

THE PORTUGUESE NONPROFIT SECTOR IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

Raquel Campos Franco
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This important research project is the result of the combined and tireless efforts of researchers, data compilers, and analysts over two years, to understand the history, dimensions, and influence of the nonprofit sector (NPS) in Portugal. The project emerged through the combined vision and funding provided by four leading Portuguese foundations, which understood that the contribution of this vast sector to the social, economic, and political development of Portugal was largely unknown, and its potential greatly undervalued. The constructive forces of a vibrant nonprofit sector are essential to the balanced development of modern societies. This study will finally bring these forces to light, to be understood, fairly valued, and to be nurtured and reinforced for greater societal benefits than ever before.

We four foundations, the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, the Luso-American Foundation, the Ilídio Pinho Foundation, and the Aga Khan Foundation, are proud that we helped make this research a reality. The respect we share for the Center for Civil Society Studies of Johns Hopkins University in the United States, and its Director, Lester Salamon, who developed the research methodology, applied in many countries both inside the European Union and globally, gave confidence that this work would result in innovative, reliable, and valuable conclusions on the economic and social impact of the sector in Portugal.

The challenge for responsible leadership is now to understand how these findings and conclusions should be used to advantage,

how to unleash the forces of the voluntary sector, and how to mobilize and motivate towards greater public involvement in the nonprofit community. Furthermore, it is incumbent on us to continue to chart the growth of the NPS and institutionalize the collection of data as part of the national statistics collection process.

Our words of praise go to the work of the Project Coordinator, Raquel Campos Franco, and her team at the Faculty of Economics and Management at the Portuguese Catholic University in Porto. Her steadfast, professional commitment to this challenge, her knowledgeable guidance, and untiring persistence was our guarantee of full success in this project. We also wish to acknowledge the important contributions made by the team at Johns Hopkins, particularly Dr. S. Wojciech Sokolowski and Eileen Hairel. We are grateful to all of them.

**Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation
Luso-American Foundation
Ilídio Pinho Foundation
Aga Khan Foundation**

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A recent analysis of the nonprofit sector of Portugal carried out by researchers at the *Universidade Católica Portuguesa* under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project has provided the first empirical picture ever developed of this important component of Portuguese society.

Among the major findings of this study are these:

1. A MAJOR ECONOMIC FORCE

Portugal's civil society sector is a significant economic force:

- It had expenditures as of 2002 that represent 4.2 percent of the nation's gross domestic product (GDP);
- It engages the energies of nearly a quarter million full-time equivalent workers, two thirds (70 percent) in paid positions and the remainder as volunteers;
- Nonprofit organizations thus employ more people in Portugal than a number of sizable industries, such as utilities and transportation.

2. ON A PAR WITH SPAIN AND ITALY

- The nonprofit workforce in Portugal, at 4.0 percent of the economically active population, is smaller than the 4.5 percent average for the 38 countries on which data are available, and well below the average for most Western European countries;

- However, the Portuguese nonprofit workforce is roughly equivalent in size to that in neighboring Spain and Italy and significantly above that in the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

3. SOCIAL SERVICE PREDOMINANCE

- Most (60 percent) of the nonprofit workforce in Portugal is engaged in service functions, which is similar to most other countries;
- However, a far larger proportion of the nonprofit workforce in Portugal is engaged in providing social services (48 percent) and far smaller proportions in providing health or education services, than is the case internationally;
- In addition to its service functions, a substantial proportion of the Portuguese civil society organization workforce is also involved in expressive activities, such as culture, arts, recreation, and civic participation.

4. FEES AND GOVERNMENT SUPPORT THE MAJOR SOURCES OF REVENUE

- Close to half (48 percent) of the revenue of Portuguese nonprofit organizations comes from fees and sales, followed closely by public sector support (40 percent);
- Philanthropy accounts for only 12 percent of the revenue.

- With volunteering included and treated as a form of philanthropy, the philanthropic share of total nonprofit revenue in Portugal climbs to 21 percent, still well behind fees and government support.

5. A RICH HISTORY OF CIVIL SOCIETY ACTIVITY

- These features of the Portuguese civil society sector reflect the country's long history of civil society development.
- This history has been influenced by four major impulses—first, the country's Roman Catholic heritage; second, its long tradition of mutuality and self-help; third, its equally long history of authoritarian political control; and fourth, its recent democratic transition, which has led to a growing reliance of state agencies on private nonprofit groups.

6. CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE

- Although democracy has recently stimulated the development of nonprofit institutions in Portugal, their influence has been confined to a relatively narrow field of activity, primarily provision of social services.
- This sector, therefore, faces a number of critical challenges:
 - Increasing public awareness;
 - Strengthening the legal framework;
 - Improving civil society capacity; and,
 - Improving government–nonprofit relations.

A full copy of this report is also available online at <http://www.jhu.edu/ccss/cnp>.

The Portuguese civil society sector has roots dating back nearly a millennium. Early monarchs and Roman Catholic Church leaders created and supported a wide array of charitable institutions, and later the Portuguese maritime ventures introduced new forms of civil society activity. With the Industrial Revolution, new mutual associations emerged to address the needs of people affected by major socio-economic and societal changes. Through it all, however, Portuguese civil society organizations operated within the constraints of a paternalistic social regime featuring a close alliance among Church, state, and rural elites. This kept civil society confined to essentially assistance activities through much of its history, except for a brief liberal interlude in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. With the rise of the Salazar regime in 1926, the operations of civil society organizations were again confined, though the overthrow of this regime in the early 1970s has opened the way for a surge of nonprofit activity. As a consequence, Portugal has a civil society sector that, while smaller than its counterparts elsewhere in Western Europe, is substantially larger than its counterparts in many of the countries of Central and Eastern

Europe with which Portugal shares a recent history of authoritarian control.

These findings emerge from a body of work carried out by a team of researchers at the *Universidade Católica Portuguesa* in conjunction with the Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies.¹ This work sought both to document the size, composition, financing, and role of Portuguese nonprofit or civil society organizations and to compare and contrast them to those in other countries in a systematic way. The result is the first empirical overview of the Portuguese nonprofit sector and the first systematic comparison of Portuguese civil society realities to those elsewhere in the world.

This report presents the major descriptive findings of this work in Portugal and places them in context in relation to the 37 other countries covered by the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project. It also outlines the major historical developments that shaped the contours of the sector, and discusses legal and political issues faced by the sector today. To do so, the discussion here falls into five major parts. Part I provides an overview

¹ The work in Portugal has been coordinated by Raquel Campos Franco (Faculdade de Economia e Gestão, Universidade Católica Portuguesa – Centro Regional do Porto). The Portuguese team was aided, in turn, by a local advisory committee made up of Paulo Gomes and José Mata (Instituto Nacional de Estatística), Vitor Melícias (União das Misericórdias Portuguesas), Joaquim Azevedo (Associação Empresarial de Portugal), Francisco Crespo (Confederação Nacional das Instituições de Solidariedade), Rogério Roque Amaro (Instituto Superior de Ciências do Trabalho e da Empresa), José Escaleira (Escola Superior de Tecnologia e Gestão - Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo), Manuel Canaveira de Campos (Instituto António Sérgio do Sector Cooperativo), Alberto Melo (Universidade do Algarve), Acácio Catarino (Consultor para os Assuntos Sociais da Casa Civil do Presidente da República), Emílio Rui Vilar and Teresa Gouveia (Fundação Calouste Gulbenkian), António Correia de Campos (Escola Nacional de Saúde Pública), Maria Lurdes Pintasilgo (Fundação Cuidar o Futuro), Rui Machete and Charles Buchanan (Fundação Luso-Americana), Angelo Correia (Fundação Ilídio Pinho), Nazim Ahmad and Nazir Sacoor (Fundação Aga Khan Portugal). The Johns Hopkins project is directed by Lester M. Salamon, and the work in Portugal was overseen by S. Wojciech Sokolowski.

of the general definition and approach that guided the work in Portugal and in the other countries covered by the Johns Hopkins project. Part II then summarizes the major empirical findings of the work in Portugal and compares the Portuguese findings to those in the other 37 countries for which data are now available. Part III briefly examines the historical factors that lie behind these findings. Part IV outlines

some of the most important issues and challenges facing this set of institutions in Portugal. Part V draws some conclusions from the data presented here and outlines the implications of the findings for public policy and private action toward the civil society sector in Portugal.

DEFINITIONS AND APPROACH: AN OVERVIEW

I

The collection of data on the Portuguese nonprofit sector presented here proceeded within the framework of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project (CNP). The aim of this project has been to close the gaps in basic knowledge that have long existed about the nonprofit, or civil society, sector not only in Portugal, but throughout the world, and to shed light on the reasons for the significant disparities that exist in the size, composition, financing, and role of these organizations in various countries and regions. To do this, the project has recruited Local Associates in more than 40 countries and formulated a common set of definitions and methodological approaches designed to yield a systematic body of comparative data about this set of organizations in these different national settings. Because the work in Portugal was guided in part by the conceptual and methodological approaches developed in previous phases of the CNP project, it may be useful to review these approaches briefly and determine whether they fit with Portuguese circumstances.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS COMPARATIVE NONPROFIT SECTOR PROJECT ²

Defining the nonprofit sector. To be able to compare Portuguese nonprofit sector realities to those elsewhere in a reliable way,

the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project began by formulating a common definition of the entities this sector contains. For a variety of reasons, none of the existing definitions of the nonprofit sector—which focus, respectively, on the sources of organizational income, on legal status, and on organizational purposes—seemed appropriate for the kind of cross-national analysis we were conducting.³ Accordingly, we adopted an inductive approach to defining the civil society sector, building up our definition from the actual experiences of the broad range of countries embraced within our project. In particular, we first solicited from our Local Associates, including those in Portugal, a roadmap of the kinds of entities that would reasonably be included in the nonprofit or civil society sector in their respective countries. We then lined these roadmaps up against each other to see where they overlapped and identified the basic characteristics of the entities that fell into this overlapping area. Finally, we made note of the “gray areas” that existed on the fringes of this core concept and created a process for Local Associates to consult with us to determine how to treat entities that occupied these gray areas.

Out of this process emerged a consensus on five structural-operational features that defined the entities at the center of our con-

² This section draws heavily on Lester M. Salamon, S. Wojciech Sokolowski, and Regina List, “Global Civil Society: An Overview,” in Lester M. Salamon, S. Wojciech Sokolowski and Associates, *Global Civil Society: Dimensions of the Nonprofit Sector*, Volume Two (Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press, 2004), 1- 60.

³ For further detail on these alternative definitions and their limitations, see: Lester M. Salamon and Helmut K. Anheier, “In Search of the Nonprofit Sector: The Question of Definitions,” in Lester M. Salamon and Helmut K. Anheier, eds., *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: A Cross-national Analysis* (Manchester, U.K.: Manchester University Press, 1997).

cern. For the purpose of this project, therefore, we defined the civil society sector as composed of entities that are:

- *Organized*, i.e., they have some structure and regularity to their operations, as reflected in regular meetings, a membership, and some structure of procedures for making decisions that participants recognize as legitimate, whether or not they are formally constituted or legally registered. This means that our definition embraces informal groups as well as formally registered ones.
- *Private*, i.e., they are institutionally separate from the government, even though they may receive support from governmental sources. This feature differentiates our approach from economic definitions since these definitions exclude organizations from the civil society sector if they receive significant public sector support.
- *Not profit-distributing*, i.e., they are not primarily commercial in purpose and do not distribute profits to a set of directors, stockholders, or managers. Civil society organizations can generate “profits” in the course of their operations, but any such surpluses must be reinvested in the objectives of the organization. This criterion serves as a proxy for the “public purpose” criterion used in some definitions of civil society, but it does so without having to specify in advance and for all countries what valid “public purposes” are. Rather, it leaves these decisions to the people involved on the theory that if there are people in a country who voluntarily support an organization without hope of receiving

a share of any profit the organization generates, this is strong evidence that they must see some public purpose to the organization. This criterion also usefully differentiates civil society organizations from for-profit businesses.

- *Self-governing*, i.e., they have their own mechanisms for internal governance, are able to cease operations on their own authority, and are fundamentally in control of their own affairs.
- *Voluntary*, i.e., membership, participation, or contributions of time or money is not legally required, a condition of citizenship, determined by birth, or otherwise compulsory or coerced. As noted above, this criterion also helps relate our definition to the concept of public purpose, but in a way that allows each country’s citizens to define for themselves what they consider to be a valid public purpose by virtue of their decisions to take part on their own initiative in the organizations affected.

These five features define a civil society sector that is quite broad, encompassing *informal* as well as *formal* organizations, religious as well as *secular* organizations,⁴ organizations with paid staff and those staffed in whole or in part by volunteers, and organizations performing essentially expressive functions—such as advocacy, cultural expression, community organizing, environmental protection, human rights, religion, representation of interests, and political expression—as well as those performing essentially service functions—such as the provision of health, education, or welfare

⁴ Religious organizations can take at least two different forms: (1) places of religious worship, and (2) service organizations such as schools and hospitals with a religious affiliation. Both of these are included within the project’s definition of a civil society organization, though where it was possible to differentiate the two, the religiously affiliated service organizations were grouped together with other service organizations in the relevant field and the religious worship organizations treated separately. Not all countries were able to collect information on the religious worship organizations, however.

services. Obviously, like any definition, this one cannot eliminate all gray areas or borderline cases. As these have been identified, efforts have been made to interpret them in the context of the basic thrust of the definition, and clarifications have been issued as appropriate. Thus, for example, the “non-profit-distributing” criterion was included to differentiate civil society organizations from private business firms, as well as from the large-scale cooperative and mutual enterprises that dominate the banking and insurance industries in many European countries. But when it became clear that this criterion inadvertently threatened to exclude as well an important class of community-based cooperatives serving essentially anti-poverty or social solidarity purposes in many countries, including Portugal, language was added to make clear that the latter institutions could be included.

Classifying nonprofit organizations. To portray the composition of this nonprofit sector and compare it to its counterparts in other countries, it was necessary to supplement this common definition of the civil society sector with a classification system for differentiating among them. For this purpose, the Hopkins project started with the existing International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) used in most international economic statistics, but elaborated on it to be able to capture the diversity of the civil society sector. Thus, for example, the broad health and human services category of ISIC was broken into a number of subcategories to differentiate better the range of health and human service activities that exist in the civil society sector. So, too, a special “development” category was added to accommodate the “nongovernmental organizations,” or NGOs, common in the developing world. These organizations pursue a broad range of development purposes and often utilize an empowerment strategy that blends service and expressive functions.

Out of this process emerged an International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations (ICNPO) that, as shown in Table 1, identifies twelve different categories of civil society organization activity. Included here are essentially service functions (which include education and research, health care, and social services) as well as more “expressive” functions (which include civic and advocacy; arts, culture, and recreation; environmental protection; and business, labor, and professional representation). Each of these categories is, in turn, further subdivided into subcategories (see Appendix A for a further specification of the resulting classification system).

APPLICABILITY TO PORTUGUESE CIRCUMSTANCES

This structural-operational definition of the nonprofit or civil society sector turns out to apply quite well to Portuguese re-

Table 1 - Internacional Classification of Nonprofit Organizations*

Code	Field	Code	Field
1	Culture and recreation	7	Civic and advocacy
2	Education and research	8	Philanthropic intermediaries
3	Health	9	International
4	Social services	10	Religious congregations
5	Environment	11	Business and professional, unions
6	Development and housing	12	Not elsewhere classified (n.e.c.)

* See Appendix A for additional detail.

alities. Consistent with this definition, the civil society sector in Portugal is very broadly conceived, embracing service-providing organizations that supplement or complement public services in such areas as health, education, and social welfare, and organizations that offer mechanisms through which individuals can join together to address community needs, participate in political life, and pursue individual and group interests.

There are sets of nonprofit institutions that are highly visible in Portugal, and clearly differentiated from both the private for-profit sector and from the public sector. The most frequently used terms to describe a set of these organizations are “solidarity institutions” (*instituições de solidariedade*), and “social sector” (*sector social*), although these terms are typically used to identify only social welfare institutions rather than the entire third sector as defined by the structural-operational definition adopted in this project.

Other frequently used terms include:

- “nonprofit organizations or institutions” (*organizações ou instituições sem fins lucrativos ou não lucrativas*),
- “social and/or solidarity economy” (*economia social e/ou solidária*),
- “nongovernmental organizations” (*organizações não-governamentais*),
- “third sector” (*terceiro sector*),
- “third system” (*terceiro sistema*), and
- “alternative economy” (*economia alternativa*).

More recently, the term “civil society organizations sector” (*sector das organizações da sociedade civil*) has been introduced, although its scope tends to be broader than that adopted in this project, as it may include private for-profit organizations. It is also common to find all the above listed terms used interchangeably.

The term “social economy,” widely used in the European Union, is also commonly used in Portugal, although it has more recently been enlarged to the term “social and solidarity economy” or just “solidarity economy.” Although definitions of social economy vary, it generally refers to organizations that are committed to the provision of public goods and services and operate with a spirit of solidarity and sharing. The major difference between the social economy concept and the civil society or nonprofit sector concept used here is the inclusion of mutuals and cooperatives in the former and their partial exclusion from the latter on grounds that they distribute profits to their members.

Quite apart from this terminological tangle, Portuguese civil society organizations take a variety of legal forms.⁵ These include:

- *Associations*, formed either under private law and specific sections of the Civil Code and in some cases also under the Public Utility Statute. They can be associations of voluntary firemen, consumers, students, women, youth, immigrants, environmental activists, and the disabled.
- *Foundations*, a type of nonprofit organization which is a relatively recent phe-

⁵ For a more detailed discussion of the major types of nonprofit organizations in Portugal and the Portuguese legal framework for nonprofit institutions, see Raquel Campos Franco, “Defining the Nonprofit Sector: Portugal.” Working Papers of the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project, No. 43. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Center for Civil Society Studies, 2005.

nomenon in Portugal, first recognized in the Civil Code in 1867. There are about 350 foundations registered in Portugal, of which approximately 100 are known to be active and operating.

- *Local Development Organizations* (LDOs), operating mainly in rural areas to empower disenfranchised people and territories. The legal form of the LDO varies and can include public, private for-profit, and nonprofit entities.
- *Holy Houses of Mercy (Misericórdias)*, Catholic Church affiliated organizations that are among the oldest nonprofit organizations in Portugal. The first *Misericórdia*—*Santa Casa da Misericórdia de Lisboa*—was instituted in 1498 and continues to this day albeit as a public institution. They concentrate mainly on social assistance and health care, although *Misericórdias* lost control of hospitals to the state in 1975. The Union of the Portuguese Holy Houses of Mercy (*União das Misericórdias Portuguesas*) is an umbrella organization that seeks to represent the interests of these institutions. There are approximately 400 *Misericórdias* in Portugal today.
- *Museums*, legally recognized as nonprofit-distributing institutions, though many of these are public.
- *Nongovernmental organizations for development*, private nonprofit organizations that maintain social, cultural, environmental, civic, or economic programs that benefit developing countries

(e.g., cooperation for development, humanitarian assistance, help in emergency situations, and protection and promotion of human rights), although many of them operate in Portugal itself.

- *Mutualist associations (associações mutualistas)* formed under the statute of Private Institutions for Social Solidarity (IPSS) to provide mutual aid to members and their families, financed essentially through membership dues.⁶
- *Cooperatives*, governed by a special Cooperatives Law.

Except for cooperatives, which are allowed to distribute profits to their members and therefore lie outside the scope of this study, all of these types of organizations meet the project's core definition. However, two types of cooperatives—Solidarity Cooperatives and Housing and Building Cooperatives—are specifically prohibited by law from profit distribution. Both therefore fall within the scope of this study.

The classification system widely used in Portugal is the Economic Activities Classification (CAE) based on the Classification System of Economic Activities (NACE, Revision 1), adopted by the European Community.⁷ The NACE system closely resembles the ISIC system described above. Therefore concordance between CAE, NACE, ISIC, and ICNPO proceeded relatively smoothly, following procedures established in the UN *Hand-*

⁶ For the purpose of this analysis, we have made a distinction between a “mutual” and a “mutualist association,” where the term mutual refers to an organization very similar to a bank or insurance company, and the term mutualist association refers to an association permitted by law to provide better benefits, not distribute profits. Because mutuals distribute profits, they fall outside the scope of this study, while mutualist associations fall within the scope of this study.

⁷ The CAE is based on NACE (Rev. 1), which is a 4-digit activity classification created in 1990. Codes in CAE are the same as in NACE up to the 4th digit, but may add a fifth digit to provide additional specificity.

*book on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts.*⁸

The ICNPO classification system was tested against Portuguese realities and found to work, especially in instances where data sources used the NACE system. However, due to some data limitations, it was not possible to fully differentiate the revenue of Portuguese civil society organizations by ICNPO fields. Consequently, the revenue data reported here are classified only into six of the twelve major ICNPO groups.

DATA SOURCES AND METHODOLOGY

In order to ensure a reasonable degree of comparability between the data generated on the civil society sector in Portugal and its counterparts in other countries covered by the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project, the work in Portugal adhered to the basic data assembly approach utilized throughout this project. This approach specified a common set of target data items, offered guidance on likely sources of data on these specified variables, and then relied on Local Associates to formulate detailed strategies for generating the needed information in each country.

In Portugal, four data sources were utilized. First, we commissioned a survey of households to capture the extent of private donations of time and money (for a detailed description of the methodology,

see Appendix B). Second, we drew on the Portuguese National Institute of Statistics (INE) File of Statistical Units (FUE – *Ficheiro de Unidades Estatísticas*) updated by a survey of nonprofit entities conducted by INE for the base year 2002. This survey provided data on paid employment by activity fields.⁹ Third, we utilized wage, expenditure, and revenue data on nonprofit institutions available from the System of National Accounts tables provided by INE. Finally, data on Social Solidarity and Housing and Building cooperatives were supplied by the *Instituto António Sérgio do Sector Cooperativo*.¹⁰

⁸ United Nations, *Handbook on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts* (New York: United Nations, 2003), 26–40.

⁹ For more information on the methodology, see Instituto Nacional de Estatística (INE), Departamento de Metodologia Estatística, Serviço de Ficheiros de Unidades Estatísticas, “Inquérito de Actualização—Instituições Sem Fins Lucrativos e Organismos da Administração Pública, Documento Metodológico Preliminar” (Inquiry of Update—Nonprofit and Public Institutions, Preliminary Methodological Document). November 2002. For the purpose of this project, public entities normally covered by this survey have been filtered out.

¹⁰ The Instituto António Sérgio do Sector Cooperativo is a public institute that supports Portuguese cooperatives in a variety of ways.

With the inclusion of Portugal, systematic, comparative data on the scope and structure of the nonprofit sector have been generated through the Johns Hopkins project on 38 countries. Included here are 18 advanced, industrial countries spanning North America, Western Europe, and Asia; 15 developing countries spread across Latin America, Asia, Africa, and the Middle East; and 5 transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe.¹¹ This gives the project a wide range of experience on which to draw to put Portuguese results into context.

In this section we examine the principal empirical findings of the Portuguese work and put them in context in relation to the comparative results generated on these other countries.

1. A SIGNIFICANT ECONOMIC FORCE

The public perception within Portugal is that Portugal has a “weak” civil society sector. The data generated here seem to confirm this perception, at least when Portugal is compared to other European Union countries. However, the civil society sector still constitutes a larger part of the economy in Portugal than is widely recognized. In particular, as shown in Table 2, the Portuguese civil society sector is:

- **A noteworthy contributor to national income and expenditure.** As of 2002, Portuguese civil society organizations as defined here had expenditures of over €5.4 billion, or US \$5.2 billion. This is equivalent to 4.2 percent of the nation’s gross domestic product (GDP).
- **A significant employer.** The Portuguese civil society sector engages the energies of nearly a quarter million full-time equivalent (FTE) workers (including those in religious worship activities), two-thirds (70 percent) in paid positions and the remainder as volunteers. This represents about 4.2 percent of the country’s economically active population (EAP), and about 5 percent of its nonagricultural employment. The value of volunteer effort alone,¹² estimated at €675 million Euro (US\$650 million), contributes more than 0.5 percent to the nation’s GDP.

Table 2 - The civil society sector* in Portugal, 2002	
\$5.2 billion in expenditures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 4.2% of the GDP
227,292 full-time equivalent workforce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 159,950 full-time equivalent paid employees • 67,342 full-time equivalent volunteers • 4.2% of the economically active population • 5.0% of nonagricultural employment
* Including religious worship organizations.	
SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project	

¹¹ As of May 2004, four of the five Central and Eastern European countries covered by this project, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia became the members of the European Union, and Romania is expected to join in 2007. We describe these countries as “transitional,” because the data we gathered cover the time period between their exit from the Soviet bloc and their European Union accession.

¹² The value of volunteer effort was computed by assigning to the volunteer hours an hourly wage equivalent to that in the field of health and social work (NACE, Group 85). For a discussion of this procedure, see: United Nations, Handbook on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts (New York: United Nations, 2003), 50. For purposes of cross-national comparisons, we convert all local currency figures to US dollars, using the average exchange rate for the base year.

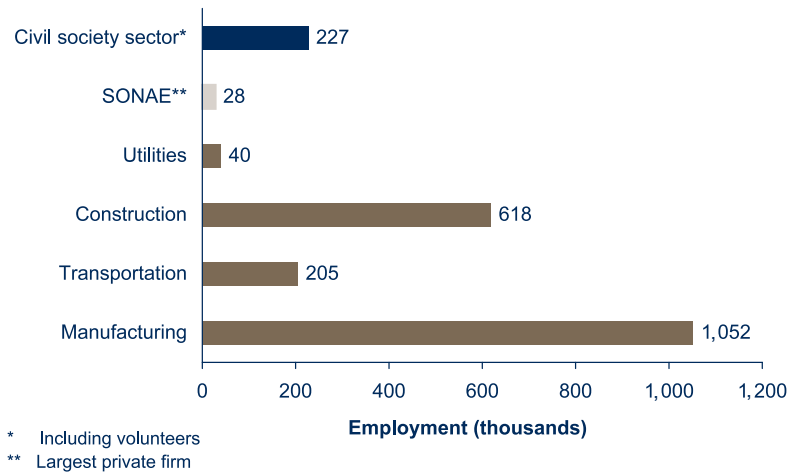
- **As significant an employer as the country’s entire transportation industry.** As shown in Figure 1, Portugal’s civil society sector employs as many workers as its transportation industry, nearly six times more than its utilities industry, and almost ten times as many people as Portugal’s largest private company, SONAE.¹³

2. SLIGHTLY BELOW THE INTERNATIONAL AVERAGE

Although the civil society sector in Portugal employs a significant number of people, as a share of the economically active population civil society sector employment in Portugal ranks slightly below the average for the 38 countries for which the Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project has generated comparable data. More specifically:

- **Below most Western European countries.** As shown in Figure 2, excluding religious worship organizations, for which data are not available on many countries, the civil society sector workforce—paid and volunteer—varies from a high of 14.4 percent of the economically active population in the Netherlands to a low of 0.4 percent in Mexico, with an average of 4.5 percent overall.¹⁴ The Portuguese figure, at 4.0 percent, is thus slightly below the international average and well below those for most Western European countries. However, the Portuguese figure is on a par with that for Portugal’s Southern European neighbors, Spain and Italy.

Figure 1 - Civil society organization workforce in context, Portugal

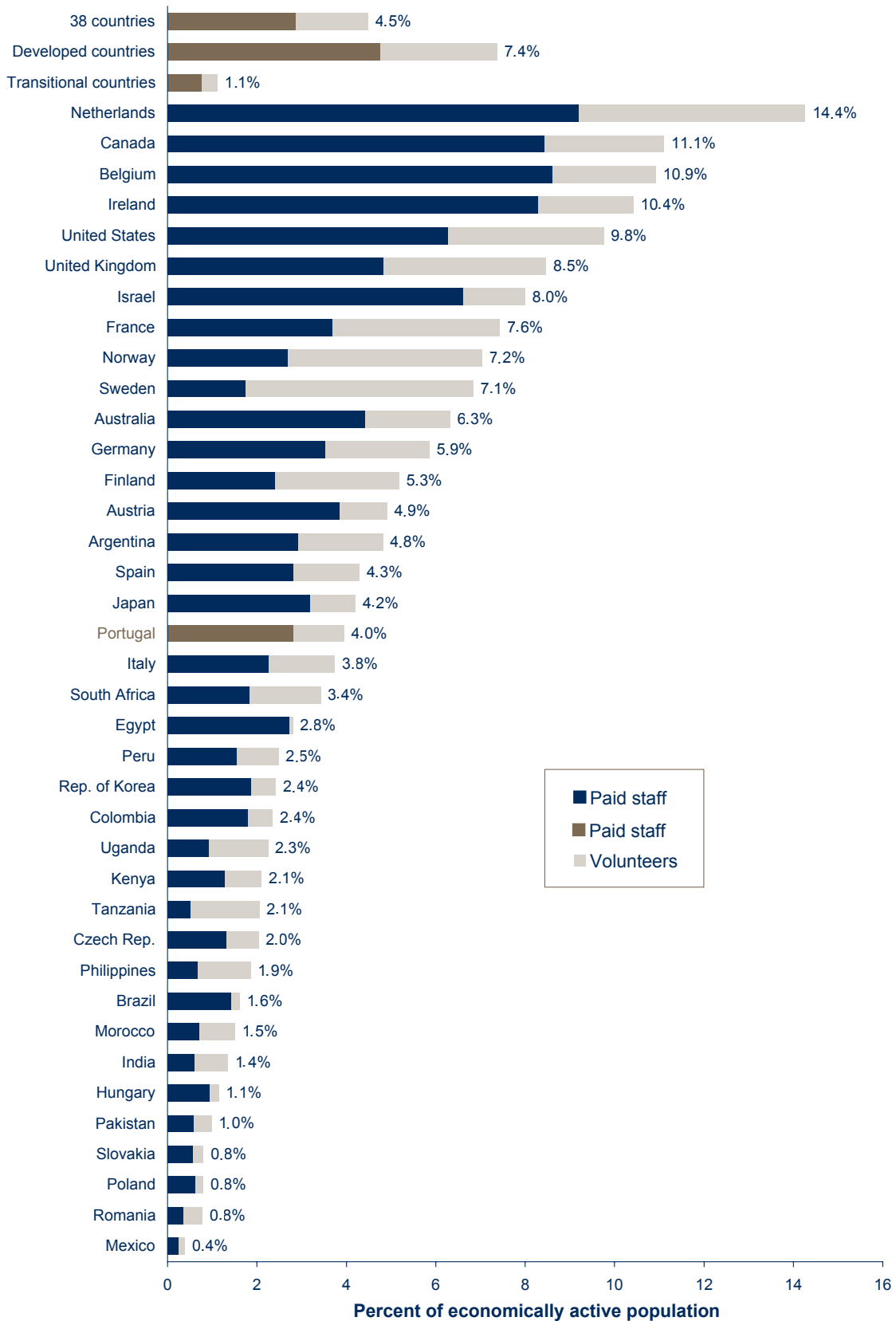


SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

¹³ The employment figure for SONAE represents the firm’s domestic employment only.

¹⁴ Although the comparative figures reported here do not include religious worship organizations (e.g., churches, mosques, synagogues), they do cover religiously affiliated service organizations (e.g., religiously affiliated hospitals, schools, and social service agencies). These religiously affiliated service organizations have been grouped together with other service organizations in the relevant field. The Portuguese data reported in the previous section do include religious worship organizations, but these entities have been excluded in the comparative data reported here as not all countries were able to collect information on religious worship organizations. For more information about the coverage of the comparative data, see Salamon, Sokolowski, and Associates, *Global Civil Society: Dimensions of the Nonprofit Sector, Volume Two* (Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press, 2004), Appendix B.

Figure 2 - Civil society organization workforce as a share of the economically active population, by country



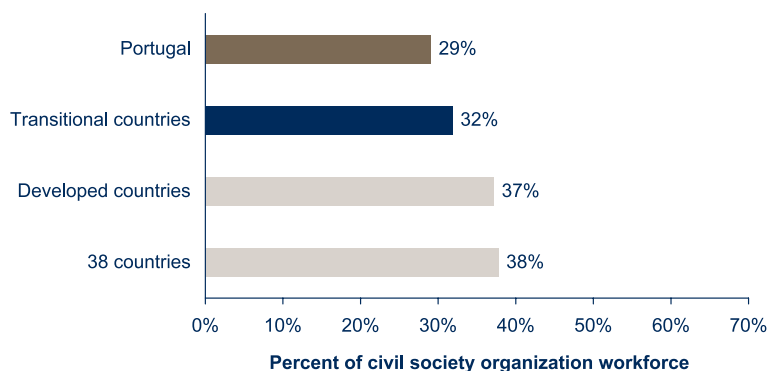
SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

- Significantly larger than the civil society sector in transitional countries.** Since Portugal shares with the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe a relatively recent transition from authoritarian regimes, which were hostile to civil society, it may be more meaningful to compare the size of its civil society sector to those in these countries. When this is done, as noted in Figure 2, Portugal turns out to have a civil society sector that employs over three times more workers than the transitional country average (4.0 vs. 1.1 percent of the economically active population, respectively). This difference is mainly due to conscious policies pursued throughout the 1990s, with European Union support, to stimulate the development of civil society institutions. This is confirmed by the fact that Spain, which returned to democratic rule about the same time as Portugal, has a civil society sector of a comparable magnitude.

- Volunteer share of civil society workforce lower in Portugal than in most developed countries.** The volunteer share of the nonprofit sector workforce in Portugal is lower than it is both internationally and in the other developed countries for which we have data. Thus, as shown in Figure 3, volunteers comprise only 29 percent of the full-time equivalent workforce of Portuguese civil society organizations compared to 38 percent in all 38 countries. Likewise, the absolute amount of volunteer effort in Portugal is also below both the international and developed country averages (1.1 percent of the economically active population in Portugal vs. 1.6 and 2.6 percent, respectively, for all 38 countries and the 18 developed countries alone). At the same time, the amount of volunteer effort in

Portugal is almost three times larger than that in the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe where it is only 0.4 percent of the economically active population.

Figure 3 - Volunteers as a share of the civil society organization workforce, Portugal, transitional, developed, and 38 countries



SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

3. STRONG PRESENCE OF SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

Civil society organizations are not simply places of employment. What makes them significant are the many functions they perform.¹⁵ For one thing, these organizations deliver a variety of human services, from health care and education to social services and community development. These organizations are well known for identifying and addressing unmet needs, for innovating, for delivering services of exceptional quality, and often for serving those in greatest need.

An equally important function of the civil society sector is the sector’s advocacy role—its role in identifying unaddressed problems and bringing them to public attention, in

¹⁵ For a discussion of these functions, see: Lester M. Salamon, *America’s Nonprofit Sector: A Primer*, Second Edition (New York: The Foundation Center, 1999), 15-17.

protecting basic human rights, and in giving political voice to a wide assortment of social, political, environmental, ethnic, and community interests and concerns.

Beyond political and policy concerns, the civil society sector also performs a broader expressive function, providing the vehicles through which an enormous variety of other sentiments and impulses—artistic, spiritual, cultural, ethnic, occupational, social, and recreational—also find expression. Opera companies, symphonies, soccer clubs, hobby associations, places of worship, fraternal societies, professional associations, and book clubs are just some of the manifestations of this expressive function.

Finally, civil society organizations have also been credited with contributing to what scholars are increasingly coming to call “social capital,” those bonds of trust and reciprocity that seem to be crucial for a democratic polity and a market economy to function effectively. By establishing connections among individuals, involvement in associations teaches norms of cooperation that carry over into political and economic life.¹⁶

While it is not possible to divide civil society organizations up neatly among these four functions, it is possible to group them into two broad categories for purposes of discussion: (a) *service functions*; and (b) *expressive functions*.

- **Service functions** involve the delivery of direct services such as education, health, housing, economic development promotion, and the like.

- **Expressive functions** involve activities that provide avenues for the expression of cultural, spiritual, professional, or policy values, interests, and beliefs. Included here are cultural institutions, recreation groups, professional associations, advocacy groups, community organizations, environmental organizations, human rights groups, social movements, and the like.¹⁷

Viewed from this perspective, the composition of the Portuguese civil society sector, as reflected in the distribution of its workforce by activity fields, is broadly in line with that found both internationally and in other developed countries. At the same time, it has certain distinctive characteristics as well.

- **Service activities dominate.** As shown in Figure 4, 60 percent of all Portuguese civil society organization workers, paid and volunteer, are engaged in service activities. This is slightly lower than both the overall international average and the developed country average (64 percent and 65 percent, respectively).
- **Social services more prominent in Portugal than elsewhere.** While the overall scale of the service activities of the Portuguese civil society sector is on a par with that elsewhere, the composition of these service activities diverges markedly in Portugal. Thus the social service component of the civil society sector in Portugal is twice the all-country and developed-country averages. Nonprofit social service organizations absorb 48 percent of the civil society sector workforce

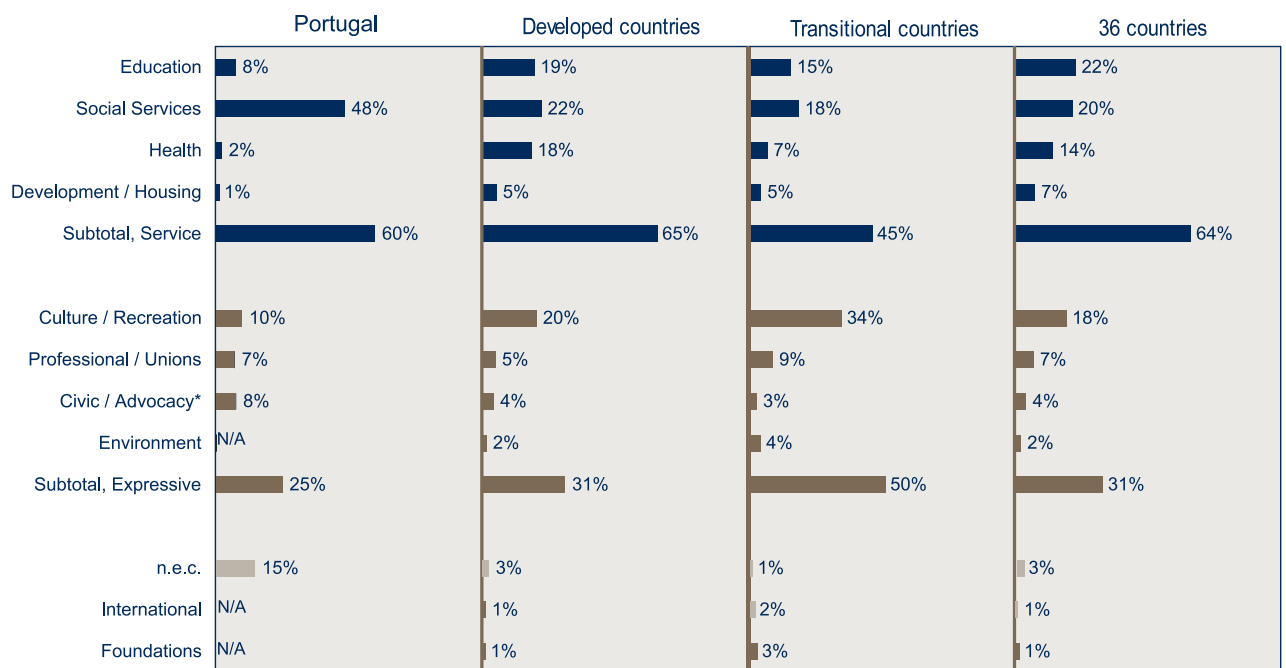
¹⁶ See, for example: James S. Coleman, *Foundations of Social Theory* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1990), 300-21; Robert Putnam, *Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy* (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1993), 83-116, 163-185.

¹⁷ Religious worship organizations are also included in the expressive category, but as already noted we could not include them here due to the limitations of the international data (these organizations are included in the Portuguese data report in Section I above). Religiously affiliated service organizations are included, but in the field which corresponds to the activity performed.

in Portugal compared to the 20 percent average in all countries for which we have data, and the 22 percent average in the developed countries. Although some of that includes community development organizations, which in Portugal are often difficult to distinguish from social service entities, this clearly indicates that the social service component of the civil society sector in Portugal is proportionately larger than elsewhere in Europe. As noted more fully below, this likely reflects the historical role of the Misericórdias in Portugal, as well as that of other welfare organizations that have existed since the nation's inception. Also at work, however, is the fact that health care, which in other countries is another significant component of the civil society sector, is delivered almost exclusively by the public sector in Portugal following the state's absorption of the management of Misericórdias hospitals in the mid-1970s.¹⁸

- **Somewhat smaller share of Portuguese civil society organization workers engaged in expressive activities.** Compared to the 60 percent of Portuguese civil society sector workers engaged in service functions, a somewhat smaller 25 percent of such workers, paid and volunteer, are engaged in expressive activities. This is below both the developed country and international averages (both 31 percent). This reflects the relatively low representation of cultural and recreational institutions in the civil society sector (10 percent in Portugal vs. 20 percent in the developed countries and 18 percent internationally) but also data limitations that prevented the full classification of 35 percent of volunteer time by economic activity. However, the data suggest that most of this unallocated volunteer activity is directed to the fields of environment and civic and advocacy, which would boost the expressive share to as much as 35 percent of the total workforce.

Figure 4 - Composition of the civil society organization workforce, Portugal, developed countries, transitional countries, and 36-country average



* Does not include volunteer input in Portugal.

SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

- **Paid and volunteer staff distributed similarly.** This picture of the distribution of the civil society organization workforce in Portugal does not change much when paid staff and volunteers are examined separately. As shown in Figure 5, both paid staff and volunteers devote about a fourth of their effort (27 and 21 percent, respectively) to expressive activities, while the remainder is devoted to service or unclassified activities.¹⁹ However, as noted above, most of this unallocated volunteer activity likely belongs in the expressive category.

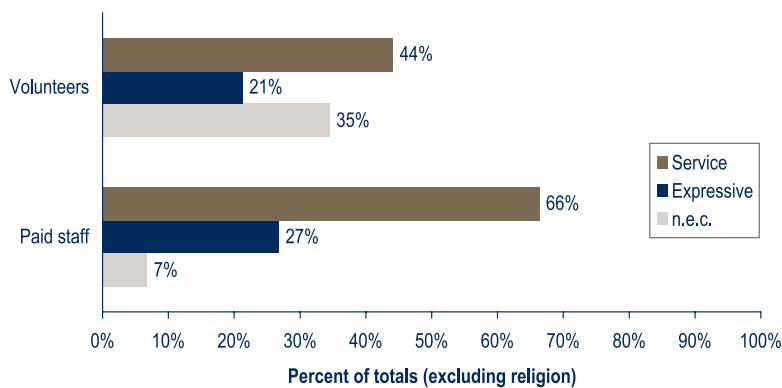
4. REVENUE DOMINATED BY EARNED INCOME

The revenue of civil society organizations comes from a variety of sources. For the sake of convenience, we have grouped these into three categories: earned income (or fees), which includes private payments for goods or services, dues, and investment income; private philanthropy, which includes individual giving, foundation giving, and corporate giving; and government or public sector support, which includes grants, contracts, reimbursements for services to eligible third parties (such as school tuition vouchers, or public health care insurance) and payments from government-financed social security systems that operate as quasi-nongovernmental organizations.

Earned income (fees and sales) is the dominant source of civil society organization revenue in Portugal, followed closely by public sector support.²⁰ Philanthropy, by contrast, is a distant third. More specifically:

- **Earned income.** Nearly half (48 percent) of all civil society sector revenue in Portugal comes from service fees and sales, as shown in Figure 6.
- **Government support.**²¹ Government grants and contracts account for another 40 percent of civil society sector revenue in Portugal. This reflects mostly the gov-

Figure 5 - Distribution of paid employees and volunteers between service and expressive activities in Portugal



SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

¹⁸ Although some of the Misericórdias were given back through Law Decree n. 489/82, of 28 December 1981, a significant portion of Misericórdias remain as part of the state health care network today as hospitals and health centers.

¹⁹ Volunteer effort reported here could only be allocated into eight of the twelve major ICNPO groups: education, social services, health, development and housing, culture and recreation, professional organizations and unions, religion, and not elsewhere classified (n.e.c.). However, when religion is included, the n.e.c. accounts for 32 percent of volunteer time by economic activity.

²⁰ In contrast to other countries, we were unable to separate revenue of entities in the religion field from those in other service fields in Portugal due to data limitations. This slightly elevates the share of private philanthropy while decreasing the share of government support in Portugal vis-à-vis the international data, which do not cover revenue in the religion field. However, the discrepancy is minimal, most likely about 1 percentage point.

²¹ This figure slightly underestimates the level of government support, because due to data limitations we were unable to disaggregate government purchases from nonprofit sales revenue.

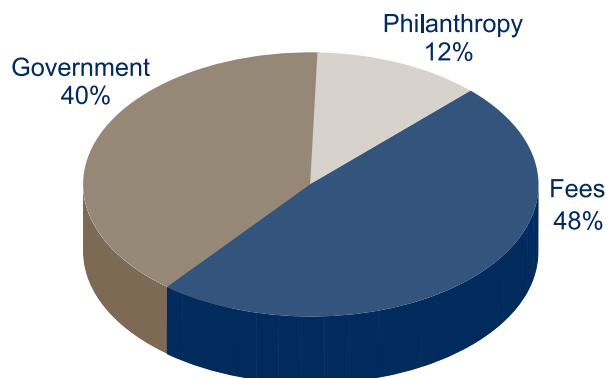
ernment’s reliance on nonprofit organizations in social service provision, as well as the heavy public-sector support to the private health and education institutions that exist.

- **Private philanthropy.** Only 12 percent of total civil society organization income in Portugal comes from private philanthropy. This figure would be even smaller if religious organizations were excluded, as in other countries.

- **A “transitional pattern”?** This pattern of civil society organization revenue in Portugal falls midway between that found in developed countries and the average for all countries on which data are available. As Figure 7 shows, the share of earned income is somewhat higher in Portugal than in other developed countries, but lower than the international average (48 percent for Portugal, vs. 44 percent and 53 percent for developed countries and all countries, respectively). Conversely, the government share of support is lower in Portugal than in the developed countries, but higher than the international average (40 percent vs. 48 percent and 35 percent). The share of private philanthropy in Portugal is the same as the international average (12 percent), but substantially higher than the developed country average (8 percent). Put somewhat differently, Portuguese civil society organizations have greater access to government support than their counterparts in the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe, but less access than their counterparts in developed countries. To make up for this, they must rely more heavily on fees than their developed country counterparts, though less heavily than their counterparts in transitional countries.

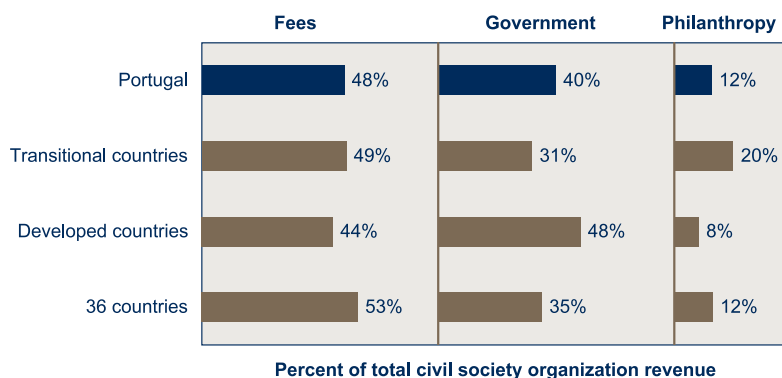
- **Revenue structure varies among fields.** Although our data on the revenue structure of separate activity fields

Figure 6 - Sources of civil society organization revenue in Portugal



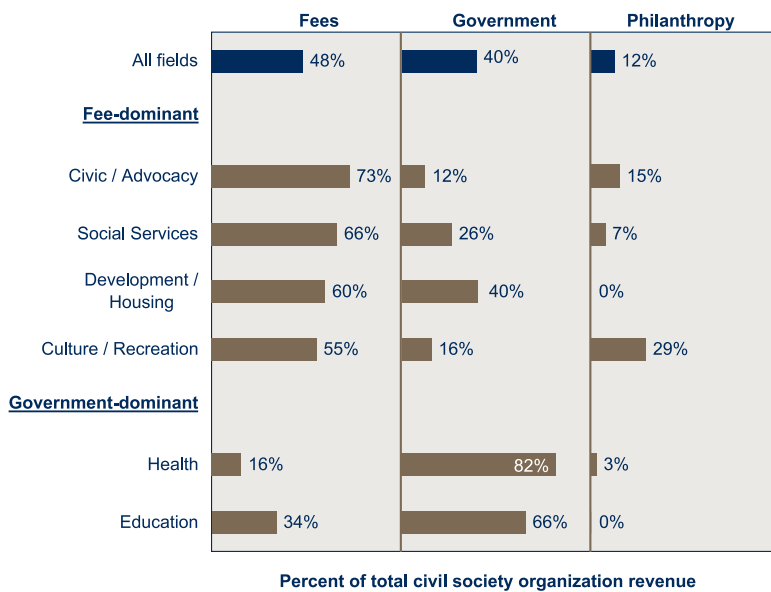
SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

Figure 7 - Sources of civil society organization revenue, Portugal, transitional countries, developed countries, and 36-country average



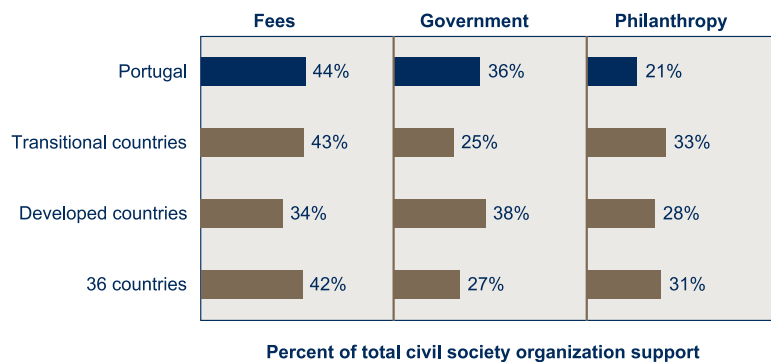
SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

Figure 8 - Sources of civil society organization revenue, Portugal, by field



SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

Figure 9 - Sources of civil society organization support including volunteers, Portugal, transitional, developed, and 36-country average



SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

are limited, different patterns of funding are still visible. In two fields, health and education, a government-dominant funding pattern is evident, in which the majority of funds (82 and 66 percent of all revenue, respectively) come from public sector payments (see Figure 8). In the remaining four fields for which we have data (civic and advocacy, social services, development and housing, and culture and recreation) a fee-dominant pattern is evident, with fees accounting for 73 percent, 66 percent, 60 percent, and 55 percent of revenue, respectively. None of the fields derive most of their income from private philanthropy.²²

- **Volunteers significantly change the revenue structure.** This picture of nonprofit sector revenue changes substantially when the value of volunteer input is included and treated as part of philanthropy. As Figure 9 demonstrates, the value of volunteer time nearly doubles the share of private philanthropy from 12 to 21 percent. However, even with the value of volunteering included, philanthropy still ranks third among the major sources of civil society sector revenue in Portugal; and the Portuguese figure remains below the developed country average (21 percent vs. 28 percent).

5. PORTUGAL VS. REGIONAL PATTERNS OF CIVIL SOCIETY CHARACTERISTICS

The portrait of the Portuguese civil society sector that emerges from these data suggests that Portugal’s nonprofit sector shares a number of characteristics with those in a group of countries that we have termed the “welfare partnership model”—one of eight patterns of the civil society sector that we have identified in

²² Religion may be an exception to this pattern, however, we are not able to back it with any data at this time.

our research (see Table 3 and Appendix C). Included within this pattern are many of the major welfare states of Europe—the Netherlands, Belgium, France, Germany, and Ireland—as well as Israel and Canada. As Table 3 shows, the countries in this grouping share the following civil society sector features:

- A relatively large civil society organization workforce;
- More extensive paid staff than volunteer staff;
- A decided service orientation to civil society employment, focusing particularly on basic social welfare services—health, education, and social services; and
- Extensive government support for civil society operations.

Table 3 - Portugal vs. regional patterns of civil society sector's characteristics

	Portugal	Welfare partnership	Anglo - Saxon	Nordic	Latin America	Asian industrialized	Central and Eastern Europe	Africa	Other developing	All countries*
Workforce ¹										
FTE paid	2.8%	5.5%	5.2%	2.3%	1.6%	2.5%	0.8%	1.1%	1.1%	2.9%
FTE volunteers	1.1%	2.3%	3.0%	4.1%	0.7%	0.8%	0.4%	1.3%	0.6%	1.6%
FTE total	4.0%	7.8%	8.2%	6.5%	2.3%	3.3%	1.1%	2.5%	1.7%	4.5%
Composition of workforce ^{2, 4}										
Service	60%	72%	69%	34%	74%	78%	45%	60%	75%	64%
Expressive	25%	24%	27%	64%	24%	15%	50%	29%	23%	31%
Other	15%	4%	3%	3%	2%	7%	5%	12%	2%	5%
Cash revenues										
As percent of total nonprofit cash revenues ³										
Fees	48%	37%	55%	59%	74%	62%	49%	55%	65%	53%
Government	40%	55%	36%	33%	15%	35%	31%	21%	16%	35%
Philanthropy	12%	8%	9%	7%	10%	3%	20%	24%	20%	12%
As percent of GDP										
Fees	2%	2%	4%	3%	2%	3%	1%	2%	1%	2%
Government	2%	4%	2%	1%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%
Philanthropy	1%	1%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%
Total support (with volunteers)										
As percent of total nonprofit cash and volunteer support ³										
Fees	44%	30%	44%	35%	67%	56%	43%	41%	44%	42%
Government	36%	45%	29%	20%	14%	32%	25%	14%	11%	27%
Philanthropy	21%	25%	26%	45%	19%	13%	33%	46%	45%	31%
As percent of GDP										
Fees	2%	2%	4%	3%	2%	3%	1%	2%	1%	2%
Government	2%	4%	2%	1%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	2%
Philanthropy	1%	2%	2%	3%	1%	1%	1%	2%	1%	1%

* Workforce: 38 countries; composition: 35 countries; revenues and total support: 36 countries

1 As percent of economically active population

2 As percent of total nonprofit workforce (paid staff and volunteers)

3 Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding

4 Figures for fees and government are the same as those for cash revenues, because value of volunteering has been added to philanthropy

SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

Table 4 - Civil society sector's characteristics in Portugal, Spain, and Italy

	Portugal	Spain	Italy
Workforce ¹			
FTE paid	2.8%	2.8%	2.3%
FTE volunteers	1.1%	1.5%	1.5%
FTE total	4.0%	4.3%	3.8%
Composition of workforce ^{2, 4}			
Service	60%	71%	62%
Expressive	25%	26%	35%
Other	15%	3%	3%
Cash revenues			
As percent of total nonprofit cash revenues ³			
Fees	48%	49%	61%
Government	40%	32%	37%
Philanthropy	12%	19%	3%
As percent of GDP			
Fees	2%	2%	2%
Government	2%	1%	1%
Philanthropy	1%	1%	0%
Total support (with volunteers)			
As percent of total nonprofit cash and volunteer support ³			
Fees	44%	38%	50%
Government	36%	25%	30%
Philanthropy	21%	36%	20%
As percent of GDP ⁴			
Fees	2%	2%	2%
Government	2%	1%	1%
Philanthropy	1%	2%	1%

1 As percent of economically active population

2 As percent of total nonprofit workforce (paid staff and volunteers)

3 Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding

4 Figures for fees and government are the same as those for cash revenues, because value of volunteering has been added to philanthropy

SOURCE: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project

At the same time, Portugal does not fit the welfare partnership pattern perfectly. For one thing, the size of its civil society organization workforce, both paid and volunteer, is smaller than the welfare partnership average, though it exceeds that in the transitional countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Similarly, government support to civil society organizations in Portugal is below the welfare partnership average, though higher than that in all other country clusters. While the Portuguese civil society sector relies more heavily on private philanthropy than its counterparts in welfare partnership and other developed country clusters, the volume of philanthropic activity in Portugal, as measured in relation to GDP, is nearly identical to that in other welfare partnership countries (both 0.5 percent).

So while the welfare partnership model is not a perfect fit for Portugal, it seems to be a better fit than any other model thus far identified in the data. Portugal can thus be thought of as being in the late stage of transition from authoritarianism to democracy, and thus still exhibiting some relics of the authoritarian past: a relatively small civil society sector, relatively low volunteer participation, and a relatively moderate level of government support of civil society activities. At the same time, however, the progress of democratic reform and integration into EU structures have brought enough changes in Portugal to create a visible resemblance to the welfare partnership model found in other EU countries. In both respects, the broad contours of the civil society sector in Portugal resemble those in nearby Italy and Spain (see Table 4). All three of these Southern European countries have civil society sectors that are moderate in size, substantially funded by government, and heavily oriented toward service provision.

EXPLAINING THE CONTOURS OF THE PORTUGUESE NONPROFIT SECTOR

III

AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

How can we explain these features of the Portuguese civil society sector? Broadly speaking, three impulses rooted deeply in the country's history, as well as one that has emerged more recently, seem to have played significant roles. Included here are first, the Roman Catholic Church; second, the country's long tradition of mutuality and self-help; third, its equally long history of authoritarian political control; and fourth, the development in recent decades of key elements of a modern welfare state and a growing reliance of state agencies on private nonprofit groups. Taken together, these impulses have created an historic tension between state and voluntary action, stimulating the emergence of nonprofit institutions but limiting their independence and confining them to a relatively narrow field of activity until recently. In the discussion that follows, we examine each of these impulses in turn.

CATHOLICISM AND THE CIVIL SOCIETY SECTOR

The Portuguese nonprofit sector is at least as old as the Portuguese nation-state. The origins of the country date back to 1143, but organized charities existed in the territory even before then, inspired in important part by the Roman Catholic Church.

The Roman Catholic Church's impact on the development of the civil society sector in Portugal has been both spiritual and institutional. Spiritually, Church influence was evident early in the widely embraced doctrine of "works of mercy" (*Obras de Misericórdia*), and the Christian idea that

people need to act in a way deserving of God's mercy. This doctrine drew inspiration from the gospels and established a set of moral imperatives—both spiritual (e.g., "to teach the simple ones, to comfort the sad ones, to forgive who have offended us") and corporal (e.g., "to cure the sick ones, to cover the naked, and to give food to the hungry ones").

A number of different types of civil society institutions were inspired by these precepts, and Church-related orders were instrumental in founding many of them. These included:

- Hostels (*hospedarias*) maintained by religious orders in order to give shelter to pilgrims and redeem captives;
- *Mercearias*, where honored women, widows, or unmarried women more than 50 years old could stay until they died, or where old or handicapped people would find support;
- Houses for the poor (*casas para pobres*) that sheltered poor people;
- Leper hospitals (*gafarias*), which offered medical assistance to the leprous;
- Children's hospitals (*hospitais de meninos*), which gave shelter to orphans and abandoned children and helped them prepare for their professional lives.

By late in the 15th century, a new type of Church-related institution—the *Misericórdias*, or Holy Houses of Mercy—gained

ground reflecting the growing influence of Franciscan and Dominican ideas linking “works of mercy” to the achievement of salvation for those increasingly enriched by the Portuguese maritime adventures of the era. This development also served as a response to the rise of poverty that these adventures produced among the many women and children left behind. In the process, *Misericórdias* established a strong base of nonprofit social institutions throughout the country that persists to this day.

Besides being linked to initiatives in the social and health areas, the Church was also the focus of initiatives in the educational field. Early examples of that activity are the capitulary schools as well as the convent schools of the Benedictine, Cistercian, and, since the 13th century, the Mendicant Orders.

MUTUALISM, COOPERATION, AND SOLIDARITY

While the influence of the Catholic Church has been pervasive in the development of Portuguese civil society, it represents only one strand in Portuguese civil society heritage, a strand that has tended to be paternalistic and assistentialist in character. Rather different has been a second impulse stressing mutualism, solidarity, and self-help on the part of those in need of assistance. Thus, as early as the 12th and 13th centuries, crafts corporations (*corporações de mesteres*) and various brotherhoods (*confrarias*) had already made their appearance. The crafts corporations were designed to preserve the interests and provide assistance to the members of a particular profession, mainly through the creation of hospitals. Medieval

brotherhoods targeted their services to the brothers (*confrades*) but many also provided charitable assistance to non-members.²³ Other kinds of self-help organizations were created to address the impact of disasters in peoples’ lives. These were especially common in dangerous fields, such as maritime activities, where losses at sea created sudden poverty for families and produced orphans and widows. Members of these organizations adopted self-insurance models that were called maritime commitments (*compromissos marítimos*) and seamen’s brotherhoods (*confrarias dos mareantes*).

Similar mutual structures emerged in the Portuguese countryside. One example of these was the common granaries (*celeiros comuns*). These associations of peasants were a way of accumulating stores of grains supplied by peasants during good times, to be loaned to peasants in need during bad times. These principles of solidarity also spread to other peasants’ activities, such as cattle breeding.

As Portugal slowly entered the industrial era in the first quarter of the 19th century, these traditions of mutuality took on a different cast. A lack of public institutions to help those in need in this new socio-economic context led to the emergence of “workers associations” aimed at worker self-organization for the defense of their rights and for a measure of security in case of job loss, illness, death, or incapacity. Similarly, mutualist associations (*Associações de Socorro Mútuo*)²⁴ emerged to organize health care, education, and cultural activities among urban migrants. So, too, humanitarian institutions of voluntary firemen (*associações de bombeiros voluntários*) expanded all over the

²³ See, Centro de Estudos de História Religiosa da Universidade Católica Portuguesa e União das Misericórdias Portuguesas, *Portugaliae Monumenta Misericordiarum*, Antes da Fundação das Primeiras Misericórdias, Volume 2 (2002).

²⁴ More recently named *associações mutualistas* (mutualist associations).

country as did agricultural mutuals (*mútuas agrícolas*) providing credit and mutual insurance for peasants, and farmer and peasant unions (*sindicatos agrícolas*) for the purpose of promoting solidarity among farmers.

Mutualism historically evolved around the principles of democracy (one man, one vote), freedom (according to which anyone is free to join the mutualism movement or leave it), independence (each organization must maintain its autonomy), and solidarity (promoting the well-being of the members without the individual profit motive).

However, many of these new associations lacked the resources necessary to ensure the economic viability of their activities. This fact, in conjunction with the lack of a legal framework and state support, led to the failure of many of these initiatives. Farmer and peasant unions in particular did not last long. The farmers' lack of commitment to the associative movement caused weakness and the failure of these unions, and resulted in a return to previous forms of organization, which were more traditional and corporatist.

Somewhat more successful were the mutualist organizations that emerged among the middle class, namely state officers, liberal professionals, and merchants. These sought to provide help in case of illness and credit in case of financial difficulties. The associations with an insurance profile were designated as *montepios*, whereas the associations with a credit saving deposits profile were designated as *caixas económicas*. At the same time, new business leaders and capitalists were organizing themselves to defend their interests before the government. Therefore, strong business associations emerged. Two were particularly important, connected

with wine export and merchants involved with international trade: the Lisbon Commercial Association (*Associação Comercial de Lisboa*) and the Porto Commercial Association (*Associação Comercial do Porto*), both founded in 1834.

AUTHORITARIANISM

Both the Church and mutualist organizations constituting the historical roots of Portugal's civil society had to take shape within an environment characterized by heavy governmental dominance. Portugal was a monarchy until early in the 20th century, when liberal forces finally broke through for a brief democratic interlude. This gave way within two decades, however, to the authoritarian regime of António Oliveira Salazar.

The Catholic Church early on accommodated itself to this reality, forging an alliance with the monarchy that held through three or four centuries. The result was what one observer has called "a religion of regal bias,"²⁵ and a mutually reinforcing relationship that allowed the monarchy to remain in power and the Church to expand its influence on the back of state-sponsored colonialism. However, in the 19th century, the state did intervene in the Church's followers' associations (*associações de fiéis*) reducing them to the status of state public services. In 1834, the state even nationalized some Church possessions.

The relationship between the mutual movement and the state was more ambiguous. In certain respects, the rise of mutual organizations in the 19th century posed a challenge to the church–state alliance, empowering the poor as well as middle class professionals outside the confines of either

²⁵ See, Paulo Adragão, "Para aquém e para além da Concordata," *Jornal de Notícias*, 9.6.2004, and also www.ucp.pt/cedc/Paulo_Adragão.html.

Church or state. A civil war even broke out in the 1830s, setting newly empowered middle class professional and commercial elements (*burguesia*) against the landlords, Church elements, and monarchy. The liberals won important victories in this struggle, and initiated in 1834 a series of measures to abolish the privileges and the structures of a society that had been dominated by the nobles and the Church. One of the measures was to extinguish all convents, monasteries, schools, hospices, and any other religious people houses, and all their belongings were confiscated. Later in the century, the authority and influence of the Catholic Church came under pressure from the trade union movement.

It was in this context of economic and political transformation that the Catholic Church sought a way to bring together capitalists and workers. The Catholic Circle of Workers (*Círculos Católicos Operários*, CCO) emerged at the end of the 19th century (1878) and was the first relevant attempt to create an organized Catholic presence in the Portuguese workers' movement. These were organizations for workers dominated by aristocrats and conservative Catholics, designed to provide assistance and spread the Catholic perspective to all workers. However, the resulting efforts were more focused on recreation and Christian education than creating better working conditions. Acting more like a religious movement than a social one, and spending more time trying to recover religious influence rather than fighting for more relevant social needs, the CCO rapidly lost importance.

When liberal elements again gained ground early in the 20th century, they were quickly

met with a conservative response, as conservative elements in Church, state, and society rallied around the military “coup d'état” staged on 28 May 1926 by Oliveira Salazar. Salazar set about creating an *Estado Novo* or “New Order” reflecting “solid, prudent, and conciliated nationalism.”²⁶ The New Order was based on the idea of a society organized into interest-based pillars supporting the political regime. According to the New Order philosophy, the workers, peasants, and fishermen would be members of and represented by associations—corporatist trade unions, Houses of the People (*Casas do Povo*), and Houses of Fishermen (*Casas dos Pescadores*)—that would emanate from the ideological principles and the organizational framework of a “corporatist state.” These organizations would accept and be subordinate to the principle of harmony or convergence of interests among different social classes, which was the justification for the abolition of all political parties. In addition, industrialists, farmers, and businessmen would be represented by guilds (*grémios*), heavily controlled by the governmental authorities. There was no place for more than a single trade union and guild for each sector, and no place for more than a single *Casa do Povo* or *Casa dos Pescadores* for each locality. Workers, peasants, farmers, fishermen, industrialists, and businessmen were required to be enrolled as members of their sector or local representative association.

The New Order created opportunities for the creation of cooperatives, especially in agriculture. Nevertheless, this movement was constantly under surveillance.²⁷ So, too, consumer cooperatives were severely limited, and agricultural cooperatives were used as instruments for economic

²⁶ See, Oliveira Marques, *História de Portugal – das revoluções liberais aos nossos dias* (Palas, 1986).

²⁷ See, Rui Namorado, “Uma Lógica Produtiva Humanista – Perspectivas do Cooperativismo em Portugal,” *Seara Nova*, nº 77, Julho-Setembro 2002.

regulation and to control rising wages in other sectors. The creation of federations was prohibited. More generally, freedom of association was seen as contrary to the national interest and, therefore, forbidden and persecuted. Political parties and civic movements were seen as an expression of foreign interests or particular interests that were not compatible with the national interest.

As a consequence, the New Order resulted in a decline of nonprofits in general, and the mutualism movement in particular, especially after 1930, when mutualists' resistance to the new political order was met with political and police persecution. Mutual leaders and promoters were imprisoned as "communist activists." Coupled with the extension of government sponsored social insurance, which robbed the mutualists of one of their most important functions, state audits of mutualist associations, and the promotion of New Order corporatist institutions, the result was to weaken the mutualist movement enormously.

DEMOCRATIZATION

Authoritarianism finally gave way to a new political impulse in Portugal in the late 1960s and into the 1970s, unleashing a substantial revival and strengthening of civil society organizations that is still under way. Interestingly, the remnants of earlier civil society organizations played an important role in these developments. Mutualist organizations, emboldened by new urban middle class professionals, began focusing less on assistance-oriented activities and more on political action. It was also possible to see the foundation of cooperatives with intellectual purposes by the young urban middle class, the election of trade union leaders known for their opposition to the regime, and the foundation of new associations by opposition

representatives as a way of bypassing the political parties prohibition. The death of Salazar in 1970 opened the way for further liberalization and for the revolution that brought an end to authoritarianism in Portugal on 25 April 1974.

Following the adoption of the 1976 Constitution of the Republic and the re-establishment of freedom of speech and association, movements and institutions defending rights and political representation grew rapidly. This led to an explosion of associative movements concerned with every aspect of social life, such as the improvement of housing conditions through resident associations (*associações de moradores*), the preservation of employment, improvement of working conditions, parents associations, and services to help children.

At the same time, the new post-Salazar regime has not been wholly supportive of civil society, and Portugal's accession to the European Union in 1986 has similarly had ambiguous implications for Portuguese civil society. On the one hand, the fact that access to some European funding requires association or cooperation among those who are concerned or interested has been a factor for the creation or reinforcement of some association movements. On the other hand, the income inflows coming from EU structural funds reinforced state responsibility for matters that had been covered by the mutualism movement and civil society associations.

Early state actions toward civil society were therefore not wholly supportive. Thus, for example, the state centralized the regulation process, imposing a legal standard that favored certain sectors of civil society over others. Similarly, following the 1974 revolution, the Holy Houses of Mercy lost the management of their hospitals in favor of the state, which integrated them into

the public health network. In 1980, a law authorized the payment of compensation to *Misericórdias* for the losses caused, although most *Misericórdias* were not compensated until the late 1980s and the valuation of the compensation is still debated.

Slowly, however, the Portuguese state has come to recognize the importance of forging a partnership with the civil society sector. Thus, in 1981, a law was passed allowing the devolution to the Holy Houses of Mercy of the hospitals that had been taken from them, though only on a case by case basis. More generally, the state has promoted the strengthening of Private Welfare Associations (*Associações Particulares de Assistência*), known today as Private Institutions of Social Solidarity (*Instituições Particulares de Solidariedade Social, IPSS*). In 1979, the statute of the IPSS was approved, and it was directed to all institutions that supplied services of Social Security. In 1983, with the revision of this statute, the action of the IPSS was enlarged to include health, education, professional training, and housing. More than that, the Portuguese state has recently begun to

rely on Private Institutions for Social Welfare for the delivery of state-financed social welfare services,²⁸ in accord with the Catholic social doctrine of “subsidiarity,” in which the institution closest to the individual comes first in providing assistance in cases of need. Private Institutions of Social Solidarity have therefore come to rely heavily on public sector support. This same relationship has also spread into other arenas of civil society activity, moreover, such as those devoted to culture, recreation, sports, and humanitarian purposes (e.g., voluntary firemen associations).

²⁸ For additional details regarding this change in policy, refer to the Basis Law n. 32/2002, 20.12—Article 6.

Portugal's civil society sector thus rests on a long history of involvement in Portuguese society. At the same time, its evolution has been severely constrained by a long tradition of paternalism until relatively recently. As a consequence, the sector remains somewhat smaller than its counterparts in other parts of Western Europe though on a par with its counterparts in neighboring Italy and Spain with which Portugal shares some common historical features. In this sense, Portuguese civil society remains in "transition," somewhat like the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, still facing a number of critical challenges. In this section we outline these challenges and suggest steps that might be taken to respond to them.

INCREASING PUBLIC AWARENESS

Although groups meeting the definition of civil society organizations have existed in Portuguese culture for centuries, and certain sub-sectors of the social economy are very visible, such as cooperatives and Private Institutions for Social Solidarity, there is little understanding of these organizations as constituting a single, cohesive sector. This lack of sector consciousness limits the sector's ability to promote philanthropy, attract public support, and secure policies favorable to its future development.

One useful step in this direction will be to draw more explicitly the links that exist among the different types of organizations that comprise the nonprofit sector

and between them and the cooperatives and mutualist associations that help form what is known as the "social economy." A clearer understanding of the commonalities among nonprofit organizations and between them and these other components of social economy will generate a more enabling political environment for the sector as a whole. So, too, will the kind of data generated by the research undertaken here.

Fortunately, an excellent opportunity exists for sustaining this kind of data thanks to the recent adoption by the United Nations Statistical Commission of a new *Handbook on Nonprofit Institutions in the System of National Accounts*. This *Handbook* calls on statistical agencies around the world to formulate a "satellite account" on nonprofit institutions as part of their regular data gathering and reporting. The Portuguese National Institute of Statistics (*Instituto Nacional de Estatística*, INE) should be encouraged to implement this *Handbook* in Portugal to ensure the continued visibility of this crucial sector and to chart its future development in a systematic way.

STRENGTHENING THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Democratic reform introduced after the 1974 revolution created an environment conducive to the development of associative activity. Because both old and new associations were providing relevant services to the community, many times in place of the state, the legislature decided that the associative movement should be encour-

aged. Public service corporations (*peçoas colectivas privadas de utilidade pública*) were therefore introduced to provide collectives with the means to improve and expand their activity.²⁹

With the rapid expansion of the civil society sector that has occurred in the past 30 years, the laws and regulations governing it have increased in number and complexity. From the combination of normal legislation and the Constitution, Portugal currently has public service corporations (*peçoas colectivas de utilidade pública*), charitable corporations (or private welfare institutions—*Instituições Particulares de Solidariedade Social*), public service corporations of an administrative nature (*peçoas colectivas de utilidade pública administrativa*), and nongovernmental organizations for development (*organizações não governamentais de cooperação para o desenvolvimento*) meriting special treatment on the part of the state. On top of this, the Civil Code includes general guidelines governing corporations (*peçoas colectivas*),³⁰ including specific references to associations and foundations. All of this has produced a diffuse and confusing body of laws governing the formation and operation of different types of organizations. This causes considerable confusion and creates a lack of understanding about the legal framework, which diminishes the impact of the nonprofit sector in Portugal.

To remedy this, Portugal could usefully undertake some consolidation of its civil society legal structure. This could involve systematizing the legal forms of organizations and promoting greater consistency in

the tax treatment of the organizations and of charitable contributions to them. This would help reassure donors, simplify the administration of laws, and potentially encourage greater transparency and accountability on the part of organizations.

IMPROVING CIVIL SOCIETY CAPACITY

The perception of Portugal's nonprofit employees as "missionaries" or "professional volunteers" is used to justify low wages and long hours, especially in Private Institutions of Social Solidarity. This leads to low retention as more qualified workers leave social institutions for public or private for-profit ones. In an era of a considerable dependency on state subsidies and European support, a growing number of Portuguese civil society organizations are increasingly aware of the need to professionalize the management of their institutions in order to guarantee the best service possible to their beneficiaries.

Other countries have responded to this problem by establishing degree or non-degree training programs for civil society managers. Such programs can usefully boost the capacity of civil society organizations, improve their management, and hence contribute to their achievement of important public purposes. A limited number of Portuguese nonprofit organizations have begun to pursue capacity-building programs, some in order to apply for certification under international quality norms. While they are only a very small share of the sector, they certainly provide examples to follow throughout the sector.

²⁹ See, Decree-Law 460/77.

³⁰ The terms *peçoas colectivas* (literally translated as "collective persons") and *peçoas colectivas privadas* (literally, private collective persons) roughly equate to the American concept of corporations, and in this instance refer to not-for-profit corporations, where the corporation is a legal entity (distinct from an individual person) that has rights in the law similar to an individual.

IMPROVING GOVERNMENT – NONPROFIT RELATIONS

Given the ambiguous relationship between civil society organizations and the state over Portugal's history, it is perhaps not surprising that state support for civil society in Portugal lags behind other Western European nations. What is notable about the Portuguese civil society sector, in fact, is that it has achieved the scale it has with a level of public sector support that is well below that in most other Western European countries.

Fortunately, the relationship between state and civil society has improved dramatically in the years since the overthrow of the authoritarian regime. At the same time, some ambiguity appears to remain about which functions the state should not only finance but also perform, and which functions it can rely on civil society organizations to carry out with state support. Similarly, there remains uncertainty both on the part of the civil society sector and the public at large about the appropriateness of civil society cooperation with the state, and about how to preserve a meaningful degree of autonomy for civil society while pursuing cooperation between the state and civil society groups.

Fortunately, there is considerable experience in Europe on these matters that Portuguese policymakers, civil society leaders, and researchers could usefully examine. More fundamentally, there is a need for a serious rethinking of state activities to determine which can be carried out more flexibly and effectively through public–private cooperation than through state action alone.

CONCLUSIONS **AND** IMPLICATIONS

This study is the first of its kind that provides a comprehensive portrait of the civil society sector in Portugal and makes it possible to compare Portuguese civil society realities to those in other countries in a systematic way. While there are certainly some missing elements in this portrait due mainly to data limitations, the coverage is extraordinarily broad, embracing many different types of institutions, from mutualist associations and some cooperatives, to labor unions, professional and business associations, community-based organizations, private social service organizations, educational institutions, and traditional mutual help organizations.

The picture that emerges is of a civil society sector that, while small by Western European standards, is nonetheless a significant economic force. There are historical reasons for the relative underdevelopment of the civil society sector in Portugal, chief of them being the presence of paternalistic institutions and the more recent forty years of authoritarian rule, which suppressed the mutualist movement and public participation in general. For these reasons, the appropriate point of comparison for the Portuguese civil society sector may not be the other countries of Western Europe, but its Southern European neighbors, Spain and Italy, that share similar Church and social solidarity influences as well as those of Central and Eastern Europe that faced similar political constraints. While the size, composition, and financing of Portugal's civil society sector is on a par with neighbor-

ing Spain and Italy, Portugal's civil society sector outdistances its counterparts in Central and Eastern Europe by a substantial margin. This reflects the substantial progress that Portugal's civil society sector has achieved since the restoration of democracy in 1974 and the European Union accession in 1986. This comparison also highlights the major force behind this growth—government support in the form of service partnerships between the public and civil society sectors.

Therefore, a key implication of this study for strengthening the civil society sector in Portugal is the need to build on and improve the nonprofit–government partnership. Such partnership has already received a strong push from EU policies, but it could still usefully be enhanced.

Also needed, however, is a greater self-consciousness within the civil society sector itself, as well as a more conscious effort to stimulate public participation in its work. Both of these will require attention to the capacity of civil society organizations through serious skill-building efforts and a continuation of the kind of information generation that this project represents.

Portugal has demonstrated a deep commitment to mutuality, social solidarity, and private charitable endeavor. Its civil society sector, freed of the paternalism of the past, is now poised to take its place among the most vibrant in Europe. Hopefully, the information generated by this project will help encourage this process.

INTERNATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF
NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS**GROUP 1:
CULTURE AND RECREATION****1 100 Culture and Arts**

Media and communications. Production and dissemination of information and communication; includes radio and TV stations; publishing of books, journals, newspapers, and newsletters; film production; and libraries.

Visual arts, architecture, ceramic art. Production, dissemination, and display of visual arts and architecture; includes sculpture, photographic societies, painting, drawing, design centers, and architectural associations.

Performing arts. Performing arts centers, companies, and associations; includes theater, dance, ballet, opera, orchestras, chorals, and music ensembles.

Historical, literary, and humanistic societies. Promotion and appreciation of the humanities, preservation of historical and cultural artifacts, and commemoration of historical events; includes historical societies, poetry and literary societies, language associations, reading promotion, war memorials, and commemorative funds and associations.

Museums. General and specialized museums covering art, history, sciences, technology, and culture.

Zoos and aquariums.

1 200 Sports

Provision of amateur sport, training, physical fitness, and sport competition services and events; includes fitness and wellness centers.

**1 300 Other Recreation
and Social Clubs**

Recreation and social clubs. Provision of recreational facilities and services to individuals and communities; includes playground associations, country clubs, men's and women's clubs, touring clubs, and leisure clubs.

Service clubs. Membership organizations providing services to members and local communities, for example: Lions, Zonta International, Rotary Club, and Kiwanis.

**GROUP 2:
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH****2 100 Primary
and Secondary Education**

Elementary, primary, and secondary education. Education at elementary, primary, and secondary levels; includes pre-school organizations other than day care.

2 200 Higher Education

Higher education. Higher learning, providing academic degrees; includes universities, business management schools, law schools, medical schools.

2 300 Other Education

Vocational/technical schools. Technical and vocational training specifically geared towards gaining employment; includes trade schools, paralegal training, secretarial schools.

Adult/continuing education. Institutions engaged in providing education and training in addition to the formal educational system; includes schools of continuing studies, correspondence schools, night schools, and sponsored literacy and reading programs.

2 400 Research

Medical research. Research in the medical field; includes research on specific diseases, disorders, or medical disciplines.

Science and technology. Research in the physical and life sciences, and engineering and technology.

Social sciences, policy studies. Research and analysis in the social sciences and policy area.

GROUP 3: HEALTH

3 100 Hospitals and Rehabilitation

Hospitals. Primarily inpatient medical care and treatment.

Rehabilitation. Inpatient health care and rehabilitative therapy to individuals suffering from physical impairments due to injury, genetic defect, or disease and requiring extensive physiotherapy or similar forms of care.

3 200 Nursing Homes

Nursing homes. Inpatient convalescent care, residential care, as well as primary

health care services; includes homes for the frail elderly and nursing homes for the severely handicapped.

3 300 Mental Health and Crisis Intervention

Psychiatric hospitals. Inpatient care and treatment for the mentally ill.

Mental health treatment. Outpatient treatment for mentally ill patients; includes community mental health centers, and halfway homes.

Crisis intervention. Outpatient services and counsel in acute mental health situations; includes suicide prevention and support to victims of assault and abuse.

3 400 Other Health Services

Public health and wellness education. Public health promotion and health education; includes sanitation screening for potential health hazards, first aid training and services, and family planning services.

Health treatment, primarily outpatient. Organizations that provide primarily outpatient health services--e.g., health clinics and vaccination centers.

Rehabilitative medical services. Outpatient therapeutic care; includes nature cure centers, yoga clinics, and physical therapy centers.

Emergency medical services. Services to persons in need of immediate care; includes ambulatory services and paramedical emergency care, shock/trauma programs, lifeline programs, and ambulance services.

GROUP 4: SOCIAL SERVICES

4 100 Social Services

Child welfare, child services, and day care. Services to children, adoption services, child development centers, foster care; includes infant care centers and nurseries.

Youth services and youth welfare. Services to youth; includes delinquency prevention services, teen pregnancy prevention, drop-out prevention, youth centers and clubs, and job programs for youth; includes YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Big Brothers/Big Sisters.

Family services. Services to families; includes family life/parent education, single parent agencies and services, and family violence shelters and services.

Services for the handicapped. Services for the handicapped; includes homes, other than nursing homes, transport facilities, recreation, and other specialized services.

Services for the elderly. Organizations providing geriatric care; includes in-home services, homemaker services, transport facilities, recreation, meal programs, and other services geared towards senior citizens. (Does not include residential nursing homes.)

Self-help and other personal social services. Programs and services for self-help and personal development; includes support groups, personal counseling, and credit counseling/money management services.

4 200 Emergency and Relief

Disaster/emergency prevention and control. Organizations that work to prevent, predict, control, and alleviate the effects of disasters, to educate or otherwise prepare

individuals to cope with the effects of disasters, or to provide relief to disaster victims; includes volunteer fire departments, life boat services, etc.

Temporary shelters. Organizations providing temporary shelters to the homeless; includes travelers aid and temporary housing.

Refugee assistance. Organizations providing food, clothing, shelter, and services to refugees and immigrants.

4 300 Income Support and Maintenance

Income support and maintenance. Organizations providing cash assistance and other forms of direct services to persons unable to maintain a livelihood.

Material assistance. Organizations providing food, clothing, transport, and other forms of assistance; includes food banks and clothing distribution centers.

GROUP 5: ENVIRONMENT

5 100 Environment

Pollution abatement and control. Organizations that promote clean air, clean water, reducing and preventing noise pollution, radiation control, treatment of hazardous wastes and toxic substances, solid waste management, and recycling programs.

Natural resources conservation and protection. Conservation and preservation of natural resources, including land, water, energy, and plant resources for the general use and enjoyment of the public.

Environmental beautification and open spaces. Botanical gardens, arboreta, horticultural programs and landscape services;

organizations promoting anti-litter campaigns; programs to preserve the parks, green spaces, and open spaces in urban or rural areas; and city and highway beautification programs.

5 200 Animal Protection

Animal protection and welfare. Animal protection and welfare services; includes animal shelters and humane societies.

Wildlife preservation and protection. Wildlife preservation and protection; includes sanctuaries and refuges.

Veterinary services. Animal hospitals and services providing care to farm and household animals and pets.

GROUP 6: DEVELOPMENT AND HOUSING

6 100 Economic, Social, and Community Development

Community and neighborhood organizations. Organizations working towards improving the quality of life within communities or neighborhoods, e.g., squatters' associations, local development organizations, poor people's cooperatives.

Economic development. Programs and services to improve economic infrastructure and capacity; includes building of infrastructure like roads; and financial services such as credit and savings associations, entrepreneurial programs, technical and managerial consulting, and rural development assistance.

Social development. Organizations working towards improving the institutional infrastructure and capacity to alleviate social problems and to improve general public well being.

6 200 Housing

Housing associations. Development, construction, management, leasing, financing, and rehabilitation of housing.

Housing assistance. Organizations providing housing search, legal services, and related assistance.

6 300 Employment and Training

Job training programs. Organizations providing and supporting apprenticeship programs, internships, on-the-job training, and other training programs.

Vocational counseling and guidance. Vocational training and guidance, career counseling, testing, and related services.

Vocational rehabilitation and sheltered workshops. Organizations that promote self-sufficiency and income generation through job training and employment.

GROUP 7: LAW, ADVOCACY, AND POLITICS

7 100 Civic and Advocacy Organizations

Advocacy organizations. Organizations that protect the rights and promote the interests of specific groups of people, e.g., the physically handicapped, the elderly, children, and women.

Civil rights associations. Organizations that work to protect or preserve individual civil liberties and human rights.

Ethnic associations. Organizations that promote the interests of, or provide services to, members belonging to a specific ethnic heritage.

Civic associations. Programs and services to encourage and spread civic mindedness.

7 200 Law and Legal Services

Legal services. Legal services, advice, and assistance in dispute resolution and court-related matters.

Crime prevention and public policy. Crime prevention to promote safety and precautionary measures among citizens.

Rehabilitation of offenders. Programs and services to reintegrate offenders; includes halfway houses, probation and parole programs, prison alternatives.

Victim support. Services, counsel, and advice to victims of crime.

Consumer protection associations. Protection of consumer rights, and the improvement of product control and quality.

7 300 Political Organizations

Political parties and organizations. Activities and services to support the placing of particular candidates into political office; includes dissemination of information, public relations, and political fundraising.

GROUP 8: PHILANTHROPIC INTERMEDIARIES AND VOLUNTARISM PROMOTION

8 100 Philanthropic Intermediaries and Voluntarism Promotion

Grant-making foundations. Private foundations; including corporate foundations, community foundations, and independent public-law foundations.

Volunteerism promotion and support. Organizations that recruit, train, and place volunteers and promote volunteering.

Fund-raising organizations. Federated, collective fundraising organizations; includes lotteries.

GROUP 9: INTERNATIONAL

9 100 International Activities

Exchange/friendship/cultural programs. Programs and services designed to encourage mutual respect and friendship internationally.

Development assistance associations. Programs and projects that promote social and economic development abroad.

International disaster and relief organizations. Organizations that collect, channel, and provide aid to other countries during times of disaster or emergency.

International human rights and peace organizations. Organizations which promote and monitor human rights and peace internationally.

GROUP 10: RELIGION

10 100 Religious Congregations and Associations

Congregations. Churches, synagogues, temples, mosques, shrines, monasteries, seminaries, and similar organizations promoting religious beliefs and administering religious services and rituals.

Associations of congregations. Associations and auxiliaries of religious congregations and organizations supporting and promoting religious beliefs, services, and rituals.

**GROUP 11:
BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL
ASSOCIATIONS, AND UNIONS**

**11 100 Business and Professional
Associations, and Unions**

Business associations. Organizations that work to promote, regulate, and safeguard the interests of special branches of business, e.g., manufacturers' association, farmers' association, bankers' association.

Professional associations. Organizations promoting, regulating, and protecting professional interests, e.g., bar association, medical association.

Labor unions. Organizations that promote, protect, and regulate the rights and interests of employees.

**GROUP 12:
NOT ELSEWHERE CLASSIFIED**

12 100 n.e.c.

GIVING AND VOLUNTEERING SURVEY METHODOLOGY

I. OBJECTIVE

The aim of this survey was to collect information on giving, volunteering and other forms of support to nonprofit institutions.

II. UNIVERSE

The universe is the residents in continental Portugal, 15 years of age or more. Island populations are excluded.

III. SAMPLE

1. The aim for the sample was 1400 questionnaires. It was possible to obtain 1361 valid questionnaires.
2. The sample was stratified by 19 administrative units (freguesias).
3. The administrative units were randomly selected in each region of the Continent (NUTs II) having in consideration their size and urban or rural character.
4. The survey unit was the household. To guarantee randomness, the selection of the interviewee was made by choosing from the people of the household the next to have his/her birthday.

IV. QUESTIONNAIRE

The instrument of information collection was a structured questionnaire, with closed questions.

V. INTERVIEWERS

The interviews were made by 71 university students, usual workers of the Center of Studies and Opinion Surveys (Centro de Estudos e Sondagens de Opinião), that received specific training for this kind of work, having been supervised by 23 coordinators.

VI. SCHEDULE

The interviews were made between 14 and 29 February 2004.

VII. SAMPLE ERROR

The maximum sample error with a confidence interval of 95% was $\pm 2.7\%$.

VIII. SAMPLE REPRESENTATIVENESS

The following tables assess the samples representativeness in terms of distribution by region, gender, and age.

REGION:

	Population			Sample			Deviation		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Norte/North	18.9%	18.2%	37.1%	18.6%	14.7%	33.3%	-0.3%	-3.5%	-3.8%
Centro/Center	7.8%	10.7%	18.5%	7.6%	11.7%	19.3%	-0.1%	1.0%	0.8%
Lisboa e Vale do Tejo/Lisbon and Tagus Valley	30.3%	4.8%	35.1%	31.7%	4.4%	36.1%	1.4%	-0.4%	1.0%
Alentejo	2.5%	3.0%	5.5%	3.2%	3.3%	6.5%	0.8%	0.3%	1.0%
Algarve	2.9%	0.9%	3.8%	3.2%	1.6%	4.8%	0.3%	0.7%	1.0%
Total	62.3%	37.7%		64.3%	35.7%		2.0%	-2.0%	

GENDER:

Gender	Population	Sample	Deviation
Masculine	47.6%	42.1%	-5.5%
Feminine	52.4%	57.9%	5.5%

AGE:

Age Groups	Population	Sample	Deviation
15-24 years	16.5%	15.2%	-1.3%
25-34 years	17.6%	17.2%	-0.3%
35-44 years	17.1%	17.6%	0.5%
45-54 years	15.5%	16.4%	0.9%
55-64 years	13.2%	15.7%	2.4%
65 and more years	20.1%	17.8%	-2.2%

COUNTRY CLUSTERS

Anglo-Saxon	
Australia	Latin America
The United Kingdom	Argentina
The United States	Brazil
	Colombia
Nordic Welfare States	Mexico
Finland	Peru
Norway	
Sweden	Africa
	Kenya
European-Style Welfare Partnership	South Africa
Austria	Tanzania
Belgium	Uganda
Canada	
France	Central and Eastern Europe
Germany	Czech Republic
Ireland	Hungary
Israel	Poland
Italy	Romania
The Netherlands	Slovakia
Portugal	
Spain	Other Developing
	Egypt
Asian Industrialized	India
Japan	Morocco
Republic of Korea	Pakistan
	The Philippines

