
- During the 1970s, the Women's Liberation Movement appeared, in the wake of the *Novas Cartas Portuguesas* (New Portuguese Letters) trial, presenting itself as a more radical wing of the women's movement. These issues were kept alive within the Portuguese movements throughout the 1980s, although the feminist wave lost some of its impetus.
- During the 1990s women's movements became global. The most recent causes include the campaign for parity and the fight against domestic violence. At the turn of the millennium, abortion was the issue at the centre of the political agendas and of women's movements.
- **Student movement** in Portugal grew stronger during the 1960s although the opposition to *Estado Novo* began just after its introduction and intensified in the 1950s, after the Second World War. The fight against the regime was fuelled by ideals such as freedom and equality. The defense of universities' autonomy and the opposition to the colonial war were the issues at the core of the student demands.

- Political meetings were prohibited, so many young people discussed their ideas and exchanged views within local or parochial movements with a Catholic basis, which were unlikely to arouse the suspicion of the political police.
- From the 1970s, student movements toughened their stance against the regime, which explains the strong politicization of academia and of its demands in Portugal. The penetration of extreme leftwing groups in academia also played a role in this. Opposition to war became a key issue for the student movement.
- Student movements in the 1990s revolved around the debate and the fight against tuition fees.
- Regarding **peace movements,** with the consolidation of liberal states from the middle of the nineteenth century onwards there is a proliferation of peace and antimilitarist associations in which women played a relevant role. At the outbreak of the First World War, the peace movement was negligible in Portugal.
- The **environmental movements** and the development of a culture of environmental associations in Portugal needs to be seen in the context of a string of social trends that characterized the country throughout the twentieth century and that Soromenho-Marques summed up in four essential points: prevailing rural environment, lack of competitiveness, poor literacy combined with a flimsy organization of civil society and a bureaucratic and outdated State.
- Until de mid-1980s, the Portuguese environmental movement faces serious difficulties to establish itself within the country, given that public opinion was still more focused on other priorities (consolidation of democracy and fight against poverty). Another reason has to do with the strong individualism and fragmentation of the various interventions in support of the environment.
- During the 1990s, despite the disappearance of a number of structures that had sprung in the previous decade, a few Portuguese NGOs (Quercus, Liga para a Proteção da Natureza, GEOTA) succeed in influencing the national environmental agenda through their staff's level of training and qualifications, most of which were recruited from an urban elite.
- The **LGBT movement** in Portugal has gone through three different stages, in line with the pattern followed in Southern European countries: the first stage (1974-1991) is subdivided into two different periods that are separated by the development of the AIDS epidemic (1984-1986; homosexuality was decriminalized in Portugal in 1982); the second stage (1991-1997) begins with the setting up of the first long-lasting association and includes a transition period with mixed characteristics (1995-1997); in the last stage (begun in the mid-1990s) organizations with representativeness and visibility within the community arose. They brought pressure on party-political bodies and had their own political agenda.

INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF NGOs IN PORTUGAL AND THEIR POSITION WITHIN SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANIZATIONS

One of the goals of this Study was to provide data on the **total number of organizations** that matched the concept of NGO proposed in section 1 and on their **geographical distribution, main sectors of activity and legal statuses**. Thus:

- for the whole country and using **DES – Social Economy Directory**, which is being organized by *ATES-Área Transversal de Economia Social da Universidade Católica (Porto)*, **17,012 organizations** with features corresponding to the concept of NGO proposed in this study were accounted for;

- the **central core** of this cluster, which accounts for one third of the total number of NGOs, corresponds to organizations that stem from an effective initiative coming from the people on a **territorial basis that is generally below municipality level** (at parish level or of related parishes) and are aimed at providing a collective response to the need for **social services** (through IPSSs, i.e., social welfare entities, and other organizations in this area), responding to **emergency** situations (through humanitarian organizations of voluntary firemen) and to **needs for artistic and cultural expression**, often combined with recreational purposes (through cultural, recreational and sports collectives and residents' associations);

- the remaining NGOs stem from groups where that territorial basis and the need for community-based services are non-existent, or are not as relevant, as in the case of activities related to science, environmental protection, human rights protection, education and development, cooperation and other international activities;

- thinking of that as the central core of Portuguese NGOs one of the consequences on their geographical distribution is a **regional disparity in the ratio of the number of inhabitants per NGO** which is significantly lower in the hinterland than in coastal districts; this is likely to have an increasingly negative impact on the NGOs that operate in the hinterland as the population in this part of the country decreases;

- the district of Lisbon is the **exception** to this regional distribution due to a specialization that is out of line with the model of "Cultural, Recreational and Sports Collectives / IPSS (social welfare entities) and other social service NGOs / Humanitarian Organizations of Firemen" justified by the fact that it is home of most scientific societies, of NGOs with international activities and of a great number of immigrant and immigrant-support associations;

- NGOs geared to providing services and allocating resources to support social economy organizations are beginning to emerge. This group of organizations, however, is still relatively small and is not diversified enough to provide a satisfactory response to these support needs;

◦ until this day, the only **national platform with representativeness and some bargaining power**, and strong enough to have an effective influence on funding and on public policy measures, came from within the group of "Cultural, Recreational and Sports Collectives / IPSS and other social services NGOs / Humanitarian Organizations of Firemen" which is at the very core of the NGO sector. To be more precise they are umbrella organizations for IPSS (CNIS, *União das Misericórdias Portuguesas* and *União das Mutualidades Portuguesas*).

THE CAPACITY OF THE NGO SECTOR

The methodologies adopted in this study were designed to meet the demands of the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation and were developed in cooperation with it. Two surveys aimed at describing the NGO sector in Portugal were developed and administered to a significant number of organizations. Case studies were also carried out to gain a better and deeper understanding of the sector in a real-life context. The purpose of the surveys was to collect data that will serve as a basis for the analysis of the capacity of the NGO sector in Portugal, while the case studies helped to give greater emphasis to contextual issues and enrich the level of detail of the collected data, in order to address such explanatory issues as "how" and "why". Here is a summary of the results obtained:

A) Governance and Management
The surveys tell us that:
◦ The NGOs operating in Portugal are led by volunteers, predominantly highly-educated, middle-aged men;
◦ The NGOs operating in Portugal are led by volunteers that are committed to their management duties. They are not easy to replace but they do not perpetuate themselves in their jobs and their succession is not dynastic;
◦ The statutory Boards ("Boards" from now on) delegate decisions on current matters to executive directors, but the former are still not very open to external participation and scrutiny, despite evidence that internal participation is beginning to take on a certain course.
◦ NGOs have increasingly invested in implementing marketing activities and in strategic planning, although there is still a long way to go.

The case studies tell us that:
◦ Having **effective statutory bodies, with special emphasis on the Board,** is essential for implementing successful management practices. Most of the organizations surveyed refer

that the **involvement** of all those who take part in the life of the organization is a critical element for success. This should be achieved by delegating competences to all actors by making them accountable and autonomous. Even larger organizations with tighter management procedures are willing to put into practice more participatory and flexible methodologies. Although the Board plays a decisive role in ensuring the success of the organization, some NGOs report experiencing difficulties in finding competent and motivated people who are willing to commit to their duties (almost always as volunteers) as members of the statutory Bodies. This difficulty in attracting people, together with the financial problems faced by many organizations, explains why more informal and centralized managing structures still prevail in many of the NGOs surveyed, in which the sBoard tends to multiply its roles and duties. Although likely to weaken the management of NGOs, this accumulation can also encourage proximity between the Board and the whole team, who is forced to work together to ensure the survival of the organization.

The assignment of different "areas of responsibility" to members of the Board is often referred to as a successful way to organize and distribute responsibilities amongst all the members of the Board. Communication and articulation between the Board, the executive director and the teams operating on the ground is fundamental. Here are a few examples of management practices that were identified as likely to encourage a smooth flow of information (both top-down and bottom-up): the presence of executive members in the Board, regular meetings between the Board and the teams working on the ground, the existence of an intermediary (secretary general) who is a bridge between the Board and the organization's day-to-day operations and a Board where all the different key departments are represented.

Organizations refer that **strategic planning** provides a long-term view that goes beyond the mandate of the statutory bodies and is a guarantee of stability for the organization's strategy. Some, however, said that they have faced difficulties in the formal establishment of long-term objectives.

- Virtually all NGOs declared that **Marketing and Communication** is a crucial area for the future of the organization. The promotion of the image of the NGO, its dissemination and recognition by the community can have positive impacts on fundraising and sustainability. In spite of this awareness, however, some of the surveyed organizations have only recently begun to concentrate on this area. Others believe that this is one of those fields that need to be further developed whereas others mention the lack of human resources and of a specific department for this purpose.

Quality certification processes are identified as crucial contributors to service quality and as an important differentiating factor from competitors. This certification process, a challenging task due to lack of time, skills and resources, is still at an early stage (or has not yet started), in some of the surveyed organizations.

B) Paid workers and volunteers

The surveys tell us that:

- Paid workers are mostly female workers who work full-time under open-ended contracts;
- The staff management system is somewhat formal in a high percentage of NGOs, but despite the improvements in recent years the need for training remains considerable;
- Volunteers are present (in addition to those who are members of the statutory bodies) in most NGOs, although in small numbers in each organization and in most cases without a contract and lacking volunteer training.

The case studies tell us that:

- **Paid workers** are regarded as a fundamental asset for organizations. All the surveyed NGOs state that, by virtue of their mission, the recruitment of employees who are aligned with the vision of the organization is a key element in the success of their work. Organizations recognize that the high standards and availability required by the tasks carried out by paid workers often demand a service-minded attitude and a sense of mission that befit volunteers. Some employees have been involved with the organization for many years before being hired. Some are former users, others are volunteers, which may help them to be aligned with the organization's cause and vision. The level of demand of their duties, on the one hand, and the financial difficulties faced by the organizations, which prevent them from paying very high wages, on the other, lead the Board and executive diretors of the different NGOs to experience difficulties in recruiting a higher number of qualified employees which would be of relevance to the development of on-site activities. Most of the organizations surveyed report having implemented a written handbook with a job description for each job as well as a performance assessment process. Even smaller organizations, where the performance assessment process does not translate into significant career advancement as the organization's internal structure is very small, make an effort to use this assessment to identify the most pressing needs in training so that employees can grow and enrich their skills. Some organizations stress the need to increase and develop the management skills of their employees.
- The role and importance of **volunteers** differ greatly from organization to organization. Some NGOs rely on the work of volunteers for their activities and employ very few paid workers; others look at volunteers as an additional means to enrich their activity and do not think of them as replacers for paid workers.
  Organizations whose work on the ground relies on the work of volunteers often refer that volunteer training and monitoring is of great importance, as is encouraging them to be independent, engaged and responsible people. Organizations that resort less to the work of volunteers often report bad experiences at this level. They also mention the difficulty in attracting, on a regular basis, volunteers with the right profile in terms of maturity, commit-

ment and resilience. However, these organizations also express the wish to improve their strategy to manage volunteers, which allows us to raise the issue of whether or not failures are related to faults in the management of volunteers.

In addition to the work done within organizations, several NGOs mention the relevance of volunteers in disseminating the work of organizations with the community or in promoting the image of the NGO. Several organizations highlight that the changes in the economic context in the aftermath of the crisis, the difficulties experienced in the job market and certain social and cultural changes have made it difficult to attract enough volunteers and, above all, with the desired quality. The increased awareness of social issues on the part of the community and the availability of extremely qualified people that have reached retirement age are likely to open up new opportunities for volunteer work.

C) Sharing of resources, networking and relationships with public bodies
The surveys tell us that:
- The sharing of material and human resources is not very common and is only relevant with regard to the use of facilities;
- Networking and partnerships can be found in most NGOs, but they are probably centered on the sharing of information and not of other types of resources;
- NGO's most frequent dealings are with the public bodies that are closest to them (de-concentrated Central Government and local government). These are also better quality dealings and the ones that are more likely to lead to partnerships.

The case studies tell us that:
- The relevance of **networks and partnerships** with public bodies or private organizations differs according to the type of activities developed by the organization. However, nearly all of the surveyed NGOs stress the importance of these partners:
  · In sharing best practice;
  · In promoting synergies;
  · In maximizing complementary features and in sharing resources;
  · In broadening knowledge and experience on the field;
  · In improving service quality.

Some NGOs point to the lack of efficiency and to the inoperability of certain networks, as well as to the difficulty in setting up partnerships with funding public bodies on a horizontal basis. With respect to this, the surveyed NGOs refer that the work carried out with central government decentralized agencies, municipalities and *Juntas de Freguesia* (parish level administrative authorities) is more effective, more open and more participatory. This confirms the results obtained in the more extensive survey conducted with NGOs.

D) Income and expenditure structure

The surveys tell us that:

- Considering that personnel costs are the main share in NGOs' costs, more and better partnerships could be one way to increase efficiency in the purchase and use of goods and services;

- Public funding constitutes a very important source of income for NGOs. It is complemented with contributions from users and donations from private individuals. Corporate donations are still not very relevant;

- The majority of NGOs is engaged in obtaining funding from private donors, mostly from individuals rather than from businesses. Most of them, however, lack organization and skills in this field;

- The most important issues for NGOs are those relating to their economic sustainability.

The case studies tell us that:

- **Financing difficulties** are clearly the main concern of the organizations interviewed and those answering the surveys. Nearly all the organizations refer to a perception of decrease in the availability of public funding as one of the greatest challenges for their sustainability. Diversifying the sources of funding is therefore identified as an essential step for their survival.

However, the case studies show very diverse realities with respect to the revenue structure. Some organizations rely on public funding for 85% of their budget, while others are very skillful at attracting private funding (which may reach as much as 60%). Several organizations report difficulties in attracting financial support from businesses (or in maintaining this support) due to the difficult financial and economic situation. Businesses, however, are much more responsive to partnerships and to the provision of pro bono specialized services, a type of support regarded as essential by some of the surveyed NGOs. This support is not accounted for as a donation by some organizations and is only seen as a cost reduction (and not as "inflow").

With regard to **funding based on applications to national or European public incentive programs**, the surveyed NGOs identified the following specific problems: the organizations' field work becomes dependent on a list of priorities that may not always coincide with theirs; some organizations feel that the whole application process is difficult and costly (in terms of money and resources); references were also made to a certain lack of adjustment of public policies, which often tend more to the funding of large projects (and large NGOs), excluding small organizations.

Own revenue potential is referred to by some NGOs, but it lacks development and additional investment on the part of nearly all the surveyed organizations. NGOs indicate the increasing difficulties encountered by users to pay their contributions. Membership

fees have an almost residual value and, despite a large number of members, several of the NGOs surveyed find it very difficult to ensure that they pay their fees on time. Several NGOs seem to be pondering the use of own revenues to set up social businesses in the near future. This, however, is merely a possibility that organizations are still analyzing and maturing.

- Some of the organizations surveyed emphasized the urgent need to develop **skills** in the area of fundraising and to increase the knowledge on the "market" of potential private donors. Organizations that manage to obtain good funding from private donors report that it is crucial to secure the loyalty of benefactors. This is largely achieved through tailored communication, transparency in the presentation of accounts and regular reporting of the results of the work undertaken by organizations.

The more general case studies tell us that:
- **Context** is described by organizations as increasingly difficult, dynamic and complex. Sometimes, NGOs refer to it as a threat. Others, however, see it as an opportunity. Financial problems are equally seen as a threat to the sustainability of NGOs and simultaneously as an incentive and an opportunity for NGOs to reinvent themselves.
- The **growing demands of users**, the **increasing complexity of problems** to be resolved and the **increased competitiveness** from other organizations, both in the services provided and in the access to funding, are some of the issues faced by NGOs. Another challenge is the building of capacities within the organizations that operate in this sector, which will need to prove they are equal to the task that lies ahead.

SECTION 5

INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS

In order to understand Portuguese NGOs it is important to understand the European and international reality of nonprofit and social economy organizations. Our goal was twofold: firstly, to highlight the peculiarities of this sector in Portugal compared with other European countries with respect to its legal framework, composition and evolution over time; secondly, to describe the impact of this sector on the economy and on the well-being of the population comparing it with other countries by presenting specific cases of particular interest. Thus, to summarise:

- In the US, the third sector arises from the reaction against eighteenth-century European absolutism and the power of State-Church relations. It has therefore been held as an ideal

type of liberal model of civil society where a low level of government spending for social and welfare services – such as healthcare, education, culture, and welfare – has been associated with a large nonprofit sector, financed not only (and mainly) by the state but also by private donations.

- In Western Europe, social economy organizations – in the form of cooperatives, associations, foundations and mutual societies – were already active and central to the provision of social services before the Second World War.

- It is possible to identify four different specific patterns in Europe:

  The Bismarckian or "corporativist" countries such as Germany, France, Belgium, and Ireland – where social economy organizations have historically played a significant role in the welfare and healthcare sectors, usually under the supervision and financial support of public bodies, in particular for the implementation of labor policies for marginalized people who have been rejected from the job market.

  The Nordic countries, including Sweden, Finland, and Norway – where nonprofit organizations have always had a peripheral role and have been mainly focused on advocacy and representative activities because of the dominant role of public bodies in the provision of public services and goods in the education, welfare, and healthcare sectors.

  The United Kingdom – follows a liberal model in which a low level of public spending for social services is associated with a strong nonprofit and voluntary sector that is largely financed by private sources.

  The Southern European Countries, namely Portugal, Spain, and Italy – after the dictatorships, during the late 1970s and early 1980's, these countries experienced high level of unemployment and the inability of the State to provide adequate social services; so social economy organizations re-acquired centrality in the provision of public services, particularly in the welfare and in the personal service sectors.

- Social services in particular is the most important area of intervention in Southern European countries (Italy, Spain and Portugal), where the nonprofit sector has historically replaced the State in this area of activity. While in France and in the UK, social economy organizations are prevailing in the provision of expressive services (culture and education), in Scandinavian countries they have an exceptional relevance as political actors that identify unaddressed problems – such as human rights violations, pollution – and bring them to the public.

- With respect to legislation, the role of social economy actors such as cooperatives, mutual societies, associations and foundations as legitimate civil society private agents has been recognized in nearly all European countries. However, not all forms of social economy, particularly cooperatives, have been recognized to a similar extent.

- The US is more highly dependent on private donations than Portugal, where, by contrast, nonprofit organizations depend very much on public funding.

A few data:

- Associations and foundations are the main social economy "family" in Europe, comprising more than 2.5 million organizations (92%), and employing more than 9.2 million people in the EU-27, that is more than 65% of employment in the sector.
- Social economy organizations have a significant impact on European economy, since on average they provide employment opportunities to 6.5% of the working population in EU-27 countries.
- In Portugal and comparable countries, the impact of social economy on total employment is well under the European average, although the sector has grown significantly in all these countries in the last ten years.
- Among comparable countries, Portugal, with more than 250,000 workers, has the largest sector, followed by Austria and Denmark.
- On average, social economy organizations in Portugal employ 5.2 paid workers per organization, slightly over the EU-27.
- In Portugal, the sector of social services is the sector that relies the most on the contributions of volunteers.
- While in Scandinavian countries volunteers represent a significant percentage of the national GDP – which is consistent with the heritage of civil engagement in these countries – in South European countries like Italy and Portugal, and in many eastern countries (like the Czech Republic and Hungary), the value of volunteering is below 1% of the GDP.
- Associations play a dominant role in all European countries, particularly the UK and Germany (where they represent more than 90% of the population), with the significant exception of Italy, where cooperatives represent almost 70% of the population of third sector organizations.

SECTION 6
CONCLUSIONS, SWOT ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following SWOT analysis is based on the data collected in the extensive survey conducted with 153 NGOs and in the online survey with Human Rights NGOs, as well as on the information obtained for the case studies that were undertaken. The samples used, deliberately small to ensure the feasibility of the data collection and which would create the basis for an analysis intended to be thorough and comprehensive in thematic areas, do not allow any extrapolation of the analyzed material to the NGO sector. However, they do provide many possible routes for what might be found in the real-life context of the organizations that operate in it. Strengths and weaknesses are the result of the internal analysis of the NGOs studied; threats and opportunities are the result of the analysis of the surrounding environment as expressed by the examined NGOs and complemented by the research team.

SWOT ANALYSIS – STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS

STRENGTHS

1. Social Bodies

- Participatory management models: some NGOs refer to management models that promote the interaction between the different social bodies and between the latter and all the members of the organization as positive inasmuch as they strengthen the bonds between people.

- Articulation between the Board and the executive director: as reported by some organizations, a good articulation between the executive director and the Board is considered crucial for the success of NGOs. The presence of executive members in the Board, regular meetings between the Board and teams working on the ground, the existence of an intermediary (secretary general) who is a bridge between the Board and the day-to-day operations of the organization and the executive director are some examples of practices identified as likely to encourage the smooth flow of information (both top-down and bottom-up).

- Decision-making autonomy of the executive director and executive team: the medium-high decision-making autonomy of the executive director, shown by NGOs, may be a strength, even though it depends on this managers' competences and on the capacity of the Board to play its role properly as an organ of governance.

- Unpaid Board members: unpaid Board members facilitate independent decision-making, although the fact that they are not paid to perform their role may also lead to the assumption that it will be hard to ask them for greater commitment and availability. In some non-IPSS, employees are allowed to be part of the Board although they cannot form a majority upon deliberation of the organizations themselves and in line with the best international practices.

- NGOs regard the existence of an advisory board as a positive point. However, only a few report having one.

2. Management Practices

- Marketing practices: the majority of NGOs report focusing on marketing (see, however, "marketing skills" in Weaknesses). NGOs are very much aware that their success depends on the importance of dissemination, communication and raising awareness.

- Implementation of quality management systems: the majority of NGOs with IPSS status has implemented or is in the process of implementing a quality management system. Being a good sign of positive development with respect to the quality of NGOs' management, it must be treated with caution. The affirmative answer does not tell us anything about the results that have been achieved due to the certification processes.

- Strategic planning: most NGOs reported having strategic plans and the majority of those that do have them monitor and assess their implementation. These results, however, do not give any indications about the quality of the process and about its results (see "strategic management skills" in Weaknesses). Some organizations draw up their strategic plans separately from the elections to choose the members of their social bodies. This is a good practice that counters the possible tendency to change strategy every time there is a change in the Board. NGOs that do their strategic planning in a participatory way are able to encourage the involvement of all its members.
- Business plans/budgets: most NGOs develop their business plans and budgets. However, there remains the question of how these tools are effectively used to ensure an effective and efficient management of the organization.
- Member participation: in the specific case of associations, the participation of their members in decision-making processes is recognized as positive; it leads them to be further engaged in the organization, even if in larger organizations, with a more complex structure decision-making, it can prove to be less straightforward. The NGOs operating in the area of Human Rights showed greater focus on association-related activities although a great number of their members remain inactive.

3. Human Resources

3.1. Paid workers

- Identification and sense of mission: employees show a strong identification with the cause and a strong sense of mission. This engagement with the NGO is a consequence of the organizations' own mission and of the fact that many employees used to work for the organization as volunteers or users of the services it provides.
- Investment in qualification: in the last three decades organizations have been compelled to invest in the qualification of their technical staff, particularly in the areas relating to their sector of activity. This investment in training is identified as a key area. It is, however, still insufficient both in number of NGOs and in the number of hours of training offered by each.
- Performance assessment systems: the existence of a performance assessment system in 40% of the surveyed NGOs is a good indication that the activity is being monitored in order to achieve its goals. However, only by collecting data on the design and on the processes linked to the assessment system would we be able to understand the true impact they have in the organization's activity and in the achievement of results and in the accomplishment of their mission. This assessment is used to identify training areas even in those small NGOs where performance assessment is not relevant for career development.
- Awareness of lack of management skills: the fact that Boards are aware of which skills need to be developed within their organizations is an excellent basis for investing in their

development. In the top 10 skills that were identified as being missing, the majority has to do with marketing and fundraising (e.g. external image and communication, fundraising campaigns, management and mobilization of members); also missing are skills related to strategic management (comprising monitoring skills to assess results and impacts), and others connected to such areas as drafting of reports, identification of donors as well as funding lines and application processes to obtain European funds.

3.2. Volunteers

- Most NGOs already employ volunteers. (see, however, "Volunteers" in Weaknesses) Half of the NGOs operating in the area of Human Rights that were surveyed online did not employ paid workers, which is an indication of the significant value of volunteers.
- Challenges overcame by some NGOs (not many) in managing volunteers: Some NGOs (not many) shared some interesting experience-based knowledge regarding the manage-ment of volunteers. Although seen as strengths, the majority of these points are not yet real:

  · Training of volunteers is essential for a good volunteer experience.
  · Securing regular attendance and punctuality from volunteers is reported as important.
  · Encouraging autonomy and self-reliance among volunteers is also necessary.
  · Current and former volunteers enable to expand the network of contacts and of poten-tial benefactors and to publicize the NGO's activities.
  · Attracting volunteers equipped with technical and human skills and maturity is vital.

4. Funding and Allocation of Resources

- Sharing: Some institutions already share facilities (see "Sharing" in Weaknesses)
- Diversification: Growing effort on the part of NGOs to diversify their sources of funding. In NGOs operating in the area of Human Rights, the reported breakdown of funds among the three main sources (public, private and own funds) was balanced, in contrast to the survey conducted with 153 NGOs, where public funding had a higher weight, followed by own funds and private donations, which accounted only for a small share of funding. There is, however, a growing perception of the need to invest in the diversification of sources of funding.
- European funding: growing focus of some NGOs on obtaining European funding, although evidence shows that this is mainly achieved through programs managed by Portugal.
- Own revenues: growing perception of the potential for increased own revenues by turning the vast know-how accumulated in their areas of activity into profitable services. In some cases, this perception arises from the lack of alternative sources of funding, while in others it comes from the opportunities created by social innovation and social entrepreneurship.

- Business pro bono: pro bono services provided by businesses (legal services, financial services, market research, marketing and communication, etc.) may play an important role in the NGO sustainability, as found in this study.
- Donor loyalty: the loyalty of benefactors must be maintained through a close relationship. Transparency in the presentation of accounts and in the reporting of the results of the work undertaken by organizations is a key element in securing donor loyalty. This is an area which few NGOs are experienced with.
- International funds: growing investment in raising funds in foreign countries (especially in the cases of NGOs with an international activity).
- Rigor: growing awareness of the importance of rigor in financial management, made clear by financially weak situations brought to light in recent years due to their seriousness and because transparency of accounts is becoming increasingly crucial to obtaining funding among potential donors.

5. Relationships with partners
- Networks and partnerships: networks and partnerships are essential to fostering mutual learning, exchanging experiences and best practices and the cooperation with public bodies and with civil society. Most NGOs is involved in at least one partnership and one network.
- Partnerships: growing realization that partnerships help to strengthen responses and services, share resources and achieve synergies. NGOs have been investing in business partnerships and have been trying to establish close relationships with municipalities and local government.

WEAKNESSES

1. Social Bodies
- Succession of "leaderships": although not as relevant as might have been anticipated, aspects like the age of NGO leaders, the time they remain in their posts and their investment in the training of possible (younger) successors remain points of attention. The great difficulty in finding people who are motivated and willing to perform management roles was also mentioned.
- Advisory body: the majority of organizations do not have an advisory board, which represents a missed opportunity for acquiring additional knowledge, networking and possible access to additional resources.
- Some statutory Boards still accumulate many duties thanks to certain informality or to unprofessional NGO management or to lack of knowledge on the differences between their governance duties and the management tasks that they must delegate to the executive director. In fact, many NGOs struggle with their leaders' inability or difficulty in

understanding the difference between governance and management. They mix one with the other in practice and this leads to mismanagement, misuse of powers, inefficiency and inefficacy, etc. etc.

- Members of the General Meeting and of the Audit Committee are still not very proactive and they play merely formal roles.

2. Management Practices

- Strategic planning: in some cases Boards, which are responsible for setting the organization's strategic outlines for action, are not actively involved or have a minor involvement in the definition of the strategic plans, which are developed and implemented by the executive director/team.
- Strategic connection / operations: the connection between strategic and annual plans appears to be questionable. Annual plans are often developed without including extended and long-term guidelines for the organization.
- Private donors: organizations have little experience in raising funds among private individuals and struggle with precarious levels of organization and structuring.
- Online presence: Although many organizations have their own websites and are registered in different social networks, they are often out of date and focus little on attracting people interested in cooperating, either economically or as volunteers.
- Presentation of accounts: lack of appropriate mechanisms for presenting accounts to society as a whole and to members and collaborators. Especially for donors, the presentation of accounts should include economical data explaining how donations were used by the organization or in its activities, results and impacts.
- Marketing skills: the fact that these were identified as one of the skills to be developed points to the existence of little or no marketing skills. This severely curtails the effectiveness of their performance in fundraising, among other things (including winning over new members, for instance). Furthermore, a small number of NGOs reports having a strategic document for this area (see "marketing" in Strengths)
- Strategic management skills: in addition to showing that many organizations are still below what they have planned in this area, the alleged need for strategic management skills can be an indication that in some NGOs strategic planning might still be at an early stage.
- Codes of conduct: The number of organizations with codes of conduct on organizational practices or that have subscribed to the codes of the networks, confederations, platforms that they belong to is still insufficient.
- Local intervention vs. Global Perspective?: intervention of NGOs is mainly at local level (which is not a weakness in itself) and not balanced by an appropriate global perspective on sources of funding for instance. NGOs are not aware of and/or do not have the skills to obtain some of the funds that are available abroad.

3. Human Resources

2.1. Paid workers

- Many NGOs have an insufficient number of employees.
- Recruitment: Difficulty in finding qualified employees mostly in the fields of management and marketing. Recruitment processes are still very little structured and often lack large-scale publicizing.
- Burnout risk due to the accumulation of responsibilities, weariness or to the psychological demands imposed by the work developed at all levels of the hierarchy.
- Wages: employees are paid low wages (although organizations believe that changing this reality goes beyond their control). Organizations have inadequate financial means to employ human resources that can work exclusively in such areas as external communication or fundraising. There is still little awareness for the need to include these areas in the organizational chart and to hire people to perform these roles on an exclusive basis.

2.2. Volunteers

- Number of volunteers: Although most of the surveyed organizations employ volunteers, they tend to be few in number in each organization. Some of them report not needing volunteers or that the organization does not appeal to volunteers (answers to the question on the reasons for not employing volunteers). The comparably low number of answers regarding occasional volunteers (compared to regular volunteers) may be a sign of lack of knowledge of the distinction between the two types or of the inability to recognize the value of one-off volunteers if all the processes that are related to them are well managed (from attracting people to the organization to managing them within it). The number of volunteers has decreased (due to the economic crisis, for instance). There has also been a decrease in the quality of younger volunteers who lack maturity and do not have a multidisciplinary perspective.
- Skills for managing volunteers: NGOs need to develop skills to manage volunteers. It is not clear whether the bad experiences reported by some organizations as having to do with volunteers are not a consequence of these weaknesses in management.
- Structuring the area: in many organizations this area is not structured both at the level of attracting, recruiting, welcoming and training volunteers and with regard to monitoring, assessing and recognizing their work.

4. Funding and Allocation of Resources

- Diversity of sources: low diversity of sources of funding.
- Precarious financial situation of some NGOs.
- Member participation: the number of members is reduced and many are not actually active (e.g. membership fees not up to date). Most of the surveyed NGOs states that the

number of members will increase. That growth potential does exist in NGOs in general if we look at what is happening in other countries. (see, however, "marketing skills" in Weaknesses)

- Skills for preparing project applications, particularly international projects: elected as one of the skills that NGOs lack and on which they wish to focus on. A good part of the Portuguese organizations ignores to which international organizations they can submit requests and applications. Lack of experience in obtaining funds from international foundations. Poor skills on writing proposals or applications in a foreign language.
- Sharing: very few institutions report sharing vehicles.
- Public funds: NGOs perceive that there will be a decrease in public funding. Some of them depend largely on public funding.
- Private donations: NGOs recognize their lack of knowledge on the private donors' market.
- Financing per project: NGOs identify a few problems related to the financing of projects that render their work on the ground dependent on a set of priorities that may not coincide with their own. Some organizations find the whole application process difficult and expensive (in terms of time and resources). NGOs that use financing per project say it is more one-off and irregular.
- Cash holdings: cash management can be a constant challenge as a result of its irregularity and of the unpredictability of cash inflows.
- Users: In some NGOs, the number of users who cannot afford to pay their contributions has increased.
- Agreements: Some NGOs experience difficulties in revising their agreement with Social Security.

5. Relationships with partners
- Ineffectiveness: the inoperability of some networks, local and national. Existence of merely formal partnerships, on paper. Difficulty in dealing with protagonism and in managing personal relationships.
- Funding public bodies: Difficulty in establishing a dialogue on a more horizontal basis with financial national public bodies.
- Few international partnerships.
- Businesses: Difficulty in interacting with the business world from a mutually beneficial perspective.

OPPORTUNITIES

- Federations: Growing skills of federations to exert influence at government level, especially in the social area.

- Africa: economic growth in Africa (for NGOs that operate or may come to operate in the region).
- The sector in Europe: European legislation on the sector legitimizing it and setting up new international regulations is also an opportunity for Portuguese NGOs to assert themselves.
- Partnerships and international networks: increased professionalization of NGOs at international level, growing needs of populations and funds available that require cooperation work, create opportunities for partnerships and integration in international networks for Portuguese NGOs. New communication technologies encourage the development and the extension of these relationships with less and less financial and time costs.
- European funds available for social innovation and social entrepreneurship.
- Society: Increased awareness of society for social problems.
- Businesses: New forms of funding by businesses. Social transformation is not exclusive to the NGOs' sector or to the public sector. The concept of corporate social responsibility has been taking shape since the 1990s and has called the attention of the corporate world not only to economic and environmental impacts but also to social impacts. The financial crisis, however, has slowed down or even stopped some of the advances achieved.
- Private donors: restricted exploitation of the ability to give of individuals (private donors), compared to that of other countries points out to an unexplored potential in Portugal.
- Job market and personal achievement: growing search for jobs in firms/organizations that in addition to being a job are sources of personal achievement is an opportunity for the best NGOs to attract young talents with a qualification in management and economics who are not interested in pursuing a career in a company.
- Growing investment of women in a professional career combined with their promotion to leadership and decision-making positions in different quarters herald the possibility that this might also be a reality within NGOs, which would partially mitigate the problem of the succession of directing bodies.
- Growing awareness of society for the need to contribute in some way – donations, time – and within the most varied age groups.
- New and growing needs felt in society constitute excellent opportunities for the emergence of new NGOs or for the reconversion of existing NGOs whose mission has become irrelevant (e.g. childhood threatened by decreasing birth rates may be "replaced" by care services to the elderly).
- Advances in communication technologies makes it possible to have access to best practices and to new ideas that are being developed anywhere in the world. "Very often it's not necessary to invent the wheel, you only need to adjust."
- New financial instruments, some of which are currently being tested in some parts of the globe, are excellent funding opportunities for the sector (e.g. Impact bonds), to which NGOs and society as a whole must pay particular attention and reply to.

- Longer life expectancy means a huge potential of volunteers with more or less advanced ages that NGOs should learn to attract and welcome in their organizations. It must not be forgotten that they will probably need to adjust opportunities to work as a volunteer to the different age groups and to their inherent skills.

THREATS

- Growing demands of users and higher complexity of problems (can be an opportunity for more competent organizations).
- Slow pace of economic recovery: may lead to a decrease in public and private support. It may also make it more difficult to attract volunteers, who cannot afford to take risks in the job market. Also, it can harm the achievement of results of the work developed by NGOs, particularly market-oriented projects capable of generating their own incomes.
- Greater competition between NGOs to access funds.
- Tendency for the national public funding agenda to continue to prefer welfare and assistance projects.
- Tendency to give preferential treatment to big projects (led by big NGOs), leaving out the smaller-sized organizations.
- Federations: except for the social sub-sector and for NGOs that operate in the area of cooperation and development, all the other sub-sectors show no clear signs of developing federations with a capacity to exert influence.
- Legislation: frequent changes in legislation make it difficult to define long-term strategies related to NGOs' sustainability. Lack of adjustment of sector's legislation to reality with subtle signs of change at this level (recent changes in the Statute of IPSSs).
- Foreign competition: the fact that NGOs too are beginning to operate more and more at an international level may intensify foreign competition for national funds, namely from the few but big national foundations and from the largest companies and corporate groups.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the data collected, on the SWOT analysis undertaken and on reflection based on experience, the following recommendations are made:

1. Training of executives and employees

Several findings in this study show the resilience of NGOs when faced with the chronic problem of funding the production of public goods, which was intensified in recent years by the economic crisis:

· in the vast majority of the surveyed NGOs, employment has leveled out or even increased until now;
· efforts to increase own resources have intensified;
· significant progresses in the training of employees, especially unskilled workers, have been made;
· quality management and performance assessment systems were implemented.

Despite these developments there is still a lot to be done with respect to the **training** not only of employees but also of the members of the Boards.

a. Action Learning

The experience with various training programs directed at these organizations over recent years has shown that **action learning** programs based in **participated** diagnosis of training needs is the most appropriate way to promote training that leads to effective improvements in the performance of organizations. In this way, needs are better identified, the response provided to them is better and processes of participatory management that are very important to the development of these organizations, often blocked by extreme longevity of their board members, are fostered.

In fact, the successful achievement of NGOs mission is highly dependent on the active and participative involvement of all those involved in the life of the institution (Board, executive director, paid workers, volunteers, beneficiaries and their families). It seems essential to implement methodologies that encourage participation and proximity between all the elements within the organization irrespective of the more or less informal management strategies it adopts. And action learning has proven to be an effective means of achieving this goal.

If training programs are well designed and comprise moments when employees and directors of various similar organizations can engage they can also be a ground for **partnerships and networking** between those organizations, as recent experience has shown.

The development of networking and partnerships is crucial for sharing best practices (domestic or European), for promoting synergies, for optimizing complementarities and for sharing resources, for broadening experience and knowledge in the field and for improving service quality. This is one of the dimensions where NGOs can focus the most to streamline costs and increase the effectiveness of their work.

Some **training areas** are unavoidable because they are essential to these organizations and are recognized as such by the majority of the surveyed organizations: in management and strategic planning and in marketing and communication.

It is essential to promote appropriate training for the sector on **management and on strategic and operational** practices and instruments that can be used by organizations. Besides the relevance of understanding the principles of vision-oriented and mission-oriented stra-

tegic management, on which strategic planning should be based, the most important thing is to adopt within NGOs a strategic attitude of constant detailed perusal of the environment together with the consequent optimization of opportunities and protection against threats in a constant endeavour to improve strengths and overcome weaknesses within organizations. This area of training is as relevant for Board members as it is for executive team members and operational staff.

The promotion of NGOs' image, its dissemination and recognition by the community may have a positive impact on fundraising and on their sustainability. However, even though organizations are aware of how important they are and thinking of other pressing needs in NGOs' day-to-day life, **marketing and communication** is one of the areas where investment and development are most needed. Once again, this area of training is as relevant for Board members as it is for executive management members and operational staff.

b. How to articulate Governance with Management and the Renewing of social bodies

The promotion of the best possible articulation between the Board and the executive manager/team is another area where the NGO sector should invest. To this end, there should be **more training on governance** particularly directed at the social bodies. Because once they clearly understand the role that they are supposed to play, articulating with executive managers or operational staff will be easier, the latter having therefore understood more clearly their roles and responsibilities.

Communicating and articulating with the Board, the executive team and teams operating on the ground is fundamental. Here are a few examples of practices that were identified in the case studies as practices that can foster this communication (both top-down and bottom-up):

- Incorporation of executive members in the Board;
- Regular meetings between the Board and the teams operating on the ground;
- Existence of an intermediary (e.g. secretary general) who is a bridge between the Board and the day-to-day operations of the organization;
- An executive team where all the different key departments in the organization are represented;
- Allocation of different "areas of responsibility" to members of the Board is often referred as an effective way to organize and distribute responsibilities to the Board.

The **renewing of social bodies** is a governance-related issue which is already a concern for some NGOs. At this level, the need for a nationwide investment via platforms or federations that promote the call for public service and their fulfillment within NGOs among young people is seen as more effective.

2. Promoting the implementation of quality certification processes

Although demanding, these processes are identified as important factors for service quality and for differentiation from competitors. In order to extend its implementation to more organizations and more services within the organizations it is necessary to promote capacity-building strategies within NGOs that operate in this sector of activity, both regarding the acquisition of those skills and the necessary resources to carry out this process.

3. Adjustment of public policies to the definition of integrated strategies for each area (e.g. cooperation, homeless people, disability)

Different NGOs operating in different sectors of activity refer in the case studies that public policies tend to look like a set of piecemeal measures with a political agenda that is not always in line with the needs on the ground. It is essential to define appropriate public policies and integrated legislative frameworks developed with the active participation of those who work on the ground.

Additionally, it is essential to increase articulation between the police, criminal justice, healthcare, social security and education systems, because the appropriate, quick and effective working of these systems is vital for the organizations' good work.

Equally important, the agenda of publicly-funded projects must be coherent, consistent and meet the specific needs on the ground. An agenda that focuses mainly on large-scale projects that do not always contribute to building real capacities in beneficiaries and communities and leave out small-size NGOs must be avoided.

4. Funding

a. Diversification of sources of funding

Unsurprisingly, this study shows that there is a clear unanimity among NGOs regarding what they see as their main problem: difficulty in obtaining funding.

The definition of policies that ensure the stability of public funding is as fundamental as the investment in the diversification of income sources:

- It is necessary to invest in the training and development of skills regarding the application procedures for public funding (domestic and European) without jeopardizing or biasing the NGOs strategic objectives;
- Investment in the training and development of fundraising skills with private donors (in Portugal and abroad) and building partnerships with businesses. Pro bono services by the business sector can be an effective way to increase the engagement of the business world within the corporate social responsibility scope. The highest volume potential, however, really appears to be on the side of private individual donors;

- Promotion of member participation and involvement, specifically as payment of membership fees and the spreading of the NGO's image within the community and the winning over of new members are concerned;
- Optimization of the own-funds potential by setting up social businesses. Several NGOs have committed to invest in this in the near future although the majority is still debating and pondering it.

b. Contractualisation of public funding

Due to the nature of public good of the work produced by NGOs, public funding should be an essential resource to ensure their economic sustainability without prejudice to continued efforts to complement it with their own resources and private donations (from individuals and businesses).

In the case of IPSSs (social welfare entities) a scheme of public funding ("cooperation agreement") of these organizations has been introduced which is periodically negotiated with the agencies that represent them and whose implementation is jointly monitored by the parties involved.

This scheme has been instrumental to the economic sustainability of these organizations and has not undermined their efforts to mobilize the contributions made by their users and private donors.

An important point in this scheme is the fact that it turns public funding into something **predictable** which IPSSs can rely on.

There is no scheme of the same kind for the remaining NGOs. It's not that they cannot rely on public funding. They have been using it and they are even more dependant on it than IPSSs. The difference here is that because there is no scheme of public funding as the one applied to IPSSs, these NGOs depend on the existence of funding programs that they can apply to. Moreover, these programs have eligibility criteria, calendars and implementation procedures that often do not conform to what is more relevant for their development and burden them with transaction costs that do not help them to achieve sustainability.

Therefore, consideration should be given to extending the negotiated and monitored scheme of public funding to more NGO families and not only to IPSSs.

It is not a question of claiming more public funding but rather of improving the way this funding is managed.

The idea here is not to defend that nearly all or even that most NGO expenditure should be financed by public funding. It is simply a question of ensuring that NGOs can rely on predictable, contractual and monitored public funding to face a relevant part of their expenditure. This is funding that they have every right to be provided once they fulfill their task as providers of public goods that are essential to the Common Good.

5. Enhancing the role of high-level organizations (E.g. federation, confederation)

These structures enable to bring together with a single voice the various NGOs that operate in a certain sector of activity rendering them more powerful with other civil society organizations and State structures. These associations may play a crucial role when policies in the sector and in the different areas where they operate are defined.

6. Promoting the participation and organization of civil society

In an increasingly global, difficult, dynamic, complex and demanding context, it is essential for the community as a whole to become more and more aware of social problems and that democracy is not confined to political parties or similar organizations.

7. Developing data for improving knowledge of the sector

The present study has made significant contributions to producing new and necessary data on the size and composition of the NGOs' sector. However, as mentioned earlier, it is still not possible to use them just as they are at this stage to describe the sector economically (paid employment, voluntary work, GAV, etc.).

This is an achievable task based on the work done here if, in the wake of this study, there are people willing to continue to invest in improving knowledge of this sector.

INTRODUCTION

There is as yet neither any study nor statistical data on the set of non governmental organisations in Portugal. There are studies on some sub-sets, for example, the Non Governmental Organisations for Aid and Development (NGOsD), as well as considerable advances in terms of national accounting reports on the broadest reaching sector of the social economy with the Portuguese Institute of Statistics publication of the Satellite Account of Non Profitable Institutions in 2011, and the Satellite Account of the Social Economy in 2013 following on from work carried out at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, in conjunction with the Catholic University of Portugal and the National Institute of Statistics ever since 2004. These works nevertheless have not produced statistical data and specific analysis on the set of NGOs as a whole.

The study presented here provides some contributions towards overcoming this gap in response to the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation and within the scope of its Active Citizenship Program. More precisely, these contributions are the following:

- a **concept of NGOs** founded on the economic concepts appropriate to this end and operationalising this through a detailed classification of activities engaged in by that considered as NGOs and their juridical statutes;
- a **data base** consistent with this concept, purpose designed for extraction from another database the (DES – Directory of the Social Economy) that spans the set of social economy organisations under construction by the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto), a database that aggregates 17,012 NGOs and which aims to be as complete and as updated as possible for the supply of information on the number of these organisations and their geographic distribution, their main activities and juridical statutes;

- a very well developed **questionnaire** of 153 NGOs distributed across all of the NGO sectors of activity and spanning all national districts with the results while not subject to extrapolation to the NGO population as a whole, do provide analysis with a great deal of interest and relevance to the management of NGOs (composition of government organs, management practices, human resources, their economic and financial characteristics, sources of financing, partnerships and relationships with state administrative and other entities);
- a **shorter, online questionnaire,** of Human Rights Defence NGOs contained within the DES (totalling 601), with a response rate of 18.6% out of the 350 NGOs contacted;
- an **econometric study** of the factors influencing the economic sustainability of IPSS;
- **10 specific case studies** on two groups of NGOs: social area NGOs and human rights defence and active citizenship NGOs.

The very short period of time available for the production of this study and the time of year when the survey was made (summer) did not enable any further progress as regards the information included in the database and expanding and improving the composition of the NGO questionnaire sample. This thus represents a contribution that incorporates the limitations inherently resulting and susceptible to improvement by future works.

CHAPTER 1   The concept of NGO

One of the central objectives of this work stems from its proposal of an NGO concept for Portugal taking into consideration the reality of these organisations in the country as well as the concepts already stipulated by Portuguese legislation (NGOsA[1], NGOsD[2], NGOsPD[3]) and adopted by official statistical organisations on the international level (NPOS – Non-Profit Organisations, OES –Social Economy Organisations). What we present here is a review of these concepts and the proposal of an NGO concept grounded in economic theory and its empirical application to the Portuguese reality.

1. SOME ALREADY EXISTING CONCEPTS

1.1. THE CONCEPT OF NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

The concept of "non-profit organisations", as defined by Lester Salamon, Helmut Anheier and by the *Center for Civil Society Studies* team at the Johns Hopkins University (Salamon *et al.*, 1997), and which was later adopted in the *Handbook on Non-Profit Institutions in the System of National Accounts* of the United Nations (UN, 2003) is the following:

"The non-profit sector consists of units that are:
(a) Organisations;
(b) Without any profitability goals and not distributing profits;
(c) Institutionally separate from the state structure;
(d) Are self-governing;
(e) Voluntary."
(UN, 2003, p. 18).

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[1]   Law no. 35/98, 18 July.
[2]   Law no.66/98, 14 October.
[3]   Decreee Law no. 106/2013, 30 July.

This concept provides the foundation base for this study[4] carried out in Portugal by a team run by Prof. Salamon and the Catholic University of Portugal– Porto (Franco *et al.*, 2005) and the 2006 Satellite Account of Non-Profit Institutions published by the National Institute of Statistics in 2011 (INE, 2011).

1.2. THE CIRIEC CONCEPT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS

The aforementioned concepts presented excludes cooperatives and mutualist associations[5] as these organisations do provide the scope for distributing surpluses among cooperative and association members whenever such surpluses are returned. As in Europe, cooperative and mutualist organisations take a core position which many consider as appropriate for incorporation into the social economy sector, entities that represent these organisation advocate a concept of "social economy organisations" that includes these organisations alongside non-profit organisations. One entity that has stood out in the development of this concept is the CIRIEC (*Centre International de Recherches et d'Information sur l'Économie Publique, Sociale et Coopérative*) research network that defines the "social economy sector" as made up of the following two subsectors:

Social economy mercantile subsector:
The set of private companies, as a formal organisation, with decision making autonomy and voluntary membership, set up to meet the needs of their members through the market, producing goods and services, insurance and financial products, in which the process of decision and any distribution of results to members are not directly connected with either the capital or the other contributions made by each member and where each gains the right to a vote.
(Barea & Monzón, 2006, p. 31).

Social economy non-mercantile subsector:
The set of private organisations, with formal organisation, with decision making autonomy, voluntary membership, the produce non-tradeable services for families and bearing positive results, when existing, that cannot be appropriated by the economic actors responsible for their creation, that control them or that finance them.
(Chaves & Monzón, 2007, p. 20).

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[4] The study entitled "Comparative NonProfit Sector Study" (CNP) was carried out in various countries, including Portugal (see http://ccss.jhu.edu/research-projects/comparative-nonprofit-setor).
[5] In the Portuguese case, the CNP study included the Mutualist Associations with the exceptions of the financial firms annexed.

This is the concept that served as the basis for the **Satellite Account of the Social Economy** published in 2013 by the INE – the National Institute of Statistics featuring data relating to 2010 (INE & CASES, 2013).

1.3. AN ALTERNATIVE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS

As the foundation for the construction of the NGO concept proposed in this study, we would here refer to an alternative concept of social economy organisation to that of CIRIEC (Mendes, 2011).

One reason for the development of this alternative concept interrelates with a problem in the concept proposed by CIRIEC that stems from its lack of correspondence with a **unitary** approach centred on the **shared characteristics** of all social economy organisations. In effect, given this concept of a non-profit organisation that does not include cooperative and mutualist organisations, what takes place in the CIRIEC concept involves **juxtaposing** the concept of the non-traded subsector of the social economy, which corresponds to those organisations without profit seeking goals, onto the concept of the traded subsector of the social economy defined in a way to incorporate the cooperative and mutualist organisations. The joint set of these two subsectors then gets entitled the social economy sector, without any broad reaching definition focused on the shared characteristics of the organisations included in the two subsectors.

The alternative concept of social economy organisations presented below takes such a broad perspective and seeking that shared by these non-profit, cooperative and mutualist organisations across the following domains:

· **core mission;**
· **economic nature of the goods and services produced[6];**
· **economic nature of the main resources deployed in the production of these goods and services.**

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6 The economic typology of the goods and services referenced here stems from two criteria:
· the **level of exclusion in accessing the consumption** of a good or service, thus, the fact of the consumer having (total exclusion) or not having (absence of exclusion) to comply with certain terms and conditions in order to access this particular consumption;
· **level of rivalry in the consumption** of the good or service, thus, the fact that the quantity and/or quality of the goods or services declines (total rivalry) or does not decline (absence of rivalry) when consumed by somebody.
· Combining these two criteria and the two potential extremal values, we thus reach the following typology:
· **private goods and services:** goods and services with total exclusion and total rivalry;
· **"public goods":** goods and services without exclusion and without rivalry;
· **club goods and services:** goods and services with total exclusion and without rivalry;
· **free to access goods and services:** goods and services without exclusion and with rivalry.

Paying attention to these three facets, this approach also differs from that of CIRIEC and the Johns Hopkins University in drawing upon **concepts from economic theory** in order to characterise the economic nature of the goods and services produced and the resources deployed in the organisation of social economy goods.

Thus, we arrive at the alternative Mendes (2011) proposed concept:

"considered here as social economy organisations are those that accumulatively meet the following conditions:

- *They hold legal status, or, whenever informal, act according to norms in the public domain that regulate their belonging to the organisation and its own mode of governance and functioning;*
- *They are private in the sense of having emerged on the initiative of civil society and thus correspondingly do not belong either directly or indirectly to the state administration or to the autonomous state sector nor to the collective interest corporate category;*
- *They have means of self-governance;*
- *Membership is voluntary;*
- *They are open to the voluntary contribution of their members or other donor entities;*
- *They include in their core missions collective actions for the development of greater solidarity in the relations between human beings and between them and the environment in which they live;*
- *They do this through the production of public goods (for example, reducing poverty and other forms of social exclusion, acting in defence of human rights, reducing regional disparities, protecting the environment, protecting cultural and architectural heritage, civil protection, improving public health, producing knowledge in the public domain, etcetera) and/or the production of private or club goods or services according to terms that contribute to relationship incorporating greater solidarity (for example, the private production of goods and services supplied below cost price to persons otherwise unable to access them);*
- *In order to produce these goods and services, they establish an asset base under a shared property regime."*
(Mendes, 2011, pp. 39-40)

This concept extends not only to non-profit organisations but also to cooperative and mutualist organisations as well as those without any juridical status as long as they are managed by publicly declared norms.

The represents the concept applied to structure the **DES – Social Economy Directory**, a database under construction within the scope of ATES –Transversal Area of Social Economic at the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) for public consultation and detailing information

identifying the social economy organisations in Portugal (tax number, official title, core activity, juridical statutes, address, telephone, e-mail and website contact details). Based upon this directory, we were able to establish the database that enabled the empirical application to Portugal of the NGO concept proposed by this study and presented in chapter 3.

1.4. NGO CONCEPT STIPULATED IN THE TENDER FOR THIS STUDY

The tender specifications for this study contain the following definition of NGOs, which has served as the point of reference for the ongoing Active Citizenship Program:

"Portuguese NGOs are collective entities of private law, with a voluntary basis,, without any profitable goals, irrespective of the juridical structure they display and that groups them, on the date of presenting this tender, according to the following requirement:

a) *Legally founded in Portugal;*
b) *Undertake objectives either in the general interest or for the common good;*
c) *Are independent of any local, regional or national authorities along with any other public entities or socio-professional or business organisations;*
d) *Are not party or political party organisations;*
e) *Are not religious organisations."*

1.5. NGO CONCEPTS WITH JURIDICAL STATUTES ESTABLISHED UNDER PORTUGUESE LEGISLATION

The NGO concept hitherto employed by the Active Citizenship Programme is consistent with that defined in Portuguese legislation that stipulates regulations for three specific types of NGOs, as follows:

- NGOsA – environmental and similar Non Governmental Organisations;
- NGOsD – aid and development Non Governmental Organisations;
- NGOsPD – Non Governmental Organisations providing for disabled persons.

Law No. 35/98, 18 July, that currently regulates the juridical statute of NGOsA, defines them as follows in its article 2:

"1. Understood as NGOsA for the purposes of this present law are the associations endowed with a juridical entity and established in terms of the general law that they do not engage in profit making activities, for themselves or for their associates and seek, exclu-

sively, the defence and the enhancement of the environment and the natural and built heritage as well as the conservation of nature.

2. Deemed of equivalence to NGOsA, for the purposes of articles 5, 6, 13 and 15 of this present law, other associations, in particular socio-professional, cultural and scientific that do not strive for party political, trade union or profit based goals for either themselves or their members, and have as their main goal the environment, the natural and built heritage and the conservation of nature."

Law no. 66/98, 14 October, which currently regulates the juridical status for the NGOsD category, defines this as follows in its articles 2, 3, 4 and 5:

"Article 2
Scope
Not under the auspices of this current diploma are those NGOsDs that strive for profitable, political, trade unionist or religious goals or that, irrespective of their nature, engage in military cooperation activities.

Article 3
Juridical form
NGOsD are collective entities, under private law and without any profitable goals.

Article 4
Constitution
NGOsD are legally founded and acquire a juridical entity in accordance within the terms of the general law.

Article 5
Objectives
1. *NGOsD objectives include the design, implementation and support for programmes and projects of a social, cultural, environmental,, civic and economic nature, specifically through actions in countries undergoing development:*
   a. *Cooperation for development;*
   b. *Humanitarian assistance;*
   c. *Emergency aid;*
   d. *Protecting and promoting human rights.*

2. *NGOsD objectives furthermore extend to raising public awareness about the need for an increasingly committed relationship to developing countries as well as enhancing understanding as to their respective realities.*

3. *NGOsDs, aware that education is a factor essential to the full development of societies and to deepening and strengthening peace, take on the fostering of this objective as a fundamental dimension to their activities.*
4. *NGOsDs undertake their actions in full respect for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights."*

Finally, as regards the NGOsPDs, Decree-law No. 106/2013, 30 July, which, in conjunction with Law No. 127/99, regulate the juridical statute of these organisations and defined in the following fashion:

"Article 2
Juridical Nature
1. *Irrespective of their juridical form, NGOsPDs constitute collective entities under private law without any profitable purposes.*
(...)
Article 3
Objectives
1. *NGOsPDs act towards the following objectives:*
   a. *The defence and the promotion of human rights and the interests of physically and mentally persons and their families in order to bring about the social and family integration of their members, their respective personal and professional self-fulfil-ment ;*
   b. *Eliminating of all forms of discrimination towards persons with disabilities;*
   c. *Fostering equality in the treatment of persons experiencing physical and mental chal-lenges.*
2. *In addition to the objectives set out in the lines above, NGOsPDs may strive for other goals whenever compatible with that stipulated."*

Comparing these three juridical statutes, we find the following shared characteristics to the NGOs and their regulatory framework:

1. Organisation with juridical definition;
2. Collective persons under private law;
3. Without profitable goals;
4. Without political, trade union or religious goals;
5. As their exclusive or main focus of activities, they target the general interest or the common good (protecting the environment, education and development cooperation, support to persons with disabilities and their families).

2. PROPOSED NGO CONCEPT

2.1. METHODOLOGY UNDERLYING THE PROPOSED NGO CONCEPT

The NGO concept proposed here takes into account that hitherto applied by the Active Citizenship Programme as well as the concepts of NGOsA, NGOsD and NGOsPD defined by the Portuguese legislative framework and combining this with a type of approach that underlies the social economy organisation concept presented in point 1.3. in accordance with the economics based approach that underpins this social economy organisation concept, we also here define NGOs by taking into consideration the **economic nature of the goods and services they produce**.

This nature may be characterised based upon the theoretical economics concepts that enable precise definitions for the meanings of terms such as **"general interest"** and **"common good"** incorporated into the NGO concept thus far applied by the Active Citizenship Program and which also encapsulates that defined by Portuguese legislation as the objectives targeted by the respective NGOsAs, NGOsDs and NGOsPDs.

2.2. ECONOMIC NATURE OF NGO PRODUCED GOODS AND SERVICES

In keeping with the aforementioned methodology, we here propose NGOs as organisations that focus their core activities on producing goods and services of a **public good** type, thus, goods and services for which there is an absence of exclusion as regards accessing their consumption and the absence of any rivalry to this consumption.

The following provide examples of public goods:

- Contributing towards greater social cohesion such as, for example, the IPSS entities behaving in accordance with their mission of providing social services to persons who would otherwise not be able to access them;
- Contributing towards defending the historical, artistic and cultural heritage;
- Producing free to access cultural and artistic goods and service;
- Contributing to raising the general level of education prevailing in the population;
- Producing scientific knowledge in the public domain;
- Contributing towards improving public health;
- Carrying out civil defence actions;
- Protecting the environment;
- Contributing towards reducing regional disparities;
- Defending human rights;
- Fostering active citizenship;

- Carrying out international humanitarian aid activities;
- Carrying out education and cooperation for development activities that contribute to reducing development disparities between rich and poor countries.

Whenever the **core mission and the overall results of activities** of an organisation involve contributing towards greater social cohesion, towards the defence of cultural or artistic heritage or any of the other aforementioned services, everyone benefits from this and hence, in order to access this benefit, they should have to comply with certain conditions such as, and for example, necessarily having to pay something to this organisation. There is, thus, an **absence of exclusion** in accessing the consumption of these goods and services.

The other characteristic defining public goods, hence, the absence of any rivalry in the consumption, also holds in this case: the fact of somebody benefitting from greater social cohesion, from the preservation of historical, artistic and cultural heritage, a better quality environment and a higher level of civic education and commitment of the population does not mean that others come to benefit from this in lesser quantity or quality.

We would note, as referred to above, the production of NGOs considered as a public good is that which corresponds to the **global** result of its activities, whenever in compliance with its main mission: greater social cohesion, a better environment, better standards of human rights protection, etcetera. We thus are not referring to the most **basic** level of the goods and services these organisations render to their users. There are very often private goods and service, for example, the meals and the hygiene care that an IPSS entity supplies its users are private goods and services. However, when producing these goods and services in accordance with its mission, hence, providing them preferentially to persons who otherwise would not access them, therefore, in acting towards its users in this fashion, ensures that the global results of its activities do contribute to greater social cohesion. This constitutes the IPSS products that display the nature of a public good.

The organisations that, even whilst belonging to the social economy, get excluded from the scope of NGOs reflect those that run their **main activities focused on the interests of their users** whether these be economic, ideological or recreational and where the benefit thus in the main revert to these same users. Hence, this tends to be the case with organisations with the following core activities:

· business based associations;
· trade unions associations;
· professional associations;
· party political ideas;
· religious activities;
· recreational and sporting activities.

This does not mean that organisations operating within the scope of one or more of the aforementioned types of activities are unable to produce public goods. This furthermore also does not mean that there cannot be organisations with business, trade unions, party political, recreational or sporting foundations that are NGOs. This all depends on knowing, whether across the set of organisational activities, and the impacts these generate, what then prevails are benefits that **reach beyond the interests of their members, thus, the more direct users**, or whether there benefits that essentially get restricted to these members or users.

For example, a recreational association might engage in a range of activities beyond those of a merely recreational nature to the point of becoming an organisation engaged in local development. In this case, this association, even while retaining the term "recreational" as its denomination, should nevertheless be deemed an NGO.

Another possible example is how an organisation that, based upon its religious nature, develops social service for persons experiencing social exclusion, without discrimination as to belief or any other order and without any missionary or similar purpose. In this case, this organisation should also be deemed an NGO even while retaining its religious affiliation.

In the Portuguese forestry sector, where over 98% of the forested extent is privately owned, ownership is fragmented and the risk of forest fire is high, there emerges another example of a possible NGO stemming from forestry producer associations. This, while providing private services to its members, its core mission nevertheless involves fostering means of collectively organising private forestry producers and without which there are no means of effectively dealing with the problems faced by the sector such as, for example, lowering the risk of forest fire. Hence, rather than the individualised services this organisation might provide to its members, its primary product would be the contribution of this organisation to the collective organisation and this correspondingly represents a public good. Where such entities organisations attribute low levels of importance to fostering collective means of organising their members, then in such cases they do not class as NGOs.

Thus, we may now advance with the classification of the main NGO activities as set out below and whenever these organisation engage in them in such a way that the main result of this activity corresponds to benefits accessible to the entire population. This classification structure by group represents that proposed by the ICNPO – International Classification of Non Profit Organizations.

CULTURE AND ARTS [7]

- Artistic Activities (Ballet and Dance)
- Artistic Activities (Choirs and Orchestras)
- Artistic Activities (Music)
- Artistic Activities (Theatre)
- Artistic Activities (Opera)
- Artistic Activities (Circus)
- Artistic Activities (Diverse Performing Arts)
- Artistic Activities (Cinema)
- Artistic Activities (Design, Engraving, Painting and Sculpture)
- Artistic Activities (Photography)
- Artistic Activities (Diverse Visual Arts)
- Artistic Activities (Museums of Art)
- Friends of Aquarium, Botanical Garden and Zoo Associations
- Friends of Library and Museum Associations
- Cultural and Historical Defence Associations
- Cultural Activities (Archives, Libraries and Museums)
- Diverse Cultural and Artistic Activities

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

- Scientific Activities
- Friends of Teaching Establishment Associations
- Teaching Establishment Associations
- Higher Education Interface Establishment Associations
- Information and Scientific Technology Awareness
- Astronomy Awareness and Observation
- Pre-school Education
- Primary and Secondary Education
- Professional Teaching and Training
- Higher Education
- Education (Diverse)

HEALTHCARE

- Friends of Healthcare Unit Associations
- Blood and Organ Donor Associations
- Patient and Patient Support Associations
- Healthcare (Diverse)

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[7] This ICNPO group also includes recreational and sporting activities that, as already explained, have been excluded from the concept of NGOs applied in this study. Hence, in the ICNPO classification, this group gets entitled "Sport, recreation, art and culture".

SOCIAL SERVICES

- Talented Child Services
- Disabled Person Services
- Drug Addict Service
- Diverse Social Services
- Scouting
- Social Tourism

CIVIL DEFENCE[8]

- Civil Defence

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

- Environmental Protection And Sustainable Development
- Speleology Associations
- Forestry Producer Associations
- Ornithophily and Ornithology Associations
- Animal Protection Associations

DEVELOPMENT[9]

- Residents Associations
- Territorial Development
- Innovation and Technological Development
- Promoting Social Entrepreneurship
- Promoting Entrepreneurship (Diverse)

HUMAN RIGHTS AND ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP[10]

- Romany and Romany Support Associations
- Emigrant and Emigrant Support Associations
- Immigrant and Immigrant Support Associations
- Civic Defence Associations
- Fair Trade
- Consumer Rights Defence
- Education, Reflection and Civic Intervention[11]

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[8] The ICNPO includes civil defence in a subgroup of Social Services entitled "Emergency and Help".

[9] The ICNPO calls this group "Economic, social and community development, housing, employment and training ".

[10] The main difference between this list and the corresponding ICNPO group is that the latter includes parties and other political organisations excluded from the NGO concept. The ICNPO refers to this group as "Defending causes, laws and the organisation of political actions".

[11] This does not include here the movements, commonly defined as civic intervention, set up with the core objective of running candidates in local election campaigns.

PHILANTHROPY, FUND RAISING, SHARING RESOURCES AND ENCOURAGING VOLUNTARY ACTIVITIES[12]

- ReSOURCE Sharing Activities (e.g. shared vehicle rides and others)
- Support Services to the Social Economy (Fund Raising)
- Support Services to the Social Economy (Communications)
- Support Services to the Social Economy (Diverse)
- Microfinance
- Business Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility
- Philanthropic Financing of the Social Economy
- Philanthropic Financing of Scientific Research and Promotion
- Philanthropic Financing of Cultural and Artistic Activities
- Philanthropic Financing of Study Grants and Merit Awards
- Promoting and Supporting Voluntary Activities
- Diverse Foundation Activities

INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES

- International Humanitarian Aid
- Education and Cooperation for Development
- International Cultural Exchanges

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[12] The ICNPO calls this group "Philanthropic intermediaries and promoters of volunteer work".

Of the groups listed in the ICNPO but falling beyond this list are: religious congregations and associations and business, professional and trade union associations.

On the ICNPO but not included here are also any recreational and sporting activities given that this international classification aggregates these to cultural and artistic activities and the political activities that the ICNPO merges into the defence of causes.

In its 2013 edition of the Satellite Account of the Social Economy, the INE adopts a **Classification of Social Economy Organisation Activities** that does not differ substantially from the ICNPO apart from in its inclusion of groups active in the agriculture, forestry, fishing, industrial, trade, and service sectors along with financial activities when referencing cooperative operating in these fields.

The correspondingly classification is the following:

· Culture, Sport and Recreation/Leisure;
· Social Action;
· Health and Wellbeing;
· Teaching and Research;
· Development, Housing and the Environment;
· Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing;
· Transformative Activities;
· Trade, Consumption and Services;
· Financial Activities;
· Religions and Congregations;
· Professional, Trade Union and Political Organisations;
· Unspecified.

The social economy organisations excluded from the scope of the NGO concept structured into the groups making up this classification are the following:

Culture, sport and recreation/leisure
· Columbophile Associations
· Sports Supporter Associations
· Sporting Agent Association
· Sporting Event Promotion Associations
· Classical Vehicle Friends of and Owner Associations
· Recreational and Sporting Hunting and Fishing Associations
· Camping and Caravan Associations
· Dog and Dog Breeding Associations
· Amateur Radio Associations
· Senior Associations

· Oenophile and Gastronomy Associations
· Equestrian Associations
· Bull Fighting Associations
· Service Clubs (Rotary, Lyon's and others)
· Sporting Clubs and Associations
· Personal Development Organisations
· Cultural Cooperatives

Social action
· Mutualist Associations

Development, habitation and the environment
· Habitation and Construction Cooperatives

Agriculture, forestry and fishing
· Irrigation Associations
· Territorial Assemblies and Common Land Managing Boards
· Beekeeper Associations and Cooperatives
· Agricultural and Breeder Associations and Cooperatives
· Agricultural Boards
· Fishing and Fish Processing Associations and Cooperatives

Transformation activities
· Artisan Associations and Cooperatives
· Industrial Production Cooperatives

Commerce, consumption and services
· Litigation Arbitration Associations
· Trade Cooperatives
· Consumer Cooperatives
· Service Cooperatives

Financial activities
· Credit Cooperatives
· Cattle Insurance Mutuals and others

Professional, trade unions and political organisations
· Military and Ex-Military Associations
· Business Associations
· Professional Associations
· Trade Union Associations

Religions and congregations
· Religious Associations
· Religious Congregations
· Religious Brotherhoods
· Church Factories

Unspecified social economy organisations
· Former Student Associations
· Heritage Rights Defence Associations
· Spiritualism and Medium Association
· Students Associations
· Student Parent and Guardian Associations
· Real Estate Property Associations

2.3. TREND TOWARDS DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN USERS AND CLIENTS

Closely connected with the aforementioned characteristic of the economic nature of production corresponding to the overall result of NGO activities is the trend towards differentiation between users and clients by these organisations:

· users are beneficiaries of the goods and services produced by NGOs;
· clients are those who finance the costs of producing these goods and services.

Whilst the main NGO outputs correspond to public goods, this implies that those who benefit from them may do so without having necessarily to contribute towards meeting the costs of their production (absence of exclusion).

This also happens in the cases of NGOs such as the IPSS – Private Social Security Institutions – in which while their main product may be a public good (less poverty or other forms of social exclusion), the visible face of its activity is the production of goods and services that are private (total exclusion from access to consumption and total rivalry of consumption) and are therefore susceptible to having a price attributed. The problem encountered here is whether or not that price that the user has to pay in order to cover the costs of production means the organisation is no longer able to comply with its mission of contributing towards the reduction of poverty and other forms of exclusion.

The tendency towards differentiating between users and clients thus emerges precisely out of these economic characteristics of the main goods and services produced by NGOs (the public good corresponding to the global result of the NGO activities and whether or not they comply with this mission and the private goods and services provided individually to users in conditions that cannot be structured according to means excluding those unable to pay for them). To meet their costs of production, NGOs thus often have to make recourse to clients that reach beyond those users with the ability to pay for the goods and services that NGOs provide them. Such is the case of benefactors (singular and collective entities) that make financial donations or in type or in volunteer work alongside the public entities that provide support with subsidies.

An important characteristic of NGO clients is that they do so **voluntarily**, thus, supporting these organisations freely and not because they have to do so in order to satisfy their needs. They may do so unilaterally, as is the case with donations and voluntary work or through voluntary agreements and freely negotiated between these organisations (for example, the Cooperation Agreements negotiated between the state and the CNIS, the União das *Misericórdias* and the União das Mutualidades charitable institutions).

2.4. UNIVERSALITY OF THE ORGANISATION OWNED ASSETS

Another component to the proposed NGOs concept also closely interrelates with the economic characteristics of NGO production. This refers to what we here designate the "universality" of the assets that constitute the asset base of these organisations. This means that these assets are managed in a manner that benefits society in general and not exclusively the owners of these assets, the managers, members of staff, members, clients or users of the organisation.

Generally, this involves shared forms of ownership of these assets, hence, such situations in which the main decisions over the acquisition, management and disposal of assets are taken by a collective form of decision making, for example by a general assembly in the case of an association.

2.5. REMAINING NGO CHARACTERISTICS

The remaining features defining the NGO concept proposed here are common to the other social economy organisations as defined by Mendes (2011) with the exception of that referring to their juridical status.

A) With collective civil juridical statutes

The term "organisation" is here understood as corresponding to the existence of a civil juridical entity of the **"private collective entity"** type.

For the case of the NGOs, this does not only include private collective entities without any profit motives (private law associations, private law foundations and social solidarity cooperatives) but also the **public juridical entities of the Catholic Church** which the Portuguese state recognises as civil juridical entities under the auspices of the Concordat Law.

We thus attain the following typology of NGOs in accordance with their juridical statutes:

TYPES OF NGO JURIDICAL STATUTES		
Private law association, without profit motives		
Social solidarity cooperative		
Foundation type organisations	Private law foundations	
	Canonical-civil foundations	Parish social centres
		Institutes of religious congregations
		Others
Public associations of Catholics	*Misericórdia* brotherhoods	
	Others	

B) Of free private initiative

The NGOs are founded by free private initiatives, thus, set up in an autonomous fashion as regards the state and other public entities. Therefore, NGOs also do not hold the powers of authority that are specific to public entities.

C) Mode of autonomous governance towards the state

As regards the means of NGO governance, we here opt in favour of a formula that maintains the **non governmental** character of these organisations but without any further specifications. This thus proves a more inclusive concept incorporating not only organisations with democratic based decision making processes (each member votes) or completely self-governed, but also other organisations with different decision making processes or where the management bodies may be nominated by entities external to the organisation whenever not by state entities.

D) With a solidarity focused mission

NGOs take as their main mission their contributing towards **relations incorporating greater solidarity** between human beings and between them and the environment in which they live. We understand "greater solidarity" here as having more and better cooperation, more and better coordination, more and better peaceful conflict resolution and more and better interpersonal relationships.

E) Without the distribution of surpluses to their members or managers

The surpluses arising from NGO managed activities are not distributed to their members (whenever taking the structure of an association or a cooperative) or their managers and instead reinvested in compliance with the organisation mission.

This characteristic excludes from the scope of NGOs the cooperatives (with the exception of social solidarity entities that in accordance with their legislative framework are not able to distribute surpluses) and mutualist associations.

2.6. SETTING OUT THE DEFINED NGO CONCEPT

In accordance with the characteristics set out above, the NGO concept proposed here is the following:

Considered as Non Governmental Organisations are those organisations able to cumulatively satisfy the following criteria:

- ◗ Hold a **juridical status** that is of a **civil and collective nature**;
- ◗ Are **private** in the sense of having derived from a free initiative of civil society and thus belonging neither directly or indirectly to the state nor to the autonomous public administration nor to the category of collective interest companies;
- ◗ They have **autonomous modes of governance** as regards the state;
- ◗ Their **clients** generally do not coincide with their users, are **voluntary**, in the sense of contributing through financing, in type or through voluntary work in the way they understand as ensuring the economic sustainability of these organisations;
- ◗ The core mission involves incentives to collective action towards the development of **greater solidarity in the relationships** between human beings and between them and the environment in which they live;
- ◗ The global result of the activity of these organisations whenever complying with this core mission takes effect in the form of a **public good** (for example, the reduction of poverty and other forms of social exclusion, in defence of human rights, reducing regional disparities, protecting the environment, protecting cultural and architectural heritage, civil defence, improving public healthcare, producing knowledge in the public domain, etcetera), whilst the goods and services that individually flow to their users may be private goods and services, or club goods, whenever these goods and services are rendered under terms and conditions that do not call into question the core mission but are rather instrumental to its compliance (for example, the production of goods and services supplied at below the IPSS cost price to users that would otherwise not be able to access them);
- ◗ The **surpluses** generated by the activities of these organisations are **reinvested** in mission compliance, without any distribution to managers, members of staff, users or clients;
- ◗ The assets that constitute the heritage of an organisation are managed within a "universal" regime, thus, in a manner that benefits society in general and not exclusively the owners of these assets, whether the managers, members of staff, users or clients of the organisation.

3. COMPARATIVE TABLE OF NON PROFIT ORGANISATIONS, SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATION AND NGOs

The table set out below summarises and compares the features defined for the concept of non profit organisation, social economy organisations and NGOs set out above.

DEFINING CHARACTERISTICS	
Juridical status	With
	Without
Private	
Voluntary clients	
Means of governance	Self-government
	Other means of non governmental governance
Scope for the distribution of results	Yes
	No ("non profit motive")
Attention to the economic nature of the goods and service produced and owned by the organisation	Yes
	No
	Social Services
	Culture and Arts
	Education
	Scientific Activities
	Healthcare
	Civil Defence
	Protecting the Environment
	Economic Development
	Human Rights and Active Citizenship
	Philanthropy, Fund Raising, ReSOURCE Sharing and Encouraging Volunteering
	International Human Aid
	Education and Cooperation for Development
	International Cultural Exchanges
	Recreational and Sporting Activities
	Political Activities
	Religious Activities
	Trade Union Activities
	Professional Associations
	Business Associations

NPOS (JHU; INE, 2011)	OES (CIRIEC; INE, 2013)	OES (Mendes, 2011; DES/ATES-UCP-Porto)	NGOsA (Law No. 35/98)	NGOsDs (Law No. 66/98)	NGOsPD (DL No.106/2013)	NGOs (concept proposed here)
×	×	×	×	×	×	×
×		×				
×	×	×	×	×	×	×
×	×	×	×	×	×	×
×	×	×	×	×	×	×
×		×	×	×	×	×
	×	×				
×	×	×	×	×	×	×
		×				×
×	×		×	×	×	
×	×	×			×	×
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×	×	×				

CHAPTER 2   Historical role of NGOs in the portuguese economy and society

Understanding Portuguese NGOs in the present requires grasping their history and the multiple approaches solidarity has taken, both individually and collectively, what was at the base of the drivers that were then experienced, the controls to which they were submitted and the restrictions placed upon them. Portuguese civil society, structured into organisations, stems from the long historical path that we set out here in the form of a historical overview featuring the main movements participating over the course of time.

1. A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE THIRD SECTOR IN PORTUGAL

The association between persons fostering solidarity is a factor in effect since the earliest time and reaching back at least to the era preceding Christianity[1]. The institutions existing at that time represent the precursors to the corporations of masters and medieval brotherhoods that took root throughout the Christian world in the 12th and 13th centuries (Lopes, 2009). However, assistance and welfare reaches far beyond this type of institution as we shall see over the course of the periods subject to analysis: the medieval, the modern, the liberal, the Estado Novo regime and, finally post 25th April revolution.

1.1. THE MEDIEVAL ERA

In Portugal, in the medieval era, we encounter organisations with solidarity goals bound to the Church or deeply inspired by works of charity and Christian values. Even prior to the founding of the nation and the existence of state structures, **institutions of a welfare nature** had already been founded to aid the most exposed and those that more easily fell into the web of

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[1] For a historical insight into welfare in these periods, see Correia (1944). *Origens e formação das misericórdias portuguesas*, Henrique Torres Editor.

poverty, thus, children, women, the sick, the elderly and prisoners. The l**ate medieval monasteries**, beyond providing spiritual support, handed out alms, foodstuffs and clothing to the poor, took in the sick and provided shelter to pilgrims[2]. Helping one's neighbour through the practice of charity here meant becoming closer to God. This encapsulated actions that were essentially individual but which would begin to take on a collective profile towards the end of this period due to state interventions in the field of charitable assistance[3].

Through to well into the 19th century, **Christian charity was the main mobiliser behind the founding of charitable institutions in Portugal**, supported by individuals who, tormented over the spectre of death, sought to guarantee, through this means and while still alive, the salvation of their souls, thus overcoming the absence of social concerns thus far displayed by the state[4]. When feeling the arrival of their hour of death, individuals would set out their last wills and testaments which would include, among other beneficiaries, the foundation of **hospitals, shelters and *mercearia* women's homes, support for brotherhoods, sisterhoods and religious establishments**. Passage through Purgatory might be abbreviated through establishing solidarity between the living and the dead based upon prayers for the suffrage of departed souls. Thus, there were in place the conditions necessary for founding an economy of salvation based upon the creation of pious institutions. Nevertheless, **these charitable organisation were substitute to royal and ecclesiastic supervision that sought to regulate their functioning.**

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[2] On the role of monasteries in welfare, see Tavares, Maria José Ferro (2000). A Assistência. Época Medieval. In Azevedo, Carlos Moreira. Dicionário de História Religiosa de Portugal. Lisbon: Círculo de Leitores, pp. 136-137. On the charitable works of monasteries, see also Marques, José (1989). A assistência no Norte de Portugal nos finais da Idade Média. Revista da Faculdade de Letras. História, 2nd series, no. 6, pp. 35-37.

[3] On the charity and the welfare institutions in the medieval period, we would highlight the works by Maria José Tavares Ferro, for example (1983). For a study of the poor in Portugal in the Middle Age: *Revista de História Económica e Social*, no. 11, pp. 29-54. By the same author: (1989) *Pobreza e Morte em Portugal na Idade Média*. Lisbon: Editorial Presença. Cruz, A (1979). A assistência na cidade do Porto e o seu termo durante a Idade Média. In *A pobreza e a assistência aos pobres na Península Ibérica durante a Idade Média. Atas das 1ªs Jornadas Luso-espanholas de História Medieval,* tomb 2. Lisbon: Faculdade de Letras, pp. 329-344. Fonseca, J. (1998-1999). For a history of charitable association in the medieval Alentejo: A confraria e albergaria do Espírito Santo do Vimieiro (1282). *A cidade de Évora*, no. 3, II series, pp. 37-38. Gonçalves, Iria (1979). Formas medievais de assistência num meio rural estremenho. In *A pobreza e a assistência aos pobres na Península Ibérica durante a Idade Média. Atas das 1ªs Jornadas Luso-espanholas de História Medieval,* tomb 2. Lisbon: Faculdade de Letras, pp. 438-454. Mata, Luís (2000). *Ser, Ter e Poder, O hospital do Espírito Santo de Santarém nos finais da Idade Média*. Lisbon: Ed. Magno. Mattoso, José (1979). O ideal de pobreza e as ordens monásticas em Portugal durante os séculos XI-XIII. In *A pobreza e a assistência aos pobres na Península Ibérica durante a Idade Média. Atas das 1ªs Jornadas Luso-Espanholas de História Medieval*, tomb 2. Lisbon: Faculdade de Letras, pp. 637-669. Beirante, Maria Ângela (1999). Ritos alimentares em algumas confrarias portuguesas medievais. In *Atas do Colóquio Internacional Piedade Popular, Sociabilidades, Representações e Espiritualidade*. Lisbon: Terramar, pp. 559-579. See also Beirante, Maria Ângela (1990). *Confrarias medievais portuguesas*. Lisboa: Ed. A.. With reference also to the works by Coelho, Maria Helena da Cruz (1992). As confrarias medievais portuguesas: espaços de solidariedades na vida e na morte. In *Cofradias, grémios, solidariedades en la Europa Medieval. XIX Semana de estúdios Medievales*. Navarra: Dep. Educación y Cultura, pp. 149-183. Da mesma autora (1996). Assistência em Coimbra em tempos manuelinos. O hospital Novo. *Biblos*, no. 72, pp. 223-257.

[4] On death in the medieval period, see Rosa, Maria de Lurdes (2010). A morte e o além. In Mattoso, José, *História da vida privada em Portugal. A Idade Média*. Lisbon: Círculo de Leitores, pp. 402-417.

From the monasteries came the **pilgrim shelters**, that in Portugal spread along the Santiago Way and providing shelter and protection to pilgrims, traders and travellers[5]. According to a perspective that fails to attain a consensus, these shelters would give way to the origins of hospitals that would serve as facilities for rendering assistance. Founded on royal initiative, by municipal councils, by religious orders and brotherhoods, but above all by private individuals motivated by charitable feeling and with the intent of gaining salvation, only in the Modern Age would these become associated with the *misericórdia* institutions, integrating into an assistance reform movement that took place across all of Europe in the 15th and 16th centuries. Up to this point, these hospitals were small units with only a limited number of beds and sometimes not more than one or two, where concerns over survival and the salvation of the soul outweighed any medical treatment.

From very early on, **hospitals were connoted with poverty:** those who sought them out were the poorest, those who were hungry and needed shelter, some comfort and rest especially as the better off continued to prefer their own homes for the taking of medical care and caring for their ills (Sá, 1996, p. 89). These institutions, beyond their sick patients, **also took in pilgrims**. Hence the confusion that would linger until very late on between hospitals and shelters.

Furthermore in the medieval period, there emerged **hospitals with specific purposes, destined for the care of lepers, students and orphans**. In Portugal, contrary to what happened in other points of Europe, the number of leper colonies and similar was only on a small scale given that the country was not especially impacted on by the disease even while present throughout the entire territory as from the Upper Middle Ages (Rocha, 2011, p. 16). A contagious disease, leprosy proved highly stigmatising that resulted in the colonies and their removal from engagement with the rest of the population, taking refuge in remote sites, in woods and caves, where they would end up perishing. The establishment of leper colonies by Municipal Councils was the case in Braga, Guimarães, Lisbon and Porto, on the initiative both of the royal household and the lepers themselves. In his work *História da Medicina em Portugal*, Maximiano de Lemos presents a list of the leper colonies then existing in Portugal: eight in Lisbon, five in Leiria, three in Braga, Évora and Viseu, four in Porto and in Viana do Castelo and one apiece in the remaining districts. With the decline of leprosy, these establishments were integrated into the *misericórdia*s or into the general hospitals with some simply falling into ruins. There is only scant information about the hospitals for students. These were associated with universities and throughout many centuries in Portugal there was but a single institution of this nature. The first hospitals for foundlings, set up to care for orphans, were founded in Lisbon and in Santarém.

The **Christian program of medieval Portugal, supported by the work of fourteen *misericórdias* (seven spiritual and seven corporal)**, led to the emergence and spread of other charitable

[5] On the pilgrim shelters, see Marques, José, "A assistência no Norte de Portugal nos finais da Idade Média"…, p. 37.

initiatives, individual and collective, implemented by religious orders such as, for example, the rescue of prisoners by the Trinitarian knights[6]. The ***mercearias***, a type of asylum or place of refuge, took in widowed women, poor and honoured with over fifty years of age and the beneficiaries of the solidarity of a founder, who beyond providing a roof also ensured the provision of clothing and food. As a means of compensation, the women were to pray for the soul of their benefactor.

Among the institutions that attained the greatest profile in the medieval period, both in Portugal and in Western Europe, were the **brotherhoods,** which were responsible for the founding of hospitals, asylums and shelters[7]. In order to cope with the multiple adversities, men tended towards deepening relationship and developing sociability that then reflected in the founding of organisations with a devotional basis and charitable purposes. It is assumed that the first brotherhoods counted on only religious members among their ranks. Only later on were lay members admitted. Their functions were closely bound up with concern over death and the need to prepare for a good death. A good death was a prepared death, which presupposed the leaving of a will, prayer and the last sacraments. In the Middle Ages and in subsequent periods, one of the fears that most overshadowed human life was the fear of an unexpected death.

The brotherhoods sought to guarantee the application of works of charity with a view to saving the souls of their members. In order to achieve this objective, they drafted programs for implementation and in which the poor were involved. **Poverty thereby gained an instrumental character.** Hence, this also presumed the non-essential character of state or church projects targeting its eradication given that the poor were necessary to the bonds of solidarity interlinking the living and the dead in order to ensure the redemption of souls. In a society characterised by profound inequalities, considered natural and resulting from divine will that attributed to the poor and the rich functions and places in the social hierarchy, the most in need were those living in the image of Christ and that may thus more easily reach heaven. The welfare concerns regarding the most disadvantaged took the form of spiritual and material support, in this case through alms, food and clothing (Abreu, 2007, p. 43).

With the growth of cities as the Middle Ages advanced and the development of guilds and trades, there emerged the **corporations of masters**, important displays of lay association movements. The men who engaged in the same profession would gather by streets and organise into corporations and unite against adversities under the protection of a patron saint. Beyond the professional associations of a guild basis, these corporations also took on welfare and

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[6] On these, see Pereira, Nuno Moniz (2005). *A Assistência em Portugal na Idade Média*. Lisbon: CTT Correios de Portugal, pp. 96-100.
[7] On this matter, see Oliveira, Maria Helena Mendes da Rocha (2001). *A Confraria de S. Crispim e S. Crispiano e o seu Hospital na Idade Média*. Porto: Universidade do Porto, Faculdade de Letras.

religious functions for their members (Moreira, 1972). Other institutions merged this with beneficiary inspired goals that resulted in the brotherhoods that constituted a new reality in the juridical field (Lopes, 2009, p. 22). The role of these brotherhoods would prove fundamental at a time when the central administrative proved incapable of caring for the most needy who were continually increasing in numbers especially as from the late 13th century and even more clearly in the 14th century.

In the late medieval period and on the verge of modernity, Portugal had available a **vast welfare network**, which spanned hospitals, brotherhoods, shelters, *mercearias*, leper colonies, among other organisations. However, **the services provided did not aim for quality and there were frequent cases of abuse, of corruption and poor administration**. This framework resulted in the **restructuring of welfare**, similar to events elsewhere in Europe, and which nationally led to the merger of various hospitals in Lisbon to give way to Hospital Real de Todos os Santos, a symbol of the grandiosity of royal power (Abreu, 2008, p. 38). Continued by King Manuel, this reform saw the abolition of many institutions and the consolidation of others[8].

1.2. THE MODERN AGE

In the Modern Age, the lead role in welfare terms belonged to the *misericórdia* institutions. These royal institutions of Christian inspiration were first founded in 1498 by Queen Leonor and fall within the framework of a larger scale movements to reorganise assistance and welfare within the European context. Despite their founding attributed to the sister of King Manuel I, the latter monarch gains a far more interventionist role according to many historians and whether as regards their consolidation or their respective expansion[9]. From the outset, the *misericórdia* sisterhoods went through different cycles characterised both by growth and by contraction. Certain, the 16th century, in particular the Manueline period represents their clear affirmation as demonstrated by the numbers of institutions then founded. The first Portuguese *misericórdia* was in Lisbon and soon followed by others throughout the country.

These *misericórdias* are genuinely Portuguese institutions even though there are those who attribute a Spanish or Italian inspiration given the existence of similar organisations in those countries. However, as Maria Antónia Lopes noted, this perspective ignores some prominent differences. Whilst their Spanish peers would concentrate on one or two acts of charity, the Portuguese agglomerations sought to attend to all such acts and beyond the differences faced

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[8] See Gomes, Saul António (1995). Notas e documentos sobre as confrarias portuguesas entre o fim da Idade Média e o século XVII: o protagonismo dominicano de Santa Maria Vitória. *Lusitania Sacra,* 2nd series, no. 7, p. 90.
[9] See Paiva, José Pedro; Isabel dos Guimarães Sá (Coord.) (2002). *Portugaliae Monumenta Misericordiarum. Fazer a história das misericórdias*. Lisbon: União das *Misericórdias* Portuguesas.

in terms of the level of their own jurisdictions (Lopes, 2010, p. 47)[10]. In fact, Portuguese *misericór-dias* display unique characteristics and endowing them with their originality. Their foundation was not confined to the borders of Portugal but rather extended outwards to the various branches of the overseas empire and thus also fostering the Portuguese presence in the world.

Ever since their foundation, the *misericórdias* benefited from state support that thus sought to excerpt control over the welfare activities. As Maria Marta Lobo de Araújo conveys, these institutions, contrary to the remainder of such organisations, did not seek to restrict their intervention to any particular act of charity or attend only the need within their accumulated scope but rather to **cover all charitable activities and care fall all those in need** (Araújo, 2012, pp. 44-45).

The santas casas (houses of the holy) were also facilities fostering the integration of lay members in a time when the doctrine prevailing valued the material demonstration of the Christian faith through charitable works. The confraternal work was executed free of charge with compensation coming in the salvation of the soul (Araújo, 2002). Entry into the *misericór-dias* was not available to all interested parties and above all as from 1577 when the admission criteria established a clear elite favouring process. The entrance of women was prohibited and their members, among other requirements, had to be aged over 25, knowing how to read and write, and have no Jewish or Moorish blood. The imposition of these selective rules stemmed from the large number of lay folk seeking to enter into their local santas casas and certainly motivated by the conditions that they would then benefit from.

There are a range of reasons potentially explaining the success of these institutions. **Their organisational capacity, the capacity to bring together the management of hospital type goods and the deepening of the doctrine of Purgatory** in the wake of the Council of Trento, **which would contribute towards their economic stabilisation through bequeaths and donations.** We should also refer to the acquisition during the reign of King João III of the rights to swear oaths and a monopoly over burials as from 1593. Consequently, we may affirm that in the Modern Age, **these organisations imposed their scope not only as the doers of charity but also as the managers of credit and as the stages for the social affirmation of the local elites.**

One of the obligations of *misericórdias* was to **visit the prisoners**, which constituted one of the acts of charity and one of the most longstanding practices, which was attributed them by monarchs and complied with according to the level of financial means[11]. This care extended

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[10] See also Sá, Isabel dos Guimarães (1997). *Quando o rico se faz pobre: Misericórdias, caridade, poder e império português (1500-1800).* Lisbon: Comissão Nacional dos Descobrimentos Portugueses.

[11] On the privileges granted by monarchs to *misericórdias* within the field of caring for prisoners, see Araújo, Maria Marta Lobo de (2009). A aguardar justiça: os presos pobres em Portugal durante a Época Moderna. In Ribeiro, Gladys Sabina; Neves, Edson Alvisi; Ferreira, Maria de Fátima Cunha Moura (org.). *Diálogos entre Direito e História: cidadania e justiça.* Rio de Janeiro: Editora da Universidade Federal Fluminense, pp. 110-111. See also Sá, Isabel dos Guimarães (1997). *Quando o rico se faz pobre: Misericórdias, caridade e poder no império português 1500-1800.* Lisbon: Comissão Nacional para a Comemoração dos Descobrimentos Portugueses, pp. 64-65. By the same author, (2001). As *Misericórdias* nas sociedades portuguesas do período moderno. *Cadernos do Noroeste*, no. 15 (1-2), pp. 339-340.

not only to clothing and feeding poor prisoners but also treating them in case of diseases, brought about their eventual release and supported them through compliance with some penalties such as exile of capital punishment. This support extended through to the hour of death when they oversaw the execution and taking charge of the burial of the body and the salvation of the soul[12]. The spiritual accompaniment was a practice that took effect in the religious service held in the proximity of the prisons or in the participation in Holy Week religious ceremonies.

Another important sector where the works of the *misericórdias* impacted and impacts is that of **healthcare, through the care provided to the most needy sick**. As already detailed, these institutions took over the management of the already existing hospital, leper colonies and shelters in addition to founding their own hospitals (Araújo, 2006). The lack of physical space at the majority of these establishments was offset by the domestic support provided by nurses that would administer medication and take food to those most in need.

The activities of *misericórdias* also extended into other fields: caring for abandoned children, burial of the dead, this not only depended on their siblings and family but also those who did not have the resources to pay for their funerals. Within a period marked by the extreme fragility of females in society, women also fell under the auspices of these institutions. Concerned with feminine honour and aware of the importance of marriage to their stability, this sought to marry off orphans and the poor. This concern over female probity is equally patent in the foundation of shelters and the support granted to widows.

Despite the unquestionable profile assumed by these *misericórdias* in aiding the most needy, reference also needs making to the role played in the modern period by the **brotherhoods** acting in this domain. Devotional and charitable institutions, they experienced a major boost in the Modern Age courtesy of the Tridentine deliberations that authorised various religious movements, in particular the Marian[13]. Other factors of less relevance stemmed from the need to construct social identities, contributing to some emerging associations, for example, certain social and professional groups. In fact, this fostered a rise in social cohesion in establishing moments of religious intensity which in turn enabled the building of network of sociability[14]. These were underpinned by the confraternal obligations, the collecting of funds, masses,

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[12] About the services rendered by the *misericórdias* to prisoners, see Escocard, Marta Tavares (1998). As Misericórdias e a assistência aos presos. *Cadernos do Noroeste*, vol. 11 (2), pp. 70-71.

[13] On the alterations registered by Portuguese brotherhoods in the period between post-Trent and the reign of Queen Maria I, see Abreu, Laurinda Faria dos Santos (1999). *Setúbal na Modernidade: Memórias da Alma e do Corpo*. Viseu: Palimage Editores. On Marian piousness, see Marques, João Francisco (2002). Orações e devoções. In Azevedo, Carlos Moreira (dir.). *História Religiosa de Portugal*, vol. 2. Lisbon: Círculo de Leitores, pp. 603-670.

[14] On the festivals, processions, burials and other sociable favourable moments in the 18th century in the most prestigious brotherhoods in the town of Ponte de Lima and its Misericórdia, see Araújo, Maria Marta Lobo de (2004). As *Misericórdias* enquanto palcos de sociabilidades no século XVIII. *Bracara Augusta*, vol. LII, pp. 179-197.

processions, as well as other festivities held in honour of the devotional saints[15]. Furthermore, the brotherhoods were also the opportunity for evasion from a daily life defined by the harshness of working whether in the fields or in the workshops.

Many brotherhoods reached still further and transforming themselves in spaces of power to which an individual would wish to be connected not only due to the various phases and rites of passage that marked their routines but also at the moment of death. Their actions continued to foster the development of solidarities between the earth and the beyond, between the living and the dead, mutually establishing relationships of dependence with the ultimate goal of saving the soul. To the living fell the duty of praying for the deceased within the scope of minimising their passage through Purgatory. Hence, those better off members of society became members of different brotherhoods with the objective of guaranteeing the redemption of their souls, through the suffrage to which they would be subject in exchange for the payment of admission and annual membership fees. In the Modern Age, these institutions stand out for the promotion of festivities within the scope of the liturgical calendar, highlight moments of rest and celebration within a livelihood otherwise made up of difficulties. Indeed, the profusion of festive events under the pretext of celebrating dates of devotion drew the attention and criticism of the physiocrats, who perceived such occasions as fostering shallowness and the corruption of behaviours and striving for the moralisation of such customs and habits[16]. These festivities were moments of exaltation from the religious poverty and simultaneously opportunities for the display of power and social prestige. Whilst some brotherhoods and tertiary orders remained within their own walls, run by their own members, others stood out for the charitable labours and for example intervening to found hospitals.

We should also highlight the existence of other solidarity mechanisms, while difficult to ascertain given that they emerge only from individual wills. The difficulties encountered in tracing the outlines of this informal charity even while acknowledging the existence of means applied in the face of circumstances such as agricultural crop failures afflicting family households, for example. One example of this are what get called the **common barns**. The first known example came in Évora in 1576. Indeed, the trend was towards their concentration in the Alentejan region. In conjunction with the **agricultural montepios associations**, these developed over the following centuries before their extinction within the liberal framework of the 19th century. Their actions above all targets small farmers supplying them with cereal and granting them loans at very low interest rates. In the 18th century, according to Laura Larcher

[15] See Penteado, Pedro (1995). As confrarias portuguesas na época moderna: problemas, resultados e tendências de investigação. *Lusitânia Sacra*, 2nd series, no. 7, pp. 15-28.
[16] This perspective was defended by Lima Bezerra. See Bezerra, Manuel Gomes de Lima (1992). *Os estrangeiros do Lima*, vol. II. Viana do Castelo: Viana do Castelo Municipal Council; Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo; Centro de Estudos Regionais and Instituto da Cultura Portuguesa da Faculdade de Letras da Universidade do Porto, pp. 10-12.

Graça, these collective barns appeared in other national regions, particularly the Algarve, in Trás-os-Montes and in the Azores, with some private and profit based, charging very high interest rates whilst others remained purely philanthropic and run by brotherhoods. In the 19th century, the weaknesses of their structures, often shaken by abuse an corrupt practices culminated in their disappearance. As the aforementioned author states, in 1826, of the 56 barns existing nationwide, 26 contained neither cereal nor funding (Graça, 1999, pp. 19-21).

On the other hand, the **system of professional corporations**, strongly hierarchical with the participation of masters, officers and apprentices, would also remain active throughout the entire extent of the Ancien Regime, only beginning to become called into question towards the end of the 18th century. These conglomerations did not accept female members into their ranks even while such played an important role in all artisan activities, especially the textile sector. In that same century, registration in these associations became compulsory even while ideological opposition to their existence began to mount and gather strength.

The state had long since sought to intervene in these corporations. According to Miriam Halpern Pereira, this desire reached back to the 15th century (Pereira, 1994, p. 62). The weight carried by the masters in municipal life was reflected in this century by the **Casa dos Vinte e Quatro (House of Twenty-Four)** entity. Institutionalised in Lisbon, this set the rates, prices and salaries with similar organisations appearing in other urban settings around the country and holding distinctive prerogatives and capacities for interventions. In the second half of the 18th century, their powers were scaled back in the wake of the founding of the **Junta de Comércio (Trade Board)**, an institution dependent on central power (Pereira, 1994, pp. 62-63). The final blow to the professional corporation system came with the constitutional monarchy and the May 7 1834 decree that determined the abolition of the posts of Judge and People's Attorney Generals, Masters, Casas dos Vinte e Quatro and the "Guild associations of different trades"[17].

The trend towards greater state intervention within the welfare field emerged during the reign of King José I and extended throughout the reigns of the two subsequent monarchs, Queen Maria I and King João VI. With the advent of Pombalism, there was a further increase in crown interventions in institutions not only in royal protectorates, such as the *misericórdias* and hospitals but also in brotherhoods and other tertiary orders. As Maria Antónia Lopes states, the charter of October 18 1806 proves an interesting example of this interference as it defined the scope of action they should privilege and stipulated control mechanisms for the charity work undertaken, among other aspects (Lopes, 2010, pp. 126-138).

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[17] The respective decree stipulates: *Not within the scope of the principles of the Constitutional Charter of the Monarchy, the basis on which all legislative provisions should stand, the institution of the People's Judge and Attorney Generals; Masters, Casa dos vinte e quatro, and the classification of the different associations; and many other hindrances to National industry, which to begin with lack a great deal of liberty that they develop and protect what they defend (…).* (1837). *Collecção de Leis e outros documentos officiais publicados desde 15 de Agosto de 1834 até 31 de Dezembro de 1835*, Fourth Series. Lisbon: Imprensa Nacional, p. 115.

The reign of Queen Maria I was characterised by the actions of Pina Manique and the **repression of false poverty** and by the **founding of the Casa Pia de Correção de Lisboa (Lisbon Correction Home)**, destined for the reclusion and regeneration of beggars and vagabonds[18]. The intention was to set up peer institution with plans laid for a Casa Pia facility in Porto even if never actually built (Santos, 2001).

1.3. THE LIBERAL ERA

The declaration of a constitutional monarchy brought about **significant changes to the areas of *misericórdia* intervention**, which particularly reflected in the ending of some of the services they provided, the subjection to inspection and supervision by the administrative bodies set up by the new political order[19].

With the liberal victory in 1834 came a new era characterised by a **strong emphasis on association activism**, which took effect in the emergence of societies, associations and clubs interconnected with different professional and social frameworks and with different and diverse goals. Contributing to this movement, among other factors, **the abolition of corporations and the consequent withering of their charitable actions.** The 19th century, despite the overall backwardness of Portugal, did see not only political changes but also economic changes with industrialisation and urbanisation, whilst not to the same extent as in other countries, and that lie at the basis of what gets termed the "social question". Within this context, there emerge diverse problems, specifically the **ending of informal solidarity practices**, provided by families and neighbours and starkly revealing the ineffectiveness of the tradition means of aid. **Mutualism** thus emerges as a reaction to the difficult living and working conditions that particularly afflicted the working classes, especially the industrial class, both unprotected and exposed to a range of risks.

If in some countries such associative organisations are essentially an urban reality, bound up with the industrial working movement, the same does not hold for Portugal where, due to lags in the industrialisation process, the number of traders, artisans and farmers outnumbered the workers. Consequently, it thus proves unsurprising that the first association recognised by the liberal order, the Lisbon Association of Artists, was interconnected with the universe of

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[18] On this matter, see Abreu, Laurinda (2013). *Pina Manique. Um reformador No Portugal das Luzes*. Lisbon: Gradiva, pp. 152-162.

[19] This was the case of those exposed to care in the hands of the municipal authorities. See Sá, Isabel dos Guimarães; Lopes, Maria Antónia (2008). *História Breve das Misericórdias Portuguesas. 1498-2000*. Coimbra: Imprensa da Universidade de Coimbra, pp. 86-87. On the charity provided by the *misericórdias* to prisoners between the end of the 18th century and the early decades of the 19th century, see Paiva, José Pedro; Lopes, Maria Antónia (Coord.) (2008). *Portugaliae Monumenta Misericordiarum. Sob o signo da mudança: de D. José a 1834*. Lisbon: União das *Misericórdias* Portuguesas, pp. 32-33.

artisans in the capital and that worker's associations only developed after democracy in the 1970s.

With the new liberal order and the subsequent administrative reform, there emerged new entities endowed as representatives of central power with broad reaching powers in very varied areas. The country got divided up into districts, which, in turn, were broken up into councils and then subdivided into parishes. Overseeing each district was a civil governor, entitled the general administrator by the Administrative Code published in 1836; whilst leading at the municipality level was the council administrator, coexisting with the Municipal Council; with each parish also having its own administrative leader. Alongside the setting up of these new authorities came new administrative bodies: at the district level, the district council and the district administrative board; at the parish level, the parish board. The magistrates were nominated positions whilst the members making up the municipal councils and the parish boards were popularly elected[20].

These new administrative entities were attributed important competences in the field of welfare and which fell within the objectives of the liberal state to control and where possible to eradicate poverty through the application of a plan that foresaw aid for the truly poor and the repression of those who opted for begging as a way of life. The false poor and vagabonds were punished by the deprivation of their liberty and their own regeneration through labour.

In a period of great instability, civil governors, council administrators and parish leaders were key members in a process, designed as decentralised, to inspect and survey poverty. According to the stipulations of the 1836 Administrative Code, it was down to the general district boards to determine the contribution made by each council to maintaining those exposes and the sites due for the installation of foundling wheels[21]. The municipal councils, in turn, retained responsibility for caring for and raising the orphaned and drafting the regulations for the wheels[22]. We would highlight that, at the beginning of the 19th century, the groups most susceptible to becoming homeless were the same as in the prior historical period: children, women, the sick, the elderly and prisoners (Araújo, 2003).

The modern era institutions stood out for their aid of the most needy and retained this function even while accompanied by other entities in the meanwhile established by the liberal state and subject to greater levels of inspection and supervision by the administrative entities, especially as regards their financing. The brotherhoods represent one example of this. Civil governors held the competence to analyse the expenditure carried out by these entities. We would also highlight that stipulate by article 108, § 5 of the 1836 Administrative Code, that would endow powers on the civil governor to channel the surpluses returned by brotherhoods

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[20] (1836). *Código Administrativo Portuguez*, Lisbon, Imprensa Nacional. Henceforth (CA, 1836)
[21] CA, 1836, p. 35.
[22] CA, 1836, p. 41.

to those establishments deemed more in need, which in practice resulted in a clear interference into the welfare activities of the *misericórdias* and brotherhoods. Furthermore, hospitals, asylums and shelters equally fell subject to the inspections of the civil governor, who was also attributed responsibility for their state of maintenance and the execution of whatever improvement works were deemed necessary[23].

The parish boards, as commissions for the public benefit, took on important competences at this level: listing, in conjunction with its leader, the people that might benefit from public aid and requiring the internment of those correspondingly classified as in need of care in hospitals and in asylums in accordance with that set down by the normative framework in effect. They also held the prerogative over the enactment of measures designed to dissuade begging and in particular the false poor and inspecting the alms that these beggars had in their possession[24]. In turn, the civil governors, with competences including the maintenance of order and public peace, were to comply with regulations spanning beggars, vagabonds and prostitutes.

Hence, we may conclude that **the combat of poverty and welfare mechanisms were controlled at least at a theoretical level by the liberal state even if this demonstrated little commitment towards stimulating private initiatives. The eradication of poverty did not extend beyond an illusion and only partially offset by the actions of the *misericórdias*, brotherhoods and tertiary orders, with the latter two displaying a greater vocation to helping their fellow members, as well as the Catholic Church. This, despite the secularising 19th century trends retained a fundamental role in supporting those most in need, fruit of the opening demonstrated by liberal governors in relation to the religious orders and their presence in diverse institutions, such as hospitals, which helped overcome their respective operational shortcomings and the lack of qualified professionals.**

The arrival of hygienism drove the appearance of public washing facilities given how the emerging bourgeois fiercely defended this ideology and correspondingly committed themselves to the water centred sanitary education of the populations, especially the masses[25]. This played a vital role in bringing about the cleaning of public and private spaces, human bodies and clothes with the objective of extinguishing the potential factors of disease. Within this new framework, an already old disease took on new proportions: tuberculosis. This disease that became almost pandemic in the period through to the mid-20th century, went down in the pages of history as the white plague.

Meanwhile, within a context marked by industrialisation, a rural exodus and the emergence of the industrial working class, other institutions were founded to provide responses to

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[23] CA, 1836, p. 65.
[24] CA, 1836, p. 65.
[25] On this subject, see Pereira, Ana Leonor; Pita, João Rui (2011). A higiene: da higiene das habitações ao asseio pessoal. In Vaquinhas, Irene (dir.). *História da Vida Privada em Portugal*. Lisbona: Círculo de Leitores, pp. 97-100.

new social problems. Thus, across the country there came infant facilities, dairy dispensaries, night shelters and orphan asylums[26]. Furthermore, within the scope of rendering assistance to the poor there came new lines of actions focused on more precise means of support, repressing the itinerant and those in false poverty alongside the adoption of a set of preventive measures specifically targeting public and private hygiene, dealing with diseases and epidemics and especially in the wake of the first outbreaks of cholera in the 1830s.

In the 19th century, Portugal was the stage for a series of changes that brought consequences to the associative field. **Following the abolition of the corporations in 1834, the first association was founded in 1839.** By late on in the century there was already an important associative movement bound up with the working industrial movements. Indeed, the relationship between the extinction of the corporations, deemed an obstacle to development, and the will to drive new means of organising the working class has received widespread acknowledgement. **The associations, which set their sights on attaining a common objective, were subject to restrictions. The Penal Code of 1852 stipulate that these might only be deemed legal when operating with government authorisation and in respect of the terms and conditions handed down.**

The 19th century saw the development of **mutualist associations**. According to Costa Goodolphim, the earliest were founded in Portugal in 1807 under the designation montepios. These were non profit entities with their members paying fees to guarantee their protection against a series of contingencies (working accidents, profession related diseases, invalidity, unemployment, old age and death). **Nevertheless, in comparison with other countries, they did not attain any great relevance in Portugal, which in the perspective of Medina Carreira, may be explained both by the fragility of the Portuguese industrial sector and the lack of trust prevailing in relation to the working class and their organisations**. According to Ana Paula Saraiva, the Ministry of Public Works, Commerce and Industry, between 1852 and 1866, authorised the constitution of 113 such associations with a total of 437 already existing with their statutes approved in 1891 (Saraiva, 2011, pp. 23-61). Despite the limitations and fears elicited over the organisation of working classes, their implementation was deemed positive above all due to their precautionary and preventive component given this released the state from the need to apply social and welfare type policies. Private initiative in the social sector was thus enhanced so that the state might be relieved of the responsibilities it otherwise held in this area (Saraiva, 2011).

In the Portuguese context, we may distinguish between rural entities, stemming from the major weighting of agriculture activities, and those located in urban settlements, more closely bound up with commercial, business and industrial activities.

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[26] See Sá, Isabel Guimarães (2000). Assistência. In Azevedo, Carlos. *Dicionário de História Religiosa de Portugal*. Lisbon: Círculo de Leitores, p. 148. See also Lopes, Maria Antónia (1993). Os pobres e a assistência pública..., pp. 501-515.

In the 19th century countryside, there emerged various solidarity based initiatives such as **Vintém, Lutuosas and Mútuas de Gado (Cattle Mutualists) Associations** and alongside other resulting from the coming towards of owners such as the Central Association of Portuguese Agriculture[27]. In 1860, the state moved to bring about the Agricultural Societies. There also came the Agricultural Trade Unions, French in inspiration and abolished under the Estado Novo regime, **the Adegas (Wine Cellars), Credit Boards and Cooperatives** in different regions of the country.

In the urban space, the number of cultural and recreational associations multiplied. In the mutualist field and with philanthropic concerns, in 1850, came the important Operários (Workers) Association. Nevertheless, just twenty years later would come other working association with more strident agendas such as the Fraternidade Operária (Workers Fraternity) (1872) and the Association of Workers of the Portuguese Region (1873). Despite the commitment shown by the Portuguese working class towards self-organisation into association, we would highlight not only their limited numbers, fragility and dispersion even while these did nevertheless attempt to struggle for better living and working conditions.

From the side of employers and firms, there was the founding of the Promoting Society of the National Industry (reorganised in 1834), the Commercial Association of Lisbon and the Commercial Association of Porto (both in 1834). Within the same century, the commercial entities swiftly spread to other parts of the country. With the Regeneration and the emergence of industry favourable conditions and public works projects, **industrial associations began spreading,** acting as pressure groups lobbying government entities and serving to foster local development: the Textile Industry Promotion Association, in Lisbon and the Industrial Association in Porto. However, from the perspective of Maria Filomena Mónica, these organisations only ever have an ephemeral existence and bearing little of industry about them other than their own designation. Later, other structure were founded with industrial sector roots, such as the Metallurgy Promotion Association and the Northern Union of Industries (Mónica, 1987, pp. 849-850). This also extended to the emergence of single specific cause entities as is the case with the education focused Grémio Popular. In addition to the mutualist associations, there emerged collective class entities that integrated the professionals from the same sector of activity: commercial traders, industrial producers, employees, among others.

In the late 19th century, there came the first cooperative and as well as the aforementioned professional class based associations, which, as with the mutualist associations, managed to stand up to the difficulties the country experienced in this period. In the 1930s, there was obligatory registration with social insurance schemes in the Previdência Social welfare sys-

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[27] On the rural environment and agriculture activities, see Graça, Laura Larcher (1999). *Propriedade e agricultura: evolução do modelo dominante do sindicalismo agrário em Portugal...,* pp. 17-18.

tem. The Republic had attempted to bring about this structure but had not succeeded. In this period, despite the political instability prevailing, the agricultural trade unions gained ground (Coelho, 2008).

During the constitutional monarchy, there appeared Catholic based entities. Liberalism proved adverse to Catholicism and expressed this antagonism through anti-congregation policies and which led to the abolition of religious orders. This measure had a major impact on a country in which the Church remained firmly rooted in diverse sectors of daily life. However, the liberal governments were to reconsider their position and the religious orders ended up returning. In 1901, a decree issued by Hintze Ribeiro recognised 55 religious associations and congregations with goals including welfare, education and the spreading of the faith in Portuguese colonies.

At the beginning of the 20th century, despite the secular attempts, there coexisted in the field of charity and welfare, catholic, lay, private and mixed structures. Civil society would express itself through recourse to the right to association in favour of the Catholic Church. The first training of lay members took place in the 1840s: at the Catholic Society Promoting Moral Evangelism and All the Portuguese Monarchy associations. Thirty years later, catholic associations had been founded in the cities of Porto, Braga, Lisbon and Guimarães. As Braga da Cruz states, these represent organisations that played a significant role in the evolution of the catholic movement given that it was on their initiatives that the first catholic congresses were held in Portugal (Cruz, 1980, p. 26). Meanwhile, in 1880s, the Portuguese Catholic Union was founded along with the Catholic Association of Lisbon with the Catholic Workers Circles arriving in 1898.

1.4. THE ESTADO NOVO REGIME (1933-1974)

Following the declaration of the Republic in 1910, the founding of associations by members of civil society experienced a new boost even while as from 1933, **with the taking office of the dictatorial regime (1933-1974), within the context of establishing a corporative and assistance based system, the state took on an attitude of distrust where not hostility to civil society in particular mutualist and cooperative entities, deemed organisations with a collectivist orientation**. Throughout this period, this sought to control the activities of associations through the **interference of the state in its internal life, which reflected in the removal of management boards and the persecution of some activists. Some were also abolished with still others merged into the Casas do Povo (Houses of the People) and Casas dos Pescadores (Houses of Fishermen) founded in the meanwhile alongside other corporative type institutions**. In this way, we may affirm how the state took advantage of the associative movements in order to frame citizen participants within the new structures deemed obligatory (Casas do Povo, Casas dos Pescadores and Grémios da Lavoura (Labourers Associations)).

The Estado Novo sought to organise Portuguese society into groups based on agricultural, industrial and commercial objectives, seeking the reconciliation within the same organisations of the interests of owners and workers. This reflected its corporative state orientation, characterised by self-sufficiency and isolationism and as well as certain reservations towards industrial activities, which was to reflect on the establishing of organisations by civil society. If we combine this scenario of the limitations placed on freedom of expression, of association and of meeting, we may easily deduce the difficulties faced by the associations founded before the advent of this regime, with the new entities established in the meanwhile displaying a clearly corporative logic seeking indoctrination and behavioural monitoring in the fashion of a panoptic society, centred on control and surveillance. Given the limitations existing to participation in the national political life, this urged the imposition of an appearance of democracy and enacted through the recreational and cultural associations founded for such a purpose (Melo, 1999, pp. 96-97).

Welfare was essentially handed over to the care of the church before later the Private Welfare Institutions emerged. Finally, during this period, the relationships between the state and the Catholic Church were peaceful and thus enabling the church to play a more intervening role among those needing social protection. We would also refer to, in the post-War period, the setting up of Parish Centres as spaces fostering Christian solidarity and fraternity as well as the founding of the Portuguese Caritas charity leveraged via diocesan structures (Teixeira, 2000, pp. 151-152).

This underpins the supplementary character of the state in relation to private initiatives, which were encourage to intervene in the welfare field within the scope of the Social Assistance Statute of 1944. The state thus affirmed its providential nature, backing contributory regimes provided by corporations. Social Providence was enacted through the Caixas institutions with the objective of protecting the worker against a range of eventualities and based on three distinct sectors: the corporativist, the private (retirement pensions, mutual aid associations) and the public.

1.5. THE POST 25 APRIL 1974 REVOLUTION SCENARIO

In 1974, the Portuguese associative framework remained only very incipient. With the 25 April revolution, civic participation of citizens took on a very strong dynamism across different areas which reflected in the greater involvement of associations and organisations whether of a trade union, employer, solidarity, humanitarian, cultural, sporting or recreational origin. The objectives are equally varied: ranging from the struggle for professional rights and the defence of the environment through to the promotion of cultural activities and solidarity campaigns. With Portugal's entrance into the then European Economic Community, there was a major surge in the number of organisations, especially associations and cooperatives. In the case of associa-

tions, there was an authentic explosion across many fields of intervention such as in defence of the environment, the consumer, women's rights, teaching and special education, support for the elderly and drug addicts and along with more traditional organisations such as sporting and recreational associations, the voluntary firefighting associations, among many others. This is the context in which the IPSS - Private Social Solidarity Institutions, previously known as Welfare Institutions, in their majority canonical law associations, experienced strong quantitative growth and today perform a role of enormous relevance to the field of social action. Established based on principles of solidarity and social justice, their scope covers very varied areas such as infancy, the senior population, support to families, social and community integration, protecting disabled citizens, providing both preventive and curative healthcare services, among others.

In the wake of 25th April (1974) and membership of the EEC (1986), Portugal began to converge with European patterns in a process that may be divided into three distinct phases (through to 2010) (Quintão, 2011, pp. 12-13). In a first phase (1974-1976/7), marked by revolutionary fervour, certain forms of civil society organisation experienced a particular dynamic, whether bound up with the defence of rights and fundamental liberties (political, trade union and owner associations) or associated with responding to basic needs (residents association, popular education programs, cooperatives and other community initiatives). In a second period (1977-1986), that stretches through to membership of the European Economic Community, economic crisis and liberal policies resulted in a retrocession as regards the level of social mobilisation. Finally, as from 1986/1987, a certain stability stimulated by structural funding enabled an approximation towards the European third sector patterns and dynamics, with significant growth in the number of institutions through to the end of the first decade of the 21st century. According to the figures available, the Portuguese third sector was then constituted by around 17,000 non profit associations, 5,000 IPSS (including 390 *Misericórdias*), 3,150 cooperatives, 350 foundations and 120 mutualist entities (Quintão, 2011, p. 15). This third phase is furthermore characterised by, among other trends, new juridical frameworks and by the opening up to international intervention.

1.6. CONCLUSIONS

In summary of this sub-chapter putting forward a brief history of the third sector in Portugal:

Understanding Portuguese NGOs today requires grasping their history, the multiple forms that solidarity has taken, both individually and collectively, what was at the basis of the drivers experienced over history, the controls to which they were subject and the restrictions imposed. There are thus the following landmarks in the history of these institutions and the roles played:

- The solidarity organisations we encounter in the Portugal of the **medieval era** are either connected to the Catholic Church or strongly inspired by Christian values and the works of the *misericórdias*. Christian charity was the mobiliser driving the founding of these institutions.

- Among the institutions that attained the greatest profile in the medieval era were the brotherhoods, responsible for the founding of hospitals, asylums and shelters. With the growth in cities in the full Middle Ages and the development of guilds, there appeared corporations of masters in an important demonstration of secular associative organisation.

- Poverty took on an instrumental character: this presumes the dispensability of state or church projects targeting its eradication given that the poor were needed for the relationships of solidarity established between the living and the dead in order to guarantee the redemption of the soul. Despite the absence of social concerns on behalf of the state, these assistance based organisations became subject to royal and ecclesiastic supervision that sought to effectively regulate their respective functioning.

- The services provided by the general bulk of these organisations did not reflect quality standards and the frequent cases of abuse, corruption and mismanagement. This scenario led to a restructuring of charitable organisations similar to events taking place elsewhere in Europe.

- In the **modern era**, the lead role played in the charitable sector belonged to the *misericórdias*, royal institutions of Christian inspiration founded in 1498 by Queen Leonor and against a backdrop of a broader movement of welfare reorganisation in the European context.

- Since its foundation, the *misericórdias* have benefitted from state support with the latter thus attempting to control the welfare activities resulting.

- In helping the needy, the brotherhoods also played an important role in this period. The corporations also retained charitable goals over the course of this period.

- With the reign of José increasing the level of crown intervention in these institutions not only in the royal protectorates but also in the *misericórdias* and hospitals, the brotherhoods and other tertiary orders.

- The declaration of a constitutional monarchy also inaugurated the **liberal era**, which brought about significant changes to the *misericórdia* scope of interventions with the abolition of some of the service supplied in the meanwhile and subject to the inspection and supervision of the administrative bodies set up by the new political order.

- This was a period of strong associative actions with the emergence of societies, associations and clubs interconnected with different professional and social frameworks. Following the abolition of the corporations in 1834, the first association was founded in 1839. At the end of the century, there was already an important associative movements interconnected with the workers movement. Mutualism appeared as a reaction to the difficult living and working conditions facing the working classes and particularly the industrial class, unprotected and exposed to various risks. The late 19th century featured the emergence of the first cooperative and class associations, which like the mutualist association managed to stand up to the great difficulties that the country was crossing throughout this period. This was a time when not only agricultural trade unions gained strength but catholic based entities also took root.

- The eradication of poverty did not prove more than an illusion and merely offset by the actions of *misericórdias*, brotherhoods and tertiary orders with the latter two more closely vocated to aiding their members, as well as the Catholic Church. The church, despite the secularising trends of the 19th century continued to play a fundamental role in supporting the most needy.

- In the **Estado Novo**, the central power adopted an attitude of distrust and hostility in relation to civil society organisations, in particular mutualist and cooperative entities deemed to be more collectivist in orientation. In seeking to control association activities, the state removed some managing bodies, persecuted some activists, abolished some associations and integrated others into the corporative institutions founded in the meanwhile such as the Casas do Povo and the Casas dos Pescadores.

- Welfare assistance was essentially encharged to the church and in the post-war period came the emergence of Parish Centres and the Portuguese Caritas charitable organisation.

- In the **post-25 April 1974**, the civic participation of citizens gained a strong dynamism across different fields which reflected in the greater involvement in entities whether of trade unions, employer, solidarity, humanitarian, cultural, sporting and recreational origins. With the entrance of Portugal into the then European Economy Community, there was an enormous rise in organisations, in particular associations and cooperatives.

2. CIVIC MOBILISATION AND PARTICIPATION IN CAUSES IN PORTUGAL

The social movements, with their origins drawing on social discontent, developed on the margin of institutions and should not be confused with mere popular protests, constituting instead clearly structured and identifiable organisation with varying life spans, which seek to defend or promote specific objectives generally with a connotation. They are therefore characterised by protest, thus, striving for the recognition and triumph of ideas, interests, values, etcetera. The objectives driving these social movements, in particular in contemporary societies, prove highly varied: the abolition of the death penalty, nuclear disarmament, protecting the environment, juridical and political equality of women, heritage defence, etcetera. Acting at times as pressure groups lobbying the organs of power, they constitute important factors to be taken into account in current societies given their capacity for mobilisation and the protest based strength they deploy.

Always presents through history, social movements gained greater relevance as from the late 18th and early 19th centuries when there emerged what Eric Hobsbawm termed the "primitive social movements", which were no more than expressions of resistance to the penetration of liberal ideologies and to the transformation resulting from the spread of capitalism.

Portugal experienced these **"primitive social movements"** in the first half of the 19th century, just as a liberal and capitalist society was advancing and in the form of subsistence riots and acts of banditry and carried out in the latter cases by gangs that operated out of the most isolated and distant areas of the country.[28] These were gangs led by mythical leaders who benefitted greatly from popular support in their challenges to the established order. Some regions, especially Alto Minho, Beira Interior and the Algarve, experienced troubled time due to the incursions carried out by these gangs in these areas led by Tomás das Quingostas, João Brandão and Remexido, respectively.

In the 1960s and 1970s, already within a post-industrial context, the **new social movements emerged,** that – as António Teixeira Fernandes describes -, ended up serving as a criteria for analysing the level of democracy of a state (Fernandes, 1993). This fact also stems from the fact that only democratic states are prepared to provide the niches for discussion and the criticism of its own contradictions or shortcomings; only these grant the opportunities for protest whether by non-politicised movements or by those dominated by political parties, emerging in civil society. Thus, this may explain the Portuguese lag in the emergence

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[28] These primitive movements have been approached by Portuguese historiography. The following represent highlights from this field: Ferrão, J. M. Dias, *João Brandão*, Lisboa, Livraria Morais, 1931; Machado, António do Canto; Cardoso, António Monteiro, *A Guerrilha do Remexido*, Mem Martins, Publicações Europa-América, 1981; Mesquita, José Carlos Vilhena, "O Remechido, glória e morte de um mito", in *Remexido*, Lagoa, Arquivo Municipal da Lagoa, 2005, pp. 12-28. Esteves, Alexandra, *Entre o crime e* a *cadeia* : violência *e* marginalidade no Alto Minho (1732-1870), Braga, Universidade do Minho, 2011. Doctoral theis.

of feminist, pacifist and ecological movements, among others, given the longevity of the dictatorial regime that remained in power through to 25 April 1974. Only following the advent of democracy in Portugal did new social movements appear and taking root not only in urban environments but also among rural communities, in multiple circumstances and for the most varied of reasons, united in the defence of their own interests and the struggle for better living conditions (Fernandes, 1993, p. 807). This includes movements with diverse objectives and compositions, variable in their life spans, with actions mediatic to a greater or lesser extent. Thus, for example, the pacifist movements striving for peace and against nuclear war; the ecologist movements striving for an environmental balance and against the aggressive stance of man towards the surrounding environment. Despite their diversity, we easily encounter in these social movements the presence of the middle classes, educated and urban, zealous over their rights.

The notion of "social movements" is intimately associated with the concept of "social conflict", which reflects a confrontation between social actors around their commitments and the objectives of any social organisation, the (re)configuration of the institutions, the political orientations, the sharing of income, etcetera. Within this scope, the social movements generate mobilisations of such a scale – based on a set of complaints of a universal nature – that challenges the very social orders and the dominant prevailing discourses in the public arena.

The expression "new social movements" encapsulates a set of new forms of mobilisation that have arisen since the 1960s (feminist, ecological, regionalist, student and immigrant movements before later being joined by homosexuals and other minorities, among others), in the wake of which a stream of research sought to renovate analysis on social conflicts. According to Érik Neveu (2005), these new movements display four fundamental characteristics: their forms of organisation and action, the values and demands, their relationships with the political world and, finally, the identity of actors. Firstly, the new social movements kept their distance from the centralised bureaucracies of political parties and trade unions. They sought instead to value decentralised structures, concrete objectives and specific repertoires for collective actions, within the scope of which they highlight the festive facets or symbolic dimensions. Secondly, contrary classical social conflicts focused more upon the distribution of wealth, these protests reflect above a style of life, an identity. Thirdly, in contrast to the trade unions, they distance themselves from party politics. Finally, they do not define themselves around any class based unit (working, agricultural, etcetera), but preferentially based on more cultural criteria (religious, regional or sexual identities, etcetera). In summary, according to Erik Neveu, the new social movements reflect the emergence of conflicts with the foundation not so much a matter of labour but rather about social recognition. They are generators of identity not only because they build around common interests but also because they generate a sense of collective belonging.

Portugal has only a low level of civil society participation in social movements, which may be explained through a more thorough reflection on the characteristics of Portuguese society

and a careful analysis of its history. Given the complexity of these movements, their core heterogeneity and the causes they struggle for, the following provides an insight into each particular field so as to understand their appearance in Portugal, their consolidation and their capacity for protest.

2.1. INDUSTRIAL WORKING CLASS MOVEMENTS

The social movement concept is closely bound up with that of the **industrial workers movements** that defined the 19th century and the early years of the 20th century, which, in turn, is inherently bound up with the industrialisation process. In Portugal, this process happened later and only to a lesser extent than in other more industrialised countries and hence there was a corresponding slower development of worker based movements.

Industrial growth drove the establishment of a new economic order, capitalist and with new social relations carving a gap between a rich minority and a bulky majority of workers who over time stepped up their demands and protests and, holding a sense of class consciousness, formed into first movements and then later trade unions.

Despite the limitations on worker numbers, due to the late and weak Portuguese industrialisation process, workers did nevertheless get organised and protested in favour of better living and working conditions. Few in numbers and against a backdrop of a still eminently rural country, with well-defined zones of industrialisation, which endowed certain particularities, there were diverse problems afflicting the class, especially low salaries, the differentiation of roles by gender and age, excessive working hours, the absence of any type of protection, checks on any form of political intervention, among others.

With the liberal victory in 1834, the traditional institutions of people's judges, attorney generals, the corporations and the Casa dos Vinte e Quatro organisation were subject to abolition with labour, justice and state administrative entities structured into new organisational patterns. In 1850, the first general assembly of the Industrial Workers Association took place, with representatives coming from sixteen different professions. In 1852, the Silk Manufacturer Workers Association was founded alongside the Centre Promoting Improvements to the Labouring Classes, both important arenas for fostering debate and education targeting the industrial class, founded by Sousa Brandão and Lopes de Mendonça respectively. The first strike took place in Portugal in this latter year. Nevertheless, strikes would then fall under a prohibition stipulated by the 1852 Penal Code just as the bourgeois class moved to control workers through actions enacted by philanthropic movements. Around this same time, other industrial workers associations were founded in Porto, in Coimbra, in Covilhã and in Setúbal. In 1863, the first worker protection legislation was passed and designed to counter the existence of dangerous and generally insalubrious conditions.

The late 1860s saw the association lose ground whilst gaining in ideological learnings and marked by poor harvests in the countryside with the raising of tax levels (establishing a consumption tax) resulting in rising protests that culminated in a movement known as the Janeirinha. As from 1870s onwards, the rising dissatisfaction of the masses drove a rising wave of protests and strikes that extended through the last decades of this century. In this period, Portugal began to absorb the spillover effects of the revolutionary movement in Paris that had led to the holding of the Casino Conferences, which contributed to disseminating the ideas of the Paris Commune (Castro, 1999, p.21). From this decade onwards, the Portuguese industrial worker tended to reject the paternalist protectionism of the bourgeois class and took on a true class conscience. In 1872, the National Labour Protection Association was founded, with its statutes drafted by Antero de Quental. In the following year, José Fontana established the Industrial Workers Fraternity in Lisbon with branches spread across the country but gaining particular success in Lisbon and Porto due to the high number of members the association attracted. In 1873, as a result of the merger between the National Labour Protection Association and the Industrial Workers Fraternity, the Portuguese Region Workers Association was founded.

In 1875, following a visit to Lisbon by a delegation of the Ist Workers International, the Portuguese Socialist Party was founded. Henceforth, the Portuguese workers movements took on a socialist bent. Nevertheless, socialism had been in circulation nationally since the 1850s, above all due to the influence of the events that took place in France in 1848, a decade that also saw various Portuguese workers associations founded. From this point onwards, the industrial workers movements gained economic and political facets through the participation of the Socialist Party in elections. Hence, the 1870s and 1880s were shaped by two social phenomena: the growth of the urban proletariat and the appearance of the socialist movement.

Following strikes in 1889 and 1890 and the Congress of Class Associations held in Lisbon in 1891, a list of demands was approved and calling for the inspection of working conditions in factories and workshops, the managing entity holding accountability for workplace accidents, setting up labour dispute courts and the regulation of women and children in the workplace. There were then a succession of workers congresses which resulted in the UGT – the General Workers Union (1908), the FGT – the General Labour Federation (1909), the UON – the National Workers Union (1913) and in 1919, at a congress in Coimbra, the CGT – the General Labour Confederation was founded.

The arrival of the 20th century and the coming to power of a new regime did not bring peace to worker relations with those in power. Despite the approval of some working class favourable legislation, such as the right to strike, for example, the social conflicts during the Ist Republic (1910-1926) proved deep and intense. Social agitation, which resulted in strikes, persecution and imprisonment, only worsened with Portugal's entry into World War I and compounded by the resulting deterioration in the popular standards of living and especially for residents in the urban centres that experienced assaults on food stores and warehouses.

With the declaration of the dictatorial regime, the industrial workers movement entered into a period characterised primarily by repression and by persecution and workers were forced to continue their struggles only clandestinely or semi- clandestinely. In the late 1960s and at the beginning the following decade, emigration to industrialised European countries and the ongoing colonial war would favour the position taken by the working class with the Nation Inter-union association emerging in 1970.

With the changes taking place in the wake of the 25th April 1974 revolution, the worker connected social movements would gain the opportunity to become institutionalised.

2.2. FEMINIST MOVEMENTS

The feminist movement in Portugal is inherently linked with the founding of the Portuguese Peace League, which ran a feminist section ever since 1906 and gained in profile with the rise of republican trends (Esteves, 2001). With the arrival of the Republic, some civic rights for women did get recognised but this did not extend to the political field and any right to vote. With an elitist profile, the movement never took on the violent facet of its peer movements even while also driven by the winds of change that were making themselves felt in other parts of Europe and the United States.

In the transition from the 19th century, Portuguese women were relegated to a level of inferiority whether in legal, social or cultural terms. In Portugal, the feminist struggle featured many notable contributions including those from: Ana de Castro Osório, Alice Pestana, Adelaide Cabete, Maria Lamas, Elina Guimarães, Carolina Beatriz Ângelo. Indeed, the latter was the first woman to vote on the Iberian Peninsula, in the legislative election of 1911, by taking advantage of a gap in the law that gave the right to vote to all literate heads of family. However, this loophole was soon corrected and stripping the right of any women to vote as from 1913. Thus, the female gender had to await the Estado Novo to gain this right with women holding secondary or higher education qualifications gaining the right to vote in 1931, even if also reserved only to heads of family and voting only in local elections (Marques, 2010, pp. 49-50). Despite this, republicanism did bring the freedom necessary for women to demand equality and contest the patriarchal model that ruled in the family, in the workplace and in the social and political fields. Nevertheless, the first republic did not prove favourable to the feminist cause especially because women were deemed an easy target for nefarious influences due their allegedly naïve characters and hence representing a group that needs protective mechanisms through, for example, investing in their education (Ramos, 1994, p. 414). We should highlight that Portuguese women, in addition to the lesser status attributed to them by law and their subjection to the guardianship of father or husband, also displayed a high rate of illiteracy (85.4% in 1890; 85% in 1910; 81.2% in 1911), which from the outset restricted the scope of professions open to them. In

1906, the Feminist Section of the Portuguese Peace League came about; in 1907, Ana de Castro Osório founded the Portuguese Group of Feminist Studies; with 1908 seeing the foundation of the Republican League of Portuguese Women, sponsored by the Republican Party that in 1910 counted on 500 female members. This organisation, which included some members connected to Masonic entities, stood out for its capacities and the initiative of some of its victories during the first republic, such as laws passed on divorce and families. We would furthermore highlight that the Portuguese feminist movement in no way fell under the auspices of masonry or republicanism as it drew upon the support of both sides of the divide, both monarchists and republicans (Esteves, 2001). In 1911, as a result of a split in the Republican Leagues of Portuguese Women, the Feminist Propaganda Association was founded.

One of the most important movements in the struggle for the rights of women in the early part of the 20th century was the National Council of Portuguese Women set up in 1914 and playing a leading role in the struggle to attain feminist goals across various facets. Responsible for the organisation of two feminist congresses in Portugal, this enabled not only the keeping up with international trends but also, in the 1920s, to achieve the golden period for feminism in Portugal. Nevertheless, the Council was shut down in 1947 on the orders of Oliveira Salazar, when presided over by the journalist and author Maria Lamas. The end of this association brought about the beginning of the end for the first phase in the Portuguese feminist movement and the beginning of a long desert crossing for feminist causes. Female organisations were not backed by the regime were not allowed. This understanding stemmed from a perspective that the Mothers Working for National Education would be just as able to complete the educational tasks that some women demanded. Others were set up such as the Portuguese Female Youth League and the Portuguese Female Legion. Furthermore, at the international level, there was also a decline in the first wave of female movements thrown off track by the outbreak of World War II.

The struggle of Portuguese women over the first half of the 20th century, through the aforementioned movements, focused on the winning of other political rights even if in a more restricted fashion but still reaching beyond suffrage to include the scope for holding public office (Silva, 1983, p. 895). Economic independence was another demand of feminist propaganda given this represented a fundamental factor to attaining emancipation and release from the male imposed yoke. Hence, this derived into the need to attain another goal: the right of access to labour markets. Another theme that occupied the first Portuguese feminists stemmed from access to education – the ignorance that was associated with the female gender was one of the reasons justifying their subordination. Investment in education and training thus constituted sine qua non for their exercising a new role in society.

The 1950s were characterised by the presence of women in the opposition movements contesting the regime, in particular the MUD – the Democratic Unity Movement, which had a female commission. Women also took up roles in more locally based campaigns, in their work-

places striving for better working conditions and higher wages. One example of such struggles was that of nurses campaigning against the restrictions imposed by the regime on females and demanding the profession remain exclusively for single women or widows without children.

There would be little further progress through to the very late 1960s and above all only in the 1970s would the feminist movement once again make a more notable impact on Portuguese society and now with new objectives, more closely focused on themes interrelated with sexuality, love and profession. However, in Portugal, such complaints were yet to take on particular significance given that women were more concentrated on the anti-fascist struggles and opposing the regime in general. In 1968, the MDM – the Democratic Womens Movement was founded that gained particular relevance in the struggle against the colonial war and rendering support to political prisoners as well as in campaigning for peace.

In the 1960s and 1970s, other movements emerged in Portugal that in the meanwhile displayed nothing in common with their peers from the early 20th century that had been snuffed out by the Estado Novo and its imposition of a culture of submission on women. As from 1974, the feminist movement embraces new causes and engaged with new struggles with one example representing the decriminalisation of abortion. However, in the immediate aftermath of the fall of the dictatorial regime many of these feminist demands got diluted in among the multiple problems then facing Portuguese society. Women were then integrated into more global movements campaigning on issues including education, healthcare, crèches, working and housing conditions. They were far from the campaigns that seized the headlines internationally, for example, freedom over one's body, the right to pleasure, free decision making over maternity based decisions and against gender violence.

In the 1970s, based on the "New Portuguese Charters" process, there came the Movement for the Liberation of Women, which self-identified as a more radical feminism movement with clear influences of the May 1968 movement in France. Among other causes, this defended sexual education, the right to contraception and abortion as well as other reforms that placed women on a level of equality as regards males. In the same decade, UMAR – the Union of Anti-fascist and Revolutionary Women was founded and among other campaigns also signed up to the legalisation of abortion movement. Towards the end of the same decade, there came other movements that also embraced this cause.

In the 1980s, despite a certain lessening in the feminist wave, there still remained the themes that had moved these Portuguese movements and specifically the decriminalisation of abortion and domestic violence and there emerged very diverse groups even though many were very ephemeral in duration.

The 1990s proved a period of globalisation for feminist movements. Among the most recent causes involving Portuguese feminists, there are the struggles for parity and against domestic violence. The arrival of the new century took place with the theme of abortion very high on the agendas of politicians and of feminist movements.

2.3. STUDENT MOVEMENTS

Student movements burst onto the scene in the 1960s. Having started out in the University of Berkeley in 1964, they rapidly spread to other universities and reaching their pinnacle in the months of May and June 1968 in France. More than university based revolts, these rather encapsulated students rebellion against a particular model of society. Among other causes, students dedicated their attentions to the defence of human rights, of ethnic minority rights, of womens rights, sexual freedom and the decriminalisation of drugs. The Portuguese student movements feature characteristics and demands that were very much conditioned by the political scenario prevailing and the scope allowed in a country that remained under a dictatorial regime throughout this decade and hence campaigning for political freedom, the end of the colonial war and the fall of the regime itself.

In Portugal, the student movement grew throughout the 1960s even while opposition to the Estado Novo regime began just as soon as the latter took office and intensified in the wake of World War II and into the 1950s. Ideals such as liberty and equality inspired the struggle against the regime. The defence of university autonomy and opposition to the colonial war were the key issues on the student agenda. The 1960s saw three students focused flashpoints. The first took place in 1962 and lasted various months with class strikes, student arrests, demonstrations and police interventions in Lisbon, Porto and Coimbra, representing one of the most high profile clashes in the conflict between Portuguese university students and the Estado Novo regime. In 1965, dozens of students were suspended and detained by PIDE for allegedly belonging to the Portuguese Communist Party. The 1969 protests, with Salazar no longer heading the regime, took its inspiration from May '68 in its aesthetics and the means of demanding and cast attention on other problems such as equality and free love.

The student agitation occurring towards the end of the 1960s did come against a favourable backdrop with economic growth and the openness allowed by Marcelo Caetano in terms of trade unions (Accornero, 2013, p. 581). Hence, the youth movements demonstrating in this period, some of them with catholic affiliations such as MOJAF – the Youth Movements for Fraternal Aid, given that the church had also stood aside from the regime highlighting the extent of division over the colonial war, liberty and the affirmation of new values that came in ever stronger from the international environment under the openness allowed by the new Caetano dictatorship (Lima, 2012, p. 10). We would note that as political meetings remained prohibited, many young persons would discuss ideas and concepts in movements of a catholic origin given that these, at least in principle, did not attract the attention of the political police. The discontent shown towards the regime made itself felt in various movements bringing together young catholics: the JUC – Catholic University Youth, the Catholic Workers Youth and the Catholic Workers League organisations.

As from the 1970s, the student movements hardened their positions and actions against the regime and Portugal experienced a process of strong politicisation of the academic means

and their respective demands to which the entrance of extreme-left groups into the university environment strongly contributed. The opposition to the colonial war then became one of the standards of the student movement generally.

In the 1990s, the student movements focused upon campaigning against the introduction of student fees. In 1992, what was termed the Law for Fees led to national protests by students, which reflected in a series of demonstrations against the Minister of Education, Couto dos Santos, and later against his successor, Manuela Ferreira Leite, with participants labelled a "geração rasca" (rough/low class generation) by the Público journalist, Vicente Jorge da Silva. Nevertheless, in fact, more than student movements, there amounted to demonstrations against education policies and in particular against raising the fees payable for university level education.

The expression "geração rasca" was in the meanwhile taken advantage of for a series of actions of protest, cross-party and peaceful in nature, organised by youths that adopted for themselves the label "geração à rasca" and who demanded better working conditions, in particular for the end of precarious employment contracts, for example, the protest staged in March 2011.

2.4. PACIFIST MOVEMENTS

As from the mid-19th century, with the consolidation of the Liberal state, there was a proliferation of pacifist and anti-militarist style associations in which women played leading roles. In 1843, various cities hosted the first ever conferences advocating peace and in 1895 the Nobel Peace Prize was first awarded. However, despite the pro-peace efforts, 1914 saw the outbreak of World War I. During the course of this conflict, projects were drafted with a view to ensuring a definitive post-conflict peace which included setting up the League of Nation, which, as time would tell, proved inconsistent and unable to prevent the world plunging into World War II. In 1944, the representatives of China, the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union reached agreement over the founding of the United Nations. In the following year, the United Nations was duly established with the objective of guaranteeing "the maintenance of peace and international security, the defence of human rights and the economic and social progress of peoples".

In Portugal, one of the first pacifist associations, the Portuguese Peace League, was founded by a woman, Alice Pestana, in 1899, and an organisation in which would figure leading figures such as Olga de Morais Sarmento, Adelaide Cabete, Virgínia Quaresma, Carolina Beatriz Ângelo, Branca Gonta Colaço, Albertina Paraíso, Cláudia de Campos, among many others, running various branches around the country and including not only its archipelagos but also its African colonies. When World War I broke out, the pacifist movement did not have any significant scale in Portugal. Furthermore, the majority of the female voices that had hitherto defended the resolution of conflicts through recourse to the law and diplomacy, took up support of Portugal's intervention in the war.

During the Estado Novo, this type of movement got silenced. However, what was then nationally referred to as the Guerra do Ultramar (Overseas War), which incurred high costs to Portugal whether in material or in human terms and forced its young either to take up arms or clandestinely abandon the country, saw a rising tide of opposition especially in universities.

With the advent of democratic Portugal, the media began carrying opinion pieces that expressed pacifist positions as well as parties willing to incorporate these ideals whilst simultaneously standing out as defenders of the peace, in particular, the CNJP – the National Council for Justice and Peace, a lay organism of the Portuguese Episcopal Conference, which sought to defend the cause of justice and peace within the framework of the evangelist and social doctrines of the Catholic Church; AJPaz – the Action for Justice and Peace, with its objective of building culture and peace; the Portuguese Council for Peace and Cooperation that strove to end the way and bring about fair and just resolutions for all conflicts.

2.5. ECOLOGICAL MOVEMENTS

International environmentalist movements stemmed from the confluence of three traditions: the conservationist (protecting nature), the humanist (hunger and demographic) and risk (nuclear arms) (Schmidt, 2008). Despite the founding, early on in the Estado Novo, of the League for the Protection of Nature (1948), more closely resembling other conservationist movements, Portugal did not especially fall within any of the aforementioned trends. **The development Portuguese environmental associative organisations should be approached within the scope of a set of social trends that continued to characterise the country throughout the 20th century and which Soromenho-Marques summarised into four essential points: dominant rurality, lack of a competitive spirit, scant literacy levels associated with a weak organisation of civil society and a bureaucratic and burdensome state** (Soromenho-Marques, 2005). The endemic backwardness in which Portugal found itself on the eve of the Carnation Revolution subjected the environment theme to a very lowly ranking on the priorities of the first decision makers in the democratic transition period. As regards the environmentalist movements, the first decade in the post-25 April reality was marked by three major trends: the campaign against nuclear energy, the desire to conciliate the rural heritage along with other post-industrial protest trends (imported from Europe and the US) and, finally only a fragmentation, multi-purpose and individualist interventions (Soromenho-Marques, 2005, p. 128). In the opinion of Eugénia Rodrigues, "the emergence of ecological associatives in Portugal reveals the bonds to some of the banners typical of the old movements, which endowed them with a particular structure as, to a certain extent, it was with them they mixed and inherited some of the features of the doctrine and methods that prove difficult to expel" (Rodrigues, 1995, p. 31).

Defined as a national priority in 1974, by the State Secretary of Industry and Energy, José de Melo Torres Campos (I, II and III Provisional Governments), the nuclear option triggered a civil mobilisation in Portuguese society that led to the celebrated Ferrel (1976) protest, a location where work was beginning on what was supposed to be the first national power station. In this period, the journalist Afonso Cautela, director of the Ecological Front, an official body of the Portuguese Ecological Movement (founded on a 14th May 1974), came to the fore as one of the first spokespersons for Portuguese environmental associations. Other figures also took part in this campaign with figures from the academic universe including Professor José Delgado Domingos, who led a profound reflection on the civilizational options that Portugal then faced.

Even during the rule of the dictator Oliveira Salazar, the architect Gonçalo Ribeiro Telles denounced the lack of urban planning in the city of Lisbon, which contributed towards the impact of the floods of 25th and 26th November 1967 in the wake of which around five hundred persons lost their lives with a further thousand left homeless. With the advent of democracy, Ribeiro Telles embodied a new line of thinking as regards the environment and territorial planning, then entitled "eco-development", having served as Under Secretary of State for the Environment (I, II and III Provisional Governments) and State Secretary (I Constitutional Government). Later, he was one of the voices that spoke out against projects such as the Vasco da Gama bridge or the Alqueva dam.

As Soromenho-Marques recalls, through to the mid-1980s, the Portuguese environmentalist movement encountered difficulties in imposing itself nationally given that public opinion remained very much focused on other priorities (consolidating democracy and combating poverty). Another reason derives from the strong individualism and the fragmentation of diverse interventions in favour of the environment (Soromenho-Marques, 2005, p. 135). Launched in 1982 with the name of the Portuguese Ecologist Movement – "the Greens", thus sought to trigger an awakening in the ecological awareness of Portuguese society.

Meanwhile, the Portuguese environmentalist movement would also take shape through the organisation of the I and II National Encounters of Portuguese Ecologists (Foz do Arelho, November 1984, and Troia, March 1985) which together around two dozen national organisations[29], in a process of consolidation and internationalisation with representatives from Ger-

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[29] Specifically, Associação para a Defesa e Estudo do Património Cultural e Natural dos Concelhos de Faro, Olhão e São Brás de Alportel (ADEIPA), A Batalha – Centro de estudos Libertários, A ideia, Associação Livre de Objetores e Objetoras de Consciência (ALOOC), Amigos da Terra, Antítese – Centro de Cultura Libertária, Amigos de Milfontes, Associação Cultural Amigos da Serra da Estrela, Cooperativa de Informação e Animação Cultural (CEDI), Centro Ecológico, clube de Montanhismo de Setúbal, Frente de Libertação e Federação dos Povos (FLFP), Grupo de Estudos e Investigação das Ciências Experimentais (GEICE), Grupo de Investigação e Ordenamento do Território e Ambiente (GEOTA), Grupo de Investigação e Divulgação Científica (GIDC), Grupo de Intervenção Ecológica das Caldas da Rainha (GINEC), Grupo de Estudos Regionais Ecologia e Património (GEREP), Núcleo Ecologista da Escola Preparatória da Trafaria, Projeto Setúbal Verde, as well as independent dissident figures from "the Greens" and the former Revolutionary Party of the Proletariat. *Cf.* Soromenho Marques, Viriato, Raízes do ambientalismo em Portugal..., p. 137.

many, Spain and Italy presentation. In the middle of this same decade (31st October 1985), the environmental association Quercus was founded in the city of Porto and would go onto become a landmark in this field with branches all over mainland and archipelago Portugal.

Throughout the 1990s, despite the disappearance of a set of structures set up in the previous decade, some Portuguese NGOs (Quercus, League for the Protection of Nature, GEOTA) strove to influence the national environmental agenda, especially in terms of the training and preparation of its staff members, in the majority drawn from the urban elite. The good juridical preparation of cases, a network of media based communications outlets and autonomy as regards the diverse interests explains some of the factors enabling an explanation of this growth and development (Soromenho-Marques, 2005, p. 144).

In international terms, Manuel Castells puts forward a typology of environmental movements divided into five groups: preservation of nature, defence of one's own environment, counterculture/ deep ecology, saving the planet and green policies (Castells, 2003). Over the course of recent decades, the environment trend has undergone a transfiguration and integrating the flows arising out of the new social movements, marked by the following characteristics: questioning the technical-scientific progress, lack of trust in the effective power of the state, the rejection of utopias over the end of history and in search of sustainable development (Soromenho-Marques, 1998, pp. 115-118). However, in Portugal, due to its endemic backwardness, through to the mid-1990s, there prevailed "the confluence of ideologies and strategies for action that in other counties were separated by a matter of various decades" (Rodrigues, 1995, p.31), resulting in contradictory features and the greater complexity and that served to emphasise the embryonic and dispersed nature of the movement. Portuguese environmental movements thus went through a climate of hyper-politicisation to a logic of an almost technocratic pragmatism, from a contested legitimacy to an official legitimacy, which nevertheless first requires a better educated middle class with a greater weighting within the overall scope of Portuguese society (Rodrigues, 1995, p. 31).

2.6. LGBT MOVEMENTS

According to Cascais, in Portugal **the lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) associative movement went through three distinct phases**, in keeping with the socio-origins of the pattern common to Southern European countries (Cascais, 2006). The first phase (1974-1991) subdivides into two distinct periods separated by the appearance of the Aids epidemic (1984-1986). A second period (1991-1997) began with the founding of the first long lasting association, the GTH – the Homosexual Working Group at the headquarters of the Revolutionary Socialist Party –, spanning a period of transition with mixed characteristics (1995-1997). Finally, the latest phase (beginning in the mid-1990s) enabled an approximation of their structures to their

peers in Europe and the United States, through the configuration of organisations with representative weighting within the community, visibility in the public domain, means of pressuring the party political institutions and their own political agenda (Cascais, 2006, p. 125).

Following the advent of democracy (1974), there were no LGBT associative organisations in Portugal, contrary to neighbouring Spain where clandestine and embryonic gay movements were founded in the shadows of the anti-Franco opposition and autonomist organisations. The demands for sexual emancipation assumed in the international public domain in May 1968 (France) and the Stonewall riot (1969, United States)[30], a moment of transition towards the visibility and political mobilisation of the LGBT subcultures in the western world clashed with the absence of democratic freedoms as cultivated by the dictatorship and by the distancing established by the Portuguese left regarding an issue deemed both elitist and divisive (Cascais, 2006, pp. 110-111).

In the 1970s/1980s, the public initiatives bound up with the LGBT universe were truly scarce. The publication by the Diário de Lisboa newspaper on 13th May 1974, of the MAHR – the Action Movement for Revolutionary Homosexuals Manifesto, elicited strong reactions and better known in the person of Galvão de Melo, a military officer on the National Salvation Board in 1980, within the framework of the Centre of Culturona Youth Dynamics, the CHOR – the Collective of Revolutionary Homosexuals surviving only through to the realisation of the Encounters "Being (homo)sexual", organised by the National Centre of Culture, in the same year that Portugal decriminalised homosexuality (1982). As Cascais details, "the demand for identity difference emerged as suspicious to the foundational equalitarianism of left wing thinking within the Enlightenment frame" (Cascais, 2006, pp. 113).

Contrary to a certain number of other countries (United States, France, etc.), in which the Aids epidemic led to the mobilisation of the gay community, Portuguese LGBT activism developed in a smoother and structured fashioned – as is the case with other semi-peripheral societies –, around the first non governmental organisations associated with the fight against this disease (Brandão, 2009). Gradually, this led onto official recognition of the gay community with its representative structures proved credible interlocutors in the public space, within a progressively more emancipatory context. However, in this phase (beginning of the 1990s), the community had still not overcome its traditional demeaning, objective, invisible and accommodative status (Cascais, 2006, pp. 119-120).

The essence of the third period in this process of LGBT associative affirmation encapsulates above all else the visibility of the aforementioned movements within the national public space with a multiplication in the representative structures alongside specific initiatives: ILGA

Portugal (1996), Clube Safo (1996), PortugalGay.PT (1996), Korpus magazine (1996), the Gay and Lesbian Lisbon Cinema Festival (1997), Opus Gay (1997), Arraial Pride (1997), radio program Vidas Alternativas (1999), LGTB Pride march (2000), não de prives – a Sexual Rights Defence Group (2001), Lesbian Conference Days (2002), ex-aequo network (2003), @t-Associação for the Study and Defence of Gender Identity Rights (2003), Nós – University Movement for Sexual Liberty (2000-2003), Grupo Oeste Gay (2000-2005), Coisas do Género (2001-2003) as well as the Portuguese Association for Male Homosexuality (2006) and the Reflection and Interventions Group on Transsexuality – GRIT (2007), among others (Nogueira and Oliveira, 2010). Currently confronted by limits on their potential for growth and beginning to encounter an anti-emanci-patory reaction – according to Fernando Cascais –, the LGBT movement faces a cognitive and political need for greater self-awareness in order to better obtain greater social and political recognition (Cascais, 2006, p. 124). Certain authors maintain that there is nevertheless an apparent gap between the discourses of certain LGBT activists and their target-publics, due to "a linear conception of the relationship between identity, affections and sexuality" (Brandão, 2009, p. 5). Moving on from an essentialist argument with the affirmation of queer thinking and a certain fracturing in the community (Cascais, 2006, p. 121).

In legislative terms, a set of specific and/or transversal measures endowed this process of visibility in the public space and among which we would here just highlight: de facto same sex unions (2001); revision of the Code of Employment (2003); the inclusion of sexual orientation in the Portuguese Constitution (2004); the Penal Code review (2007); the inclusion of matters related with sexual orientation in the Sexual Education in Schools Law (2009) and the exten-sion of marriage to same sex couples (2010). Simultaneously, the range of academic works about the LGBT movements has risen considerably[31], thus verifying a close connection between activism and scientific reflection, given that there are a certain number of actors in this debate located on both sides of the coin (Santos, 2006).

2.7. SOCIAL MOVEMENTS IN THE 21st CENTURY

Public problems (the questions of society) arise out of conflicts between points of view around which competing groups gather that results in a performance – to return to the Goff-man (1993) expression – towards other groups. Each individual makes up part of one or various groups and participating in a certain staging of the public space mediated by the media out-lets. Eric Macé conceives of a sociology of the media means as "a sociology configuring the

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[31] To provide three examples beyond the works already referenced: Cascais, A. Fernando (org.), *Indisciplinar a teoria. Estudos gays, lésbicos e queer*. Lisboa, Fenda, 2004; Santos, Ana Cristina, *A lei do desejo. Direitos humanos e minorias sexuais em Portugal*. Porto, Afrontamento, 2005; Almeida, Miguel Vale de, *A Chave do Armário, Homossexualidade, Casamento, Família*, Lisboa, Imprensa de Ciências Sociais, 2009.

social relationships within a process of mediation" (Macé, 2001a e 2001b). The media – in keeping with a series of factors among which are their respective individual ideological positionings –, sought to reflect the symbolic representations and the interpretative frameworks deemed legitimate at that particular point in time within the context of a struggle between actors inscribed in social relations of power and domination.

The public space, with its complex structural duties, today stems from a series of transformations of which we would highlight here only those that expanded the personal space of witnessing and the consequent dilution in the boundary between public and private spaces. We encounter this phenomena in the individualisation / personalisation of political life, in the television programs about the lives of otherwise anonymous individuals, in the approval of laws in the wake of some tragedy or a story of life, in the disciplinary sanctions imposed on staff for their comments posted on social networks, remote working, etcetera.

Already present in the television of intimacy, as analysed by Dominique Mehl (1996), this dimensions reconvenes some of the old tension between reason and technique that set idealists n conflict with the sophists of ancient Greece. Intellectual rationale and bearing witness are not always compatible. We may perfectly well rebut arguments but it is difficult to contradict a life story. While it is undeniable that bearing witness in itself is a form of communication specific to the public space, it is equally certain that the evaluation of the impact resulting brings about no consensus. For example, as regards approaching the question of human rights in the media, Marcel Gauchet says that strongly emotive mobilisations reflect with some frequency in weak forms of civic mobilisations (Gauchet, 1998). Other authors analyse reality from a different perspective. The impact of what gets termed civil society and their social manifestations (consider events ongoing in Europe currently or alternatively to the Arab Spring) have driven the production of diversified readings. As has always happened, there are actors and groups (politicians, economists, mediatic, cultural, religious figures, etcetera) with a greater weighting in the public space but they themselves do not only shape the social body.

Manuel Castells recalls how the emergence of the Internet as a new space of sociability has driven contradictory interpretations. On the one hand, he considered how the building of virtual communities might enable the substitution of territory based human relationships by chosen sociabilities. On the other hand, the detractors of the Internet defend that this new means of communication has fostered social isolation and the lack of communications especially in the family network (Castells, 2001, p. 147). Whatever the interpretation adopted, the demonstration that took place in December 1999, in Seattle, against the World Trade Organisation – as the first and on account of its scale – constituted a paradigmatic example of this new type of social movement. Organised at the planetary level through recourse to the new technologies, falling within the scope of a cyber-movement and in this case with an anti-globalisation agenda. Castells defines cyber-movements based on three major characteristics: the mobilisation around cultural movements, the replacement of hierarchical organisations hang-

ing over from the industrial era and planetary in scope (Castells, 2001, pp. 172-177). Cohen and Rai distinguished six major types of social movements today structured on a planetary scale in terms of coordination and action: human rights, feminism, ecology, worker, religious and pacifist movements (Cohen and Rai 2000).

The Arab Spring – also known as the "Arab Awakening", "the Facebook revolution", "the Twitter revolution" or still alternatively "revolution 2.0 " –, with its origins back in December 2010 in the Tunisian city of Sidi Bouzid, consecrated the utilisation of the social networks as instruments for the politicisation of civil society. Closer to Portugal, in Spain, analysis of the 15th May 2011 demonstrations (Democracia Real Ya) illustrate how cyber-activism benefitted here from the confluence of three factors: the general weariness following economic recession; the striving for and desire for change among the younger generations; the recourse to the management techniques and democratic communication stemming from the participation of users of social networks (Piñero-Otero and Sanchez, 2012).

Based upon the definition of the social movement by Charles Tilly (2004) – based on the following characteristics: campaigns for collective protests, the repertoire of performances and concerted representations (respectability, unity, numbers, commitment) – Dora Fonseca (2012) defends how the Portuguese mobilisation of 12th March 2011, does not gather together all these attributes. Convened via Facebook but also publicised by posters, pamphlets and the media, the initiatives brought hundreds of thousands of Portuguese citizens out onto the street in a demonstration against precarious working conditions, unemployment and some government measures. This is not exactly a campaign given the lack of any continuity, consistency or a concrete objective. The existence of a repertoire – with resources and strategies that configure a pattern – this nevertheless remains unclear and ends up more at the incipient strategic level. Finally, as regards the concerted representations, this highlights a fleeting respectability, an unstable and ineffective unity and commitment. This lacked the "specificity, the definition of clear and attainable objectives" (Fonseca, 2012, p. 128). In terms of summary, we may nevertheless accept this as a spontaneous movement that produced effects on civil society, opening up new spaces for debate and mobilisation and thus launching a new social dynamic.

2.8. CONCLUSIONS

In summary of this sub-chapter on the mobilisation and drivers of civic participation in Portugal:

Portuguese civil society displays only a low level of social movement participation. Portugal did nevertheless experience various social movements over the course of recent centuries even while generally less expressive in extent than in other countries.

- Portugal did host examples of **"primitive social movements"** in the first half of the 19th century during the emergence of liberal and capitalist society, in the form of subsistence riots and acts of banditry, carried out in the latter case by outlaws operating out of the most isolated and distant national regions.

- The process of industrialisation took place in Portugal later and only more weakly than in other more industrialised countries and, consequently, the **workers movement** also developed at a slower pace.

- As from the 1870s, the Portuguese working class tended to reject paternalist bourgeois protectionism and gained a true class conscience.

- The arrival of the 20th century and the implementation of a new regime did not pacify the relationships between the industrial working class and the groups holding power. The social agitation, which reflected in strikes, persecution and imprisonment, only worsened with Portugal's entry into World War I and the deterioration of popular living standards, especially for citizens resident in urban centres.

- With the dictatorial regime taking power, the workers movements entered into a period of repression and persecution and workers were forced to engage in clandestine or semi-clandestine struggles.

- The **feminist movement** in Portugal is interlinked with the founding of the Portuguese Peace League which ran its own feminist department as from 1906 and gained in profile with the rise of republican ideals. With the declaration of the Republic, some civic rights of women did gain recognition even while political rights, such as the right to vote, only came in 1931 and under specific and restricted conditions. Elitist in profile, the feminist movements did not display the violent characteristics of many of its peer movements.

- During the Estado Novo, feminist organisations that did not receive state backing were banned. The 1950s saw the presence of women in the opposition movements to the regime. In the late 1960s and above all in the 1970s, the feminist movements once again took up a more high profile role in Portuguese society even while with new objectives and more closely focused on themes interrelated with sexuality, love and profession.

- As from 1974, the feminist movement embraced new causes and engaged in new campaigns, for example, the decriminalisation of abortion and the right to contraception. However, immediately after the fall of the dictatorial regime many feminist demands got caught up in the multiplicity of problems then facing Portuguese society.

- In the 1970s, based on the "New Portuguese Charters" process, the Women's Liberation Movement, self-defined as a more radical feminist movement. In the 1980s, despite a certain tailing-off of the feminist wave, these themes remained on the agenda of Portuguese movements.

- The 1990s represent a period of globalisation for feminist movements. Among the most recent causes, the struggle for parity and against domestic violence. The arrival of the new century saw the issue of abortion high on the agendas of both politicians and feminist movements.

- In Portugal, the **student movement** grew over the course of the 1960s, even if opposition to the Estado Novo dates back to the immediate aftermath of its founding, intensifying in the wake of World War II and into the 1950s. Ideals such as liberty and equality inspired the struggle against the regime. In defence of university autonomy and opposition to the colonial war were also core issues among student demands.

- As political meetings were prohibited, many young persons nurtured ideas and concepts in movements of a catholic origin whether at the local or parish level given that these would seem to fall beyond the suspicions of the political police.

- With the 1970s arriving, student movements hardened their actions against the regime with Portugal experiencing strong politicisation of the academic system and its corresponding demands and heavily influenced by the entrance of hard-left groups into the university environment. Opposition to the colonial war was then one of the core themes of the student movements.

- In the 1990s, student movements took up campaigning against tuition fees.

- As regards the **pacifist movements**, as from the mid-19th century, with the consolidation of the Liberal state, there came a proliferation of associations with pacifist and anti-militarist positions in which women played leading roles. When World War I broke out, the pacifist movements no longer any held any significant influence in Portugal.

- The **ecological movements** and the development of Portuguese environmental associative organisations came about due to a set of social trends that continued to characterise the country throughout the 20th century that Soromenho-Marques summarises into four key points: the dominant rurality, lack of a competitive spirit, scant literacy associated with a weak organisation of civil societies and a bureaucratic and burdensome state.

⊙ Through to the mid-1980s, the Portuguese environmental movement encountered a series of difficulties in carving out its role in the national space given that public opinion was very much focused on other priorities (the consolidation of democracy and combating poverty). Another reason stems from the strong individualism and the fragmentation of the diverse pro-environment interventions.

⊙ During the 1990s, despite the disappearance of a set of structures founded in the preceding decade, some Portuguese NGOs (Quercus, the Nature Protection League, GEOTA) strove to influence the national environment agenda, especially in terms of the training and preparation of their staff members, mostly recruited from an urban elite.

⊙ In Portugal, the **LGBT lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender associative movement (LGBT)** crossed three distinct phases and following a pattern common to Southern European countries: the first phase (1974-1991) subdivides into two distinct periods, separated by the appearance of the Aids epidemic (1984-1986; with 1982 the year when Portugal decriminalised homosexuality); a second period (1991-1997) beginning with the founding of the first long lasting association, covering a period of transition with mixed characteristics (1995-1997); before the most recent phase (beginning in the mid-1990s) with organisations attaining representativeness in the community, with visibility in the public arena, means of pressuring party political institutions and their own political agendas.

CHAPTER 3 Institutional development
of NGOs in Portugal and their
position within social economy
organizations

1. THE "DES" DATA BASE

One of the main principles of this chapter involves the production of quantitative data on the **total number of organisations** that correspond to concept of NGOs proposed in chapter 1 and about their **geographic distribution, key activities and juridical status**.

Such data may only derive from an exhaustive database on organisations that meet the requirement for classification as NGOs, **in accordance with the concept adopted in this study**.

Thus, for the purposes of this study, it was necessary to establish this database. To this end, we drew upon an ongoing project taking place under the auspices of ATES – Transversal Area of the Social Economy at the UCP (Porto), the **DES – Directory of the Social Economy**. This is a database set up with the objective of including, to the greatest possible extent the population of social economy organisations in Portugal in accordance with the concept proposed by Mendes (2011). The DES therefore includes not only those organisations deemed NGOs but also far more entities in addition and with a total that stands in excess of 70,000. The purpose of this ATES project is to provide a means for the public consultation at a single site the following identification details on social economy organisations:

· Tax number;	· Council;
· Name;	· District;
· Core activity;	· Telephone;
· Juridical statute;	· Mobile;
· Address;	· Fax;
· Postal code;	· E-mail;
· Location;	· Internet side address.

DES does not include data on employment, voluntary work and the financial accounts of the organisations listed.

In its current phase of development, DES includes the organisational title, the main activity and the juridical statutes of all the organisations contained within its scope as well as a substantial proportion of the remaining fields of information even if not yet for all organisations. Hence, to undertake this study, this required not only the extraction from the DES of those organisations registering their main purpose and juridical statute in accordance with the NGO concept adopted here but also to complete the data still lacking for these same organisations, especially as regards their respective locations.

The calculations made are based on the NGO database in the meanwhile established and presented over the following points. As already stated, this only enables the presentation of data on the total number of NGOs and their distribution by key activity sectors, juridical statutes and location that we here analysed at the district level.

Finally, a brief note on the variables characterising its economic nature (employment, GVA, etcetera). As aforementioned, in its current state of development, the DES does not contain this information. Obtaining this from that currently existing inside the DES was impossible within the timeframe available for this study. We might consider approaching this issue through obtaining figures for NGOs from the DES and extrapolating these numbers by the unit values obtained based upon the survey made of 153 NGOs. However, deploying the results of these calculations and rendering them valid for the set of NGOs would not attain statistical robustness given that the sample of 153 NGOs surveyed does not prove representative of the NGO population as a whole.

2. TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs AND IN CONTRAST WITH THE TOTAL NUMBER OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS

The following table sets out the total number and distribution of NGOs by their main activities and according to the classification set out in point 2.2 of chapter 1.

Making recourse to the aforementioned database, we registered a total of **17,012 NGOs**. In the 2013 Satellite Account of the Social Economy, the INE accounted for **55,383** social economy organisations with the ATES/UCP (Porto) Directory of the Social Economy currently containing over **70,000** social economy organisations.

We would recall here the main factors contributing to the difference between these numbers:

· the 2013 Satellite Account of the Social Economy includes not only NGOs but also organisations with juridical entities that allow for the distribution of results (cooperatives and mutualist entities) and others with sporting and recreational activities, religious activities, political activities, trade unions activities and employers and professional associations;

· the ATES / UCP (Porto) Directory of the Social Economy, beyond all the organisations that are included in the 2013 Satellite Account of the Social Economy, also includes organisation that while not having any juridical statutes are regulated by other types of norms recognised by the public sphere (for example, scouting groups, the Vicentine Conferences, Zones of Forestry Intervention, etcetera).

An important note to make as regards the overall total of NGOs accounted for here relates to the point above as regards the classification of NGOs by their core activities: there are organisations that, by their denomination, report having a principal activity that falls beyond the scope of the NGO concept adopted here. However, when better examining the set of activities of these organisations, we reach the conclusion that in fact the global results of their core activities does represent the nature of a public good. In the total number of NGOs referred to above, this type of organisation is not subject to inclusion given that only analysis on a case by case basis would enable their detecting. This detailed analysis proved incompatible with the time available for completing this study.

3. DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs BY THEIR CORE ACTIVITIES

The largest group of NGOs contains those with the core activity of rendering **social services,** followed by those falling into the **cultural and artistic activities** category. Taken together, these two groups represent 62.3% of the total number of NGOs.

Within the cultural and artistic activity organisations, we would highlight those corresponding to those classified as **"Culture, Recreation and Sport"** that outnumber those producing social services (with the IPSS statute and others) and alongside the **Humanitarian Firefighter Associations** that together <u>constitute the core group within the set of NGOs in Portugal</u>. This central core corresponds to a total of 11,585 NGOs, representing over **two thirds of the total number of NGOs** (68.1%).

This group of NGOs holds a central position in the set of NGOs in Portugal not only due to their relative weighting but also because they are the most fully **distributed throughout the territory**. In effect, and taking into account the administrative division based on the parish councils prior to their recent process of merger, there are on average:

· one artistic and cultural collective per parish council;
· more than one IPSS or other social service organisation per parish council;
· one firefighting association for around each eight parish council.

This thus establishes a set of **associative organisations at the infra-council territorial level** which emerge out of the collective mobilisation of the populations at these geographic levels throughout the overwhelming majority of the Portuguese territory (coastal and inland regions, rural and urban zones) in order to respond to, with proximity services, emergency situations, social support and needs for artistic and cultural expression.

RELATIVE WEIGHTING OF NGOs SPECIALISING IN ARTISTIC AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES, RESIDENTS ASSOCIATIONS SOCIAL SERVICE PROVIDERS AND VOLUNTEER FIREFIGHTING ASSOCIATIONS		
CORE ACTIVITIES	NO. NGOs	% OF TOTAL NGOs
Artistic and Cultural Activities	3851	22.6
Residents Associations	820	4.8
Social Service	6377	37.5
Civil Defence	537	3.2
TOTAL	11585	68.1

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy

The remaining NGOs beyond this core group appeared to respond to needs of a less generalised scope in terms of both their geographic distribution and the social groups thereby mobilised. The main groups of such organisations engage in the following activities:

- **environmental protection (795 NGOs);**
- **animal rights (259 NGOs);**
- **healthcare (657 NGOs);**
- **scientific activities (808 NGOs);**
- **territorial development (401 NGOs);**
- **human rights and active citizenship (598 NGOs);**
- **education and cooperation for development (220 NGOs).**

Now considering the totality of group of core activities contained in the classification put forward in point 2.2. of chapter 1, the distribution of the total number of NGOs results in the table below.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOS BY CORE ACTIVITIES		
CORE ACTIVITIES	NO. NGOs	%
Culture and Arts	4258	25.0
Education and Research	1543	9.1
Healthcare	657	3.9
Social Services	6377	37.5
Civil Defence	537	3.2
Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development	1054	6.2
Development	1459	8.6
Human Rights and Active Citizenship	598	3.5
Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing ReSOURCEs and Encouraging Volunteering	113	0.7
International Activities	416	2.4
TOTAL	17012	100.0

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy

The following table compares this distribution of the total number of NGOs by their core activities with the total number of Non Profit Institutions and the total number of Social Economy organisations ascertained by the Satellite Account of Non Profit Institutions published by the INE in 2011 and the Satellite Account of the Social Economy published in 2103, respectively.

Comparing the NGO and Non Profit distributions, we find that the difference in the total number of each type stems primarily from the fact that the Non Profit category includes organisations with the following activities that are excluded from the scope of the NGOs:

· recreation and sport;
· religious activities;
· political activities;
· employer, professional and trade union associative organisations.

In terms of the NGO and Social Economy organisations, we observe that the difference in the respective total numbers of these organisation primarily derives from the fact that the latter group contains the following organisational types that are excluded from the range of NGOs:

· recreational and sporting organisation;
· mutualist organisations;
· cooperatives (with the exception of social solidarity entities);
· religious organisations;
· political organisations;
· employer, professional and trade union organisations.

COMPARISON OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF NGO, NON PROFIT AND SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS GROUPED BY THEIR CORE ACTIVITIES					
NGOs (DES)		**NON PROFITS (INE, 2011)**		**SOCIAL ECO. (INE, 2013)**	
ACTIVITIES	NO. ORGS	ACTIVITIES	NO. ORGS	ACTIVITIES	NO. ORGS
Culture And Arts	4258	Culture and Recreation	22897	Culture, Sports and Recreation /Leisure	26779
Education and Research	1543	Education and Research	2057	Teaching and Research	2325
Healthcare	657	Healthcare	636	Healthcare and Wellbeing	805
Social Services	6377	Social Services[32]	6255	Social Action[33]	7740
Civil Defence	537				
Human Rights and Active Citizenship	598	Law, Rights and Politics	433		
Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing ReSOURCEs and Encouraging Volunteering	113	Philanthropy and Promoting Volunteering	95		
Environmental protection and Sustainability	1054	Environment	773	Development, Housing and the Environment	2719
Development	1459	Development and Housing	1785		
International Activities	416	International Activities	285		
		Religion	7102	Religions and Congregations	8728
		Employer, Professional and Trade Union Associations	2189	Professional, Trade Union and Political Organisations	2528
				Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	285
				Transformation Activities	385
				Trade, Consumption and Services	669
				Financial Activities	98
		Not specified	1036	Not specified	2269
TOTAL	**17012**	**TOTAL**	**45543**	**TOTAL**	**55383**

SOURCES: NGOs: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy; NON PROFITS: INE, 2011; SOCIAL ECONOMY: INE, 2013

[32] Includes civil defence.
[33] Includes mutuals, civil defence, human rights and active citizenship, philanthropy and promoting volunteering.

The following table details the distribution of the total number of NGOs by their core activities and making up each of the groups presented above.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs BY THEIR CORE ACTIVITIES[34]	
	N.º NGOs
CULTURE AND ARTS	**4258**
Artistic Activities (Diverse Performing Arts)	33
Artistic Activities (Diverse Visual Arts)	26
Artistic Activities (Cinema)	66
Artistic Activities (Circus)	2
Artistic Activities (Choirs and Orchestras)	266
Artistic Activities (Dance)	83
Artistic Activities (Design, Engraving, Painting and Sculpture)	27
Artistic Activities (Photography)	25
Artistic Activities (Museums)	14
Artistic Activities (Music)	965
Artistic Activities (Opera)	3
Artistic Activities (Theatre)	414
Diverse Artistic Activities	194
Cultural Activities (Archives, Libraries and Museums)	3
Diverse Cultural Activities	1730
Friends of Library and Museum Associations	80
Friends of Botanical Garden, Zoo and Aquarium Associations	8
Cultural and Historical Heritage Protection	250
Senior Universities	69

[34] The classification of the NGOs in terms of their core activities implies that each NGO is counted only once in accordance with their lead activity. Even while they might run other activities within the scope of the same classification, the NGO only counts once. For example, when the table states that there are 70 senior universities, this corresponds to the number of NGOs where running this type of university represents their **core activity**. Beyond these senior universities, there are other operating at host institutions where they are NGOs but the senior university does not represent their core activity (for example, the *Misericórdias*) or at institutions that are not NGOs (for example, municipalities).

DISTRIBUIÇÃO DO NÚMERO TOTAL DE ONG POR ATIVIDADES PRINCIPAIS (cont.)	
	N.º ONG
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH	**1543**
Scientific activities	808
Friends of Teaching Establishment Associations	5
Teaching Establishment Associations	21
Higher Education Interface Establishment Associations	18
Promoting Technical and Scientific Information	22
Promoting Astronomy and Astronomic Observation	11
Education (Diverse)	68
Pre-school Education	122
Primary and Secondary Teaching	154
Teaching and Professional Training	293
Higher Education	21
HEALTHCARE	**657**
Friends of Healthcare Units Associative Organisations	192
Blood Donation Associations	113
Patient and Patient Support Associative Organisations	264
Healthcare (Diverse)	88
SOCIAL SERVICES	**6377**
Scouting	2
Gifted Children Services	4
Drug Addict Support Services	43
Disabled Person Support Services	415
Diverse Social Services	5912
Social Tourism	1

DISTRIBUIÇÃO DO NÚMERO TOTAL DE ONG POR ATIVIDADES PRINCIPAIS (cont.)	
	N.º ONG
CIVIL DEFENCE	**537**
Civil Defence	537
ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT	**1054**
Forestry Producer Associations	151
Ornithophily and Ornithology Associations	62
Speleology Associations	14
Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development	568
Animal rights	259
DEVELOPMENT	**1459**
Resident Associations	820
Territorial Development	401
Technological Innovation and Development	125
Fostering Social Entrepreneurship	6
Fostering Entrepreneurship (Diverse)	107
HUMAN RIGHTS AND ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP	**598**
Romany and Romany Support Associations	17
Emigrant and Emigrant Support Associations	10
Immigrant and Immigrant Support Associations	319
Fair Trade	2
Civic Cause Defence Associations	128
Consumer Rights Defence Associations	21
Education, Reflection and Civic Intervention Associations	101

DISTRIBUIÇÃO DO NÚMERO TOTAL DE ONG POR ATIVIDADES PRINCIPAIS (cont.)	
	N.º ONG
PHILANTHROPY, FUND RAISING, SHARING RESOURCES AND ENCOURAGING VOLUNTEERING	**113**
ReSOURCE Sharing Activities	4
Foundation Activities (Not Classified)	20
Business Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility	5
Social Economy Philanthropic Financing	16
Research and Promoting Science Philanthropic Financing	11
Philanthropic Financing of Artistic and Cultural Activities	1
Study Grant Philanthropic Financing	12
Merit Award Philanthropic Financing	1
Microfinance	3
Promoting and Supporting Volunteering	25
Support Services to the Social Economy (Fund Raising)	10
Support Services to the Social Economy (Public Relations)	1
Support Services to the Social Economy (Diverse)	4
INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES	**416**
International Humanitarian Aid	10
Education and Cooperation for Development	220
Cultural Interchange	186
TOTAL	**17012**

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy
We now approach only the category of foundations under private law, their distribution by core activity group and presented in the following table in conjunction with a comparison of this distribution with that for the total number of NGOs.

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SWe now approach only the category of **foundations under private law**, their distribution by core activity group and presented in the following table in conjunction with a comparison of this distribution with that for the total number of NGOs.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF FOUNDATIONS UNDER PRIVATE LAW BY CORE ACTIVITY GROUP			
CORE ACTIVITIES	**DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL NO. OF FOUNDATIONS UNDER PRIVATE LAW**		**DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL NO. OF NGOs (%)**
	NO.	**%**	
Culture and Arts	99	19.5	25,0
Education and Research	54	10.6	9.1
Healthcare	6	1,2	3.9
Social Services	248	48.8	37.5
Civil Defence	1	0.2	3.2
Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development	3	0.6	6.2
Development	14	2.8	8.6
Human Rights and Active Citizenship	6	1.2	3.5
Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing ReSOURCEs and Encouraging Volunteering	60	11.8	0.7
International Activities	17	3.3	2.4
TOTAL	**508**	**100.0**	**100.0**

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economyl

As might be expected, the fact that most stands out in this distribution is the specialisation of foundations under private law in the Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing Resources and Encouraging Volunteering activity group.

This type of organisation also demonstrates a specialisation in social service activities, a situation resulting from the inclusion of social solidarity foundations in these activities.

The under-representation of foundations under private law in cultural and artistic activities stems from the indicator applied here referring to the number of organisations. Were we able to obtain access to other indicators, especially those based on organisation financial reporting, the portrayal of foundations might be very different as regards this activity group.

Another factor of note, always with reservations due to the type of indicator applied here stems from the under-representation of foundations under private law in the human rights and active citizenship category.

4. DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs BY JURIDICAL STATUTES

The following table sets out the NGO distribution by type of juridical statute spanned whether by Civil Law or by Canonical Law, thus that falling under the auspices of the Concordat. Thus, the canonical organisations contained here (Parish Social Centres, Institutes of Religious Congregations, other canonical-civil foundations, *Misericórdia* brotherhoods and other public catholic associations – for example, tertiary orders), while established under Canonical Law are also subject to civil law due to the fact that their main activities fall beyond the religious scope (for example, social services).

As demonstrated by the data presented, the large majority of NGOs in Portugal are private law associations, without any profitable goals, followed in number by the canonical organisations referred to above that operate essentially in the production of social services.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs BY JURIDICAL STATUTES			NO. OF NGOs	%
JURIDICAL STATUTES			**NO. OF NGOs**	**%**
Private law, non profit associations			14189	83.4
Cooperatives			192	1.1
Complementing company groupings			2	0.0
Foundation type organisations	Private Law Foundations		508	3.0
	Canonical-civil foundations	Parish Social Centres	1285	7.6
		Institutes of Religious Congregations	80	0.5
		Others	342	2.0
Catholic public associations	*Misericórdia* Brotherhoods		389	2.3
	Others		25	0.1
TOTAL			17012	100.0

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economyl

The following table sets out the numerical distribution of NGOs that hold one or more of the juridical statutes existing under Portuguese legislation for the regulation of NGOs, thus, the NGOsA or equivalent, the NGOsD and the NGOsPD.

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE NGOs WITH THE NGOA OR EQUIVALENT, NGOD AND NGOPD STATUTES		
		NO. OF NGOs
NGOsA		84
NGOsA and NGOsD		3
Equivalent to NGOsA		43
Equivalent to NGOsA and NGOsD		3
NGOsD		207
NGOsD and NGOsPD		2
NGOsPD		92
TOTAL OF NGOsA OR EQUIVALENT, NGOsD AND NGOsPD	NO.	434
	% OF TOTAL NGOS	2.6%

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy

5. DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs BY DISTRICTS AND AUTONOMOUS REGIONS

The current state of DES progress does enable data to be sourced on the geographic distribution of NGOs at the district level. The following table sets out this distribution in conjunction with the ratio for the number of inhabitants per NGO.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs PER DISTRICT AND AUTONOMOUS REGIONS				
REGIONS AND DISTRICTS	NO. OF NGOs	%	POPULATION RESIDENT IN 2011	NO. OF INHAB. / NGO
Açores	483	2.8	246772	511
Aveiro	969	5.7	714200	737
Beja	330	1.9	152758	463
Braga	1043	6.1	848185	813
Bragança	350	2.1	136252	389
Castelo Branco	425	2.5	196264	462
Coimbra	935	5.5	430104	460
Évora	443	2.6	166726	376
Faro	640	3.8	451006	705
Guarda	565	3.3	160939	285
Leiria	610	3.6	470930	772
Lisboa	4489	26.4	2250533	501
Madeira	217	1.3	267785	1234
Portalegre	278	1.6	118506	426
Porto	2105	12.4	1817172	863
Santarém	735	4.3	453638	617
Setúbal	1002	5.9	851258	850
Viana do Castelo	405	2.4	244836	605
Vila Real	356	2.1	206661	581
Viseu	632	3,7	377653	598
TOTAL	17012	100.0	10562178	621

SOURCES: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy; INE, Census 2011

The two most relevant facts to this distribution are the following:

· there is a **disparity between the coastal districts (with the exception of Lisbon) and their inland counterparts**, with the latter displaying a number of inhabitants per NGO significantly lower than in the coastal districts;
· the **district of Lisbon represents a special case**, given that the number of inhabitants per NGO is here closer to the levels of the inland districts than those on the coast.

The first fact interrelates with two factors:

· the aforementioned situation of the relatively high weighting within overall NGOs of those engaged in culture, recreation and sport, the IPSS entities and other organisations providing social services and Volunteer Firefighting Associations;
· a geographic distribution of this set of organisation throughout the entire extent of the territory at an infra-council level.

With a lower level population density in inland districts compared with the coastal regions results in the ratio of number of inhabitants per NGO dropping in inland regions. The coastal regions also host a broader range of services provided by public and private organisations that are not NGOs in the areas covered by these three organisational types.

This situation does not favour the sustainability of NGOs in inland regions and a fact that will only worsen with the slump in populations in these regions.

The district of Lisbon represents a special cases explained by another national characteristic which refers to its **centralism** that also gets expressed in this group of organisations. In effect, many NGOs concentrate in Lisbon or have their national headquarters there: there are 4,489 out of the national total of 17,012 NGOs, thus 26.4%.

The data presented in the following table conveys how the district of Lisbon reveals a specialisation particularly in the following groups of NGOs:

· Education and Research;
· Human Rights and Active Citizenship;
· International Activities.

This specialisation primarily stems from NGOs undertaking the following key activities:

· Scientific activities, in the case of Education and Research;
· Immigrant and Immigrant Support Associations, in the case of Human Rights and Active Citizenship;

· Education and Cooperation for Development and Cultural Exchanges in the case of International Activities.

To a lesser extent, the Lisbon district also reports a specialisation in the fields of Healthcare, Development (here due to resident's associations), Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing Resources and Encouraging Volunteering.

DISTRIBUTION BY GROUPS OF CORE ACTIVITIES OF THE TOTAL NUMBER OF NGOs IN THE DISTRICT OF LISBON COMPARED WITH NATIONALLY			
CORE ACTIVITIES	DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL NO. OF NGOs IN LISBON DISTRICT		DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL NO. OF NGOs NATIONALLY (%)
	NO.	%	
Culture and Arts	1047	23.3	25.0
Education and Research	674	15.0	9.1
Healthcare	214	4.8	3.9
Social Services	1173	26.1	37.5
Civil Defence	77	1.7	3.2
Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development	200	4.5	6.2
Development	458	10.2	8.6
Human Rights and Active Citizenship	350	7.8	3.5
Philanthropy, Fund Raising, Sharing ReSOURCEs and Encouraging Volunteering	49	1.1	0.7
International Activities	247	5.5	2.4
TOTAL	4489	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy

6. INTERNATIONAL NGOS

Making recourse to the Directory of the Social Economy returned a total of **120 international NGOs.** "International" here means that the NGO falls into one of the following situations:

· branch or representative office in Portugal of international NGOs;
· Portuguese NGOs that integrate into an international network of organisation with the same name, the same objective and some shared norms;
· NGOs with their headquarters in Portugal but international in scope with national and international members.

The following table sets out the distribution of these NGOs by their main activities. We may thus conclude that almost one half of these NGOs focus on teaching and research.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL NGOS BY CORE ACTIVITIES	
CORE ACTIVITIES	NO. of NGOs
CULTURA E ARTES	11
Artistic Activities (Diverse Visual Arts)	1
Artistic Activities (Music)	2
Diverse Artistic Activities	2
Diverse Cultural Activities	4
Cultural and Historical Heritage Defence	2
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH	59
Scientific Activities	32
Teaching Establishment Associative Organisations	1
Promoting Technical and Scientific Information	1
Primary and Secondary School Teaching	21
Teaching and Professional Training	1
Education (Diverse)	3
HEALTHCARE	4
Patient and Patient Support Associative Organisations	3
Healthcare (Diverse)	1

DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL NGOS BY CORE ACTIVITIES (cont.)	
SOCIAL SERVICES	**7**
Disabled Person Support Services	1
Diverse Social Services	6
CIVIL DEFENCE	**1**
Civil Defence	1
ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION	**6**
Environmental protection and Sustainable Development	5
Animal Rights	1
DEVELOPMENT	**7**
Innovation and Technological Development	7
HUMAN RIGHTS AND ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP	**9**
Defending Civic Causes	8
Education, Reflection and Civic Intervention	1
PHILANTHROPY, FUND RAISING, SHARING RESOURCES AND ENCOURAGING VOLUNTEERING	**6**
Philanthropic Financing of Scientific Research and Promotion	4
Promoting and Supporting Volunteering	1
Support Services to the Social Economy (Diverse)	1
INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES	**10**
International Humanitarian Aid	2
Education and Cooperation for Development	2
Cultural Exchanges	6
TOTAL	**120**

SOURCE: Catholic University of Portugal (Porto) / Transversal Area of the Social Economy – Directory of the Social Economy

7. NGO NETWORKS

In addition to the partnerships involving NGO groups and other entities, there are, very often founded with the goal of making applications to national and to European Union sources of funding, what constitutes the existing networks corresponding essentially to **federative or confederative organisations** in addition to the base organisation that form their memberships.

There are not many high profile cases should we seek out those federative or confederative organisations that have thus far managed to obtain a capacity for negotiation that enables some influence over public policies. These cases correspond to three federative and confederative organisation with the most members falling within the scope of social services, specifically:

- CNIS – National Confederation of Solidarity Institutions;
- UMP – Union of Portuguese *Misericórdias*;
- UMP – Union of Portuguese Mutualists.

Periodically, these organisations negotiate with the government what, thus far, have been termed "cooperation agreements" that regulate the public financing attributed to the organisations these institutions represent.

In addition to negotiating public financing for their members, these federative institutions, sometimes acting in conjunction and on other occasions independently, also display some capacity for influencing other aspects of public policy with relevance to the organisations that they represent.

A third domain of their actions incorporates the preparation and implementation of projects of interest to their associates such as, for example, the case in recent years with training-action projects.

There are other organisations of a federative nature that have also on occasion proved able to influence the formulation of public policies of relevance to the organisations that they represent but without the scope of the aforementioned organisation. This remains the case for the following entities:

- ANIMAR – Portuguese Association for Local Development;
- Federação Minha Terra – Portuguese Federation of Local Development Associations;
- Portuguese Foundation Centre;
- National Confederation of Family Associations;
- CPADA – Portuguese Confederation of Environmental Defence Associations;
- Portuguese Confederation of Cultural, Recreational and Sporting Collectives;

- Portuguese Confederation of Volunteering;
- Federation of Blood Donor Associations;
- Federation of Portuguese Cerebral Palsy Associations;
- FENACERCI – National Federation of Social Solidarity Cooperatives;
- Portuguese Federation of Scientific Associations and Societies;
- Portuguese Federation of Benevolent Blood Donors;
- FITI – Federation of Third Age Institutions;
- FORESTIS – Portuguese Forestry Association;
- HUMANITAS – Portuguese Federation for Mental Deficiency;
- League of Portuguese Firefighters;
- Portuguese NGODs Platform;
- RUTIS – Third Age University Association Network.

While the capacity of these organisations to wield political influence still remains lacking, their role in the development of the capacity for the collective organisation of the entities they represent remains important and beyond serving as a space for the preparation and implementation of projects of interest and relevance to the improvement of the performances returned by their member organisations.

From the aforementioned list of organisations, ANIMAR sits on the social management bodies of CASES – the António Sérgio Cooperative for the Social Economy even while other organisations remain on the outside.

Sitting on the National Council for the Social Economy, an organisation that has a consultative role at the Ministry of Solidarity, Employment and Social Security for matters relating to this sector, are the following aforementioned NGO linked representatives:

- CNIS;
- Union of Portuguese *Misericórdias*;
- Union of Portuguese Mutualists;
- Portuguese Confederation of Culture, Recreation and Sports Collectives;
- ANIMAR;
- Portuguese Centre of Foundations.

8. CONCLUSIONS

The following provides a summary of this chapter:

- for the country as a whole, through recourse to the Directory of the Social Economy, under production by ATES – the Transversal Area of the Social Economy of the Catholic University (Porto), we identified a total of **17,012 organisations** bearing characteristics corresponding to the NGO concept applied by this study;

- the **central core** of this group, which accounts for around one third of the total number of NGOs, corresponds to organisations deriving from popular initiatives at a **generally infra--council territorial level** (at the level of parish or adjoining parishes) in order to respond, in a collectively organised fashion, to the need for **social services** (through the IPSS and other organisations in this field), to meet **emergency** situations (through volunteer humanitarian firefighting associations and **needs in terms of artistic and cultural expression**, very often combined with recreational purposes (through culture, recreational and sporting collectives and resident's associations);

- the other NGOs cluster into territorially based groups meeting needs for proximity services that otherwise do not exist or hold lesser relevance as is the case with scientific activities, environmental protection, defending human rights, education and cooperation for development and others of an international nature;

- with the central core to the set of NGOs in Portugal, one consequence that results is their geographic distribution conveying a **regional disparity in the ratio of number of inhabitants per NGO** which is significantly lower in inland districts than their counterparts on the coast, a situation that may come to have an increasingly negative impact on NGOs located in inland regions to the extent that the population in these parts of the country continues to decline;

- the **exception** to this regional distribution is the district of Lisbon due to its specialisation in "Culture, Recreation and Sports Collectives / IPSS and other NGO social security service providers / Humanitarian Firefighting Associations", to its hosting the majority of scientific societies, NGOs with international activities and many of the immigrant and immigrant support associations;

- there are emerging NGOs with a vocation for providing services and mobilising resources in support of social economy organisations even while this group of organisations remains relatively dispersed and lacks the diversification necessary to satisfactorily meet the needs for such support;

- thus far, only in the core centre of the NGO sector, thus, in the groups containing "Culture, Recreation and Sports Collectives / IPSS and other NGO social security service providers / Humanitarian Firefighting Associations" that have proven able to establish a **platform at the national level with representativeness and some capacity for negotiation** influencing in an effective fashion public policy and financing and more precisely those organisations federated under the IPSS (CNIS, Union of Portuguese *Misericórdias* and the Union of Portuguese Mutualists).

CHAPTER 4 The capacity of the NGO sector

1. METHODOLOGIES

The methodology adopted in this study were designed so as to meet that requested by the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation and in conjunction with this institution.

On the one hand, taking into account the characterisation of the NGO sector in Portugal, we drafted a questionnaire for application to a significant number of organisations. Furthermore, we carried out case studies that enable a better and deeper understanding of the sector and its real context. Thus, these questionnaires sought to return the information susceptible to serving as the foundation for analysis of the capacity prevailing in the NGO sector in Portugal while the case studies enabled the study on the contextual issues and enrich the detail of the information in order to respond to explanatory questions such as "how" and "why" (Yin, 2003). Furthermore, we also report the results of an econometric study on the factors influencing the economic sustainability of IPSS entities (Ribeiro, Pacheco & Mendes, 2014).

1.1. IN PERSON SURVEY AND ON-LINE SURVEY

The innovation to the NGO concept proposed by this study stems from the lack of information on the sector at the intended level of detail and led the research team to opt in favour of gathering survey data, correspondingly designing an exhaustive questionnaire that enabled a detailed characterisation of the NGO sample. This survey sought to span themes important to analysing organisational sustainability, such as: the composition of management bodies, the management practices implemented, the characterisation of remunerated and voluntary human resources, the economic position and the sources of financing, the partnerships and relationships with the state administration and other entities (questionnaire included in appendix 1). This process also saw respondents requested to submit the following documents for analysis: annual business report, activity plan and accounts for 2013 along with an updated organigram.

The NGOs responded to the questionnaire and the documentation duly corrected whenever possible through in-person interviews by an interviewer with specific training in the social economy field or, whenever necessary, through the filling in of the questionnaire by the institutions even while under close supervision from the research team.

The NGO sample selection was designed to prove representative of the original database, the Directory of the Social Economy (DES) both in terms of its composition by area of activity and its geographic distribution. The limited timespan for study implementation with the extent and depth intended and the period of time when the questionnaire had to take place (summer) led to countless difficulties in the gathering of information. Despite the efforts of the team and the multiple contacts made, it proved difficult to overcome the resistance of some institutions to answering a long and highly extensive questionnaire that also required the lengthy collection of data, and during a period in which NGOs faced lower staffing levels and the absence of management personnel due to the holiday season. These obstacles prevented the further extension of the study as regards broadening and deepening the composition of the NGO sample respondents. Despite the obstacles referred to, respondent NGOs came from every district on mainland Portugal and its archipelagos and this process did result in a sample of 153 NGOs with a geographic and area of activity distribution relatively similar to that of the DES. In geographic terms, there are some occasional situations of over-representativeness of some districts, in particular the districts of Porto and Aveiro where the pressure applied to obtain responses took greater effect and with the Setúbal and Lisbon districts under-represented (see Figure 4.1).

FIGURE 4.1: NUMBER OF NGOs IN THE DES VS NGO RESPONDENTS
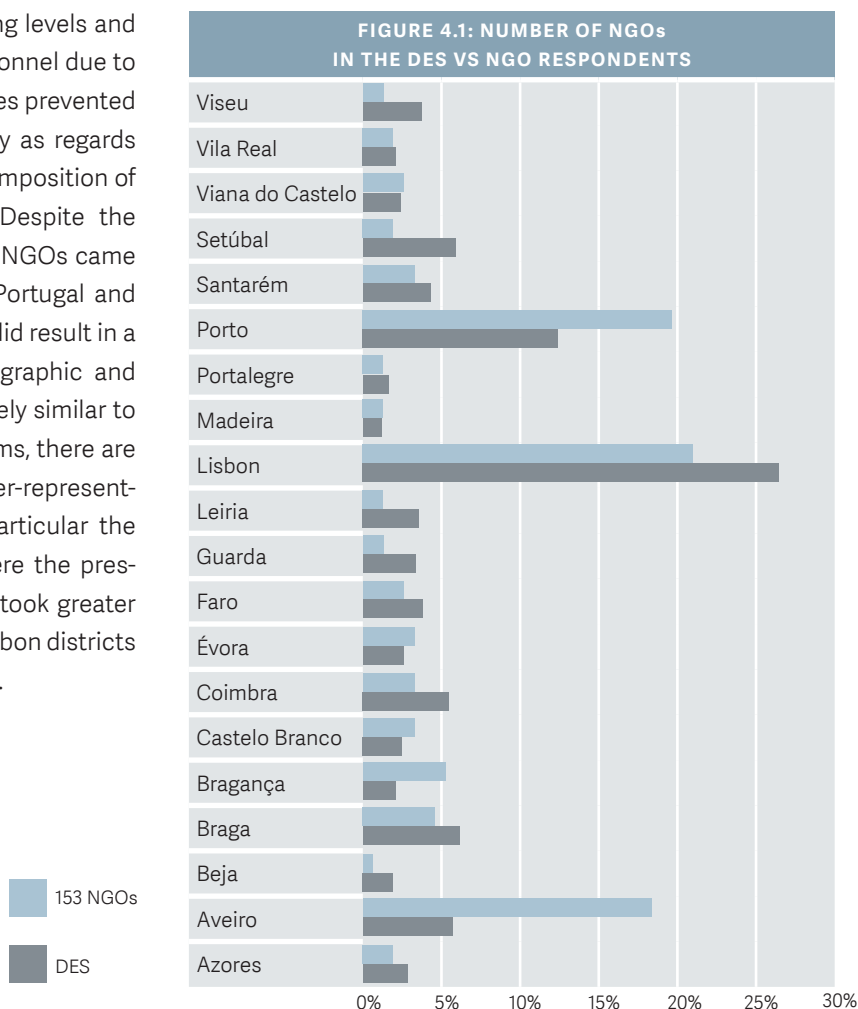
The diversity in the areas of activity is also represented in overall terms in the NGOs respondent sample corresponding to closely bordering on the full representing of the respective DES classifications. We would observe, as is thus entirely expected, a predominance in the field of social services, which represent in excess of 40% of the NGO respondents (see Figure 4.2).

FIGURE 4.2: AREAS OF NGO ACTIVITIES IN THE DES VS NGO RESPONDENTS
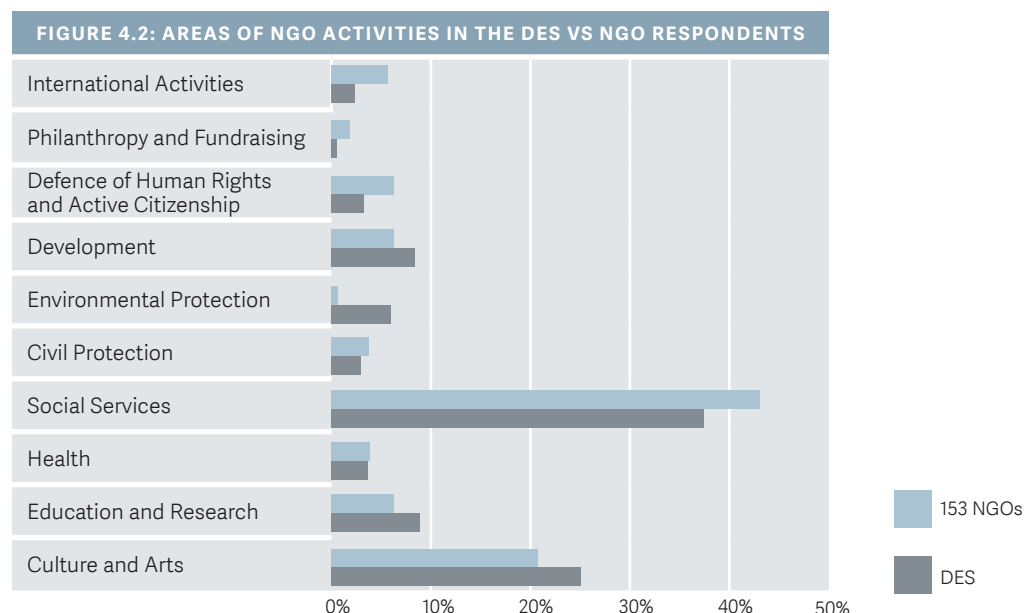
Given the results returned, while the NGO sample thus characterised does not provide for extrapolation to the NGO population as a whole, this study does open up a hitherto unique framework of information and suggesting multiple hypotheses on the capacities of Portuguese NGOs and calling for future research able to report data that proves representative of this sector.

In addition to this in-person questionnaire, the research team also implemented an on-line survey. This questionnaire, while less extensive still covered the same thematic areas, held the objective of obtaining further information relating to NGOs present in the "Human Rights and Active Citizenship" field with an invitation to participate in the survey sent out to the 350 NGOs in this field. This group of 350 institutions corresponds to the set of NGOs, out of a total of 598 NGOs thus classified in the DES, for which it proved possible to identify a contact email and generally following a thorough Internet search and/or telephone contact. Completed responses were returned by 65 NGOs and thus 18.6% of those contacted and 10.9% of those contained in the DES.

Whenever duly pertinent, some of the data reported by this on-line questionnaire are placed in perspective and in reference to the results returned by the survey of 153 NGOs alongside the due reservations as regards precaution over the extent to which these comparisons may be interpreted.

1.2. CASE STUDIES

An important component to this study results from the qualitative research line that culminated in the production of ten case studies[1] about two groups of NGOs: NGOs from the social field and NGOs with activities ongoing in the Human Rights and Active Citizenship field. Table 4.1 specifies the specific field of intervention of NGOs subject to study.

TABLE 4.1: ACTIVITIES OF NGOS SUBJECT TO CASE STUDY	
SOCIAL FIELD	HUMAN RIGHTS FIELD
Service/Cause	Service/Cause
Victims of domestic violence	Children and young persons
Women	Children and young persons / families
LGBT	The elderly
Cooperation for Development	The disabled
Immigrants	The homeless

The case studies were carried out under guarantees of confidentiality and having leveraged an extensive body of documentation on the organisations studied (for example: management accounts, strategic plans, activity plans, regulations etcetera) and semi-structured interviews.

For each case study, the author undertook a first interview with a board management NGO member and, when necessary identifying the need to detail or expand some of the themes that received less coverage in this first interview, this continued with a second interview with another member of the organisation better placed to respond to the questions requiring exploration. For all NGOs, the study target also filled in the questionnaire and hence with all case studies also included in the sample of 153 NGOs subject to analysis. The filling in of this questionnaire represented an essential dimension to complementing and completing the information obtained in these interviews. During the conversations with NGOs members, we discussed the themes approached in the questionnaire (management bodies, practices, human resources, financing, partnerships, etc.) but in this case placing a particular emphasis on the critical evaluation of each one of these themes. These discussions were also crucial to

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[1] 12 were planned with 12 institutions correspondingly contacted, with two having refused to participate at a phase that prevented their respective substitution.

the analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT analysis) carried out for each NGO case study. [2]

The main conclusions obtained from analysis of the case studies appear in text box discussions, duly identified in this chapter on the respective empowerment of NGOs and are interrelated with the results obtained by the questionnaires.

In conjunction with the results of the questionnaire, the information obtained from the case studies also underpinned the SWOT analysis and the recommendation made in this study on the NGO sector in Portugal provided in the final chapter.

1.3. ECONOMETRIC STUDY

We also report the main results returned by Ribeiro, Pacheco and Mendes (2014) based on accountancy data from the 63 IPSS participants in the third edition of the Project FAS – Solidarity Training-Action, encharged to CNIS, and implemented in partnership with the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto). The authors sought to identify the factors influencing the economic sustainability of these organisations and analyse what would happen to the IPSS within a scenario of cuts in public co-financing without any other earnings alternatives other than the sale of goods and services.

2. SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

This now features a brief characterisation of the 153 strong NGO sample, with appendix II containing an extended illustrated version. Furthermore in the appendices (VI), there is also a characterisation of the online questionnaire sample.

The 153 NGOs respondents include entities as historical as a Misericórdia founded in 1499 and as recent as the 11 organisations founded since 2010. The largest group of organisations (59 NGOs) was founded in the 1980s and 1990s in keeping with the associative vitality experienced over their institutional histories, in particular in the wake of the 25 April revolution and with the enacting of a legislative framework in particular for social support field institutions, taking place in 1979 and later in 1983 with the core diploma forming the statutes of the IPSS - Private Social Solidarity Institutions.

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[2] These SWOT analyses are not available in the printed version of this study on the grounds of confidentiality.

As may be observed in Figure 4.3, there is a clear prevalence of Associations under Private Law in the respondent sample, some 79% of the total. These are followed at some distance by Foundations under Private Law (10%) and by the Social and Parish Centres (6%, also foundations but established under canonical law).

The legal panorama of Portuguese NGOs proves both rich and complex with diverse forms of juridical structure and statutes coexisting, such as the IPSS – the Private Social Solidarity Institutions, NGOsDs – the Non Governmental Organisations for Development, the NGOsPDs – the Non Governmental Organisations for Disabled Persons, among others. Of the NGOs in this sample, 78% hold at least one special juridical statute and verifying that 52% of these NGOs hold the IPSS statute or IPSS equivalent statute.

The specific characteristics inherent to the organisations bearing the IPSS statute led to the research team opting to deploy "IPSS" as a criteria in the data analysis. Hence, in subsequent sections, the data is on occasion divided into "non IPSS" and "IPSS", whenever this statute appears to determine a difference in the behaviour of variables.

Scale proves another means of distinguishing between the organisations and hence the additional option for the differentiate analysis of the data according to organisational scale. The criteria applied to ascertain "scale" was the number of employees. The sample determined members of staff varying from between 0 and 323 employees with an average number of remunerated employees at 37. Detailed analysis of this variable led to the setting of three scales, smaller NGOs with up to and including 10 employees, medium sized NGOs with between 11 and 50 employees and the larger NGOs with over 50 employees.

Figure 4.3 shows the distribution of NGOs according to these three scales. There is a greater weighting of the small NGOs followed by the medium and large. Highlighting the NGOs carrying the IPSS statute, we thus verify that the smaller organisations again prevail (10 or less) followed by the large (over 50).

Providing a comparison between NGOs and IPSS entities, the table below details how for this sample the percentage of NGOs with over 50 employees stands at 24% whilst for the IPSS organisation this proves significantly higher at 41%.

As regards the numbers of beneficiaries, the diversity of NGOs proves immense with the maximum declaration amounting to 3,000,000 beneficiaries. We would note that in this case the activity of the NGOs in question targets education and the raising of awareness of society in general towards social and development related problematic issues. Among the target groups of these NGOs, thus their respective beneficiaries, referred to by over 30 organisations, we would highlight the local community as the option chosen by 68% of NGOs. Children (47%), the elderly (43%), families (37%) and young persons (35%) are the next most commonly referenced target groups. However, when the analysis focuses exclusively upon the IPSS, the elderly emerge as the largest target group (71%) followed by children (67%) and only afterwards comes the local community (59%).

The number of NGO members oscillates between 0 and 50,000, with the average standing at 1,135. The majority of NGOs (57%) hold between 51 and 300 members which drops back to 51% among organisations with IPSS statutes.

Taking budgets as the variable for measuring NGO size, the sheer diversity of the sample becomes clear with the lowest level of budget standing at just over €100 and the highest standing in the region of €18,000,000 (2013 amounts). We may correspondingly report that 50% of NGOs in the sample report a budget of below €350,000 and 90% of these NGOs run on budgets below €2,600,000 (approximate values).

As regards their fields of action, the majority of NGOs act locally (66%), followed by at the regional (34%) and national (25%) levels.

FIGURE 4.3: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE 153 NGO SAMPLE

LEGAL FORMS
78% 6% 3% 6% 5% 2%

Private Associations   Social Solidarity Cooperatives   Misericórdias
Private Foundations   Parish Social Centers   Others

JURIDICAL STATUS
52%   48%

IPSS
Non-IPSS

NUMBER OF ASSOCIATES
25%   17%   57%   1%

0%   [51-300]
[1-50]   > 300

NUMBER OF WORKERS (IPSS)
45%   14%   41%

> 10   > 50
[11-50]

NUMBER OF WORKERS (NGOs)
46%   30%   24%

> 10   > 50
[11-50]
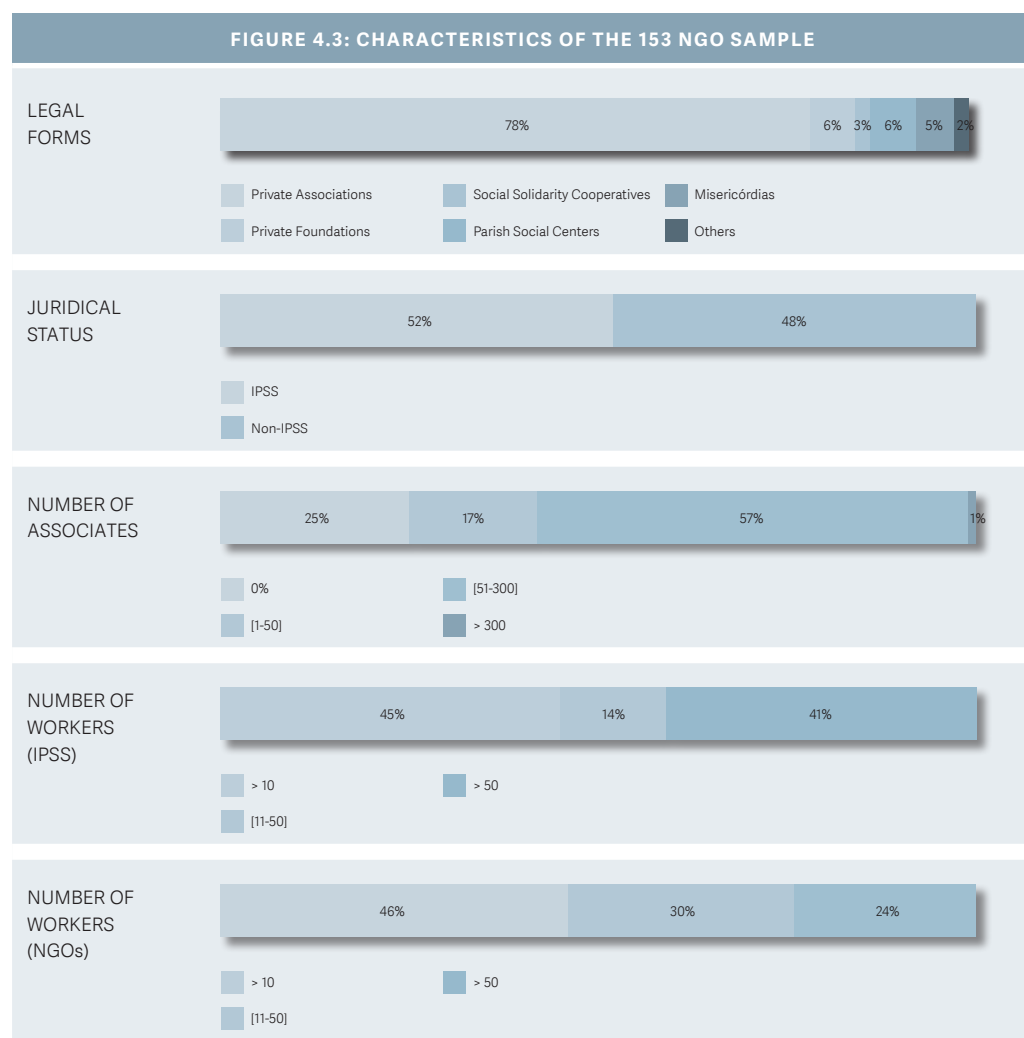
3. CAPACITIES ANALYSED

The capacities of NGOs under analysis here may be organised into four main fields:

· **means of governance and management practices;**
· remuneration and volunteer **members of staff;**
· **expenditure** and **earnings** structure;
· r**esource sharing, working in networks** and relationships with **public entities**.

By "means of governance" this refers to the following:

· characteristics of members of the statutory management bodies, especially their socio-demographic and professional backgrounds their form of dedication to managing the organisation;
· type of relationships maintained with the technical management, especially as regards the delegation of management powers;
· type of relationships between the management bodies and the members of staff and other parties interested as regards participating in defining the organisational strategy.

4. MEANS OF GOVERNANCE AND MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

A) NGOs in Portugal are led by persons acting in a voluntary capacity, with the majority middle aged, holding higher education qualifications and with males strongly predominant in numerical terms

In the case of IPSS entities, due to legal imposition, members of the management boards do not receive any remuneration. This also takes place at the majority of the remaining NGOs. In practice, the questionnaire of 153 NGOs found that only 5% of Board Presidents received any form of financial compensation. It does not prove possible to determine whether these president remuneration payments do or do not result from the role of the president being held in accumulation with that of organisation executive director. What we may state that this situation occurs only at larger scale organisations.

While there may naturally be other motivations for belonging to the management bodies of NGOs, the very strong incidence of the voluntary regime contributes towards attracting to these functions persons motivated by some sense of dedication towards the production of a public good as is the explicit mission of these organisations.

With the reservation that the NGOs surveyed do not a form a representative sample of this organisational type, the questionnaire results do show that the **image that sometimes**

that organisations run leaderships featuring a relatively high percentage of elderly and retired persons does not correspond to reality. Whilst true that management presidents in age brackets below that of 35 years old are only the case at 10% of NGO respondents, nevertheless presidents in the brackets for those aged over 65 are only reported by 25% of NGOs.

In this aspect there is a difference between the IPSS and non IPSS entities even while not invalidating that stated above: at the IPSS entities, there is a 30% rate of presidents aged over 65 whilst at the non IPSS organisation this stands at 22%.

As regards the situation of the president as regards other employment, the majority of NGOs respondents (69%) state the president is employed, with around a quarter (27%) reporting a situations of retirement with the unemployed accounting for just 4% of cases.

As regards educational qualifications, 75% of NGOs reported the board president as holding the academic qualification of **an undergraduate degree or higher**. At the non IPSS entities, this percentage rises to 80% (against 71% in the IPSS) and up to 90% in the human rights focused NGOs. Taking into consideration that there are common references to the management shortcomings of NGO managers, this does not stem from any insufficiencies in **basic academic qualifications** but rather from the lack of professional experience of the leadership of these organisations. What may be lacking is some **specific training** for the management functions exercised and an issue that may be countered should there be appropriate levels of training adapted to this management type.

In recent years, there has been some progress in this direction, especially at the IPSS as the results of the questionnaire duly convey with 56% of IPSS entities having had a member of their management attend **management training programs** over the last five years, against 39% at the non IPSS organisations. Despite the aforementioned progresses, these results convey how there is still much to be done to improve NGO capacities in this area.

As regards gender related issues, in keeping with that prevailing in other instances of governance in Portuguese society, there is also a **clear gender imbalance**: the Board President is male at 75% of NGO respondents. This percentage rises still further, to 79%, at IPSS entities.

In this aspect, there is one interesting indicator resulting from the questionnaire that deserves close analysis in later studies with the questionnaire expanded to a larger number of NGOs: in the case of the ten NGOs responding from the human rights area, four have female board presidents.

B) The NGOs in Portugal operate under management engaged on a volunteer basis, dedicated to their functions, with some difficulties in ensuring their succession but that neither overstay in their roles nor display dynastic trends

On occasion, the NGO managers, due to almost always being volunteers, dedicate only brief periods of time to the management and remain for long periods in its management bodies.

Whilst constantly retaining the reservation that these NGOs do not constitute a representative sample, the results of the questionnaire do not however serve to confirm this idea more broadly. At 58% of the NGO respondents, the Board President **dedicates 9 hours or longer per week** to exercising this role despite having, in the majority of cases, another professional activity that certainly always takes up a lot of time. At 55% of the NGOs, **the management meets once per month** and at 33% of cases on a more frequent basis.

Although the rotation in management functions might not be as swift as is understandable when considering that these positions are held on a volunteer basis and those holding them have to conciliate such responsibilities with their other professional activities, the questionnaire results demonstrate that the majority of NGO board members do not eternally remain in these positions. In effect, the majority of the board members have served for a period of longer than ten years in 31% of the NGOs surveyed with this rate rising to 37% at IPSS organisations. With an average mandate lasting in the region of three years, this means that board members may be in these functions for **up to three mandates but generally not longer than this**.

A factor of durability in the influence certain managers hold over the running of these organisations, which bears no interrelationship with the duration of their mandates, might stem from the existence of **kinship ties between board members**. This type of relationship, through to the second degree, was only reported at 34 of the 153 NGO respondents. In 88% of these 34 cases, this relates to relationships involving only two board members. Thus, we may state that this type of endogamy does not prevail in the management of this organisational type.

C) The statutory management delegates decisions over daily management to the to the technical leadership but otherwise still remains fairly closed to third party participation or evaluation even while there is evidence that internal participation is beginning to make some progress

In terms of the autonomy of the technical management towards the statutory board, on a scale of "0" (no autonomy) to "10" (total autonomy), the 115 NGOs responding to this question reported an average of 6.85, a median of 7 and a mode of 8. This reports a situation that clearly predominates in the relationships between these two instances, the governance and the management of NGOs that involves the **delegation of a substantial number of decisions by the statutory board management to the technical management**.

There is another survey question that enables us to conclude that the statutory management reserve for their own competences any decisions deemed either strategic or "important". In effect, at the majority of the NGOs answering, these decisions are taken exclusively by the statutory board even though this happens after hearing the employee with management responsibilities in 32.7% of cases, or these and other members of staff in 36.6%. Among these "important decisions" are most likely those responsibilities held by statutory board members, in accordance with the legislation in effect, for example, for the signing of contracts.

The survey also sought to identify whether or not organisations ran **bodies of a consultative nature.** The result demonstrates how such a body does not exist at 78% of the 152 NGOs that do not respond to this question with this percentage substantially higher at IPSS (88%) than at non IPSS (66%).

Consistent with this lack of openness to external participation are the questionnaire results of the153 NGOs regarding the existence of a **specific code of conduct at the organisation**. This only exists in 44% of the respondent NGOs with this percentage standing at 48% in non IPSS and 55% at IPSS organisations. The only survey of NGOs-DH revealed a result within the same boundary (52%).

Within the same scope, only 16% of NGOs have subscribed to the **principles, norms or codes of conduct of other organisations**, with this percentage rising to 24% at non IPSS entities and 16% at the IPSS organisations. The difference between these two types of organisations in terms of codes of conduct likely stems from the greater proportion of IPSS respondents reporting processes involving the implementation of **management quality and certification systems**. The different in the level of adoption of external codes of conducts derives in part from the existence in the non IPSS group of human rights NGOs.

D) The NGOs have increasingly invested in the implementation of marketing activities and in strategic planning although there is still much ground to cover.

One of the areas in which NGOs have invested, especially due to the need for fund raising, is in **marketing**. In the 152 NGOs responding to the question, 61% reported working on this area with this percentage a little higher in the IPSS than in the non IPSS entities. However, only 20% (in 138) affirm that there is a **strategic document** for this work. The majority do not have a **manual of graphic design identity** (72%). In the case of these strategic documents and manuals existing, the non IPSS turn in a less poor result than the IPSS organisations. The online survey of NGOs-DH returned a result very similar to the set of NGOs in terms of ongoing activities in this field (62%) but a larger percentage in terms of those running communications and marketing activities undertaken based upon a formalised strategy set down in writing (45%).

There is also some investment in terms of strategic planning. In effect, and always with the reservations imposed by the sample not attaining representativeness, 61% of the cases reported the existence of **strategic planning** processes. In 89% of the 35 NGOs responding to the question about the ways in which this planning takes place, it was described as making recourse to **participative methods**. The results of the online survey of the NGOs-DHs show higher percentages for these organisations as regards the existence of this type of process (73%) and as regards recourse to participative resources (90%).

One interesting result within this scope, and also interpreted with the aforementioned reservations, is that in 80% of cases this process emerged out of the **organisation's own initiatives**, with a significant difference on this count between the IPSS and the non IPSS. In the

former, the strategic planning process was driven by entities external to the organisations in 32% of cases and in the non IPSS NGOs, this happened in 6% of cases. This difference may stem from the fact that the IPSS respondents had benefitted from training-action projects and/or that they are implementing or have already implemented management quality systems or certification processes which led the institution to undertake this type of planning in the wake of recommendations from and with the support of consultants that accompany these processes. In effect, at the 152 NGOs that responded to the question, 36% hold experiences with quality management system with another clear difference between the cases of the IPSS and the non IPSS entities: 63% of the IPSS report this type of experience against 30% in terms of the non IPSS. The online questionnaire of NGOs-DH returned a result of 11%. This certainly must fall within the scope of the pressure applied by both the demand and by the public entities overseeing the IPSS in addition to the existence of training-action programs and others attributed to the responsibility of their respective federative organisations.

In 90% of the 91 NGOs responding to the question regarding the implementation of strategic plans the answers stated that these were monitored and evaluated as regards their implementation by the Board but we are unable here to reach conclusions as to the existence or otherwise of effective consequences of this evaluation on organisational management.

As regards short term planning, **practically the entirety of NGO respondents comply with the statutory norms** for these organisations and hence boards draft budgets and activity plans with their implementation reported on through activity report and accounts presented for consideration and to which the general assemblies of members, or another body, should duly respond. The results of the online inquiry of NGOs-DH demonstrate that such is also the case in these organisations, except that as regards drafting a budget: 30% of the organisations responding declared they did not produce an annual budget.

What still remains less frequent at NGOs is the complementing of this type of planning and self-evaluation of results with **other forms of evaluation** such as internal audits (39 NGOs in the 103 that responded), outsourced evaluation reports (25 NGOs in 103) and satisfaction surveys (51 NGOs in 103).

WHAT THE TEN CASE STUDIES TELL US

The **effectiveness of the management bodies and the board in particular** gets referenced as fundamental to the implementation of successful management practices. A large proportion of the organisations subject to study refer to the **involvement** of all those participating in the life of the institution essential to success within a process of delegating competences, responsibilities and ensuring the autonomous scope for all those intervening. Even while the larger scale institutions run more rigid management procedures, they do display a will to put into practice more participative and flexible management practices. While the board management performs an essential role to the success of the organisation, some NGOs report difficulties in finding competent persons, motivated and available to take on the commitments necessary to holding roles (almost always voluntary) on the management bodies. This difficulty in attracting persons to the board level associated with the financial difficulties face by many organisations lead to some of the NGOs studied to still retain more informal and centralised structures in which the management accumulates countless functions and roles. This accumulation, even while this may confer some fragility on the management of NGOs, this may also nurture proximity between the management and the rest of the team that are effectively forced to work together to ensure the survival of the organisation.

The attribution of different "responsibilities" on board members frequently gets referred to as an efficient means of organising and distributing the responsibilities across the different board members. The **communication and interrelationship** between the Statutory Board, the Executive Board and the teams in the field represents another factor deemed fundamental. Some examples of the management practices identified as fostering fluidity in the transmission of inflation (both in a top-down and in a bottom-up direction) are: the presence of executive members on the board, the holding of regular meetings between the management and the teams in the field, the existence of an intermediary figure (a secretary general) establishing a bridge between the management and the day-to-day organisational reality and a management structure representing the core organisational departments.The organisations refer to how drafting a **strategic plan** confers a long term vision that reaches beyond the mandate of the management bodies and serves as a guarantee of stability to organisational strategy. There are however some organisations that report difficulties in the formal definition of these long term objectives.

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Almost all NGOs in the study refer to the **Marketing and Communication fields** as crucial to the future of the organisation. Fostering the image of NGOs, enhancing their profile and their recognition by the community may have postive impacts on their fund raising capacity and overall sustainability. However, despite this awareness, some of the organisations analysed only recently began investing in this area, others refer that this is one of the areas that most needs development whilst others point to the absence of human resources and a department specifically founded with this objective.

Processes of **quality certification** are identified as important factors in investing in the quality of services and differentiating as regards the competition. However, some organisations under study are still only embarking on (or have yet to begin) this process of certification that proves difficult whether due to the lack of time, competences and resources.

5. REMUNERATED AND VOLUNTARY MEMBERS OF STAFF

A) Remunerated members of staff are in the main female, work full time and have permanent employment contracts

In the sample, there are organisations employing between 0 and 323 members of staff with the average number of remunerated workers being 37 per organisation.

In the case of the NGOs-DH, the online questionnaire results convey the prevalence of small scale organisation in terms of remunerated employees: 48% report having no paid employees, 43% have between 1 and 10 paid members of staff whilst only 9% employ 11 or more persons and no organisation employs more than 50 persons. The distribution is very similar when referring to persons working on a freelance regime. One interesting fact that results from this survey is that despite the low number of employees, these organisations report a relatively high number of direct beneficiaries. This is boosted by the group of NGOsD running projects that target substantial population groups.

The results of the questionnaire of 153 NGOs demonstrate that a large majority (82%) of these employees are female in gender, aged between 36 and 55 (58%), and providing services under a full time contractual regime (93%), with open ended employment contracts (69%). These percentages are generally higher at the IPSS entities in comparison with the non IPSS.

As regards the high percentage of female employees, future research should consider whether or not there is any relationship between this fact and the negative remuneratory discrimination that exists in Portuguese labour markets between NGOs and non NGOs with equivalent functions. The data from this survey do not analyse this question.

With all the reservations necessary due to the fact that this sample does not prove representative, in the last five years, **the number of these employees only declined at 15%** of the 123 NGOs responding to this question and with employment rising in 41% of cases. The non IPSS and the smaller scale NGOs, whilst not falling beyond this trend, displayed a lower level of performance in this field than the other NGOs.

However, it does not prove possible to extrapolate these results to the population of NGOs under analysis either in this period or into the future. Nevertheless, these results do enable the forming of a hypothesis, requiring validation with data suitable for this purpose, that NGOs, especially in the social field, have encountered a rise in the demand for their service and have attempted to attract the resources necessary to expand their capacities to respond to this rise. To this end, in the case of the IPSS entities, that there was no significant fall in the public co-financing provided through the cooperation agreements may have contributed to this end. At the non IPSS organisations beyond the scope of this regime the percentage of cases where there was a reduction in employment was higher. Thus, it is probable that the future trend in this sector shall be greatly influenced by the tangible demand for the services of these organisation and by the development in public co-financing.

B) The human resources management system contains formal features at an already considerable percentage of NGOs but there remain many shortcomings in terms of training despite the improvements taking place in recent years

There is a **document describing job functions at** 58% of the 124 NGOs that responded to this question with a very sharp difference between the IPSS and the non IPSS organisations, with percentages of 76% and 53% respectively. The online NGOs-DH questionnaire returned a result of 46%. This difference may stem from the contribution made by the training-action projects along with other types of training coupled with the implementation of management quality and certification systems that have experienced a greater incidence at IPSS than at non IPSS entities. In the case of this sample, this difference in the percentages of organisation with job descriptions may also stem from the fact that this is more frequent at larger scale NGOs with the IPSS organisation weighing more heavily on this group.

One aspect in which the IPSS entities open up a still greater distance from the non IPSS organisation in the positive sense encapsulates the existence of **a written training plan**. This plan is in existence at 54% of the IPSS whilst only 27% of the non IPSS report on its existence. The online survey of the NGOs-DH reported that only 11% of these organisation have such a plan. This may also be subject to the aforementioned factors.

A **performance evaluation system** is in effect at 40% of the 125 NGOs that answered this question and verifying the same type of disparities referred to above both in terms of the scale of the NGOs and between the IPSS and the non IPSS organisations. Only 25 of these NGOs

reported that this system is taken into consideration in terms of career progression. The online survey of the NGOs-DH found that only 15% of this group run this type of system.

Returning to training, 84 of the NGOs surveyed replied that their members of staff had undergone training programs over the last three years and it was otherwise not possible to determine whether or not these responses correspond to the non-existence of this type of action. The results returned do however enable the clarification of two clear points:

· the **undifferentiated workers** stand out as the main beneficiaries of these training programs;
· there was **very little management training**.

Only at the smaller NGOs, with only a small number of undifferentiated staff, did the training of technical staff predominate, followed by the management and only afterwards coming the undifferentiated employees.

Questioned about the competences needed for development, the NGOs responding pointed to needs that convey **changes in the trajectory of training in recent years**. In effect, appearing at the top of this list are **management competences** especially in fields interconnected with the **economic sustainability** of organisations that should form the responsibility of not only some of the technical managers but also the managing directors. In a descending order in the number of responses, the main competences identified were the following:

· external image and communications (112 NGOs);
· fund raising campaigns (108);
· strategic management (93 NGOs);
· managing and the mobilisation of members (90);
· monitoring and evaluating impacts (89);
· identifying financing entities and lines of financing (87);
· methodologies for formulating projects (85).

This questionnaire did not enable the collection of NGO opinions about whether the development of their competences should essentially focus on training and/or recruiting qualified staff in the aforementioned areas (internalising the competences) or whether these might be sourced from complementary means (externalisation of competences). These areas might include for example the development of qualified human resources in these areas but recruited by the federative organisations or by other NGO collectives or furthermore expanding the market for the provision of these types of services to NGOs.

C) There is the presence of volunteers in the majority of NGOs even though in small numbers at each organisation and in the generality of cases without any contractual basis and without any training for the volunteers

The questionnaire did gather some data on the formal volunteering ongoing at NGOs, hence, about the persons engaging in voluntary work within the scope of these organisations. We refer here to the results obtained on the component of volunteering that does not include management board members.

The majority of NGOs (73%) include volunteers of this type and in a reality that extends across all organisation scales and with the greatest incidence at the non IPSS (82%) than at the IPSS (64%).

As regards the NGOs-DH, the online survey results identify a higher presence of volunteers than at the broader set of other NGOs, with 88% of respondents to the inquiry declaring the involvement of volunteers.

The majority of NGOs affirm they actively seek out volunteers (61%), with the non IPSS entities more engaged in this field than their IPSS peers.

The NGOs that do not have any volunteers explain this absence due to the lack of any need, the difficulties in their interactions with remunerated staff, their lack of attractiveness to volunteer or for other reasons of lesser importance.

The most frequent number of **regular** volunteers per NGOs (those contributing at least one hour per month) stands at 2. While this type of volunteer distributes across various age ranges, without any sharp disparities, this does not hold true in the case of the **sporadic** volunteers in which the young age groups stand out clearly from the remainder. Without downplaying the contribution made by both these regular and sporadic volunteers, what these results do demonstrate is that with the exception of the NGOs with their mission focused on encouraging and mobilising volunteers, at the bulk of NGOs **the predominant type of volunteering is that of members of the management bodies**, particularly those that make up the statutory management.

Of the 77 NGOs with valid responses to this question, only 28% report the existence of a **contract** signed with their volunteer staff.

According to article 6 of decree-law no. 389/99 30th September, whenever volunteers meet the series of requirement therein stipulated, they may benefit from volunteer social **insurance**. This or other insurance types are in effect at 59% of the NGO respondents.

As regards the **training of regular volunteers**, 23 NGOs report the existence of general training whilst 24 NGOs engaged in specific training.

In conclusion to this point, we may state that whilst not overlooking the presence of volunteers at the large majority of NGOs, there is a great deal of work to be done to boost, train and appropriately integrate this type of contributor to NGOs.

WHAT THE TEN CASE STUDIES TELL US

The **remunerated human resources** are identified as a fundamental asset of the organisations. All NGOs in the study refer to how, given their mission, the recruitment of employees aligned with the vision of the institution is an essential factor to the success of its work. The organisations recognise that the level of demand and the availability for the functions performed by remunerated employees very commonly require a spirit of service and mission in keeping with voluntary workers. Some employees, when contracted, have already been connected to the organisation, some as former beneficiaries others as volunteers, which may facilitate this alignment with the organisational vision and cause. The requirements of the functions on the one hand and the financial difficulties of the institutions preventing the payment of high salaries on the other hand, led the management of various NGOs to identify some difficulties in the recruitment of qualified members of staff who would play important roles in developing activities in the field. The majority of the organisations in the study say that they have a written manual defining the functions specific to each post of employment as well as an already implemented performance evaluation process. Even the smaller scale organisations, in which such process will not lead onto significant progression in terms of career due to lack of scale of the respective internal structure, seek to turn this evaluation into the opportunity for identifying the most important training needs so as to enable employees to deepen and enrich their respective competences. Some organisations emphasise the need for development and deepening the management competences of their members of staff.

The role and importance attributed to **volunteers** differ greatly from organisation to organisation. There are NGOs with their activities leveraged essentially through recourse to volunteers with only a small number of remunerated volunteers; whilst others make recourse to volunteers only as a means of complementing their activities but which should not substitute their remunerated staff.

The organisations working in the terrain based primarily on volunteers almost always refer to the fundamental importance of training and the supervision of these volunteers whilst also placing importance on their autonomy, involvement and sense of responsibility. The organisations making less frequent recourse to volunteers are more likely to report the existence of bad experiences in these terms and the difficulties in attracting regular volunteers with appropriate profiles, levels of maturity, commitment and resilience. Meanwhile, these organisations have expressed a will to improve their volunteer management strategies, which does then pose the question as to whether these experiences of failure might derive from shortcomings in the management and leveraging of these volunteer workers.

Beyond the work carried out at the organisation, various NGOs refer to the importance that volunteers play in promoting the work of the organisation within the community alongside the NGO's own respective image. Various organisations refer to the alterations in their economic contexts in the wake of the recession, the difficulties in the employment market as well as socio-cultural changes that have hindered the attraction of volunteers in appropriate numbers but, above all, with the desired quality level. Nevertheless, there is also reference to a greater level of community awareness as regards social problems alongside the availability of highly qualified persons at retirement age that may open up new opportunities to volunteering.

6. SHARING RESOURCES, NETWORKING AND RELATIONSHIPS WITH PUBLIC ENTITIES

A) The sharing of material and human resources is uncommon and extending in significance only to the usage of installations

In the survey sample, the sharing of human and material resources whether between NGOs or with other organisation remains infrequent with the exception as regards installations. In practice, 83 NGOs reported having access to installations on a shared facility basis (63), or with symbolic rents (20) and with 40 NGOs declaring they engage in installation sharing initiatives.

As regards the sharing of other resources, only 14 report the participation in vehicle sharing initiatives.

Comparing the IPSS with the non IPSS, the incidence of these forms of sharing is lesser in the former entities.

This result does not diverge from the overall perception that for the set of NGOs, there are poor levels of recourse to sharing both among NGOs themselves and between these and other organisations and thus correspondingly represents a scene where there is still a great deal of room for progress and the scope for exploration to the benefit of the sustainability and the development of these organisations.

B) Working in networks and partnerships takes place at the majority of NGOs, but probably concentrates more on information sharing and does not extend to other resource types

In the last three years, 76% of NGOs were involved in at least one **partnership**, with this situation relatively more frequent at the larger NGOs and those interconnected with human rights with the survey of the latter organisations returning a percentage of 85% in reference to 2013.

As regards **networks**, 63% of NGOs have participated over the last three years with this figure again rising among larger scale NGOs as well as at IPSS entities and human rights associations with the online questionnaire results returning 78% of organisations undertaking networking in 2013.

Combining these results with those stated above for the sharing of material and human resources, we may state that working in networks and partnerships is already a common factor among the majority of NGOs at least in terms of the sample studies, **having focused, in all probability, on the sharing of information and in some coordination of strategies as regards access to financing**, or with other goals in their common interest but which does not yet extend to any significant sharing of material and human resources that may be underused by NGOs or by other organisations with which these might cooperate.

C) It is with the public entities with which they are most proximate (decentralised state bodies and local government authorities) that NGOs engage most frequently with, have the highest quality relationships and the greatest scope for working in partnership

On this point, the focus of analysis falls on the relationship established by NGOs with the state, with local councils and with the European Union, seeking to understand the frequency with which NGOs interact with this type of institution and the quality of the relationships resulting. Taking into consideration the enormous diversity of the institutions with which the NGOs communicate and interact, for analytical purposes, these were grouped into four: 1) Non decentralised state administrative bodies; 2) decentralised state administrative bodies; 3) municipalities and parish councils and European Union entities.

The desire to gather information on this theme did not yield the results expected for two main reasons. One the one hand, the questions were the last on the long questionnaire and respondents tended not to respond or did so only when already tired. Furthermore, the manner of asking about this issue proved somewhat complex and was not always understood by respondents. Nevertheless, it was still possible to extract the survey information that we set out below.

The **frequency of relations** with central administrative entities breaks down in a balanced fashion. 32% of organisations report infrequent interactions whilst 32% describe these as frequent with 36% stating they were very frequent. However, in observing the various organisms, we encounter completely different behaviours. Given the enormous variety of the institutions covered, we sought to highlight the three that came in for the greatest level of reference by the NGOs. As regards the Institute of Social Security we above all verify very frequent relations with a swift reading of the data clearly pointing to a strong and proximate relationship. However, it would be subsequently important to analyse the actual quality of this same relationship. As regards the Portuguese Institute for Sport and Youth and Camões – the Institute of Cooperation and Language (under the auspices of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs), NGOs replied that relations were infrequent.

In terms of the decentralised central administrative bodies located nationwide, especially district and regional public institutions, these relations prove very frequent at 45% of organisations and more regular and intense than the 36% rate reporting to the non decentralised central administrative bodies.

We would also highlight here significant differences in accordance with the type of institution in question. Clearly, the Social Security District Centres and the IEFP – the Centres of Employment and Professional Training are identified as establishing very frequent relations with the NGOs in contrast, for example, with the Commissions for Regional Coordination and Development that are characterised as holding relationships of a more sporadic nature.

In addition to the frequency of these relations, this study also attempted to ascertain their **quality** and found they broke down into the following four categories:

· Type A relations – with centralised, bureaucratic relations with little openness to NGO participation with the direct interference of public entities in the management of NGOs;
· Type B relations – centralist and bureaucratic in nature and again with a lack of openness to NGO participation but without any direct interference by the public entities in the management of NGOs;
· Type C relations - centralist and bureaucratic in nature with some openness to NGO participation but characterised by the ineffectiveness;
· Type D relations – in partnership with good openness to the effective participation of NGOs.

In the relationship with the non decentralised central administrative entities, the types of relationship receiving the most reference were the extremes, type A and D. However, once again, these institutions display mutually different behaviours. The Institute of Social Security, sign-posted as the institution with which the NGOs maintain very frequent relations, now proves to be centralist, bureaucratic and with a low level of openness to NGO participation and directly interfering in their management. The analysis would seem to reflect above all the perspectives of the IPSS institutions towards their supervisory entity, which have to present frequent and formal reports and comply with the directives handed down by the Institute of Social Security relative to the organisation and functioning of their social response levels in order to maintain the protocol agreements in effect. Nevertheless, we would note that many respondents characterise their relationship with this public institution as type D – in partnership and with good openness to participation. We may also reference the inverse behaviour encountered when analysing the Camões Institute or the Portuguese Institute of Sport and Youth. Whilst identified as maintaining only infrequent relations with NGOs, on the other hand, both demonstrate that as regards quality they establish predominantly type D relationships, understood as better integrated into the principles of partnership and from a logic of enabling joint team working.

Finally, this point also includes the Management Office of the programs co-financed by the European Union, such as the Operational Program for Human Potential, and receiving a vast range of references from NGOs.

Alongside the frequency of relations, in this topic we also analysed the relational quality and would correspondingly affirm that the **decentralised central administrative organisms, in contrast with the centralised, establish means of interaction showing greater proximity to the NGOs**, reflecting in less bureaucratic relationships better open to participation.

Undertaking more specific analysis of the public institutions at the regional and district level finds that those most referenced by the respondent NGOs were the District Centres of Social Security and characterised for mostly running relationships that fall into the type A and type D categories. The Regional Healthcare Administrations, the Regional Directorates of Education and the Coordination Commissions for Regional Development maintain centralised and bureaucratic type relations but without interfering directly with NGO management prac-

tices even while the first two entities are most commonly signposted as interacting as partner entities in collaborative relationships and not as supervisory entities. Finally, the IEFP Centres of Employment and Professional Training stand out for their cooperating with NGOs and identified as easy to access and open to joint actions

From the point of view of relational quality, **the municipalities and parish councils** demonstrate similar results. This undoubtedly displays the **capacity to openness and dialogue and the entities ranked as most able to work with NGOs with greatest flexibility and proximity**. According to the strong level of attribution (70% to 72%) among the NGO respondents of the type D relationships, this provides due recognition of local collaborative competences and effective partnerships.

The quality of relations with the European Union (or its representative bodies) apparently falls into two types. Type D partnership relationships were those most referred to (33%), however, other relational types also got signposted and for example identifying a centralist and bureaucratic relationship. Thus, this therefore hinders any conclusions as to the quality prevailing. Only 15 NGOs of the 153 respondents affirmed maintaining relations with the EU and hence at too low a level for any reliable interpretation of the data. This number of responses nevertheless in itself demonstrates an overall lack of such a relationship and potentially reflection a **continuing lack of capacity at the overwhelming majority of NGOs to operate in the international arena.**

WHAT THE TEN CASE STUDIES TELL US

The **networks and partnerships** with other public institutions take on a different relevance in accordance with the different activity types ongoing at the organisation. However, almost all NGOs in the sample refer to the importance of these partnerships:

·In the sharing of best practices;
·In fostering synergies;
·In taking advantage of the complementarities and in the sharing of resources;
·In broadening experience and knowledge on the respective field;
·In improving the quality of service.

Nevertheless, some NGOs also point to the ineffectiveness of some networks as well as the difficulties in establishing partnership on a horizontal basis with public financing entities. Within this scope, work with the decentralised central administration organisms as well as municipalities and parish councils gets referenced by the NGOs studied as more effective, more open and more participative and thus in support of the results obtained from the broader NGO questionnaire findings.

7. COST AND EARNINGS STRUCTURE

A) With human resource costs the single largest component to NGO expenditure, there are improvements to efficiency leveraged in the acquisition and utilisation of goods and services that may involve working in more and better partnerships

For the set of 98 NGOs answering these questions, **personnel costs** constitute the main component to costs (39%), followed by **costs with goods sold and consumed** (CMVMC) (30%) and **External Supplier Services** (FSE) (21%).

Comparing the IPSS with the non IPSS returns sharp difference between the two institutional types as regards cost structures. At IPSS entities in 2013, the CMVMC exceeded costs with personnel with FSE in third place whilst at non IPSS entities staff costs are clearly out in first place and followed by FSE expenditure.

This spans the greater relative weighting that the CMVMC held in the IPSS versus the non IPSS organisation given the different nature of the goods and services they respectively produce. There were also surprising changes in the cost structures of respondent IPSS entities over the course of 2012 and 2013. In effect, this went from a situation in 2011 and 2012, when the CMVMC represented less than 10% of total costs and well behind the total spent on staff and on FSE to a situation in 2013 when the CMVMC emerged as the main expenditure item with a relative weighting of just over 40%. This happened at the same time as there was relative stability in the cost structures of non IPSS. There is some bias here resulting at least from the inability to collect this type of data for the same set of IPSS institutions for the three years in question: 39 in 2011, 42 in 2012 and 33 in 2013.

Irrespective as to doubts over whether or not this reflects a rising trend in the relative weighting of the CMVMC in total IPSS expenditure, what may more securely be stated in relation to this type of cost and also in relation to FSE in this organisational type is that there are margins for progress in leveraging their reduction, which requires **more and better working in partnership over the acquisition of the goods and services in question here**. This is also demonstrated by some of the information already acquired by some of the initiatives taking place in recent years in terms of information centres on prices, referred to on some occasions as "purchasing centre", although these mechanisms generally do not involve shared procurement but rather only the sharing of information on the prices of the goods and services acquired by organisations signing up to these initiatives.

Beyond this case, there are other working initiatives in partnerships either between NGOs or between them and other organisations that may result in significant reductions in this type of cost. One example is how the IPSS entities with capacities for the production of healthcare services (in some cases under-utilised) might act in conjunction with other IPSS organisations and the respective users that consume these services, especially in terms of the sharing of professional healthcare services through remote healthcare practices, the supply of medica-

tion, clinical analysis, collection of toxic wastes and others.

This need to seek out the efficiency improvements feasible in the procurement of goods and services stems from the fact that as regards human resource costs, NGOs are subject to what economics refers to as **"the Baumol effect"**: as working productivity in these organisations cannot grow at the same rate as in the rest of the economy, but the remuneration cannot fall out of alignment with trends elsewhere in the economy (should such a displacement occur, after a certain period of time, there would be nobody willing to work for the low levels of remuneration paid by NGOs), the trend is towards the relative rising cost of this productive factor. Hence, unless laying staff off or replacing them with less qualified members of staff, which would likely bear negative repercussions for the services rendered, the NGOs need to pay great attention to containing expenditure on CMVMC and on FSE. As already stated and exemplified, this may require or may indeed have to require better working in partnerships. Given the contents on the earlier point about the extent of working in partnerships, it would seem as though there is much still to be done in this domain.

B) Public financing is a highly important source of earnings to NGOs, complemented by the co-financing of users and private donations with only low levels of recourse to private institutional financing

According to the NGOs responding, **public financing represents the main source of income** (56% for the set of NGOs in 2013) whether at the IPSS or at the non IPSS, followed by own income (37% in 2013 for the set of NGOs), **with the contribution coming from private sources of financing relatively low** in both cases (7% for the set of NGOs in 2013). In the non IPSS, the relative weighting of public financing within overall income remains higher than at the IPSS entities. This stems from the fact that IPSS institutions may count on the income arising from the subsidised payments made by their users (around 60% of their income) to a greater extent than the non IPSS (with their percentage of subsidised revenue streams with their total income failing to reach 40%).

The online survey of NGOs-DH returns a different result with the average data referring to 2013 seeing public financing accounting for 34% of revenue with own funding and private financing a further 29% and 37% respectively. These measures however cover over a broadly heterogeneity of situations. We also need to take into account that the NGOs-DH responding to the survey do not constitute a representative sample of this type of organisation.

In the years of 2011, 2012 and 2013, there were no major alterations in revenue structures:

· earnings attributed by public entities: 54% in 2011, 56% in 2012 and 56% in 2013;
· own income (sales of goods and services, user payments, membership fees, others): 38% in 2011, 37% in 2012 and 37% in 2013;
· earnings derived from private financiers: 8% in 2011, 7% in 2012 and 7% in 2013.

With the period under analysis relatively short for any major structural changes, despite everything, the aforementioned results do reveal a **reduction in the position of private finance as regards that provided by public financing**.

In the own income item, the trend observed over these three years heads into the direction of an **increase in the relative weighting of subsidised user payments which is the main component to this type of income**, followed by the sale of goods and services: 48% of total income in 2011 at the 87 NGOs that reported this data and 52% in 2013 across a total of 104 NGOs.

In the financing derived from private entities, the **main component is that of private individual financing (donations and others)** which accounted for 72% of the total of this item in 2013, **followed at a significant distance, by financing provided by companies** (15% in 2013). In the 2011 to 2013 period, **the relative weighting of the financing from private citizens rose while that of companies decreased**. One possible explanation for this situation stems from the recessionary context, companies cut back on the financing they previously attributed to supporting NGOs as a means of cutting their costs.

The organisations who would have been most impacted by this retraction in private sector financing would be the non IPSS group where this type of financing represents the largest component of private financing and, while accounting for around 30% in 2011, dropped to below 20% in 2013.

In the case of IPSS entities, the relative weighting of financing received from companies is only very low. The most important role here is that coming from private individuals that amounts to 90% of total private financing.

As a global comment on these results, we may state that with the main output of NGOs representing **public goods**, the main means that these organisations currently assume in Portugal, the resolution of the **"free rider"** problem characteristic of this type of good, takes place through recourse to public financing. This would not prove the case were there substantial voluntary private contributions from individuals and institutions (companies and others) helping NGOs in financing their cost structures. However, as the results show, these sources of private financing represent but a small percentage of total NGO income. There is thus much to do in Portugal to boost this component of private NGO financing. This requires **greater organisational capacities in terms of fund raising activities** but also requires the greater **civic education** of persons and companies over their duty towards contributing more towards these organisations. Dealing with this problem also extends to **enriching the provision of mechanisms for capturing private savings and financing instruments appropriate to the specific needs of these organisations**. The financing system of the social economy still remains only poorly developed in Portugal.

A final note on the role of **recourse to the market** by NGOs, which gets defended increasingly as the means (according to some the only or at least the main means) of their raising

their levels of income. Whilst one defining feature of NGOs stems from them producing **public goods**, then it essentially cannot mean that through the **sale of goods and services** that NGOs shall be able to generate the earnings sufficient to financing their own respective costs. What are eligible for sale are private goods and services and not public goods. What is sometimes possible, in this case, is the joint production of a public good and private goods and services that may be sold at prices that cover the costs of production of these two types of goods. Nevertheless, this is not always feasible for NGOs for technical, economic, institutional and other reasons. Whenever possible, this requires that the clients of the private goods and services are persons in a position pay which, very often, is simply not the case with the users prioritised by many NGOs.

In fact, there are still many NGOs where the visible fact of their activities involves the production of private goods and services as is the case with the goods and services produced by the IPSS entities for consumption by their users. However, were the IPSS to sell this production to its users at prices that covered the respective costs, many of these users would end up excluded from accessing these goods and services. In this case, the IPSS organisations that took this path would no longer be producing a public good, an essential facet to their core mission of contributing to greater solidarity in social relations.

Without overlooking the market based mechanisms that could and should be introduced into the developments needed to the NGOs financing systems, these mechanisms, **without other sources of earnings**, do not adapt to the specific characteristics of these organisations. Thus, these NGOs shall always need to be able to count on **private voluntary contributions (fees and other member contributions, voluntary work, donations in cash or pro bono services from companies and other organisations) and/or public financing** in order to resolve the "free rider" problem that daily confronts those wishing to remain loyal to their mission. Hence, the current situation characterised by low levels of voluntary private donation proves dissatisfactory and requiring the means detailed above to bring about an increase in these contributions.

In order to close this subject, it is worthwhile presenting the results of a study over the outcomes for the IPSS system if faced by a downturn in the levels of public co-financing, without any other revenue alternatives other than the sale of their goods and services. Based upon the accounting data from the 63 IPSS participants in the third edition of Project FAS – Training-Action Solidarity, run by CNIS and implemented in partnership with the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto), Ribeiro, Pacheco & Mendes (2014) estimated an econometric model identifying the factors influencing the economic sustainability of these organisations.

The data consists of an information panel on the variables in the balance sheet, results and a chart of cash-flows for the set of 63 IPSS organisations over five years (from 2008 to 2012) and a total of 301 observations.

This study incorporated three empirical measures for analysing organisational sustainability: EBITDA[3], operational cash-flow and self-financing (all expressed as a percentage of corrected total assets).

The first measure, EBITDA, provides for a first approach to the sustainability of organisations and captured by operational profitability. Organisations turning in negative EBITDAs run operations with profitability problems that impact on their long term sustainability.

The second measure, operational cash-flow provides further detail on that respective sustainability. Even organisations with profitable operations, with positive EBIDTAs, may not be sustainable in the case not all operations are able to generate the necessary cash-flows.

The third measure, self-financing, provides yet more detailed insight into the underlying sustainability of an organisation. To the extent that organisations with profitable operations and the capacity to generate the cash-flow to maintain their operations, these may still not prove sustainable into the long term where this cash-flow does not enable the meeting of commitments towards their financial backers and the state.

Additionally, in order to analyse the sensitive of our measures of sustainability in the light of different government support policies for these organisations, different measures were taken into account respectively assuming both the maintenance and the elimination of the operational subsidies paid out by the state.

The results returned are the following:

· maintaining the operating subsidies, the sustainability of the IPSS system, measured by the capacity to release cash-flow following the meeting of their commitments to financiers and the state, will be able to invest in fixed assets, boost the numbers of users, raise the qualification levels of service staff and thus boost their sales and services rendered;
· in the eventuality of an elimination of operating subsidies, the results convey how the economic sustainability of the IPSS organisations, again measured by the capacity to release cash-flow after meeting commitments to financial sources and the state, would see the number of users decline, a fall in staff qualification levels and a drop in the sales and services rendered.

The core meaning of these results thus encapsulates how without public co-financing, the IPSS, in order to survive, would be condemned to regress both in the quality of their staff and in the quantity and quality of the services in the meanwhile provided.

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[3] Earnings Before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation and Amortization

WHAT THE TEN CASE STUDIES TELL US

The **financial difficulties** are unquestionably the main concern identified by the organisations in the study alongside the NGOs surveyed. The perceived slide in public financing gets referenced by almost all of the NGOs in this study as one of the greatest challenges to their sustainability and their investment in diversifying their sources of financing correspondingly identified as fundamental to their own survival.

In the case studies, we however found very different realities as regards income structures. We observed organisations with a dependence on public funding that rises to 85% while there are other entities able to attain significant levels of private sources of support (which may reach up to 60%). Various organisations refer to difficulties in attracting private sector company financial support (or in continuing/maintaining these supports) as a consequence of the difficult prevailing economic situations. However, companies do seem now to be more receptive to establishing partnerships and providing specialist support services pro-bono which is also a means referred to as fundamental by some of the NGOs in the study. In some organisations, these services are now accounted for as a donation but rather perceived as a reduction in costs (and not as an "entry" in the income item).

As regards **financing based on projects making applications to national or European public incentive systems**, the NGOs identify the following issues: making their work in the field dependent on the priorities of an agenda that might not coincide with their own, some organisations term the entire application process as difficult and costly (in terms of time and resources) and, additionally, there is reference to the misalignment between public policies tending to privilege the financing of large scale projects (and correspondingly only large scale NGOs), leaving smaller players on the side.

The potential to take advantage of **own income** is mentioned by various NGOs but as requiring additional investment and development at almost all of the organisations in the study. The NGOs identify growing difficulties experienced among users being able to meet the subsidised service costs. Membership fees almost always represented a residual amount to financing and various of the NGOs studied, despite high numbers of members, displayed great difficulties in managing to ensure they keep their membership fees paid up. Leveraging the potential of own funding through setting up social businesses would seem to represent an option of various NGOs for the near future even while, currently, the ideas remain in a phase of reflection and maturity within the organisations themselves.

C) Private fund raising is undertaken by the majority of NGOs but primarily targeting private citizen with less emphasis on corporate company donors with the majority lacking in organisation and competences in this field

The aforementioned need of NGOs in Portugal to intensify their efforts in attracting private voluntary donations to finance their activities gains clear recognition at the majority of the NGOs responding. We would recall the already mentioned results as regards the competences deemed as development priorities. At number one, two and four on this list of priorities came "image and external communications", "fund raising campaigns" and "managing and mobilising members". Without ignoring the other two, the third priority proves particularly important. In NGOs with an associative structure, the majority of the sample, any increase in the number of members, the loyalties of those existing and the intensification of their participation in organisational activities, for example, paying their fees and making recurrent usage of the services provided by the organisation constitute a good indicator of organisational sustainability.

As regards this aspect, the online questionnaire results from NGOs-DH as regards the number of members per organisation would indicate that they make relatively greater recourse to the associative approach than other NGOs even while a large majority of members are behind in paying in their fees.

The majority of NGOs surveyed undertake fund raising activities targeting private entities: 66% do so in terms of private citizens whilst 45% target companies. That this percentage is lower in the case of companies may stem from two factors which from the perspectives of NGOs contributes to the lack of significance of this source of financing. Those undertaking campaigns targeting companies tend to be non IPSS entities and large scale NGOs.

Not all NGOs engaging in these campaigns do so in duly organised approaches. In fact, only **40% of NGOs surveyed reported having a fund raising plan**, with a noticeable difference here between the IPSS where the rate drops to 35% and the non IPSS with 50% having such plans. At the NGOs-DH, this percentage stands at 58%. This difference between the IPSS and the non IPSS organisations may stem from the existence of a contractual regime for public financing awarded to the IPSS ("cooperation agreements") which provides them with some predictability in terms of their income, a factor that does not happen with the non IPSS.

Furthermore, 37% of the 92 NGOs responding to this question ran **donor databases** and only 33% of 55 responses declared having a **donor databases management program**. At NGOs-DH, the percentage running such databases rose to 45%.

D) The issues interconnected with economic sustainability are those most keenly felt by NGOs

NGOs get founded with the mission of contributing towards the sustainability of their environmental, social, cultural and political dimensions in order to comply with a mission that gets challenged on a daily basis in terms of issues surrounding its own economic sustainability. This proves difficult given that this sustainability dimension negatively influences some specific characteristics of these organisations as well as their compliance with a mission involving the production of public goods (for example, environmental protection, social cohesion, protecting human rights, etcetera) with the inherent problems such as the **"free rider"** and **"Baumol" effects,** stemming from the relatively high weighting of human resource costs to their expenditure structures (Mendes, 2011).

It is thus understandable that when asked about the hierarchy of the main problems, the NGOs place at the top of their lists various factors interrelated with the question of economic sustainability (see Figure 4.4). In fact, for the set of respondent NGOs, four of the five lead problems clearly fall into this category as set out in the aforementioned Figure. The difficulty in attracting new members onto management boards that takes fourth place is also somewhat related to the issue of economic sustainability. In effect, what makes this task difficult incorporates the lack of attractiveness of these positions on bodies that are having to constantly deal with the future economic sustainability of organisations on a highly frequent basis.

Breaking down these results into IPSS and non IPSS organisations does not alter the overall position of these conclusions presented above as, in one case or the other, the five problems ranked as the most serious remain closely interrelated with the economic sustainability of organisations. For example:

· IPSS: difficulties in financing, lack of state financial support, lack of users/clients, misalignment of public policies, serious financial situations;
· Non IPSS: difficulties in financing, difficulties in attracting members to serve on management bodies, lack of state financial support, inappropriate installations, serious financial situations.

The **problem of a lack of users/clients** highlighted by a significant number of IPSS survey respondents located in various regions of Portugal represents a problem that displays diverse configurations. In cases, this does not reflect a drop in the lack of demand for the services of these organisations among persons but rather the decline in meetable demand, hence, the number of users with the capacity to pay the subsidised feels that had previously been attributed to them due to a reduction in their or their household's earnings in the meanwhile due to the recession the country has been through. In other cases, these economic hardships result in families withdrawing their children or the elderly from the IPSS organisation that then cares for them in their homes or because the family is afflicted by unemployment and may provide such care while others need to cut back on expenditure. The problem of the lack of users/clients that many IPSS entities complain of may also stem from situations where a lack of coordination and cooperation between the respective IPSS entities operating in a particular territory, or between these and public or private entities offering substitute services to their own result in investments generating excess capacity and destructive competition. This competition harms those IPSS organisations unable to plan the services and skills in which they invest or see users moving to other institution, often those who hold the greatest capacity to pay service charges.

The online survey of the NGOs-DH provides similar results to those presented above as regards their answers to the main problems they currently face. In effect, the five main problems identified by these organisation are the following, in a descending order in terms of the number of responses: difficulties in financing, difficulties in gaining business support, lack of state financial support, difficulties in making funding applications and many members or associates are behind with their fee payments. Here, one difference to the results returned by the questionnaire answered by 153 NGOs derives from the reference to difficulties in obtaining support from companies. This result is consistent with that stated above regarding the relative importance of the weighting of private sector financing to the income structure of the NGOs-DH responding to the survey. Whilst these results may not be deemed representative, those who did respond display a greater commitment to seeking support from companies than do other NGOs.

FIGURE 4.4: THE MAIN PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED BY THE NGOS (SURVEY OF 153 NGOs)

NUMBER 1 PROBLEM

Problem	
Difficulties in securing financing	
Lack of financial support from the government	
Maladjustment of public policies	
Difficulty in attracting new people to the governing bodies	
Serious financial situation	
Inadequate facilities	
Lack of users / customers	
Many members / associates do not pay dues	
Lack of marketing / fundraising skills	
Lack of qualified personnel	
Lack of management skills	
Low motivation of human reSOURCEs	
Increasingly complex problems in the community / users	
Difficulty in obtaining corporate support	
Strong competition from public services	
Strong competition from private services	
Internal conflicts	
Absent statutory direction	
Difficulty of articulation between the technical direction and the statutory direction	
Difficulties in preparing applications	
Other 3	
Other 2	
Other 1	

0   10   20   30   40

WHAT THE TEN CASE STUDIES TELL US

The contextual circumstances are referred to by organisations as proving increasingly difficult, dynamic and complex. On occasion, this context gets identified by NGOs as a threat while on other occasions this gets seen as an opportunity. The financial difficulties are also on the one hand a threat to the sustainability of NGOs but also an incentive and an opportunity for the NGOs to reinvent themselves.

The **growing demands of users**, the **greater complexity of problems** for resolving and the **increase in competition** from other organisations in the sector, whether in terms of service provision or at the level of access to funds also represent problems faced by NGOs and, simultaneously, challenges to which the capacities of each respective organisation shall have to duly meet.

8. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we would state here the summaries of the various results from the NGO surveys that served as the subtitles throughout this chapter.

**A) MODE OF GOVERNANCE
AND MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

- NGOs in Portugal are led by persons serving under a voluntary regime, in the majority middle aged, with higher education qualifications and with males strongly predominant;
- The voluntary management regime of NGOs in Portugal are dedicated to their management functions with some difficulties in replacing them even while they neither overly dwell in these positions nor show dynastic trends;
- The statutory managements delegate daily management decisions to their technical teams but still need to open up to external participation and evaluation even while there is evidence that internal participation is making advances.
- NGOs have increasingly invested in implementing marketing activities and in strategic planning although there remains much ground to be covered in these fields.

**B) REMUNERATED AND VOLUNTEER
MEMBERS OF STAFF**

- Remunerated members of staff are generally female in gender, full time and with open-term contracts;
- The human resource management system contains formal features at a considerable number of NGOs but there remain a lot of shortcomings despite the improvements occurring in recent years;
- There is a presence of volunteer (in addition to management board members) at a large majority of NGOs, even while only in small numbers at each organisation and generally without either any contract or any volunteer related training.

C) SHARING RESOURCES, NETWORKING
AND RELATIONSHIPS WITH PUBLIC ENTITIES

- Sharing material and human resources remains uncommon and only takes place in terms of using installations that happens with some significance;
- Working in networks and partnerships occurs at the majority of NGOs but probably concentrates more on the sharing of information and not other resource types;
- It is with those public entities to which they are most proximate (decentralised central government and local government entities) that NGOs engage in the most frequent and best quality relationships with the greatest scope for partnerships.

D) COST AND INCOME STRUCTURES

- Costs incurred with human resources are the main component to NGO expenditure with potential for improvements in the efficiency of the acquisition and utilisation of goods and services that may involve more and better working partnerships;
- Public financing is a very important source of income to NGOs, complementing the subsidised payments from users and private donations, with private institutional funding remaining relatively minor in scale;
- Private fund raising is practiced at the majority of NGOs but mostly targeting private citizens and less companies and firms with the majority of NGOs lacking organisation and competences in this field;
- The questions connected with economic sustainability are those attributed highest priority by NGOs.

CHAPTER 5   International Comparisons

1. UNITS OF ANALYSIS AND TYPES OF INFORMATION FOR THE PURPOSES OF INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

As there is no internationally accepted concept for NGOs and coupled with the lack of statistics on the NGO sector either in Portugal or around the world more generally, this chapter of international comparisons cannot adopt this unit of analysis for the NGO sector.

What we may compare in international terms with data also existing on the Portuguese case are two sectors that include NGOs but are themselves more wide reaching, more specifically:

· The non profit organisations sector;
· the social economy sector.

As their names convey, the former contains non profit organisations whilst the latter covers entities in the social economy. The internationally accepted concept of non profit organisations is that proposed by Prof. Salamon of the Johns Hopkins University and set out in chapter 1. The statistical data for this unit of analysis covers a number of countries and owes much to the work of this team in analysis that has also taken place in Portugal (Franco *et al.*, 2005) and with the recent results published in the Satellite Account on Non Profit Institutions with its data relating to 2006 and published by the INE in 2011 (INE, 2011).

The statistical data existing in Portugal and other countries worldwide for the social economy sector stem from the respective organisational concept put forward by the CIRIEC network in a concept also presented in chapter 1. In this case, the Portuguese data comes from the Satellite Account on the Social Economy relative to 2010, published by the INE in 2013.

For the purposes of international comparison, there is furthermore the need to on occasion apply the non profit organisations as the unit of analysis whilst on other occasions the social economy sector provides the basis depending on whether or not there is data on the countries selected for comparison. Hence, this chapter shall make frequent reference to the "Third Sector" thereby encapsulating both sectors given that, in cases where the data applied includes cooperatives and mutualists, the "Third Sector" corresponds to the social economy

as defined above and when such data only include non profit organisation then that respectively also falls under the auspices of the "Third Sector" title.

2. RECENT HISTORICAL TRENDS IN THE THIRD SECTOR IN THE USA AND IN WESTERN EUROPE AND CURRENT SPECIFIC PATTERNS

The characteristics of these institutions are broadly determined and shaped by the historical antecedents of the country they were founded and developed in (Anheier, 2005). Observation as to the development and positioning of the third sector in the United States and Europe enables us to make a first generic difference between the United States experience on the one hand and Europe on the other.

In the **United States,** the third sector arose out of the reaction to European absolutism of the 18th century and the power relations between the state and the church and thus constitutes an ideal type of liberal model of civil society in which a low level of public expenditure on the provision of social services and social welfare – such as healthcare, education, culture and social security – has been associated with a vast non profit sector financed not only (and primarily) by the state but also by private donations. In context, the importance of non profit institutions advanced significant at the beginning of the 1960s when the state reduced its role as a provider of services in the fields of healthcare and education. This became the "Great Society" program over the course of which responsibility for the provision of these services was assumed by private organisations (Anheier, 2005). The decline in the financial position witnessed in the late 1970s drove contention in expenditure on social welfare and corresponding substantial cuts to federal financing (Salamon and Anheier, 1997). In the late 1970s and at the beginning of the 1980s, the non profit sector (with the exception of the healthcare sector) lost over $38 billion and forcing such institutions to make progressively more advanced commercial initiatives as a means of financing their missions and, to such an extent, that between 1977 and 1989, over 40% of all social service providing organisation revenues had their origins in commercial activities (Anheier and Salamon, 1998). As a consequence of the "commercialisation" of the third sector, at the beginning of the 1980s, the social company concept extended, according to some authors and whether in reference to an academic context or in the business world, to all activities or strategies generating revenues by a non profit institution designed to generate a surplus in order to finance their beneficiary mission (Borzaga and Defourny, 2001; Kerlin, 2006).

In **Western Europe,** the social economy organisations – in the form of cooperatives, associations, foundations and mutualists – were already active and crucial in the field of social service provision prior to World War Two. However, they gained in importance during the 1950s and, especially in the 1960s, when two distinct factors triggered the spread of these organisation as the central actors in the social welfare and healthcare sectors. These factors were: i) the financial crisis that drove a sharp rise in the unemployment rate in the majority of Euro-

pean countries (particularly in Southern Europe and the United Kingdom) and the consequent need to reduce public expenditure through the provision of social services; ii) the search for greater democracy and quality of life in every sphere of life.

Within this shared and overall context that characterises Europe, we may identify four specific and different patterns (Defourney and Nyssens, 2010; Borzaga and Defourny, 2001):

a. *The **Bismarckian or "corporativist countries"*** such as Germany, France, Belgium and Ireland, where third sector organisations have traditionally played a role as complementary organisms to the state as regards the provision of social services. In this quality, they have historically taken an important position in the social welfare and healthcare sectors, almost always under the supervision of and with the financial support of public organisms, in particular as regards the application of labour policies destined to marginalised groups that were rejected by the labour market. For these reasons, the sector proves fairly institutionalised and spread widely throughout these countries. In the 1980s, above all in France and in Belgium, the public organisms began to finance associations and cooperatives that set up opportunities for the employment and training of marginalised workers. These countries were the pioneers in fostering a business model that is today institutionalised in the form of Social Companies for the Integration of Labour (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010), thus non profit organisations that compete in the market and have as their founding social mission the creation of labour market opportunities for marginalised groups such as immigrants, prisoners, the long term unemployed and physically and mentally challenged individuals (Pache and Santos, 2013).

b. The ***Nordic countries***, including Sweden, Finland and Norway. Similar to the case of developments in the Bismarckian countries, the region of Scandinavia also saw the third sector establish a strong relationship with the state. However, whilst in the former case, the social economy organisations complemented the public organisms providing social welfare and social services, in Scandinavia, these organisations have always held a secondary role and focused above all on representative activities and in defence of causes due to the dominant role of state organisms in the provision of public goods and services across the fields of education, social welfare and healthcare (Klausen and Selle, 1996). Furthermore, the Scandinavian third sector was equally influenced by a cultural heritage of activism, democratic decision making processes and associative organisation due to the central role always assumed by the social and labour movements in the political and cultural debates ongoing in these countries. As a consequence, the third sector in Scandinavian developed according to a specific model characterised by: i) the historical grounding of social movements; ii) an emphasis on activities in defence of causes; iii) a strong tradition of volunteering; and iv) close contact and cooperation with public entities (Klausen and Selle, 1996).

c. The ***United Kingdom***, which followed a model highly influenced by the historical, cultural, political and economic ties with the United States. Thus, the United Kingdom is similarly

and traditionally conceived of as a liberal model in which low levels of public expenditure on social services and a strong non profit organisational sector along with high levels of volunteering in the main financed by private funding (Salamon, 2004). This historical trajectory has been reinforced since the late 1970s when the government cut back the weighting of the state in the provision of public services and introduced a new model of partnership between the government authorities and the non profit organisms based on quasi-market mechanisms in an effort to boost the efficiency in the provision of these services. This institutional context exposed these same organisations to growing level of "commercialisation" and strengthened the introduction and expansion of this model of social initiative throughout this country.

d. The ***countries of Southern Europe***, in particular Portugal, Spain and Italy. Whilst the evolutionary trend followed in Bismarckian and Scandinavian countries displays some important analogies, the evolution of the third sector in the countries of Southern Europe took on very particular features and was strongly fashioned by two factors. The first is the importance of Catholic institutions in the provision of social services; the second came with the actions of the fascist and authoritarian regimes that characterised these countries post World War One. Here, the associations and cooperatives connected with the Catholic Church play a fundamental historical role in the provision of social services even while during the 20th century their intervention in the social sector was limited and controlled by the authoritarian regimes in office. Thus, in this phase and through to the 1970s, the third sector In Italy, Spain and Portugal exercised a merely peripheral action within the domain of public services as they were but few in number and restricted to activities in defence of specific causes (Borzaga and Defourny, 2001).

With the end of dictatorship, and at the end of 1970s and in the early 1980s, these countries were afflicted by high unemployment rates and encountering the incapacity of the state to ensure the provision of appropriate social service standards provided the opportunity for social economy organisations to recover their protagonism in the provision of public services, in particular the social welfare and personal service sectors. As a consequences, new cooperatives came to the fore, especially in Italy and Spain that established opportunities for individuals otherwise excluded from labour markets and alongside new organisations in the provision of personal services.

3. THE EUROPEAN THIRD SECTOR – GLOBAL DIMENSION AND ROLE

Throughout the last twenty years, the European Union has undertaken substantial efforts to establish a common framework favourable to development and social and economic cohesion and balanced between European member states, attributing the social economy – co-

operative, mutualists, foundations and associations – a central role in attaining the objective of contributing "to creating the conditions for more effective competitive and fostering both cohesion and solidarity" (CE, 2013).

The origins of these efforts dates back to the first Communication on "the companies in the social economy" published by the European Commission in 1989, which represented the first formal act in support of promoting the third sector in Europe. This initiative defined a common European policy for financing the projects and activities developed in social sector at the national level. In 2000, the European Commission approved the founding of an autonomous entity – the Permanent European Conference (*Conférence Européenne Permanente*) with the objective of supporting the growth of non profit institutions in Europe (CEP-CMAF). In 2008, this entity transited to become the Social Economy Europe, which in recent years has supported the launch and growth at the local and national levels of many initiatives run by non profit entities. To this end, 2013 saw the approval of a Statute for a European Cooperation Society destined to define a shared juridical and strategic framework between member states to ensure the sustainability of these social economy organisations. This has been implemented in conjunction with the efforts to establish the Statute of the European Association and the Statute of the European Foundation, which nevertheless have yet to attain fruition.

Thanks to the efforts that took place over the last decades, social economy organisations have developed throughout Europe: according to the latest data available (EC, 2013), it is estimated that in 2010 there were 2,800,000 social economy organisations in the 27 member states of the European Union and employing over 14 million persons (almost 6.5% of the active population).

FIGURE 5.1: NUMBER OF REMUNERATED MEMBERS OF STAFF IN THE THIRD SECTOR FOR THE EU-27

4 548 394 (32%)

9 217 088 (65%)

362 632 (3%)

Cooperatives and other similar forms

Mutualists and other similar forms

Associations, Foundations and other similar forms
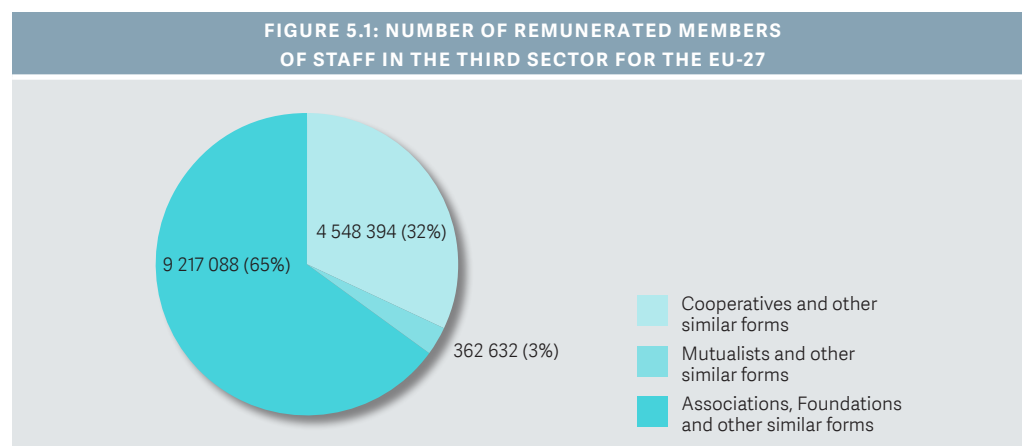
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC, 2012

The associations and the foundation are the main "family" in the social economy, made up of over 2.5 million organisations (92%) and employing over 9.2 million persons in the EU-27, which amounts to over 65% of employment in the sector. In terms of organisation numbers, both mutualists and cooperatives play only a marginal role within the European context. Whilst the mutualists account for only 1% of organisations, cooperatives constitute 7% of the total population of these entities while employing around 32% of the labour in the sector and hence correspondingly demonstrating that the latter are larger on average than either the associations or the mutualists.

FIGURE 5.2: NUMBER OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS

208 655 (7%)
21 790 (1%)
2 595 324 (92%)

Cooperatives and other similar forms
Mutualists and other similar forms
Associations, Foundations and other similar forms
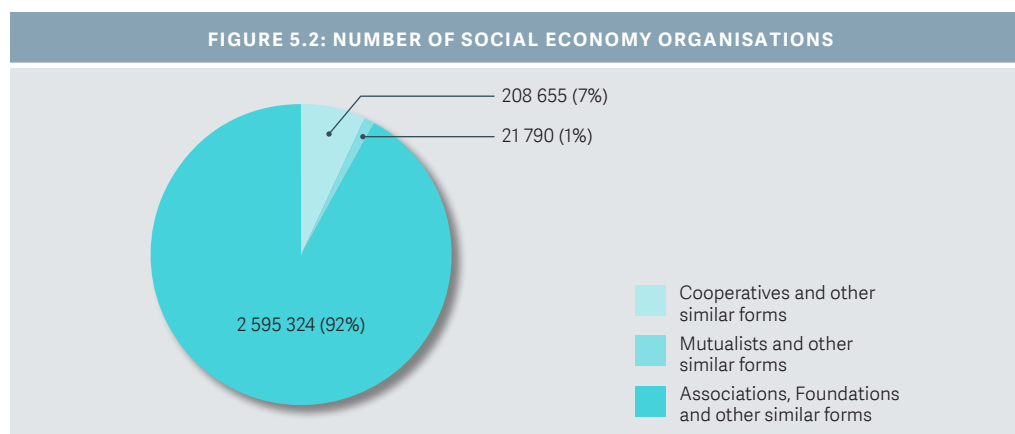
SOURCE: European Commission, 2013

We would refer that the impact of social economy sector organisations on the field of employment in Europe rose greater than proportionally between 2002/3 and 2009/10, rising from 6% to 6.5% (up from 11 million to 14 million posts of employment) of the total number of remunerated European workers. These statistics demonstrate how European policies have had a significant impact on sector development.

Throughout the last ten years, the European Union has sought to foster and support the spread not only of tradition non profit and social economy organisations such as cooperatives, mutualists, associations and foundations but also social firms in an attempt to overcome the frontier between the traditional and the non profit sectors. This strategy proves in keeping with the rising importance of social companies in recent years due to i) recognition that they are able to provide effective and innovative solutions to complex social problems such as unemployment, environment damage and extreme poverty; and ii) the scarcity of financial resources allocated by public entities to ensure the sustainability of non profit institutions as a result of the current economic recession (Nyssens and Defourny, 2010).

In 2011, the European Commission launched an initiative designed to foster Social Business Initiatives, the broadest reaching policy of the European Union designed to encourage the development of social businesses on the continent and, as we describe in detail in the following point, resulting in the introduction of a specific juridical framework in support of social businesses in many European countries such as Italy and the United Kingdom.

4. THE EUROPEAN THIRD SECTOR – SPECIFIC NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS IN THE JURIDICAL FIELD, IN SIZE AND COMPOSITION

The social and economic phenomena that we term the "social economy" is a generalised trends undergoing clear expansion throughout the EU. Despite the shared growth trajectory, at the national level, we should make some distinctions as regards: i) the juridical framework; ii) the size of the sector; and iii) its composition.

I. JURIDICAL FRAMEWORK

In terms of legislation, the role of social economy actors such as cooperatives, mutualists, associations and foundations as legitimate private actors of civil society has gained recognition in almost all European countries. However, not all forms of the social economy receive equal recognition, in particular the cooperatives. For example, whilst countries such as Italy, Spain, France and Portugal hold wide reaching legislation that regulates the workings of cooperatives, others, such as the United Kingdom and Denmark, have not enacted general legislation on cooperatives which inevitably undermines their growth and development.

There are significant differences between countries as regards the fiscal positions of these organisations. In effect, in the majority of Western European countries, social economy organisations benefit from some fiscal exemptions on account of recognition of the positive role they play in societies as drivers of integration and employability. Such cases, for example, include Italy (law 460/1997), Spain (law 143/2002), Germany (social code) and Portugal (law no. 30/2013, 8 May – Base Law of the Social Economy). However, as regards cooperatives, many countries do not extend this fiscal exemption to all such actors. Germany, Sweden, Bulgaria, Estonia and Romania, for example, do not provide any special fiscal regime for cooperatives whilst other countries apply a special fiscal regime only to certain types of cooperatives – as is the case with Greece (agricultural cooperatives) and Poland (fiscal exemption limited to social cooperatives).

It is important to make a further distinction as regards social companies. These are founded based upon the juridical scope endowed by each country. Thus, in Belgium and in France,

where the juridical framework allows for these associations to commercially sell products and services, social companies take on the form of associations whilst in the Nordic countries and Italy where national law prohibits associations from market operations, firms make recourse to the juridical statute of cooperatives. In this context, certain countries have not introduced specific regulations for social companies that continue to function based upon pre-existing juridical norms; this happened for example in Austria, Germany and Sweden. Since the 1990s, many countries have monitored the efforts undertaken by the EU within the scope of institutionalising social companies and correspondingly introducing specific norms for regulating their functioning within the scope of the legislative framework of cooperatives or introducing completely new juridical forms. In the former group, we find some Western countries such as Spain (law 27/1999), France (law 17.7.2001) and others from Eastern Europe such as Greece (law 4019/30-9-11), Hungary (law 10/ 2006) and Poland (2006 law on cooperatives), whilst countries such as Italy, Belgium, Finland and United Kingdom regulate social companies in accordance with new and different juridical forms. In the Portuguese, there has thus far been no legislation determining the figure of the social company. In turn, the social cooperatives are considered as a juridical figure corresponding to social companies (see the table below based on two EU published tables). However, such does not precisely correspond to the national reality. The long discussion on the final text of the Base Law for the Social Economy included the scope for inserting the figure of a "social company" as a new figure for later regulation, which does testify to the recognition of its non-existence nationally and the assumption of the specific characteristics of such entities that transcends the figure of the cooperative. Political motives underlay its withdrawal from the final legislative text but there remains in Portugal the desire to establish this juridical form.

TABLE 5.1: DEFINITIONS OF SOCIAL COMPANIES UNDER DIFFERENT JURIDICAL FORMS (REPRESENTATIVE COUNTRIES)		
COUNTRY	LAW	JURIDICAL FORM
Italy	381/1991	Social cooperative
	118/2005	Associations, foundations, companies, for profit companies
Portugal	51/1995	Social solidarity cooperatives
Spain	27/1999	Social cooperatives
United Kingdom	Regulation of Companies in the Community Interest 2005	Companies in the community interest
France	17 July 2001	Cooperative companies in the general interest

COUNTRY	LAW	JURIDICAL FORM
Germany	None	None
Denmark	None	None
Finland	1351/2003	Social company
Sweden	None	None

SOURCE: adapted from the European Commission, 2013

II. SIZE OF SECTOR

In terms of the sector's size, recent data provided by the European Commission details how, taking organisational numbers as the parameter, the United Kingdom proves the country with the largest social economy sector in the EU-27, with almost 900,000 organisations. Next come the two large Bismarckian countries, Germany and France, whilst among the countries of Southern Europe, Spain hosts double the number of organisations existing in Italy. In keeping with its general size, Portugal returns the lowest number of organisations. In some Scandinavian countries, such as Sweden, Finland and Denmark, there are few non profit organisations due to the historical importance of state entities in the provision of public service (as detailed earlier in this chapter).

FIGURE 5.3: NUMBER OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS

	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Organisations	97 699	48 028	200 761	875 555	192 497	513 727	13 543	134 490	31 162
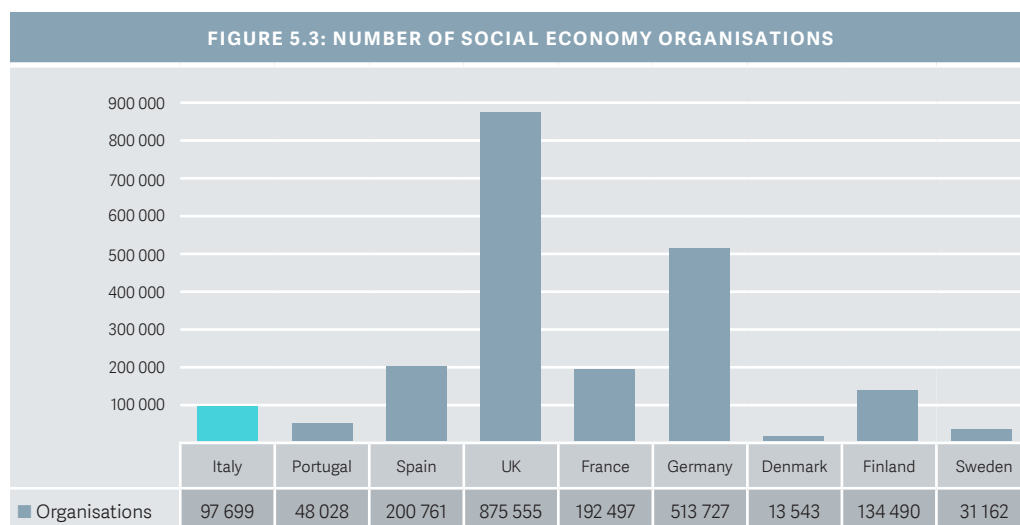
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

With almost 50,000 entities, Portugal is home to more non profit organisation than comparable countries[1] in terms of size, such as Denmark (13,000 entities), Bulgaria (24,000 entities) and Romania (25,000 entities), but considerably less than other identical countries such as Austria, the Czech Republic and Hungary.

FIGURE 5.4: NUMBER OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ORGANISATIONS (PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Portugal	Austria	Bulgaria	Denmark	Greece	Hungary	Czech Rep.	Romania
■ Organisations	48 028	118 475	24 387	13 453	57 808	61 024	101 785	25 744
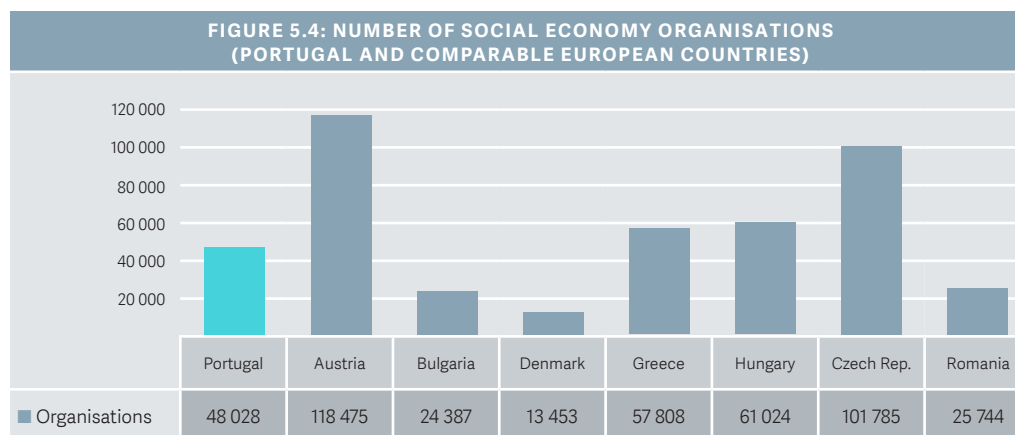
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

Whilst the number of organisation enables an initial perspective on the scale of the sector in different countries, the number of remunerated members of staff employed by the sector holds relevance to better grasping the global impact of the social economy. This analysis generates a very distinctive picture on the scale of the social economy at the national level: in effect, with over two million workers, Germany, France and Italy are the countries reporting the most workers in this sector and, combined, account for 50% of total social economy sector employment in Europe. The data also demonstrates the marginal role performed by the social economy in the Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Finland and Sweden, where the third sector only generates a residual weighting in terms of the provision of public services and restricted to activities in defence of specific causes.

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[1] Based on EU/CIRIEC, 2012, the comparable countries were selected in accordance with three variables: 1. Size of country; 2. Size of social economy sector (no. of organisations, no. of remunerated employees, no. of volunteers, etcetera), 3. The institutional characteristics of the social economy sector by reference to chapter 5 of EU/CIRIEC, 2012 and the "recognition of the social economy concept" in each country by public entities, companies and academia.

FIGURE 5.5: NO. OF REMUNERATED SOCIAL ECONOMY EMPLOYEES (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Remunerated employees	2 228 010	251 098	1 243 153	1 633 000	2 318 544	2 458 584	195 486	187 200	507 209
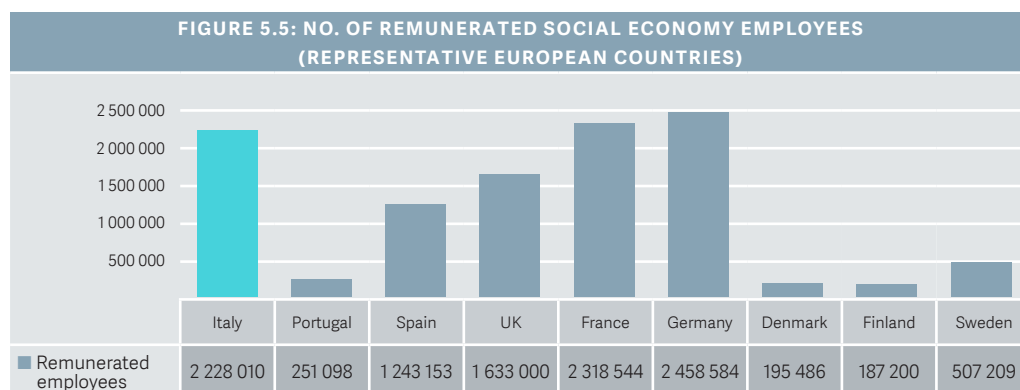
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

The data relative to the number of organisations and employees in the sector show that on average countries such as the United Kingdom and Finland are essentially characterised by the existence of small organisations whilst in Italy, France and Germany, the average scale of the social economy organisation is larger. As set out in Figure 5.7, each civil society organism in the United Kingdom employs an average of 1.8 workers with this number dropping to just 1.3 workers in Finland, well below the EU-27 average, which stands at 4.9 employees per organisation. In Italy, the average number of employees per organisation totals 22.8, the highest of all European countries followed by Denmark (14.4) and France (11.7). Within this context, countries such as Germany (with an average of 4.6) and Spain (with an average of 6.1) cluster very closely around the European average.

Concentrating our attention now on countries comparable with Portugal, the data on the sector conveys how with its over 250,000 workers, Portugal hosts the sector with the largest scale followed by Austria and by Denmark.

FIGURE 5.6: NO. OF REMUNERATED EMPLOYEES IN THE SOCIAL ECONOMY (PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Portugal	Romania	Czech Rep.	Hungary	Greece	Denmark	Bulgaria	Austria
Remunerated employees	251 098	163 354	160 086	178 210	117 123	195 486	133 825	233 528
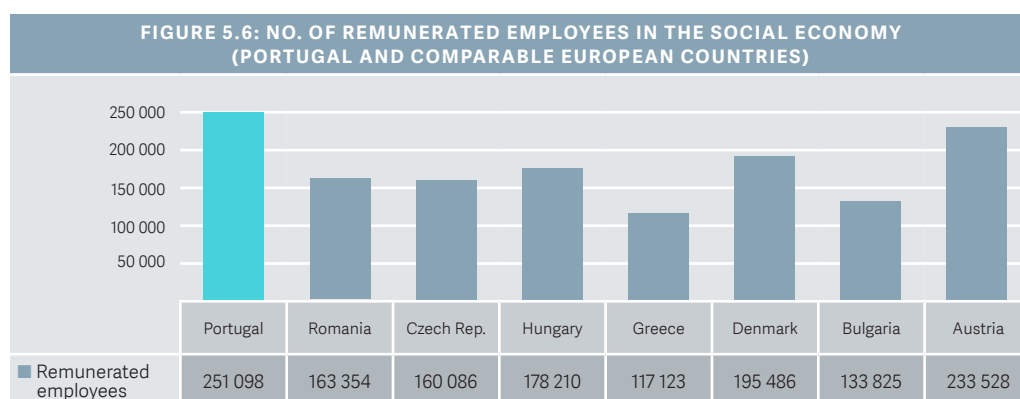
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

From this combination of data regarding the number of organisations and their employees returns an average of 5.2 paid workers in social economy organisation in Portugal, a number slightly higher than the EU-27 average and far higher than the average prevailing in comparable countries such as Greece, Hungary and Austria (where social economy organisations are, in the main, micro-organisations employing between one and three members of staff). These differences arise above all due to the lags in the sector's development in the countries of Eastern Europe, where small and micro-organisations still predominate.

FIGURE 5.7: AVERAGE NUMBER OF REMUNERATED EMPLOYEES PER ORGANISATION (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)
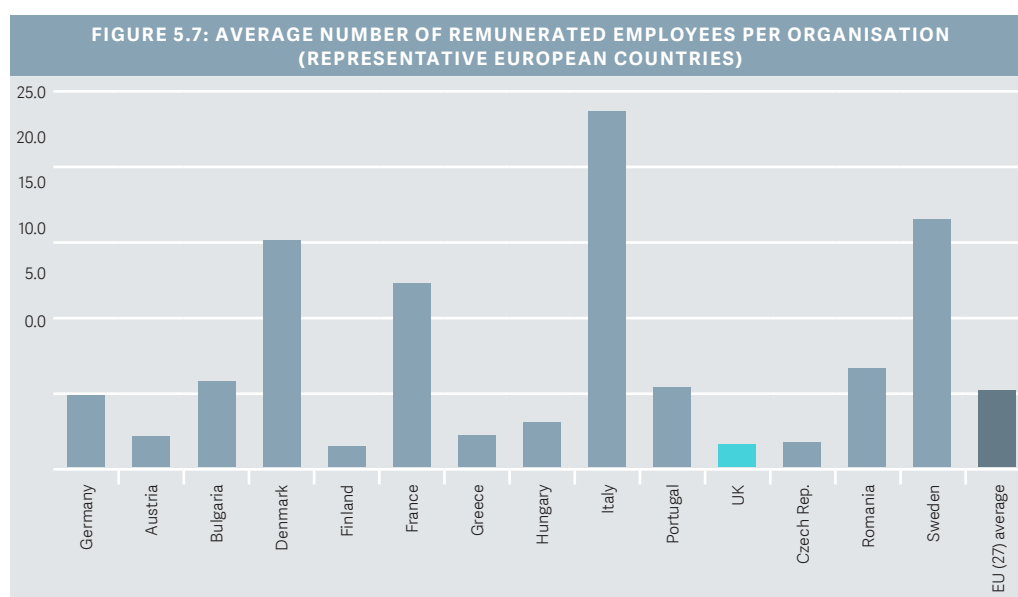
SOURCE: EU / CIRIEC, 2012

As regards their evolution over time, the European Commission gathered data on paid employee numbers in general terms conveys the dynamism of the social economy in the large majority of European countries over the last decade with the exception of the United Kingdom where its impact in terms of employment fell back 5%. The sector however registered impressive growth in countries such as Italy (+67%), Spain (+43) and Sweden (+147%), as a result of the support strategies launched by the governments of these countries.

FIGURE 5.8: TRENDS IN THE NUMBER OF REMUNERATED EMPLOYEES: 2002-2010
(REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Workers 2002/3	1 336 413	210 950	872 214	1 711 276	1 985 150	2 031 837	160 764	175 397	205 697
Workers 2009/10	2 228 010	251 098	1 243 153	1 633 000	2 318 544	2 458 584	195 486	187 200	507 209
Growth %	67%	19%	43%	-5%	17%	21%	22%	7%	147%
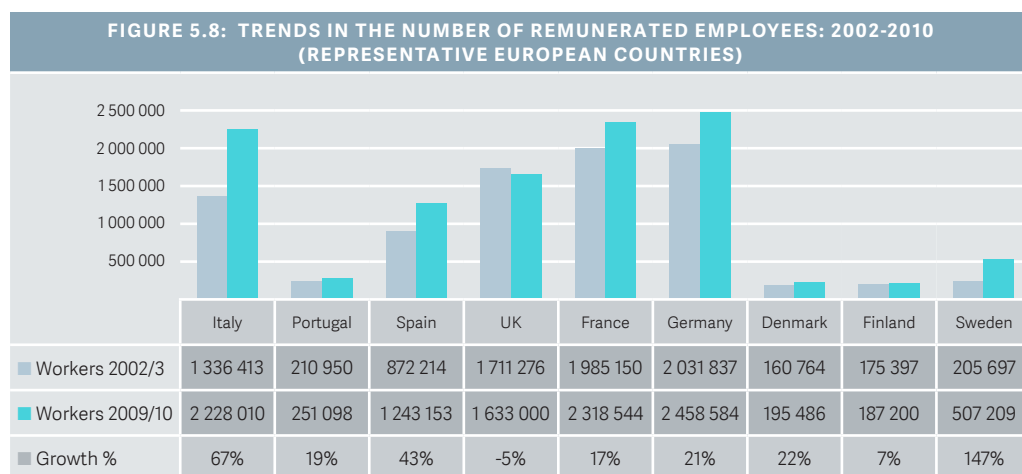
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

The same pattern of growth stands out when analysing the data on Portugal (+19%) and comparable countries: with the exception of the Czech Republic (-3%), the number of remunerated employees rose especially significantly in all countries and particularly in Greece (+68%) and in Hungary (+136%) courtesy of legislation and the fiscal support framework approved by these same countries.

FIGURE 5.9: TRENDS IN REMUNERATED EMPLOYEES: 2002-2010
(PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Portugal	Austria	Bulgaria	Denmark	Greece	Hungary	Czech Rep.	Romania
Workers 2002/3	210 950	260 145	–	160 764	69 834	75 669	165 221	–
Workers 2009/10	251 098	233 528	133 825	195 486	117 123	178 210	160 086	163 354
Growth %	19%	-10%	–	22%	68%	136%	-3%	–
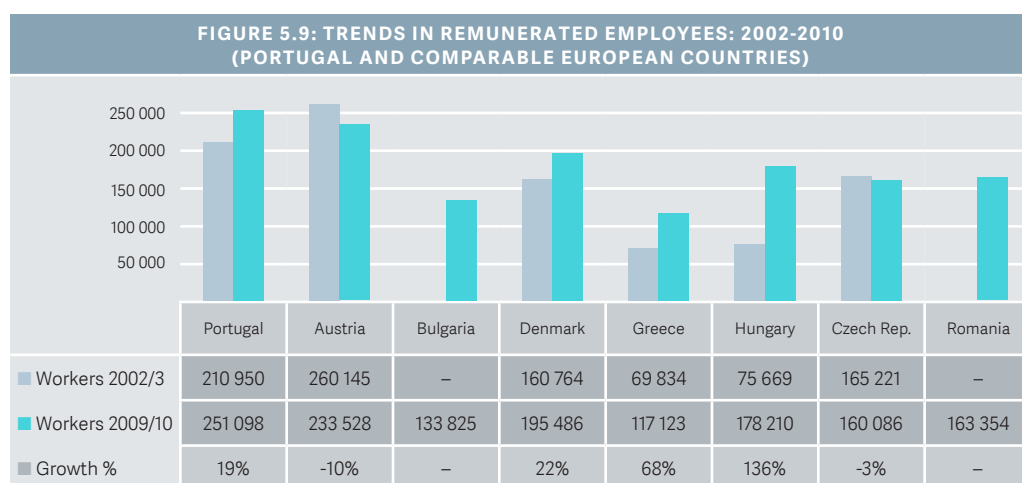
SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012. Data on 2002 not available for Bulgaria and Romania.

The data detailing the number of non profit organisations and their respective employees constitutes a preliminary indicator of the strength and the impact of the third sector in different countries. Nevertheless, to grasp the power and the extent of this sector's impact, we also need to analyse the role of volunteers, thus, the numbers who dedicate their time free of charge to non profit organisations. In effect, these individuals are a particularly important component of the labour force of these organisations and fundamental inputs to boosting civic participation and strengthening social bonds. Unfortunately, however, the lack of reliable and recent data on volunteers working in the different countries makes setting out any precise and comparable framework for the impact of voluntary workers on these organisations an extremely complex task. It is, however, feasible to identify four variables that may assist in grasping the strength of the involvement of civil society in the activities run by third sector organisations. They are:

- The percentage of the population involved in voluntary activities;
- The contribution of volunteers in different sectors;
- The contribution of volunteers to the national GDP;
- The role of volunteers within the scope of social economy organisations.

As regards the first variable – the percentage of the population involved in voluntary activities – the data published by the European Commission, whilst spurious for not differentiating between levels of volunteer involvement in terms of frequency and not quantifying participation in voluntary activities but which does reveal that the capacity of Portuguese social economy organisations to mobilise volunteers falls below the average of European countries (See Tables 5.2 and 5.3), as they involve only 12% of the population, in a rate although similar to France and Bulgaria, falls far below the average level of volunteer participation, which stands at 25% of the population of representative countries and 22% in the countries most comparable to Portugal in terms of size, structure and the evolution of the sector.

TABLE 5.2: VOLUNTEERS (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)			
COUNTRY	VOLUNTEERS	VOLUNTEERS BY POPULATION	VOLUNTEERS PER SOCIAL ECONOMY EMPLOYEE
Germany	24,065,072	34%	9.8
Denmark	1,949,371	43%	10.0
Spain	5,867,518	15%	4.7
Finland	1,740,611	39%	9.3
France	12,646,908	24%	5.5
Italy	13,484,222	26%	6.1
Portugal	1,082,532	12%	4.3
UK	11,774,457	23%	7.2
Sweden	1,636,160	21%	3.2

SOURCE: Eurobarometer/European Parliament 75.2: Voluntary work, 2011 and EU/CIRIEC, 2012

Analysing this relationship between volunteers and employees, we encounter the same conclusions as to the strength of civil society. Table 5.2 shows how the German and Danish social economy organisations are those that make greatest recourse to volunteers; on the other hand, Portugal and Sweden are the countries registering the lowest weighting of volunteers within the scope of the labour employed by these organisations. Interestingly, even while the capacity for popular mobilisation proves lower in "comparable countries" than in the "representative countries", the relationship between volunteers and paid members of staff is on average higher in the latter as detailed in Table 5.3. This proportion proves especially raised in Romania and the Czech Republic (15.6 and 12.9, respectively).

TABLE 5.3: VOLUNTEERS (PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)			
COUNTRY	VOLUNTEERS	VOLUNTEERS BY POPULATION	VOLUNTEERS PER SOCIAL ECONOMY EMPLOYEE
Portugal	1,082,532	12%	4.3
Austria	2,638,255	37%	11.3
Bulgaria	784,501	12%	5.9
Denmark	1,949,371	43%	10.0
Greece	1,355,390	14%	11.6
Hungary	1,878,243	22%	10.5
Czech Rep.	2,072,862	23%	12.9
Romania	2,549,410	14%	15.6

SOURCE: Eurobarometer/European Parliament 75.2: Voluntary work, 2011 and EU/CIRIEC, 2012

As regards the second important variable – the contribution of volunteers in different sectors –, according to Eurobarometer/European Parliament (2011) figures, volunteers are concentrated in the sports and open air activity associations in in Europe and especially in Ireland, Denmark and Germany. One in five persons engage in voluntary activities in cultural, education and artistic organisations and 16% work for charitable or social support organisations, in an NGO or a humanitarian or development aid association. Italy and France are the countries in which volunteers demonstrate the highest level of participation in cultural, educational and artistic fields.

In Portugal, the social support area attracts the highest level of participation.

TABLE 5.4: KEY VOLUNTEER SECTORS OF ACTIVITY (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)	
COUNTRY	**KEY SECTOR OF ACTIVITY**
Italy	No data available
Portugal	Social services (36%) • Culture (12%)
Spain	Social services (28%) • Culture (22%)
UK	Education (31%) • Religion (24%)
France	Sport (29%) • Culture (16%)
Germany	Sport (11%) • Education (7%)
Denmark	Sport (11%) • Social services (6%)
Finland	Sport (30%) • Social services (25%)
Sweden	Sport (20%) • Culture (20%)

SOURCE: European Commission, 2010.

The third variable that requires analysis is the contribution made by volunteers to the GDP of the respective different European countries. The data collected by the European Commission reveals significant differences between the European Union member states. In fact, whilst in Scandinavia, volunteers account for a significant percentage of national GDP (see Figure 5.10) – which is in keeping with the heritage of a typically civic participation in these countries – in the countries of Southern Europe, such as Italy and Portugal, and in much of Eastern Europe (such as the Czech Republic and Hungary), the weighting of voluntary work stands as below 1% of GDP.

FIGURE 5.10: IMPACT OF VOLUNTEERS ON NATIONAL GDP (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Impact of volunteers on GDP	0.11%	0.66%	1.33%	2.26%	1.65%	1.95%	2.61%	2.72%	3.14%
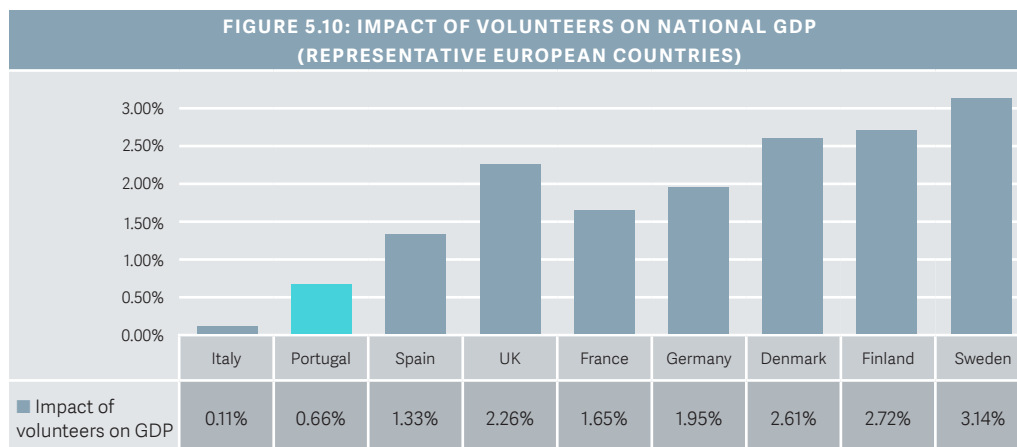
SOURCE: European Commission, 2010.

Analysis of comparable countries reports how with the exception of Austria and Denmark, Portugal registers a volunteer value of work slightly above the average.

FIGURE 5.11: IMPACT OF VOLUNTEERING ON THE NATIONAL GDP (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)								
	Portugal	Austria	Bulgaria	Denmark	Greece	Hungary	Czech Rep.	Romania
■ Impact of volunteers on GDP	0.66%	4.75%	0.37%	2.61%	0.06%	0.25%	0.28%	0.15%
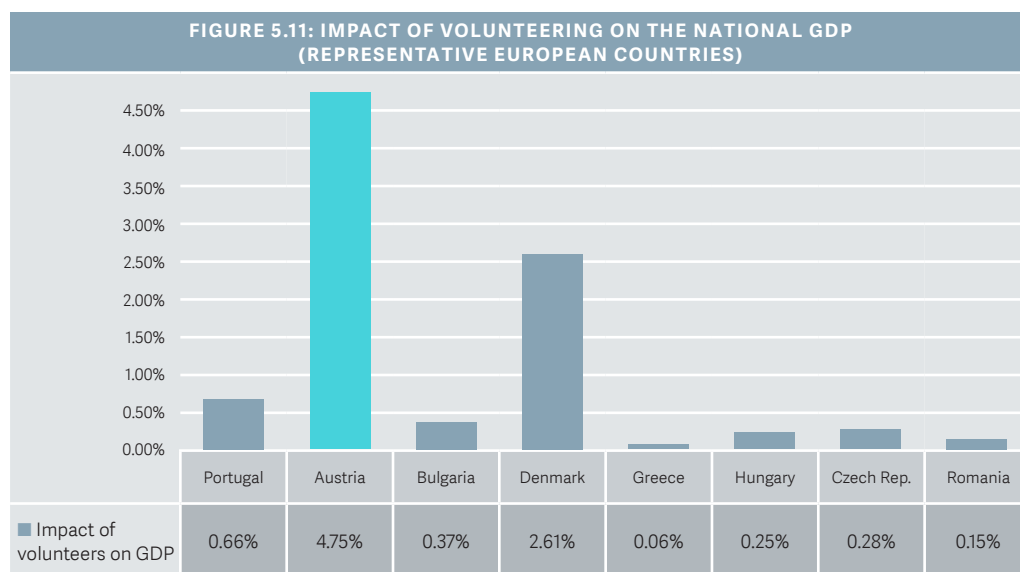
SOURCE: European Commission, 2010.

Finally, as regards the last variable regarding the weighting and the strength of civil society on the non profit sector – the role of volunteers within organisations – the data demonstrates that a general majority of volunteers perform operational functions and primarily interconnected with administrative and organisational activities. There are some important exceptions such as the United Kingdom and the Scandinavian countries where volunteers actively participate in strategic decision making processes, with an active voice in the management boards of non profit organisations

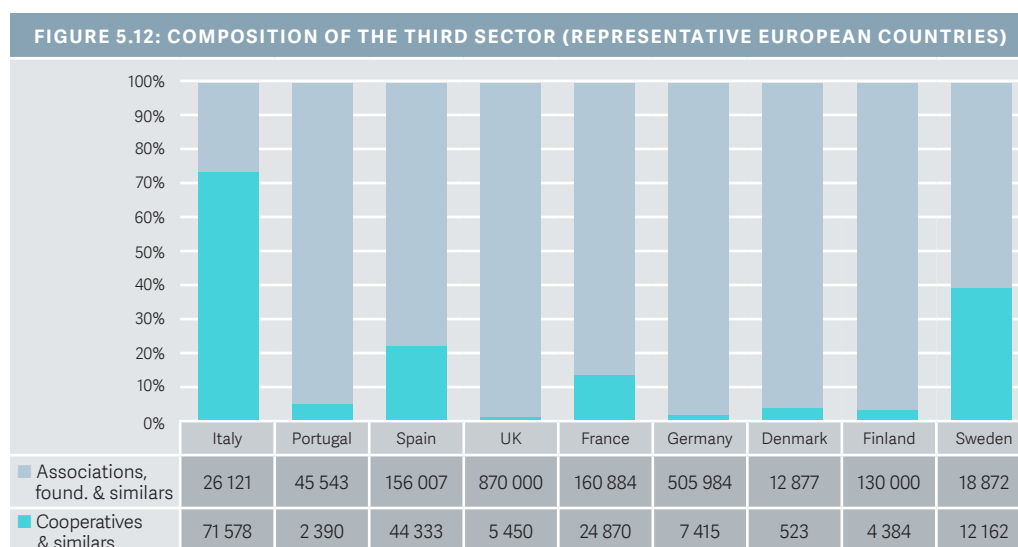| TABLE 5.5: ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS IN NON PROFIT ORGANISATIONS (REPRESENTATIVE COUNTRIES)	
COUNTRY	VOLUNTEER AREAS OF ACTIVITY
Italy	Consultancy • Administrative tasks
Portugal	Board of directors • Administrative tasks
Spain	No data available
UK	Organisational activities • Board of directors
France	Organisational activities • Supervision
Germany	Management • Organisational activities
Denmark	Board of directors • Administrative tasks
Finland	No data available
Sweden	Board of directors • Management

SOURCE: European Commission, 2010..

In summary, the data referring to the role of volunteers in non profit organisations – in countries such as Sweden, Denmark, Austria and the United Kingdom – depicts a very high level of civil society participation in the management of social economy organisations. In these countries, these organisations are able to mobilise a high number of volunteers that, above all else, play proactive roles and lead the board of directors of the entities they engage with.

In other countries, such as Germany, France and Finland, the volunteers make up an important resource to the third sector but are not as central as in the aforementioned countries as they are in the majority engaged in operational and administrative tasks.

Finally, in Southern European countries, volunteers hold a more marginal role both in terms of their presence in the sector and the roles played within organisations. In Portugal, due to legislation requiring the statutory boards of a part of third sector organisations to be voluntary, a significant percentage of such volunteers sit on management bodies.
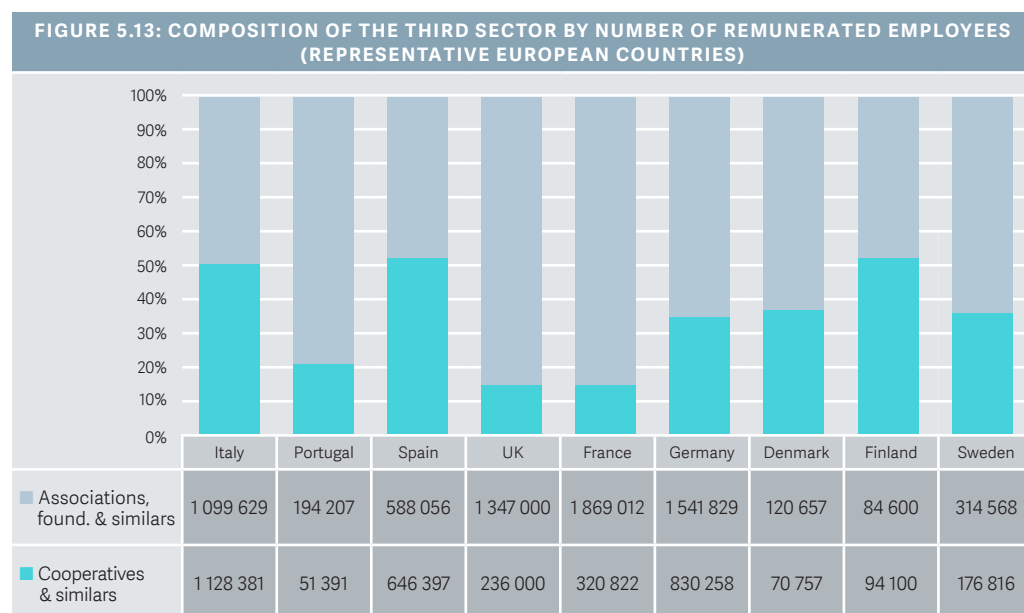

III. SECTOR COMPOSITION

Having described the global scale of the social economy sector in different countries, we now move onto examine more closely their composition and the comparable weightings of the different organisations (thus whether cooperatives, mutualists, associations or foundations). The analysis summarised in Figure 5.10 conveys the dominant role of associations in all European countries especially in the United Kingdom and Germany (where they account for over 90% of the sector), with the important exception of Italy where cooperatives make up close to 70% of total organisations in the third sector.

FIGURE 5.12: COMPOSITION OF THE THIRD SECTOR (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

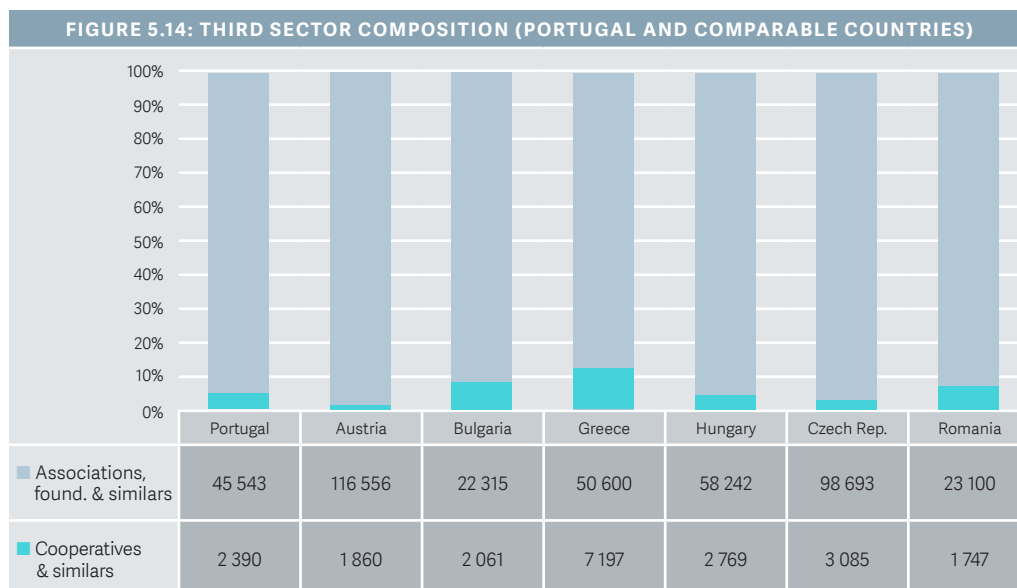|	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Associations, found. & similars	26 121	45 543	156 007	870 000	160 884	505 984	12 877	130 000	18 872
Cooperatives & similars	71 578	2 390	44 333	5 450	24 870	7 415	523	4 384	12 162

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

As demonstrated in Figure 5.12, the weighting of non profit cooperatives and associations is better balanced when taking into consideration the number of remunerated employees as the associations are on average more numerous than the cooperatives in all European countries (apart from Italy).

FIGURE 5.13: COMPOSITION OF THE THIRD SECTOR BY NUMBER OF REMUNERATED EMPLOYEES (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)

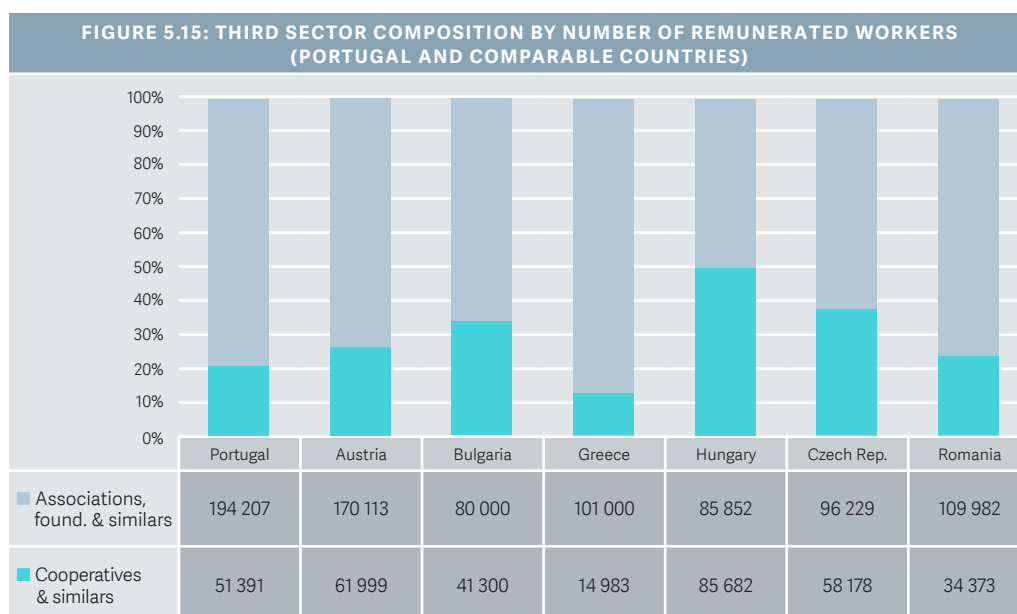|	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden
Associations, found. & similars	1 099 629	194 207	588 056	1 347 000	1 869 012	1 541 829	120 657	84 600	314 568
Cooperatives & similars	1 128 381	51 391	646 397	236 000	320 822	830 258	70 757	94 100	176 816

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

Portugal and comparable countries display a similar dynamic: in these, cooperatives account for less than 10% of organisations by number but employ around 30% of the population active in the sector. There are nevertheless significant differences even in those countries sharing this trend. For example while in Portugal and Greece, cooperative organisation employees represent around 20% of the total number of employees, in Hungary and the Czech Republic this percentage rises to around 50%.
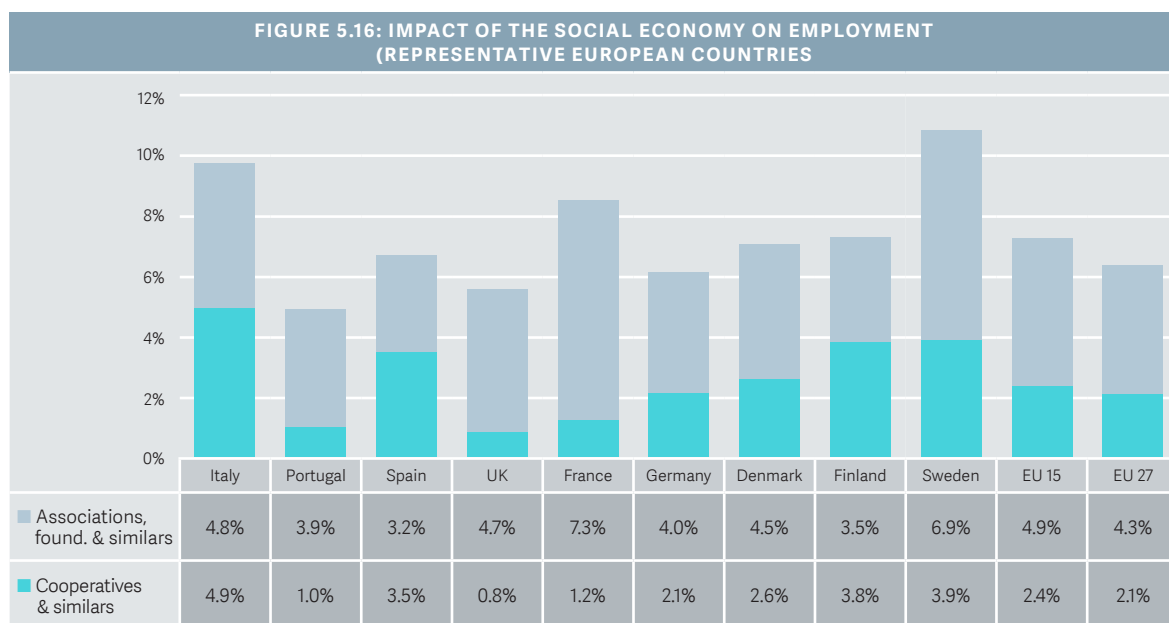
FIGURE 5.14: THIRD SECTOR COMPOSITION (PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE COUNTRIES)

	Portugal	Austria	Bulgaria	Greece	Hungary	Czech Rep.	Romania
■ Associations, found. & similars	45 543	116 556	22 315	50 600	58 242	98 693	23 100
■ Cooperatives & similars	2 390	1 860	2 061	7 197	2 769	3 085	1 747

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

FIGURE 5.15: THIRD SECTOR COMPOSITION BY NUMBER OF REMUNERATED WORKERS (PORTUGAL AND COMPARABLE COUNTRIES)

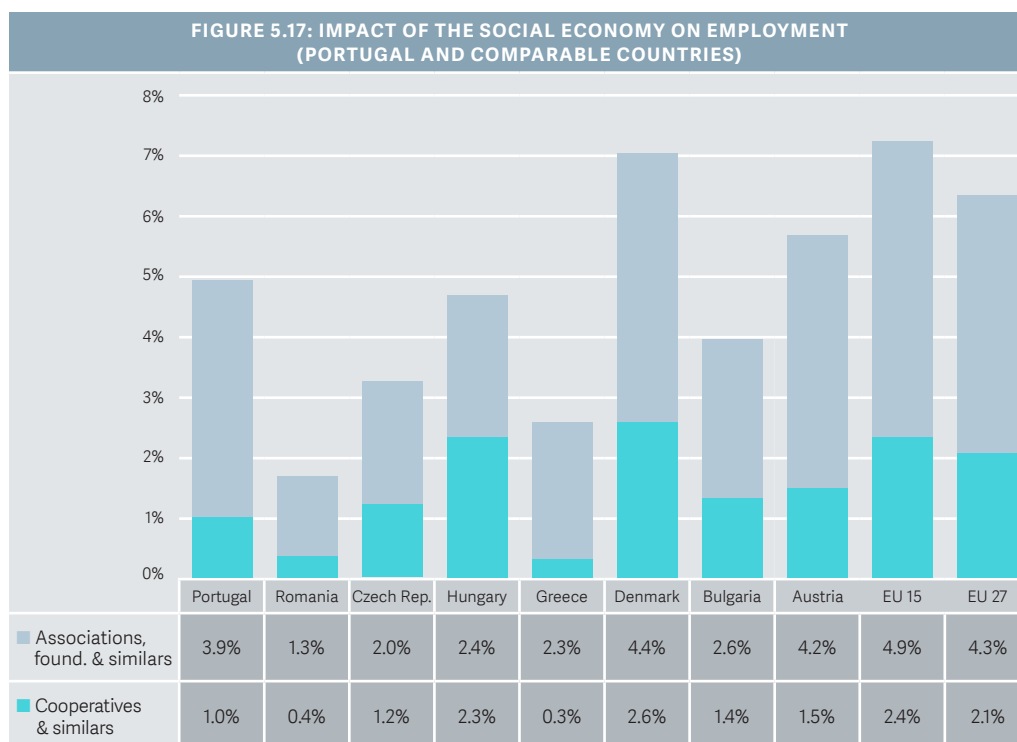|	Portugal	Austria	Bulgaria	Greece	Hungary	Czech Rep.	Romania
■ Associations, found. & similars	194 207	170 113	80 000	101 000	85 852	96 229	109 982
■ Cooperatives & similars	51 391	61 999	41 300	14 983	85 682	58 178	34 373

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

Finally, it is important to analyse the social economy impact on employment numbers in the different countries. The data gathered in Figures 5.14 and 5.15 convey how these organisation hold a very significant influence over the European economy given that they provide employment opportunities to 6.5% of the active population in the EU-27 member states.

FIGURE 5.16: IMPACT OF THE SOCIAL ECONOMY ON EMPLOYMENT (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES										
	Italy	Portugal	Spain	UK	France	Germany	Denmark	Finland	Sweden	EU 15	EU 27
Associations, found. & similars	4.8%	3.9%	3.2%	4.7%	7.3%	4.0%	4.5%	3.5%	6.9%	4.9%	4.3%
Cooperatives & similars	4.9%	1.0%	3.5%	0.8%	1.2%	2.1%	2.6%	3.8%	3.9%	2.4%	2.1%

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

Figure 5.16 sets out how the social economy holds a particularly relevant impact in countries such as Sweden (11% of the total active population), Italy (9%) and France (9%). The cooperatives play an important role in countries in Southern Europe such as Italy and Spain – in conjunction with the approach to development they respectively followed –, and in the Scandinavian countries resulting from the efforts deployed by their various governments in recent years within the scope of developing the social economy and fostering the launch of social companies.

It proves interesting to verify how in Portugal and comparable countries, the social economy impact on total employment proves far lower than the European average even while these countries have seen the sector register significant growth over the course of the last decade (see Figures 5.8 and 5.9). This correspondingly means that in these countries there remains significant scope for growth in the sector.

	Portugal	Romania	Czech Rep.	Hungary	Greece	Denmark	Bulgaria	Austria	EU 15	EU 27
■ Associations, found. & similars	3.9%	1.3%	2.0%	2.4%	2.3%	4.4%	2.6%	4.2%	4.9%	4.3%
■ Cooperatives & similars	1.0%	0.4%	1.2%	2.3%	0.3%	2.6%	1.4%	1.5%	2.4%	2.1%

SOURCE: EU/CIRIEC 2012

Another aspect differentiating between non profit organisations derives from the respective sectors of activity in which they operate across the different countries. Non profit organisations normally supply a varied range of human services and act in the fields of education, healthcare and community services. Within these limits, nevertheless, there are important variations from country to country due to the historical heritage of each country and the role of the state in the provision of social services and social welfare.
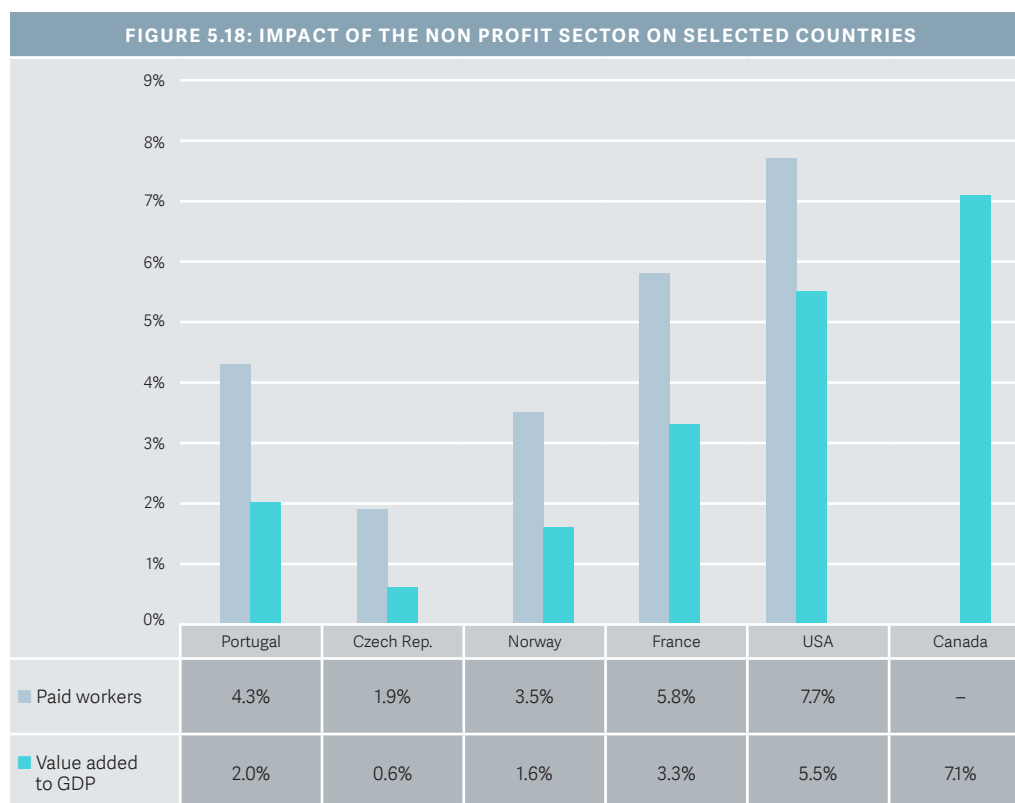
On average, the social economy organisations in every European country perform active and prominent roles in supplying "social services": this is, indeed, one of the three areas of activity of greatest importance in all countries apart from Sweden where this nevertheless stands as the fourth area of activity by number of employees (remunerated and voluntary). The social service, in particular, is the most important area of intervention among countries in Southern Europe (Italy, Spain and Portugal), where the non profit sector has historically stood in as a substitute for the state. While in France and the United Kingdom, social economy organisations dominate in the provision of expressive services (culture and education), in Scandinavian countries they take an exceptional level of relevance as political actors identifying the problems that require resolving – such as human rights violations and pollution – and raise awareness about them in the broader public.

TABLE 5.6: AREAS OF SOCIAL ECONOMY ACTIVITY (REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN COUNTRIES)	
COUNTRY	**KEY AREA OF ACTIVITY**
Italy	Social Services • Education • Healthcare Services
Portugal	Social Services • Culture • Defending Causes and Education
Spain	Social Services • Education • Culture
UK	Culture • Education • Social Services
France	Culture • Social Services • Education
Germany	Social Services • Healthcare • Education
Denmark	n/a
Finland	Culture • Defending Causes • Social Services
Sweden	Culture • Professional • Defending Causes

SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2004 (no data available for Denmark; Sectors of activity by order of importance of the employment provided)

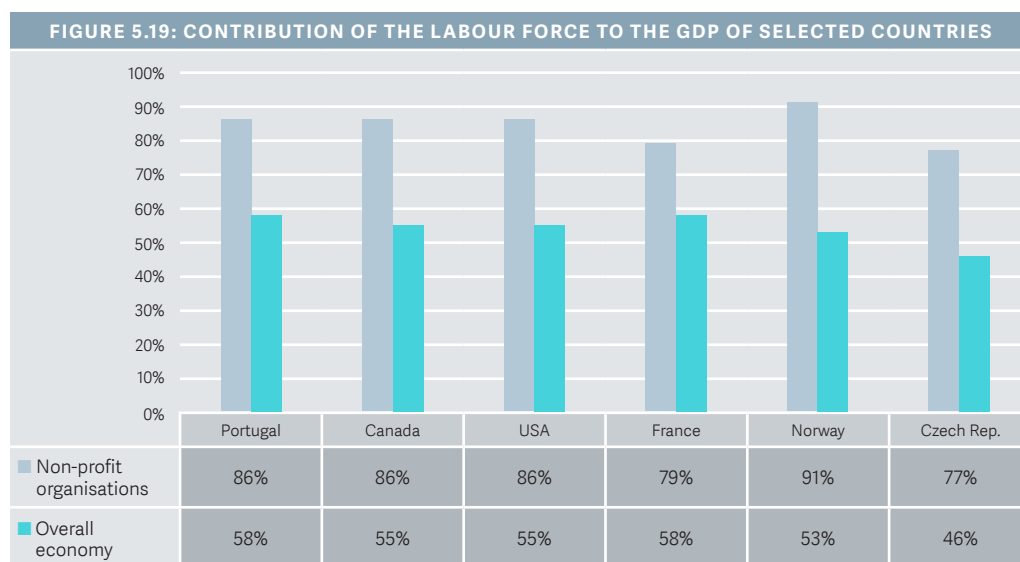## 5. PERSPETIVES ON SOME OF THE COMPARABLE COUNTRIES

The previous points to this chapter carried out an analysis of European countries. This final section is dedicated to the United States, Norway, Canada, the Czech Republic and France, countries of particular relevance to any comparison with Portugal taking into account the objectives of this report. For this analysis, we make recourse to the most recent data, from 2006, published by the *John Hopkins Center for Civil Society* (Salamon et al, 2012 and 2013) about the economic impact of non profit organisations (NPOS). The data on the scale of the sector, measured in terms of the numbers of remunerated employees in the sector and its impact on GDP convey just how much the sector varies between countries and is much more developed in North America (Canada and the United States) than in other European countries. This difference emerges out of the various paths taken towards development in the United States and as described in the first point in this chapter – where the provision of public service has historically been undertaken by non profit organisations – and the European countries – in which the state plays a role involving greater intervention in the provision of public goods and services. Nevertheless, compared with other European countries, Portugal reveals a very small scale non profit sector, which proves counter-intuitive given the strong heritage of the catholic charitable traditions alongside the country's long tradition of cooperatives.

	Portugal	Czech Rep.	Norway	France	USA	Canada
■ Paid workers	4.3%	1.9%	3.5%	5.8%	7.7%	–
■ Value added to GDP	2.0%	0.6%	1.6%	3.3%	5.5%	7.1%

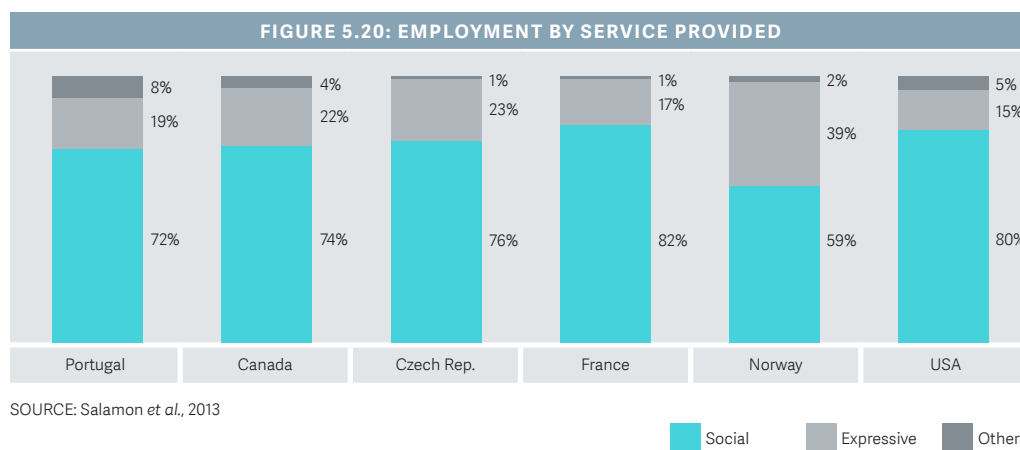SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2012. No data available for Canada.

In all the selected countries, the value added to GDP by the non profit sector is significantly lower than its contribution to total employment. This probably stems from two factors: i) the lower level of remunerations paid out to workers in the third sector in comparison with the averages received by workers in the selected countries; ii) restrictions regarding the generation of profits that require non profit organisations to inevitably reduce any surpluses in the operations that they run.

Irrespective of the low levels of remuneration received by workers in the non profit sector in all the countries selected, the labour force represents a very high percentage of the contribution of non profit organisations towards GDP taking into consideration the type of services provided and the intensive working logic underpinning these organisations.

FIGURE 5.19: CONTRIBUTION OF THE LABOUR FORCE TO THE GDP OF SELECTED COUNTRIES

	Portugal	Canada	USA	France	Norway	Czech Rep.
■ Non-profit organisations	86%	86%	86%	79%	91%	77%
■ Overall economy	58%	55%	55%	58%	53%	46%

SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2013

The final variable for analysis reflects the distribution of employment in non profit organisations by sector of analysis (social, expressive and other services). The data convey how in all countries under analysis in this study, the "social" services are the most widespread followed by the "expressive", with no significant difference existing between the various countries with the exception of Norway.[2]

FIGURE 5.20: EMPLOYMENT BY SERVICE PROVIDED

	Portugal	Canada	Czech Rep.	France	Norway	USA
Others	8%	4%	1%	1%	2%	5%
Expressive	19%	22%	23%	17%	39%	15%
Social	72%	74%	76%	82%	59%	80%

SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2013

■ Social   ■ Expressive   ■ Others

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[2] "Services" involves the direct provision of education, healthcare, housing, economic development and similar services. The "expressive" include functions and activities that provide means of cultural, spiritual, professional, etcetera, expression. These Include cultural, sporting and recreational institutions, professional associations, groups defending causes, community organisations, human rights groups, social movements and similar. The data is based upon an approximate distinction between these two types of functions as many organisations effectively undertake both of them.

The data referring to the sectors of activity report the predominance of social services, the main or second area of activity in all the countries analysed. In Europe, "culture" remains the other important area of activity while in the United States, the most important sectors are "healthcare" and "education

TABLE 5.7: AREAS OF NPOS ACTIVITIES IN THE COUNTRIES SELECTED	
COUNTRY	**PRINCIPAL ÁREA DE ATIVIDADE**
Portugal	Social Services • Culture • Defending Causes and Education
Canada	n/a
Czech Rep.	Culture • Social Services • Healthcare
France	Culture • Social Services • Education
Norway	Culture • Social Services • Education
USA	Healthcare • Social Services • Education

SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2004

Focusing our analysis on Portugal and the United States, three main differences emerge:

1) Non profit organisation revenue source structure
2) Cost structure
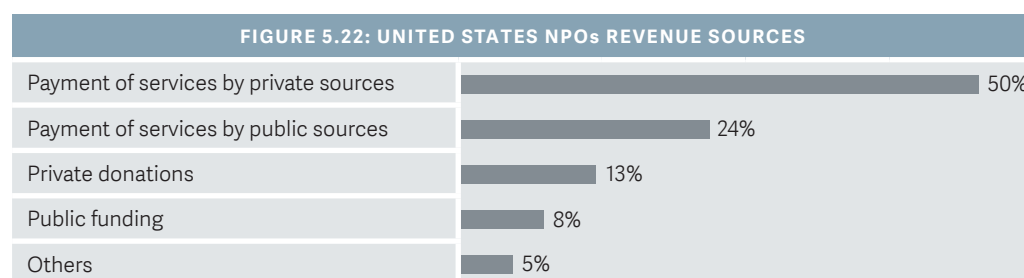3) Role of volunteers in non profit organisations

As regards the first variable– source of revenues – the United States returns a higher level of dependence on private donations than in comparison with Portugal, where, on the contrary, non profit organisations depend broadly on public financing. This difference proves in keeping with the different historical courses that the third sector experienced as regards the partnership between the state and non profit organisations in these two countries and their respective different levels of "commercialisation" as described above in the first point in this chapter.

As Figure 5.21 sets out, the financial sustainability of Portuguese non profits depends above all on public funding and member fees, which reflects the low level of "commercialisation" of the sector.

FIGURE 5.21: SOURCE OF PORTUGUESE NPOs REVENUES

Public funds	41%
Member fees	31%
Private donations	10%
Other (including payment of services)	18%
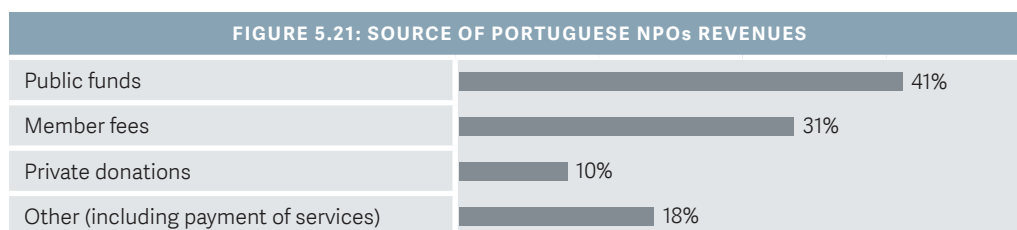
SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2013

As specified in Figure 5.22, the North American non profit organisations display a greater orientation towards the market than their Portuguese counterparts (and European organisations in general) and a considerable proportion or their revenues come from private and public sources for services rendered while central government funding ensures less than 10% of organisational revenues and correspondingly less important than funding from private contributions.

FIGURE 5.22: UNITED STATES NPOs REVENUE SOURCES	
Payment of services by private sources	50%
Payment of services by public sources	24%
Private donations	13%
Public funding	8%
Others	5%

SOURCE: Salamon *et al.*, 2013

Analysis of the cost structure of the non profit organisations of Portugal and the United States clearly demonstrates that the former follows a far less intensive working logic than the latter or, at the least, the human resources generate a greater impact on the budgets of United States organisation than they do at their Portuguese peers. In effect, according to the most recent study carried out by the John Hopkins University (Salamon et al, 2013), in the United States, the labour force represents on average over 71% of organisational expenditure of non profits while "intermediary consumables", thus the costs of acquiring goods and services represent 29% of the sector's costs. In Portugal, in turn, this relationship is more balanced with labour costs accounting for 46% of total organisational expenditure at non profits while intermediary consumables take up almost 50% of total expenditure.

Finally, Portugal and the United States differ not only in terms of the relative impact of volunteers but also in the areas of activity they get involved in. In effect, whilst the volunteers in the Portuguese organisation perform above all tasks of administration and governance and represent less than 1% of national GDP, in the United States, their impact on national GDP is greater – over 1% (Salamon et al, 2013) – and in the main implemented in the form of administrative activities and the provision of care, which demonstrates how their role in these non profit organisations takes on a more operational character (Blackwood et al, 2012).

6. CONCLUSIONS

In summary of this chapter:

- In the United States, the third sector emerge out of a reaction against the European absolutism of the 18th century and the power relations between the state and the Catholic Church and thus constituting an ideal type of civil society liberal model in which a low level of public expenditure on the field of providing social services and social welfare – such as healthcare, education, culture and social security – has been associated with the vast non-profit sector financed not only (or primarily) by the state but also by private donations.

- In Western Europe, the social economy organisations – in the form of cooperatives, associations, foundation and mutualists – were already active and crucial in the field of social service provision prior to World War Two.

- Europe is home to at least four specifically different patterns:

- *Bismarckian or "corporativist" countries* such as Germany, France, Belgium and Ireland – where the social economy organisations have historically played an important role in the social welfare and healthcare sectors, almost always under the supervision and with the financial support of public organisms, in particular as regards the application of labour policies targeting marginalised groups that were otherwise rejected by the employment market.

- *Nordic countries*, including Sweden, Finland and Norway – where social economy organisations always played a secondary role and have above all focused upon representative activities and the defence of causes primarily due to the dominant role taken by public entities in the supply of public goods and services in the fields of education, social welfare and healthcare.

- *United Kingdom* – A liberal model in which a low level of public expenditure on social services interlinks with a strong non profit sector and high levels of voluntary activities in the majority financed by private funding.

- *Southern European countries*, in particular Portugal, Spain and Italy – With the end of dictatorships and over the late 1970s and early 1980s, these countries experienced high rates of unemployment and, given the inability of the state to meet appropriate levels of social service provision, the social economy organisations regained their role in the provision of public services, in particular in the social welfare and personal services sectors.

- Social services, especially, proves the most important area of intervention among Southern European countries (Italy, Spain and Portugal), where the non profit sector has historically replaced the state. Whilst in France and the United Kingdom, the social economy organisations dominate the provision of expressive services (culture and education), in the Scandinavian countries they take on exceptional relevance as political actors identifying those problems requiring resolution – such as human rights violations and pollution – and raising awareness among the general public.

- In terms of the legislation, the role of social economy actors such as cooperatives, mutualists, associations and foundations as legitimate private actors in civil society has been recognised in almost all European countries. However, not all forms of the social economy gain equal recognition, in particular the cooperatives (EU/CIRIEC, 2012, p. 73).

- The United States reports a higher dependence on private donations in comparison with Portugal, where, on the contrary, non profit organisations depend largely on public financing.

Some facts:

- The associations and foundations are the main "family" of the social economy in Europe, made up of over 2.5 million organisations (92%) and employing over 9.2 million persons in the EU-27, which corresponds to over 65% of employment in this sector.

- The social economy organisations display a significant impact on the European economy given that, on average, they provide employment opportunities for 6.5% of the active population for the EU-27.

- In Portugal and comparable countries, the impact of the social economy on total employment is far lower than the European average even while in all these countries the sector has recorded important growth over the last ten years.

- With over 250,000 employees, Portugal returns the largest sector scale as regards comparable countries followed by Austria and by Denmark.

- On average, the social economy organisations in Portugal employ 5.2 remunerated members of staff per organisation, a number slightly higher than the EU-27 average.

CHAPTER 6 Conclusions, SWOT analysis and recommendations

1. CORE STUDY OUTPUTS

As referred to in the introduction, the **main contributions of the output to this study** stem from its overcoming failures in the knowledge on NGOs in Portugal across the following domains:

- a **concept of NGOs** founded on **economic concepts** appropriate to this purpose and putting them into operational practice through a detailed classification of the activities and that considered NGOs in terms of their juridical statutes;

- a **database** consistent with this concept, purpose designed, and leveraged by recourse to a pre-existing source (the DES – Directory of the Social Economy) that spans the range of social economy organisations and under construction at the Catholic University of Portugal (Porto), a database that enabled the quantification of the **total number of NGOs and their distribution by their main activities, juridical statutes and location**;

- characterising the **internal structure of NGOs** in terms of their **mode of governance and management practices, human resources, equipment, financing, networking and relationships with public entities** made in accordance with a thorough and deep reaching survey of 153 NGOs distributed across all activities in which NGOs operate and across all national districts and then further supplemented by a smaller scale online survey of 350 NGOs in the Human Rights and Active Citizenship field and receiving a response rate of 20%; an econometric study on the factors influencing the financial sustainability of IPSS entities; and 10 specific case studies of NGOs in either the social field or with activities in human rights and active citizenship.

2. CONCLUDING NOTES

We shall not repeat the main conclusions stemming from the study's aforementioned products as such are available to the reader at the end of each chapter.

We would however again refer to how, as regards the total number of NGOs and their distribution, the results **are only valid** for the database of NGOs that we constructed, and on the date (25th September 2014) when we extracted the data reported in chapter 3. In the case of characterising the internal structure and the means of NGOs operation, the results **are only valid** for the 153 NGOs that we surveyed in person in conjunction with the remaining 65 NGOs-DH surveyed online and the case studies, we shall here note some conclusions that deserve due caution as regards their interpretation and the need for future study.

As regards the results deriving from the DES – Directory of the Social Economy database, this represents, by its inherent nature, a project under construction given that there are NGOs that are under creation whilst others suspend their activities or otherwise close down. To this come the errors and omissions that the database under construction certainly contains and shall continue to contain until subject to correction.

As regards the results deriving from the questionnaires and the case studies, one of the chapters cautioning over the interpretation and requiring further additional work details the **cost and earnings structures and underlying trends**. The results obtained convey sharp growth in the relative weighting of the CMVMC item from 2012 to 2013, to the point of overtaking expenditure on personnel. Further and better information is needed on this matter in order to ascertain whether or not this trend proves lasting or not.

The results obtained also point towards a reduction in NGO financing by private companies between 2011 and 2013 and coupled with an increase in own income and public financing. There are good reasons to believe that this has in fact been the case but, once again, further and better information needs gathering.

As regards the mode of NGO governance, the survey results are encouraging given that they portray the existence of **technical management** teams to which the statutory management delegates substantial responsibilities for decision making within the scope of daily management practices. The results are also positive as regards the existence of **strategic planning** processes and as regards the **participative ways** in which these processes take place. Once again here there is a need to interpret these results with precaution and seek out additional and deeper information so as to ascertain whether this trend is or is not general for the majority of NGOs.

Finally, there are two important domains to the sustainability of NGOs on which the questionnaires do not enable the provision of sufficient detail to better evaluating their contribution made to this sustainability. One relates to **volunteering**. It was not possible to quantify this type of work and then calculate its relative weighting in the total of work done by the NGOs. Thus, this also prevents any estimates of its equivalent in monetary terms.

The other relevant domain is that of **working in networks** and **partnerships**. It would be useful to deepen analysis as regards the nature of work ongoing in the networks and partnership in which NGOs report having participated. More specifically, it is important to discover whether or not networks and partnerships extend beyond the mere sharing of information or merely in compliance with the formalities required by funding applications that afterwards are then deployed on an individual basis or whether there are major impacts on the structure and functioning of organisations and the ways in which these mutually coordinate and cooperate.

Finally, and again on the restrictions in terms of time and the other resources available to this study, we would recall what has already been stated as regards the lack of scope for analysing important economic data on the NGOs sector based on the **employment and Gross Added Value (GAV) indicators.** Once again, this represents issues for which future studies are needed.

3. SWOT ANALYSIS – STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS

The SWOT analysis set out below results from the data gathered by the survey of the 153 NGOs and the online data collection process from human rights NGOs as well as the results arising from the case studies. The samples applied, deliberately small so as to guarantee the feasibility of data collection, served as an analytical basis designed as a both extensive and deep reaching approach to the themes in question and, while not enabling extrapolation to the NGO sector as a whole, provide many insights into that making up the reality of the institutions operating in this sector. The strengths and weaknesses are the results of the internal analysis of the NGOs studied; the threats and opportunities result from analysis of the environment surrounding NGOs both carried out by the NGOs under study themselves and complemented by the research team.

STRENGTHS

1. Management Bodies
- Participative management models: There are NGOs that describe positively their management models for fostering interactions between the different management bodies and between these bodies and all the organisational members to the extent that this deepens bonds between persons.
- Coordination between management bodies: Good coordination between the technical management and the board management is deemed fundamental to the success of NGOs as identified by some organisations. The presence of members of the executive structure

in the board (statutory), the holding of regular meetings between the board and the teams in the field, the existence of an intermediary figure (secretary general) to provide a bridge between the board and the day-to-day management of the organisation and a managing structure with representation of the diverse key organisational departments are some of the examples identified enabling the fluidity in the transmission of information (whether in a top-down or in a bottom-up direction).

- Autonomy in technical management decision making: The average-high level of technical management decision making autonomy reported by the NGOs may be a strong point even while this proves dependent on the competences of these respective managers, as well as the capacity of the statutory board to fully perform their functions of governance.

- Non-remunerated board members: The free of charge service provided by statutory board members represents a characteristics that facilitates their independence at the moment of decision making even while this would lead to the supposition that it is also difficult to require of them greater performance and availability given they are not remunerated for their functions. Various non IPSS entities accept members of staff onto the management boards, nevertheless this is very often deliberated on by the organisations themselves and, in keeping with best international practices, cannot constitute an outright majority.

- The existence of a consultative body is presented by NGOs as a positive facet even while there are few NGOs stating they actually run this type of body.

2. Management Practices

- Practices in the marketing field: The majority of NGOs state they focus on the marketing field (see, however, the weakness "marketing competences"). There is a great awareness as to the importance of promotion, communication and awareness to the success of the NGOs.

- Implementation of the quality management systems: The majority of NGOs with IPSS statutes have either already implemented or are implementing a quality management system. With this facet providing a good indication of the level of NGO management quality, this should however be considered with caution. The affirmative responses of organisation tells us nothing about either the results that have been attained or the certification processes themselves.

- Practices in the strategic planning field: The majority of NGOs referred to undertaking strategic plans and, of these, the majority monitor and evaluate their implementation. These results however do not prove the quality of either the processes or the results (see also the weakness "strategic management competences"). Some organisations display best practices in the drafting of strategic plans separate to the periods for electing their man-

agement boards and helping to counter a possible trend towards the strategy undergoing change every time the statutory board changes. There are NGOs that draft their strategic plans in a participative fashion to as to incorporate the involvement of all members.

- Practices in terms of planning activities/budgets: The majority of NGOs run activity plans and budgets but there remains questions about the effective utilisation of these tools deployed in the service of the effective and efficient management of the organisation.

- Participation of members: In the specific case of associations, there is positive recognition of member participation in the decision making process given this fosters their greater involvement even while the largest organisations and with more complex functional procedures display less flexibility in their decision making processes. The human rights NGOs reflect a strong focus on associativism even though they also report high levels of inactivity among their members.

3. Human Resources

3.1. Remunerated staff

- Identification and sense of mission: There is a sense of identification with the cause and a strong sense of mission among members of staff. This employee involvement in the NGOs stems from the missions of the organisations themselves as well as the fact that many employees are recruited from former volunteers and beneficiaries.

- Investment in qualifications: The last three decades have demanded that organisations strengthen the qualification levels of the technical staff, in particular in areas interrelating with the main organisational activities. The investment in training is deemed essential. This however remains insufficient whether in terms of the number of NGOs or the volume of hours of training each invests in.

- Performance evaluation systems: The existence of a performance evaluation system at 40% of NGO respondents represents a good indicator of control over activities within the sense of complying with objectives. However, only a survey analysing the design and the processes associated with evaluation systems would enable an understanding of their real impact on the activities of organisations and their compliance with the objectives and mission. Even at smaller NGOs where performance evaluation does not hold relevance in terms of career progression given the lack of scale, this evaluation serves to identify the priority areas for training.

- Awareness about the competences lacking in terms of management: The management awareness as to the competences requiring developing at their organisations represents an excellent departure point for investing in their development. In the top 10 of the competences identified as needing improving, the majority fall within the marketing and fund rais-

ing fields (for example, external image and communication, fund raising campaigns, managing and mobilising members) but also highlighting competences in terms of the strategic management (where we may include competences in monitoring the evaluation of results and impacts), and others associated with fields such as project production, the identification of funding sources and lines of financing and applications to European funding.

3.2. Volunteers

- The majority of NGOs already have volunteers (see, however, the weakness "Volunteers"). In the NGOs defending human rights surveyed online, one half did not report any remunerated staff and conveying the significant relevance of volunteers.
- Challenges overcome by some (but few NGOs) in managing volunteers: Some (few) NGOs shared knowledge about interesting experiences in terms of managing volunteers, which in such case represent strengths even while still non existent at the majority:
  · The training of volunteers proves fundamental to a good experience of volunteering.
  · Attaining regularity, attendance and punctuality of regular volunteer is deemed important.
  · The fostering of the autonomy of volunteers is also necessary.
  · The current and former volunteers enable an expansion in the network of contacts and potential benefactors as well as raising the profile of NGO activities.
  · The attraction of volunteers with technical and human competences of an appropriate maturity level is fundamental.

4. Financing and Mobilising Resources

- Sharing: Some institutions are already engaging in the sharing of installations (see weaknesses "Sharing").
- Diversification: Growing efforts by NGOs to diversify their sources of funding. At the human rights NGOs, the division of funding between three sources (public, private and own) was deemed balanced in contrast, for example, with the weightings returned by the questionnaire of 153 NGOs, where public funding displayed a far greater weighting, followed by own income with private funding representing only a small proportion. There is however a rising awareness as to the need to invest in the diversification of funding sources.
- European financing: Growing attention of some NGOs over attracting European financing even while the evidence conveys that this in the majority targets programs managed by Portugal.
- Own income: Growing awareness over the potential for boosting own income, transforming the enormous know-how in their fields of action into saleable services. In some cases, this awareness derives from the non-existence of alternative sources of funding, in others from the opportunities that social innovation and entrepreneurship have opened up.

- Pro bono business services: The provision of pro bono services by businesses (juridical and financial services, market studies, marketing and communication, etcetera) may make an important contribution towards the sustainability of NGOs as reported in this study.
- Donor loyalty: The loyalty of benefactors has been maintained through proximate relationships. Transparency in the provision of accounts and the communication of the results returned by the activities implemented proves fundamental to sponsoring loyalty. This is one of the areas in which few NGOs reported practical experience.
- International funding: Growing attention to fund raising in other countries (especially in cases where the NGOs engage in international activities).
- Rigour: Rising awareness as to the importance of rigour in financial management, rendered clear by situations of financial weakness that came to light in recent years while also due to the gravity of these situations and the accounting stipulations over transparency have ensured financial practices prove ever more essential to the process of sourcing funding from potential donors.

5. Relations with partner entities

- Networks and partnerships: The networks and partnerships are essential to bringing about mutual learning, the exchange of experiences and best practices and general collaboration between public entities and civil society. The majority of NGOs are involved in at least one partnership and one network.
- Partnership: Growing understanding of how partnerships enable the strengthening of responses and services with the sharing of resources leveraging synergies. NGOs have begun targeting private sector partnerships. NGOs have sought to drive the potential of proximate relationships with local councils and government entities.

WEAK POINTS

1. Management Bodies

- "Leadership" succession: while not as significantly as might be expected, the age of some NGO leaders, the time spent in management position alongside the investment in training potential (younger) successors have continued to attract attention. A great difficulty in finding motivated persons and with the availability to hold management roles was also reported.
- Consultative body: The majority of organisations do not run any consultative type body, which represents a lost opportunity to source additional knowledge, to network and to potentially access further resources.
- Some statutory management bodies still accumulate many different functions due to a certain informality or lack of management professionalism at NGOs or due to a still re-

maining lack of knowledge about the difference between the roles of governance and the management functions requiring delegation to the technical management teams. At many NGOs, there is effectively an inability or at least a difficulty in grasping the difference between governance and management, which become confused in the actual practices and thus contributing to mismanagement, the abuse of power, inefficiency and ineffectiveness, etcetera, etcetera.

- The general assembly and audit council tables lack a more proactive stance in their functions and comply only with their formal tasks.

2. Management Practices

- Strategic planning: In some cases, the strategic planning processes do not gain active participation or only minimum participation from the statutory management board, which holds the responsibility for determining the strategic working lines of the organisation with the work of drafting and implementing the plan carried out by the board and technical management teams.

- Strategic / operational interrelationship: It would seem questionable whether there is a full interrelationship between that set down by the strategic plans and the annual plans in which the latter get drafted without incorporating the broader and more long term orientations of the organisation.

- Private donations: Lack of experience of organisations in fund raising from individual citizens, with precarious levels of organisation and structuring in this area.

- On-line presence: Despite the many organisation that run sites and belong to the various social networks, these are very often not kept up to date and frequently failing to target persons interested in contributing, whether financially or through volunteering.

- Accountancy practices: Lack of mechanisms appropriate to reporting the accounts to society, members and employees. Above all, in terms of the donors, the reporting of accounts should include explanatory information as to the way donations were applied to the organisation or its activities and their respective results and impacts.

- Competences in the marketing field: Identified as one of the competences requiring development, indicating a low level or a lack of marketing skills, which greatly limits the effectiveness of actions, among others, in terms of fund raising (which includes the attraction of new members, for example). Furthermore, only a small number of NGOs report having strategic documents for this field (see strength: "marketing").

- Strategic management competences: The declared need to develop competences at the strategic management level, in addition to revealing how many organisations still fall short of the desired standards for this field, this may represent a sign that the undertaking of strategic plans remains at an embryonic phase in some of the NGOs that do produce them.

- Codes of conduct: there remain too few organisations that have either their own codes of conduct on organisational practices or subscribe to the codes in effect at the networks, confederations and platforms they belong to.
- Local interventions vs global visions?: Predominance of local interventions at NGOs (which is not inherently a weakness) out of balance with an appropriately global vision, for example as regards the sources of funding. There are international sources that NGOs are not aware of and/or lack the competences to obtain them.

3. Human Resources

3.1. Remunerated employees

- Lack of a sufficient number of staff at many NGOs.
- Recruitment: Difficulties in finding qualified workers, above all in the fields of management and marketing. Recruitment processes remain poorly structured and very often going unpublicised in the mass media.
- Risk of burnout due to the over-accumulation of functions, exhaustion or the psychological demands of the work carried out across all levels of the hierarchy.
- Salaries: The low wages paid to members of staff (even while the organisations add that any change in this reality falls beyond their control). The low financial capacity of organisations to integrate human resources working exclusively on fields such as public relations or fund raising. There also remains a low level of awareness as to the need for these areas to be included in the respective organigram and with members of staff purpose dedicated to these functions.

3.2. Volunteers

- Number of volunteers: Despite the majority of respondents reporting volunteers, these do nevertheless tend to be only in low numbers per organisation. However, there are organisations that consider they do not need volunteers or that their organisation does not prove attractive to volunteers (answers to the question as to why there are no volunteers). The comparatively small scale of answers reporting recourse to occasional volunteers (in comparison with those reporting regular volunteers) may convey a lack of understanding as to the distinction between these two types or an inability to recognise the value potentially stemming from occasional volunteers should all the associated processes be well managed (from their recruitment through to their management within the organisation). There has been a downturn in the number of volunteers (due to recession, for example). A decrease in the quality of young volunteers reflects some lack of maturity and multidisciplinary visions.
- Volunteer management skills: The need for NGOs to develop their skills and competences at managing volunteers. It remained unclear whether the poor experiences some organisations report stem from these management shortcomings.

- Structuring the field: Many organisation do not have this area formally structured whether from the perspective of attracting, recruiting, welcoming and training or from that of monitoring, evaluating and recognising.

4. Financing and Mobilising Resources

- Diversity of sources: Reduced diversity in the sources of financing.
- Precariousness of the financial situation of some NGOs.
- Members: The number of members is low and many are effectively inactive (for example, fees unpaid). The majority of NGO respondents indicate that their membership numbers will rise. This potential does generally exist at NGOs if we look to the reality of other countries (see, however, the weakness "marketing competences").
- Competences for project applications, especially for international tenders: These requires competences that most NGOs do not have and need to invest in developing. A large majority of Portuguese organisations do not know that there are international organisations accepting such applications and requests. The lack of experience in attracting funding from international foundations comes with low levels of competence in drafting such bids or applications in foreign languages.
- Sharing: Few institutions report the sharing of vehicles.
- Public funding: The NGOs perceive a fall in the level of public funding. Some NGOs display a large level of dependence on this source.
- Private citizen donations: The NGOs admit to a lack of knowledge on the private citizen donation market.
- Project financing: NGOs identify some problems interlinked with project financing that renders their work in the field dependent on the priorities of an agenda that may not coincide with their own. Some organisations find the entire application processes difficult and costly (in terms of time and resources). Those NGOs that make recourse to project financing state that this is more occasional and on an irregular basis.
- Treasury: Treasury management frequently proves a constant challenge both due to the irregularity and the unpredictability of income sources.
- Users: At some NGOs, there is an increase in the number of users unable to meet the payment for subsidised services.
- Agreements: Some NGOs experience difficulties in renewing their social security agreements.

5. Relations with partner entities

- Ineffectiveness: The non-operational effectiveness of some networks whether local or national in scale. There are partnerships that prove merely formal and paper based. Difficulties in managing the roles and personal relations.

- Public financiers: Difficulties in establishing a horizontally based dialogue with national public financing entities.
- Deficit in international partnerships.
- Companies: Difficulties in interacting with the business world from a mutual benefit perspective.

OPPORTUNITIES

- Federative structures: The growing competences of federative structures to influence the government level, especially in the social field.
- Africa: Economic growth on the African continent (for those NGOs that act or may act in this region).
- The sector in Europe: European legislation on the sector, legitimating it and establishing new international rules, also represents an opportunity for the affirmation of Portuguese NGOs.
- International partnerships and networks: The growing professionalization of NGOs at the international level, the rising needs of populations and the funding available and requiring collaborative working approaches open up opportunities for international partnerships and networks to Portuguese NGOs. The new communication technologies drive the potential for deepening and broadening these relationships at an ever lower cost in terms of both finance and time.
- The European funding available for the fields of innovation and social entrepreneurship.
- Society: Rising awareness of society to social problems.
- Companies: New forms of financing by the private sector. The social transformation is not a matter exclusive to either the NGO sector or the public sector. Since the 1990s, the concept of corporate social responsibility has gained ground and raised business sector awareness not only to the economic or environmental impacts but also to their social consequences. Recession has, however, slowed or halted some of the progress made in the meanwhile.
- Private donors: Low level of exploration of the capacity of individuals (private citizens) to give in comparative terms with other countries means this field has potential for development in Portugal.
- Employment market and personal self-fulfilment: Growing demand for employment at companies/organisations that provide beyond jobs a sense of personal fulfilment provides an opportunity to the best NGOs to attract young talents trained in the field of management and the economy to the detriment, for example, of classic business careers.
- The growing investment of women in a profession allied with the rise of women to management roles in various different fields also reveals an opportunity for NGOs and displaying the potential to ease the difficulties foreseen over management succession.

- Growing awareness in society over the need to contribute in some way – donations time, etc. – and across the most varied of age ranges.
- The new and rising needs in societies constitute excellent opportunities for the emergence of new NGOs or the reconversion of those existing NGOs with already expired missions (for example, childhood focused NGOs threatened by sliding birth rates may be "substituted" by those supplying third age services).
- The advance in information and communication technologies enables access to the best practices and new ideas that require developing whatever the global location. "Inventing the wheel is very often not needed, rather adapting it."
- New financial instruments, some with track records in particular parts of the globe, represent excellent potential opportunities for financing the sector (for example, impact bonds) to which NGOs and society should pay particular attention to their replication potential.
- High levels of life expectancy mean an enormous potential for volunteers at more or less advanced ages that NGOs should learn how to captivate and welcome into their institutions. This inherently requires an understanding as to the probable needs to adapt the scope for volunteering to the different ages and their respective capacities.

THREATS

- Growing awareness of users and the greater complexity of problems (this may also prove an opportunity for more capable organisations).
- Slow recovery from the recession: This may lead to a fall in public and private support. This may further hinder the attraction of volunteers unable to run risks in a difficult employment market. This may also harm efforts to obtain results from NGO activities, especially market focused projects that may see their levels of revenue fall off.
- Greater competition among NGOs over accessing funding.
- Tendency for the national public financing agenda to continue to favour welfare based projects.
- Tendency for favouring the large scale projects (and thus the large NGOs) and leaving out the small scale.
- Federative structures: With the exception of the social subsector and NGOs operating in the field of cooperation and development, in the remaining subsectors there are no clear signs of the development of federative structures with the capacity to influence.
- Legislation: The frequent legislative alterations hinder the definition of long term strategies in terms of NGO sustainability. The misalignment between legislation on the sector and its reality with signs of change in these terms (recent alterations to the IPSS statutes).

○ International competition: The fact that NGOs also act on an increasingly international stage may also intensify the international competitive for national funding, especially from the few but large national foundations and the largest corporations and business groups.

4. RECOMMENDATIONS

Taking into consideration the data gathered and the SWOT analysis carried out and with the reflection informed by accumulated experienced, we arrive at the following recommendations:

1. EMPOWERMENT OF MANAGERS AND STAFF

A range of different results presented over the course of this study demonstrate the resilience of NGOs as regards the chronic problem of financing the production of public goods that characterises their operational realities and only aggravated by the recession experienced in recent years:

· at the large majority of NGO respondents, employment has thus far stabilised or risen;
· effort to boost own resources and revenues have intensified;
· there was significant progress in the training of members of staff, especially at the undifferentiated level;
· implementation of quality management and performance evaluation systems.

Despite such progress, there still remains much ground to cover in terms of the **empowerment** not only of members of staff but also of members of the statutory management boards.

a. Training-action
What our experience of recent years has demonstrated over the various training programs for these organisations is that the most appropriate means for fostering capacity building so as to result in effective improvements to the performance of organisations involves **training – action** based upon the **participative** diagnosis of training needs. This serves to better identify these needs, responding to them better whilst also fostering participative management processes that prove highly important to the development of these organisations very commonly stagnating due to the excessive longevity of its management boards.

Effectively, success in compliance with the missions of NGOs proves strongly dependent on the active and participative involvement of all those engaged in the life of the institu-

tion (the management, remunerated employees, volunteers, beneficiaries and their respective families, etc.). It thus seems fundamental that, irrespective of the organisation adopting more or less informal management strategies, they put into practice methodologies that enable participation and proximity between all members of the organisation. And training-action programs have a proven track record as an effective incentive towards this goal.

Whilst the well-designed training programs, with periods of training that involve employees and management from various similar organisations may also prove a means of leveraging **partnerships and working in networks** between these organisations as some recent experiences have also shown.

The development of networking and partnerships proves crucial to the sharing of best practices (national or European), nurturing synergies, taking advantage of complementarities and sharing resources, broadening experience and knowledge about the field as well as improving overall service quality standards. This is one dimension which NGOs may increasingly look to as a means of rationalising costs and maximising the efficiency of their working processes.

There are also unavoidable **areas of training** as they prove essential to these organisations and indeed recognised as such by the majority of respondents: in management and strategic planning and in marketing and communications.

It is fundamental to foster training, adapted to the sector on the practices and instrument of **strategic and operational management** that may be deployed by organisations. Beyond the importance of grasping the principles of strategic management oriented towards a vision and a mission on which the strategic planning rests, it is above all important that NGOs adopt a strategic posture of constant attention to their surrounding environment and correspondingly leveraging the opportunities present while defending against the threats in a constant effort to improve the strengths and offset the weak points of any organisation. This area of training holds as much relevance to the managing bodies as it does to the executive or operational management.

The promoting of the NGO image, raising its profile and recognition in the community may generate positive impacts in terms of fund raising and sustainability. However, despite the organisations being aware as to this importance and given the other pressing needs in the daily lives of NGOs, the **field of marketing and communication** represents that which most needs investment and development.

This training proves fundamental both to the management bodies and to the executive or operational structures.

b. Interrelationship between governance and management and reappointing the management bodies

This area of encouraging the best possible interrelationship between the statutory bodies and the executive or operational management is another that requires investments by the NGO sector. To this end, there needs to be **more training**, in particular of management bodies, **on governance**, given that there are clear roles that need undertaking with the coordination of the executive or operational managers proving easier when they have a clearer understanding as to the extent of their functions and responsibilities.

Communication and interaction between the statutory board, the executive board and the teams in the field are fundamental. Some of the examples of the practices facilitating this communication (whether in a top-down or bottom-up direction) identified by the case studies are:

- The incorporation of executive members onto the board;
- The holding of regular meetings between managers and the teams deployed in the field;
- The presence of an intermediary figure (for example, a secretary general) who establishes a bridge between the board and the current organisational management;
- A directive structure with representation from the different key departments of the organisation;
- The attribution of different "responsibilities" to the members of the board is frequently referred to as an efficient means of organising and distributing these roles among the different board members.

The **reappointing of management bodies** is a question interrelated with governance that has already become a concern of some NGOs. At this level, this more effectively displays a need for national scale investment, for example, via platforms or federative structures that encourage younger participants to take up public service and engage in activities within the framework of NGOs.

2. SUPPORTING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF QUALITY CERTIFICATION PROCESSES

These processes, despite their demands, are identified as important factors to the development of service quality and differentiation as regards the competition. In order to expand their implementation to more organisations and more competences within their scope, this needs NGO empowerment strategies targeting this field whether in terms of the acquisition of competences or in terms of the resources necessary to implement these processes.

3. ADJUSTMENT OF PUBLIC POLICIES WITH THE DEFINITION OF INTEGRATED STRATEGIES FOR EACH AREA (FOR EXAMPLE: COOPERATION, HOMELESSNESS DISABLED PERSONS)

Different NGOs from different fields of action reference in the case studies how public policies tend to appear as a bundle of measures with a political agenda that does not always align with the needs on the ground. It is essential that the definition of public policies and integrate legislative frameworks prove appropriate and developed with the active participation of those acting in the field.

Additionally, fostering the interrelationship between the policing, criminal justice, healthcare, social security and education systems represents another fundamental facet as the tailored, effective and efficient workings of these systems proves fundamental to the good working practices of organisations.

It is also important that the projects agenda backed by public financing attains coherence, stability and reaches out to the needs present in the field. This should avoid any agenda that favours large scale projects that do not always contribute to truly empowering beneficiaries and communities and effectively excluding small scale NGOs.

4. FINANCING

a. Diversification in the sources of financing

Without any surprise, this study reports a clear unanimity among NGOs as regards what they consider to be their lead problem, difficulties in sourcing financing.

Beyond the fundamental dimension encapsulating the definition of policies that guarantees greater stability in public financing, diversifying sources of financing also proves essential:

- This requires emphasis on training and the development of competences in terms of applying to projects financed by public funds (national and European) clearly without this compromising or deviating the strategic intervention objectives of NGOs;
- Training and developing competences in the area of fund raising among private benefactors (in Portugal and internationally) as well as partnerships with the private sector. The provision of pro bono services by the business community may reveal an effective means of boosting the involvement of the private sector within the scope of corporate social responsibility. However, the greatest potential does seem to lie with targeting private citizen donors;
- Promoting the participation and the involvement of members especially as regards paying their fees and raising the image of NGOs both in the community and in order to attract new members;

○ Leverage the potential of own income through the launching of social businesses. This is an option for various NGOs for the near future even while still remaining at the reflection and maturing phase in the majority of cases.

b. Contractual public financing

The nature of the public good that characterises the essential production of NGOs justifies that they should be able to draw on public financing as an essential resource to their economic sustainability without ever ignoring the efforts necessary to complement this source with their own revenue streams and private financing (citizens and companies).

In the case of IPSS entities, there is a contractual regime in effect ("cooperation agreements") for public financing with these organisations periodically entering into negotiations through their representative entities and with implementation jointly monitored by both parties.

This regime has proven essential to the financial sustainability of these organisations and has not harmed the efforts applied to mobilise the contributions made by their users and private financial sources.

One very important aspect of this regime is the **predictability** in the public financing that the IPSS may count upon.

For the other NGOs, there is no similar existing system. That does not imply that these NGOs cannot count on public financing. They do make recourse to such financing and are even more dependent on the state than the IPSS entities. The difference stems from the lack of a contractual regime as in the case of the IPSS and hence other NGOs live with the contingencies arising out of not knowing whether or not there shall be programs with their criteria of eligibility, calendars and implementation procedures frequently not aligned with that which is most relevant to their development and burden them down with transaction costs that only hinder their sustainability.

Hence, consideration should be paid to expanding the negotiated contractual regime and monitoring public financing to other families within the NGO range beyond the IPSS subsector.

This does not involve any call for greater public financing but rather the better management of this financing.

Furthermore, we do not here refer to public financing meeting almost all or even the largest majority of NGO costs. This simply means that to meet a significant part of their expenditure, NGOs would be able to count on public financing that proves predictable, contractualised and monitored and financing that the respective organisation holds every right to within the scope of their missions to produce public goods essential to the general interest.

5. BOOSTING THE ROLE OF HIGHER LEVEL ORGANISATIONS (FOR EXAMPLE: FEDERATIONS, CONFEDERATIONS)

These structures bring about the unification of the diverse NGOs operating in a particular field under a single umbrella and collectively endowing them with greater power alongside other civil society institutions and state entities and structures. These unions may also play a fundamental role in the dialogue with political powers over the definition of policies for the sector and its diverse fields of intervention.

6. PROMOTING THE PARTICIPATION AND THE ORGANISATION OF CIVIL SOCIETY

Within an increasingly global context, difficult, dynamic, complex and demanding, there is a fundamental importance to the entire community developing a rising awareness as to social problems and that democracy reaches far beyond party political organisations.

7. ADVANCING THE DATA AVAILABLE AND IMPROVING THE EXTENT OF KNOWLEDGE ON THIS SECTOR

This study made some contributions towards the production of new and necessary data on the scale and composition of the NGO sector but, as aforementioned, these findings, given their current stage of development, do not enable any characterisation of the economic dimensions (remuneration employment levels, voluntary work, GVA, etcetera).

This scope is feasible based upon the work carried out here should, following this study, there be the availability to continue in investing in strengthening and deepening knowledge on this sector.

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