Civil Society Index for Uruguay 2008-2010
Analytical Country Report

From project implementation to influencing policies
Challenges of civil society in Uruguay
FOREWORD

The CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI) is a participatory and action-planning research tool aimed at strengthening civil society as a relevant actor in democratic development processes. The CSI gathers and analyses evidence, which may then shape actions, and the study of which enables the design of policies and programmes for all civil society allies and stakeholders.

The CSI facilitates the active participation of several sectors of society, ranging from civil society organisations to governmental agencies, international bodies and business representatives, in the drafting of an effective and dynamic analysis of civil society at the country level. Both strong and positive aspects of civil society as well as those that need to be strengthened are identified. The participatory mode of the research further enables the different sectors to actively make use of the report’s findings and conclusions.

The Institute for Communication and Development (ICD) strongly believes in this tool, and is proud to have already been able to participate in three stages of its implementation and to confirm that the CSI is positioned in all continents as a well-known assessment tool. The CSI implementation in several Latin American countries between 2003 and 2006 revealed deep needs to strengthen transparency and accountability in the region’s organisations. ICD undertook to conduct this task, together with partner organisations from several countries in Latin America, and today is still working towards this end.

The important conclusions drawn by the new CSI implementation in 2009 will probably materially impact the design of policies for strengthening civil society in Uruguay. This time we were able to compile the CSI jointly with Project J under the ONEUN “Joint for action” Pilot Programme and this has enabled us to incorporate the voice of many organisations, especially from the interior of the country, hence bridging a historical gap in Uruguay.

We firmly believe that this rigorous work and these conclusions are just the beginning of a road map that should continue to develop with the implementation of the identified recommendations and the cooperation of all sectors in order to strengthen democracy and social justice.

Anabel Cruz
ICD Director
President of CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

During 2009 and 2010, the Institute for Communication and Development (ICD) implemented the Civil Society Index (CSI) in Uruguay. The conceptual approach and methodological aspects of this project were developed and coordinated by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation. The Centre for Social Investment at Heidelberg University in Germany contributed greatly to the aspects of methodological design.

The CSI was implemented in Uruguay as a component of the Joint Project J “Strengthening the capacities of civil society organisations in Uruguay”, under the UNAONU “Joint for action” Pilot Programme developed by the Federal Government and the United Nations system. The opportunity of joining in a larger project enhanced the scope of the CSI, and enabled the active participation of hundreds of civil society representatives from all over the country, and representatives of the state, academia, the business sector and international bodies, in processing and analysing information, and sharing and drafting the proposals submitted. It was also possible to transcend frontiers, and other countries of Latin America, which are also developing the CSI, such as Argentina, Chile and Venezuela, were enabled to share their experience with Uruguay and ICD during the International Forum held by Project J in October 2009. ICD would like to thank Project J Coordinator, Graciela Dede, the networks that make up the project’s Consultative Committee and the United Nations system’s agencies, for their support for the execution of this project.

The research process received the support of an Advisory Committee whose members participated actively, offering valuable and material contributions to the discussion and research guidelines throughout the different phases. ICD would like to express its deep gratitude to the members of the Advisory Committee for their effort and objective cooperation which ensured the high quality of this output: Alejandra Erramuspe, Government Management and Modernisation Department, Office of Planning and Budget (OPP); Álvaro Rico, School of Humanities, University of the Republic (UDELAR); Blanca Rodríguez, Spanish International Cooperation Agency for Development (AECID); Daniel Miranda, National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (ANONG); Dora Shraflok, Jewish Volunteer Network; Fernando Rodríguez, Ombudsman Office (Montevideo); José Imaz, World Community Radio Stations Association (AMARC); Lilián Abracinskas, National Follow-Up Commission (CNS); Marcelo Fontona, Uruguayan Catholic Education Association (AUDEC); Mariana Labastie, The Inter-American Platform of Human Rights, Democracy and Development (PIDHDD); Mariella Mazzotti, National Citizenship Development Bureau - Ministry of Social Development (MIDES); Teresa Herrera, Uruguayan Network against Domestic and Sexual Violence; Teresa Pedemonte, Rural Women Association (AMRU); Virginia Varela, UNDP.

The drafting of this report was conducted by the ICD team and involved a year's work, including the dialogue and exchange of ideas with the Advisory Committee, and the contribution of citizens and organisations from all over the country. Today this enables the setting of an agenda with priority issues or proposals to optimise the identified strengths and to address the weaknesses raised.

Finally, ICD is particularly grateful to the technical assistance provided by the CIVICUS CSI team, especially Natalie Akstein, Tracy Anderson, Amy Bartlett, Mariano De Donatis, Andrew Firmin, Jacob Mati and Mark Nowottny.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. FOREWORD ............................................................................................................. 2  
2. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ............................................................................................. 3  
3. TABLE OF CONTENTS ............................................................................................. 4  
4. LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES ........................................................................... 6  
5. LIST OF ACRONYMS ............................................................................................... 7  
6. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY ......................................................................................... 8  
7. INTRODUCTION ...................................................................................................... 10  
8. I. THE CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX PROJECT APPROACH ........................................ 11  
   1. PROJECT BACKGROUND .................................................................................... 11  
   2. PROJECT APPROACH ....................................................................................... 13  
   3. CSI IMPLEMENTATION ...................................................................................... 15  
   4. LIMITATIONS OF THE CSI STUDY ................................................................ 16  
9. II. CIVIL SOCIETY IN URUGUAY ........................................................................... 17  
   1. CONCEPT OF CIVIL SOCIETY ......................................................................... 17  
   2. HISTORY OF CIVIL SOCIETY .......................................................................... 18  
   3. MAPPING OF CIVIL SOCIETY ........................................................................... 19  
10. III. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY ...................................................................... 21  
    1. CIVIC ENGAGEMENT ....................................................................................... 21  
    1.1 Extent of socially-based engagement ............................................................. 22  
    1.2 Depth of socially-based engagement ............................................................. 23  
    1.3 Diversity of socially-based engagement ....................................................... 24  
    1.4 Extent of political engagement .................................................................... 25  
    1.5 Depth of political engagement .................................................................... 25  
    1.6 Diversity of political engagement ............................................................... 26  
    Conclusion ........................................................................................................... 26  
    2. LEVEL OF ORGANISATION ............................................................................. 26  
    2.1 Internal governance ...................................................................................... 27  
    2.2 Infrastructure ................................................................................................ 27  
    2.3 Sectoral communication ............................................................................... 28  
    2.4 Human resources ......................................................................................... 29  
    2.5 Financial and technological resources ......................................................... 29  
    2.6 International linkages ................................................................................... 30  
    Conclusion ........................................................................................................... 30  
    3. PRACTICE OF VALUES ..................................................................................... 31  
    3.1 Democratic decision-making governance ................................................... 32  
    3.2 Labour regulations ....................................................................................... 32  
    3.3 Codes of conduct and transparency ............................................................. 33  
    3.4 Environmental standards ............................................................................ 34  
    3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole .......................................... 34  
    Conclusion ........................................................................................................... 35  
    4. PERCEPTION OF IMPACT .............................................................................. 35  
    4.1 Responsiveness (internal perception) ............................................................ 35  
    4.2 Social impact (internal perception) .............................................................. 36  
    4.3 Policy impact (internal perception) .............................................................. 37  
    4.4 Responsiveness (external perception) .......................................................... 37  
    4.5 Social impact (external perception) .............................................................. 38  
    4.6 Policy impact (external perception) .............................................................. 38  

CIVICUS Civil Society Index Analytical Country Report for Uruguay
4.7 Impact of civil society on attitudes .................................................................39
Conclusion ........................................................................................................40
5. EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT ........................................................................41
5.1 Socio-economic context ................................................................. ........................41
5.2 Socio-political context .................................................................................42
5.3 Socio-cultural context .................................................................................43
Conclusion ........................................................................................................44
IV. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF CIVIL SOCIETY .....................................44
V. RECOMMENDATIONS ..................................................................................47
VI. CONCLUSIONS ............................................................................................49
Annex 1. CSI Indicator Matrix .........................................................................53
Annex 2. Members of the Advisory Committee .................................................55
Annex 3. Description of the methodology used .................................................55
Annex 4. Categories of Civil Society Organisations ............................................57
Annex 5. Dimensions and Potentials of Voluntary Work in Uruguay: Case Study ......58
Annex 6. Relationship Between the State and Civil Society: Case Study ...............59
Annex 7. Civil Society Networks and Organisations: Case Study .........................60
Annex 8. Civil Society’s Agenda in the 2009 Electoral Candidates Programmes:
Case Study ........................................................................................................61
BIBLIOGRAPHY ...........................................................................................................66
LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table I.1.1 List of CSI implementing countries Index phase 2008-2010 ......................... 13
Table III.1.1 Voluntary work engagement per socio-economic self-description .................. 24
Table III.2.1 CSOs sources of funds .................................................................................. 30
Table III.2.2 Percentage of CSOs total sources of funds .................................................. 30
Table III.5.1 CSOs’ legal framework .................................................................................. 42
Table VI.1.1 CSI dimension scores ................................................................................... 49

FIGURE 1: Civil Society Diamond for Uruguay ................................................................. 8
FIGURE I.2.1: The Civil Society Index Diamond ................................................................. 15
FIGURE I.3.1: CSI Implementation Stages ......................................................................... 15
FIGURE II.3.1: Mapping of social forces .......................................................................... 20
FIGURE III.1.1: Civic Engagement sub-dimension scores ................................................. 22
FIGURE III.1.2: Active membership in CSOs ................................................................. 23
FIGURE III.1.3: Types of organisations with volunteers .................................................... 25
FIGURE III.2.1: Level of Organisation sub-dimension scores ........................................... 27
FIGURE III.2.2: Adequate number of human resources .................................................... 29
FIGURE III.2.3: Level of experience of human resources ................................................. 29
FIGURE III.3.1: Practice of Values sub-dimension scores ................................................. 31
FIGURE III.3.2: Perception of corruption within civil society ........................................... 34
FIGURE III.4.1: Perception of Impact sub-dimension scores ............................................ 36
FIGURE III.4.2: Civil society’s responsiveness (internal perception) .................................... 37
FIGURE III.4.3: Civil society’s responsiveness (external perception) ................................. 38
FIGURE III.4.4: Trust in institutions .................................................................................. 40
FIGURE III.5.1: External Environment sub-dimension scores .......................................... 41
FIGURE VI.1.1: Civil Society Diamond for Uruguay ......................................................... 49
LIST OF ACRONYMS

<table>
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<td>CAIF</td>
<td>Infants and Family Care Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Civil Society</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Civil Society Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSI</td>
<td>Civil Society Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross National Income</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICD</td>
<td>Institute for Communication and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>IADB</td>
<td>Inter-American Development Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>MIDES</td>
<td>Ministry of Social Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>NCO</td>
<td>National Coordinating Organisation</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NIT</td>
<td>National Implementation Team</td>
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<tr>
<td>PIT-NWC</td>
<td>Inter-Trade Union Assembly, Plenary Session - National Workers Convention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNO</td>
<td>United Nations Organisation</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Hundreds of representatives of civil society organisations (CSOs), governmental agencies, cooperation agencies, international organisations, media and the business sector throughout Uruguay worked intensively during 2009 and 2010 on the CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI). This is the third time the CSI has been implemented in Uruguay, which therefore offers the opportunity of analysing the improvement of civil society concerning those aspects identified as the weakest in the previous periods, and further of identifying some new strengths or challenges.

The Uruguayan Civil Society Diamond portrays a civil society with a medium-level development, which operates in a highly favourable environment, with a relatively high level of organisation, and whose actions are perceived as having relatively high impact. However, people’s participation is relatively low, as well as the practice and promotion of values, making these areas that call for attention.

The level of civil engagement or participation in Uruguay is not high. Civil engagement is higher in social organisations than in political organisations, and social voluntary work has increased in the last years, reaching almost 20% of the population over 14 years.

The level of organisation dimension shows that the organisation and institutionalisation of civil society is high, with most organisations forming a communications network. However, some problems were also identified in organisations: a lack of qualified and sustainable human resource bases as well as material difficulties in fundraising to assure the development of activities.

The practice of values is the dimension recording the lowest score. Although there is a high perception of the promotion of a culture favouring non-violence, peace and respect for democracy, CSOs seem to fail in other aspects. To a large extent these organisations lack written procedures on equal opportunities, have employees who are not members of labour unions, and do not offer training on labour rights for their staff, whether volunteer or paid.
Likewise, even though internal democracy in organisations is acknowledged as an important value, it is not always a real practice: criticisms were expressed of the organisations’ actual levels of democratic decision-making governance, of problems derived from favouritisms and craving for power within organisations, and of the levels of transparency and accountability.

The **perceived impact** of the actions of CSOs is high, more in the social field than in the political field; the impact seems to be deemed higher according to external perceptions than the perceptions of CSOs. However, in terms of responsiveness concerning Uruguay’s priority issues, such as poverty and job generation, civil society perceives itself to have greater responsiveness than acknowledged by external observers.

The **external environment** of civil society appears to be highly favourable, especially in socio-political aspects, with very few restrictions on the side of the government towards social organisations. The legislation that specifically applies to work in social organisations is moderately enabling. However, an approach centred in the state and political parties (partidocracy), a feature of Uruguayan society, is still deeply-rooted and this frequently results in asymmetric conditions, for example, in the access and handling of information or the role of organisations in conducting social policies.

Although the data obtained in 2003 to 2006 are not strictly comparable with those obtained in this new period due to changes in the methodology used, to some extent a comparison can give us some insight into the improvements and backward steps throughout this nearly five-year period. In particular, in 2005 civil society was shown to “be acting in a moderately favourable environment; with a medium-level development as to the promotion and practice of values, but with a low impact on actions and weaker concerning its structure.” (ICD, 2006)

These contrasting statements reveal that apparently there has been an improvement in context or external environment as a result of the improvements in the socio-political, socio-economic and socio-cultural context. Likewise, findings indicate that the perceived impact of CSO actions is now higher and this would indicate a better consideration of this dimension among the different actors of society and the public. On the other hand, the assessment of the practice and promotion of values records a decrease, in part due to the incorporation of new measurement indicators. In terms of the level of organisation, comparability of the findings is less possible since the components of the dimension have changed. The comparison of the identified strengths and weaknesses in both phases reveal that some weaknesses still persist: low engagement in organisations, lack of channels and communication difficulties, lack of transparency and accountability, a weak impact on public policies and scarce environmentally sustainable actions. These suggest some of the main issues which civil society should think over in terms of internal actions, as well as the relationship with other actors.

Recommendations for strengthening the weak aspects include: promoting participation and strengthening voluntary work; promoting and developing respect for the environment and its resources; the need to receive a direct subsidy from the state to support CSOs with fewer resources; strengthening organisations’ staffs; enhancing access to funding information; exchanging data; conducting a census of CSOs; fostering the internal practice of values; promoting accountability mechanisms; measuring impacts; and amendment of the legal framework.
INTRODUCTION

This document results from the implementation of the CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI) in Uruguay, with research conducted from March to December 2009. The CSI is a tool developed and coordinated internationally by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation. The Centre for Social Investment at Heidelberg University in Germany contributed to the drafting of the research methodology.

The CSI is an action research project aimed at assessing the condition of civil society worldwide in order to create a knowledge base for strengthening civil society initiatives. It is a unique diagnostic and analysis tool that enhances knowledge and increases interest in civil society among the general public, governments and other sectors of society. The first phase of the CSI was implemented in more than 50 countries all over the world between 2003 and 2006, and during 2008-2010 the second phase will have been implemented in a similar number of countries. The CSI 2008-2010 phase was implemented in six countries in Latin America: Argentina, Chile, Mexico, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela.

The main purpose of the CSI is to promote national and international development by strengthening civil society and its relationships with other society actors so as to improve organisations’ conditions to play their true role in the development and consolidation of democracy. The project relates the different actors of civil society and direct partners in an assessment, reflection, and planning process, and it conducts an objective measurement and assessment of the impact and effect of the organisations’ activities, the quality of these actions, the nature of their relations with the other actors of society, citizens’ engagement and participation, and the promotion of values.

Between 2004 and 2005, the Institute for Communication and Development (ICD) implemented the CSI in Uruguay with the support of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). This time it was carried out as one of the components of the project “Strengthening the capacity of civil society” (J Project), a joint initiative of the Government of Uruguay and the United Nations System under the UNAONU (“United in Action”) Pilot Programme.

The execution of the CSI involved the consultation and active participation of hundreds of CSO representatives from all over Uruguay as well as governmental organisations, international agencies, academia, businesses and donor organisations. The CSI aroused the interest of the different organisations that were able to participate in the process as a result of the study’s objectives, and because of its participatory methodology, the implementation of which contributes to strengthening the capacities of the parties involved.

The implementation process was assisted by an Advisory Committee made up of prominent personalities from civil society, academia, the business sector, the government and international agencies, which provided support and assistance to the different phases of the project.

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1 CIVICUS is a network linking more than 600 organisations worldwide. www.civicus.org
3 This pilot programme is developed in eight countries: Albania, Cape Verde, Mozambique, Pakistan, Rwanda, Tanzania and Vietnam, as well as Uruguay.
This analytical research report is supplemented by a Policy Action Brief which develops in depth the actions, proposals and political guidelines proposed to strengthen civil society.

Part I of this report includes a review of the CSI background, the conceptual framework that underpins it, and a description of the different research methods it involves. Part II presents a review of the concept of civil society and a brief historical overview of civil society in Uruguay. Part III recounts in detail the findings obtained through the different research devices for the indicators that make up the five CSI dimensions. The last three sections introduce the strengths and weaknesses that were identified through the research, the proposals and recommendations posed, and the general conclusions resulting from the study.

I. THE CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX PROJECT APPROACH

Civil society is playing an increasingly important role in democratic governance and development around the world. In most countries, however, knowledge about the state and shape of civil society is limited. Moreover, opportunities for civil society stakeholders to come together to collectively discuss, reflect and act on the strengths, weaknesses, challenges and opportunities also remain limited.

The Civil Society Index (CSI), a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in countries around the world, contributes to redressing these limitations. It aims at creating a knowledge base and momentum for civil society strengthening. The CSI was initiated and implemented by, and for, civil society organisations at the country level, in partnership with CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation (CIVICUS). The CSI implementation actively involves and disseminates its findings to a broad range of stakeholders including civil society, government, the media, donors, academia, and the public at large.

The following key steps in CSI implementation take place at the country level:

1. **Assessment**: CSI uses an innovative mix of participatory research methods, data sources, and case studies to comprehensively assess the state of civil society using five dimensions: Civic Engagement, Level of Organisation, Practice of Values, Perception of Impact and External Environment.
2. **Collective Reflection**: implementation involves structured dialogue among diverse civil society stakeholders that enables the identification of civil society’s specific strengths and weaknesses.
3. **Joint Action**: the actors involved use a participatory and consultative process to develop and implement a concrete action agenda to strengthen civil society in the country.

The following four sections provide a background of the CSI, its key principles and approaches, as well as a snapshot of the methodology used in the generation of this report in Uruguay and the research scope and limitations.
1. PROJECT BACKGROUND

The CSI first emerged as a concept over a decade ago as a follow-up to the 1997 New Civic Atlas publication by CIVICUS, which contained profiles of civil society in 60 countries around the world (Heinrich and Naidoo (2001). The first version of the CSI methodology, developed by CIVICUS with the help of Helmut Anheier, was unveiled in 1999. An initial pilot of the tool was carried out in 2000 in 13 countries. The pilot implementation process and results were evaluated. This evaluation informed a revision of the methodology. Subsequently, CIVICUS successfully implemented the first complete phase of the CSI between 2003 and 2006 in 53 countries worldwide. This implementation directly involved more than 7,000 civil society stakeholders (Heinrich 2008).

Intent on continuing to improve the research-action orientation of the tool, CIVICUS worked with the Centre for Social Investment at the University of Heidelberg, as well as with partners and other stakeholders, to rigorously evaluate and revise the CSI methodology for a second time before the start of this current phase of CSI. With this new and streamlined methodology in place, CIVICUS launched the new phase of the CSI in 2008 and selected its country partners, including both previous and new implementers, from all over the globe to participate in this project. TABLE I.1.1 below includes a list of implementing countries in the 2008-2010 phase of the CSI.

In Uruguay, The Institute for Communication and Development (ICD) participated in the CSI pilot phase (conducted in 2001) and the first official phase (2003-2006) with the support of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Based on this research, it was established that generally in Uruguay:

Civil society acts in a moderately favourable environment, with a medium-level development of the dimension promotion and practice of values, but with a low impact of the actions and weaker in terms of structure. (ICD, 2006)

This broad assessment of the condition of civil society in Uruguay identified some significant challenges on which efforts should be focused: promoting and encouraging a greater participation in organisations, looking for schemes and tools that enable communication, exchange and cooperation among the organisations themselves, strengthening networks and umbrella organisations, seeking better public visibility of actions, implementing self-assessment practices and certification of service quality, promoting a culture of transparency and accountability and strengthening the relationship with the state and the business sector in the joint search for solutions to Uruguay’s problems.

Four years after the first implementation of the CSI, a new assessment of civil society was deemed necessary mainly due to the change in the country’s political condition. In 2005 and for the first time in the country’s history, a left-wing administration took office. This resulted in several economic and social reforms, the creation of new spheres for developing social policies, such as the Ministry of Social Development, and the establishment of new mechanisms to build relationships with society. It was therefore considered to be a pivotal moment to take a snapshot from which to analyse and assess improvements and backward steps in the different dimensions concerning civil society.

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4 The pilot countries were Belarus, Canada, Croatia, Estonia, Indonesia, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan, Romania, South Africa, Ukraine, Uruguay and Wales.

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### TABLE I.1.1: List of CSI implementing countries, Index phase 2008-2010

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### 2. PROJECT APPROACH

The current CSI project approach continues to marry assessment and evidence with reflections and action. This approach provides an important reference point for all work carried out within the framework of the CSI. As such, CSI does not produce knowledge for its own sake but instead seeks to directly apply the knowledge generated to stimulate strategies that enhance the effectiveness and role of civil society. With this in mind, the CSI’s fundamental methodological bedrocks, which have greatly influenced the implementation that this report is based upon, include the following:

**Inclusiveness**: The CSI framework strives to incorporate a variety of theoretical viewpoints, as well as being inclusive in terms of civil society indicators, actors and processes included in the project.

**Universality**: Since the CSI is a global project, its methodology seeks to accommodate national variations in context and concepts within its framework.

**Comparability**: The CSI aims not to rank, but instead to comparatively measure different aspects of civil society worldwide. The possibility for comparisons exists both between different countries or regions within one phase of CSI implementation and between phases.

**Versatility**: The CSI is specifically designed to achieve an appropriate balance between international comparability and national flexibility in the implementation of the project.

**Dialogue**: One of the key elements of the CSI is its participatory approach, involving a wide range of stakeholders who collectively own and run the project in their respective countries.

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5 Note that this list was accurate as of the publication of this Analytical Country Report, but may have changed slightly since the publication, due to countries being added or eliminated during the implementation cycle.

6 For in-depth explanations of these principles, please see Mati, Silva and Anderson (2010), Assessing and Strengthening Civil Society Worldwide: An updated programme description of the CIVICUS Civil Society Index Phase 2008-2010. CIVICUS, Johannesburg.
**Capacity Development:** Country partners are first trained on the CSI methodology during a three-day regional workshop. After the training, partners are supported through the implementation cycle by the CSI team at CIVICUS. Partners participating in the project also gain substantial skills in research, training and facilitation in implementing the CSI in-country.

**Networking:** The participatory and inclusive nature of the different CSI tools (e.g. focus groups, the Advisory Committee, the National Workshops) should create new spaces where very diverse actors can discover synergies and forge new alliances, including at a cross-sectoral level. Some countries in the last phase have also participated in regional conferences to discuss the CSI findings as well as cross-sectoral and national civil society issues.

**Change:** Unlike other research initiatives, the principal aim of the CSI is to generate information that is of practical use to civil society practitioners and other primary stakeholders. Therefore, the CSI framework seeks to identify aspects of civil society that can be changed and to generate information and knowledge relevant to action-oriented goals.

With the above-mentioned foundations, the CSI methodology uses a combination of participatory and scientific research methods to generate an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level. The CSI measures the following core dimensions:

1. Civic Engagement
2. Level of Organisation
3. Practice of Values
4. Perceived Impact
5. External Environment

These dimensions are illustrated visually through the Civil Society Diamond (see Figure I.2.1), which is one of the most essential and best-known components of the CSI project. To form the Civil Society Diamond, 67 quantitative indicators are aggregated into 28 sub-dimensions, which are then assembled into the five final dimensions along a 0-100 percentage scale (Indicator Matrix available in Annex 1).

The Diamond’s size seeks to portray an empirical picture of the state of civil society, the conditions that support or inhibit civil society's development, as well as the consequences of civil society's activities for society at large. The context or environment is represented visually by a circle around the axes of the Civil Society Diamond, and is not regarded as part of the state of civil society but rather as something external that still remains a crucial element for its wellbeing.
3. **CSI IMPLEMENTATION**

There are several key CSI programme implementation activities as well as several structures involved, as summarised by the figure below:

**FIGURE I.3.1: CSI Implementation Stages**

The major tools and elements of the CSI implementation at the national level include:

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7 For a detailed discussion on each of these steps in the process, please see Mati et al (cited in footnote 3).
• Multiple surveys, including: (i) a Population Survey, gathering the views of citizens on civil society and gauging their involvement in groups and associations; (ii) an Organisational Survey measuring the meso-level of civil society and defining characteristics of CSOs; and (iii) an External Perceptions Survey aiming at measuring the perception that stakeholders, experts and policy makers in key sectors have of civil society’s impact.

• Tailored case studies that focus on issues of importance to the specific civil society country context (see Annexes 5-9 for case study summaries).

• Advisory Committee (AC) meetings made up of civil society experts to advise on the project and its implementation at the country level (see Annex 2 for a list of the members of the Advisory Committee in Uruguay).

• Regional and thematic focus groups where civil society stakeholders reflect and share views on civil society’s role in the region.

Following this in-depth research and the extensive collection of information, the findings are presented and debated at a National Workshop, which brings together a large group of civil society and non-civil society stakeholders and allows interested parties to discuss and develop strategies for addressing identified priority issues. Annex 3 provides a detailed description of the methodology used in Uruguay.

This Analytical Country Report is one of the major outputs of the CSI implementation process in Uruguay, and presents highlights from the research conducted, including summaries of civil society’s strengths and weaknesses, as well as recommendations for strengthening civil society in Uruguay. An accompanying Policy Action Brief focuses on defining the agenda for taking action and giving political recommendations to rectify the weaknesses and foster the detected strengths.

4. LIMITATIONS OF THE CSI STUDY

It is important to bear in mind that the CSI provides an integral civil society assessment and has not been designed to thoroughly map the actors within civil society or analyse the characteristics of the different types of CSOs. This may be deemed a limitation, which would require undertaking supplementary research, for example, through the implementation of the CSI in each of these organisations in order to compare the findings.

On the other hand, and unlike other indexes, the scoring does not intend to create a ranking of countries. Its level of comparability lies in the capacity to compare the findings of the dimensions among the countries and learn one from each other. The CSI does, however, examine power relationships within civil society and with other sectors, and also identifies key actors.

Although the CSI research extends to and includes all types of organisations, it should be noted that it may be difficult to keep the necessary balance at some points of the research, since some organisation categories, such as those engaged in development, promotion and lobbying and research, are more interested in and participate more actively in all instances, and these may slant the findings. This is a variable to be taken into account in order to counteract it from the onset.
This report offers an overview of civil society in Uruguay, a detailed analysis of the dimensions analysed and the major strengths and weaknesses identified together with some guidelines and recommendations.

II. CIVIL SOCIETY IN URUGUAY

1. CONCEPT OF CIVIL SOCIETY

The definition of civil society is not, and has not been, a simple task, due to the sector’s complexity. Thus, there are several approaches for analysis that have been translated into a variety of denominations for the sector and the entities forming part of it. Third sector, non-profit sector, voluntary sector, non-governmental organisations, social sector, civil society organisations, are terms used at different times, often indistinctly.

These concepts have a common feature, and that feature is that they are located in a sphere different from the state and the market. That notwithstanding, as expressed by Rofman (2007), conceptualisations or definitions may be based on the considerations of values or its regulatory nature; or according to categorisations of a sociological nature, which are centred on institutional characteristics or organisational styles. Both approaches tend to have:

An idealised vision of the civil society scope, which imagines an organisational universe uniformly committed with equality and democracy values, and clearly differentiated from the competitive and de-humanising logic of the market, as well as from the bureaucratising and authoritarian nature of state power. (Rofman, 2007: 404)

The definition of civil society by the CSI overcomes the difficulties that have arisen. It is a wide and overall definition the point of departure of which is neither exclusion nor denial:

Civil society is the arena or the scenario - outside of the family, the state and the market - which is created by individual and collective actions, organisations and institutions, to advance shared interests.

The CSI considers civil society as a space or scenario where essential values and several interests interact. It is a sphere of society where people get together to debate, analyse, become associated and try to influence society as a whole. This is a political conceptualisation, instead of expressing it in economics-related or regulatory terms. The definition acknowledges also the difficulty that arises when trying to establish precise boundaries as to the other spheres of society (government, market and family), and it admits that such boundaries are “fuzzy” or vague according to the different situations (CIVICUS, 2008).

In 1988, a pioneer study performed in Uruguay provided information about the sector’s dynamic characteristics and their difficult apprehension. It found that:

Theoretical incursion within the universe of associative forms which are permanently created and recreated in civil society, taking into consideration the multiplicity of implementation forms and sectors, its youth and dynamic development, faces in our...
country difficulties and limitations of different nature: lack of prior studies and the absence of systematised surveys. (Barreiro and Cruz, 1988:11)

Although in the region the trend has been to identify civil society with non-governmental organisations (NGOs), in Uruguay, as verified by the implementation of the CSI between 2003 and 2006, the “tendency to overcome this relatively limited concept seems to have been instilled together with the acceptance that civil society is wide and different and that it goes beyond NGOs to include, specially in recent years, new and several actors” (ICD, 2006:23).

According to the above, civil society cannot be assimilated by any specific group with specific interests (Midaglia et al, 2009), but it implies a network of relationships and identities of a collective nature which are redefined according to different social and political periods. This wide scenario represents some difficulties at the time of analysis and, therefore, it is necessary to identify or categorise organisations which have common features.

2. HISTORY OF CIVIL SOCIETY

Although the origin of the first civil society organisations in Uruguay goes back to the birth of the nation, such as the case of charitable organisations, church organisations or hospital support commissions, it was at the beginning of the 20th Century when the first cooperatives and labour unions were formed as a result of modernisation and incipient industrialisation. NGOs are a more recent expression of Uruguayan history, appearing around the middle of the 20th Century, but their consolidation as a consistent social phenomenon took place during the first part of the 1980s. As in many Latin American countries, in the 1960s and the 1970s, Uruguay went through a period of political authoritarianism and the instauration of a military regime, which implied a severe deprivation of human freedoms and the social exclusion of wide sectors of the population. During this period, traditional forms of association, political parties, labour organisations and labour unions were proscribed and prohibited. The consequence of this process was that other individual and collective actors started to act in the political field. In the transition to democracy, new actors played a very important role and had the utmost influence in the democracy reconstruction process.

Between 1984 and 1987, NGOs had an explosive growth, together with organisations that worked to satisfy the population’s basic needs and demands, as well as a vast cultural movement of an anti-authoritarianism nature and in opposition to the government (Barreiro and Cruz, 1991). Barreiro and Cruz (1991:22) explain:

From their particular field of action, NGOs were committed to strengthening organisation levels at the base of society so as to channel the demands of the sectors most affected by public policies, to draft a new agenda of problems and priorities for social development and to defend and promote freedoms and rights infringed during the authoritarianism period.

But consolidation of democracy did not imply a weakening of CSOs: quite the opposite; they continued growing and spreading in several fields of action, but at the same time they were forced to readjust their proposals, and they moved from anti-dictatorial to “non-governmental”, as they were called in a broader sense.

Twenty-five years after democracy was reinstated in Uruguay, CSOs have changed and adjusted to reality and to the different situations. Organisation profiles, their field of work,
the way they address different subjects, their relationships and their impact have clearly changed. It is a growing universe and one of great dynamism, characterised by its diversity. Although in Uruguay there are no quantitative data that might fully illustrate the dimensions of the civil society sector, partial studies inform about a sustained growth in the last decades (Cepal, 2005; ICD, 2000).

More recently, CSOs have readjusted their relationships and have looked for new survival mechanisms. International institutions, a key sector during the post-dictatorship period, have almost fully withdrawn from Uruguay, and a great deal of CSOs, especially those acting in social or educational areas, do so in agreement with the government, something unthinkable 20 years ago. As expressed by Midaglia (2009:12):

There is no doubt that, nowadays, in spite of the constitutive heterogeneity of this universe, CSOs have a guaranteed position in the defence of citizenship rights, including up to a certain extent the provision of social services in an autonomous manner and/or in agreement with the public sphere.

On the other hand, in the last decades, new relationships and participation spaces were established by the government, and CSOs were called to participate in such spaces. The government which assumed power in 2005 had as a distinctive feature the purpose of promoting social participation. Following 2005, new and diverse participation channels were reactivated or opened. Such channels, although seen as generally good by civil society, present certain difficulties, as captured in some of the studies carried out as part of the CSI.

3. MAPPING OF CIVIL SOCIETY

In order to analyse and describe the forces existing in Uruguay’s society, especially in civil society, the CSI National Implementation Team (NIT) conducted a mapping of social forces, which shows the incidence of such forces and their relationships.

In this map, civil society, the state and the market are shown in three different colours: green for the state, red for the market, and yellow for civil society. The strength or power of the different actors is indicated by the size of the circles given to them, while the position and the distance between the circles indicate the relationship among them.

The resulting map (FIGURE II.3.1) portrays the Presidency of the Republic (the government) and the media as strong power centres. These two prevailing actors have a different origin. In the first case, the sources of power derive from the definition of policies and actions that guide the country’s course; in the case of the media, it has power to influence opinions and set issues on the public agenda.

It must be noted that these two actors are considerably distant and even at times confrontational. While currently, and over the last five years, the government in office is in the hands of a leftist party, the most important media, newspapers, radio and television, belong to right wing groups, and this has led to strong confrontation.

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8 The national elections conducted at the end of 2009 returned the Frente Amplio (Broad Front), a leftist coalition that governed the country from 2005 to 2009.
As shown by the map, the Ministry of Finance and Economy, Parliament, the army, state-owned companies and regional governments have the highest relevance, the last two ranking at a greater relative distance from the Presidency, compared to the rest, considering that nine out of 19 provinces that form the country are governed by authorities of the same political party as the central administration, while the remaining ten are represented by opposing political parties.

Near the media, the banks and the major companies and multinationals have quite high power levels, which in turn relate directly to public companies and business associations. As shown by the size of the circles, business associations have levels similar to other CSOs such as unions, political parties and the Catholic Church. The first two interact closely with the Presidency while the Catholic Church acts more independently, although with strong levels of influence on opinion and on the most conservative business sectors. It is important to highlight that unions do not have all the same level of power. Some of them have great political influence acting in connection with the central administration, such as the PIT-CNT (National Workers’ Union) which was historically linked to leftist parties, but others have
strong levels of influence due to their level of pressure and confrontation, such as ADEOM (Municipal Workers Association)\(^9\) and COFE (State Officials Confederation).

CSOs, beyond those already mentioned, have a more marginal participation in the social forces map. The Ministry of Social Development (MIDES) is the public actor interacting more directly with organised civil society, such as cooperatives and NGOs, which carry out most of their programmes. Cooperatives, in particular those gathered in peak organisations, are positioned closer to centres of power and have greater levels of influence. Among the NGOs, human rights organisations and those working on gender issues have managed to have a strong effect on the public agenda, while environmental organisations and grassroots organisations have less relative impact.\(^{10}\)

This overview shows a civil society which in general terms records low levels of influence; some categories of organisations, such as think tanks and networks or umbrella organisations, do not appear in the map, because they are not strong or visible enough.

### III. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY

This section outlines the data and scores corresponding to the different dimensions that make up the CSI Diamond. This analysis shows an overview of civil society in Uruguay based on the data collected between March and December 2009. The five dimensions analysed are: Civic Engagement, Level of Organisation, Practice of Values, Perception of Impact and External Environment. A summary of the scores, each ranging from 0 to 100, is included for each of these dimensions together with a quantitative data analysis for each of the indicators, which is supplemented with information gathered in the case studies and workshops carried out as part of the implementation process.

1. **Civic Engagement**

The Civic Engagement dimension seeks to analyse and describe civil society in terms of the extent, depth and diversity of political and social engagement. In the case of Uruguay, this dimension shows a fairly low development, with a total score of 45.8. The data corresponding to this dimension are derived from the population survey and case studies.

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\(^9\) Workers’ Union from the Municipality of Montevideo.

\(^{10}\) Environmental organisations did not have impact even during the most controversial moments between Uruguay and Argentina over the establishment of a pulp mill on the Uruguayan shore of the Uruguay River, a natural boundary between the two countries.
1.1 The extent of socially-based engagement

This sub-dimension explores the percentage of respondents actively engaged in socially-based activities. It studies the percentage of the general public who are members of social organisations and those people who volunteer in social organisations, as well as the percentage of people who engage several times or sometimes each year in community-based activities with other people. These can include, for example, sport clubs or volunteering and service organisations. The data are derived from the population survey.

Although 35.4% of the respondents are active members of some social organisation,\(^{11}\) this percentage significantly increases (47.0%) when respondents are asked about active membership in CSOs in general, without disaggregation into social or political organisations. Social organisations with the highest membership include religious, cultural, educational and sport or recreational organisations (FIGURE III.1.2). As shown in section 1.4, membership in political organisations is much lower.

The social volunteering indicator (see CSI Indicator Matrix, Annex 1) shows that 13.1% of the sample is engaged in voluntary work with at least one social organisation. Here, if we consider the whole range of CSOs considered in the survey, the percentage of people engaged in voluntary work records a slight increase, reaching 17.5%, the highest level of engagement being in cultural, artistic and educational organisations, followed by churches and religious organisations and then community organisations.

\(^{11}\) Social organisations include churches and religious organisations, sports, cultural and recreational organisations, educational or social service organisations and humanitarian and charitable organisations.
A case study was performed in this dimension as part of the CSI to study volunteerism more in depth, and to identify potential strategies for strengthening social and political engagement (see case study summary, Annex 5). Based on this case study, and including people from the age of 14, the percentage of volunteers rises to 19.9%. In addition, 43% of the population has done voluntary work at some point in their lives. The figures further show an increase in voluntary work, compared to the data recorded in the last decade:

Since 1998, the engagement in voluntary work has increased from 7% to 20%. This may result from many factors, which to a different extent assisted in the achievement of this change during the last decade, among others: the economic crisis, the greater spreading of information on the topic, and a growth in opportunities to do voluntary work in an organised way. (ICD, 2009:3)

Some of the reasons for this strengthening of voluntary work and volunteers’ engagement are that almost 80% were motivated by family members, friends, neighbours, co-workers or study mates and members of organisations, while the engagement of only 21% derived from personal interest. Those respondents that never did voluntary work answered that, among other reasons, it was due to lack of time, lack of motivation and lack of information.

In relation to the indicators of this sub-dimension, it must be noted that slightly more than a fourth of the population (26.8%) engages in social activities with other people in sports clubs or volunteering or service organisations several times a year.

1.2 Depth of socially-based engagement

How significant is engagement in social and CSO activities and how frequently or extensively are the respondents engaged in socially-based activities?
Thirty-one percent of the respondents who are active members in social organisations participate in more than one and 19.0% of the volunteers do voluntary work in more than one organisation. It is worth noting that among the volunteers doing social work in sports clubs or voluntary or service clubs, 80.0% are engaged at least once a month.

The case study on voluntary work concludes that: “People engaged in voluntary work do it more than once a week and spend mainly between one and 20 hours a month, hence reaching a total of more than 7,000 hours a month as far as the respondents are concerned.” (ICD, 2009:14).

Personal interviews held with representatives of civil society in different regions of the country (see Report on Regional Consultations, Annex 10) remarked on the quality and quantity of the social engagement and time devoted by the people who participate actively in organisations and groups. They also pointed out a weakness in that “the participants are always the same people”, and this puts at stake the efficiency of organisations’ actions.

1.3 Diversity of socially-based engagement

This sub-dimension explores the diversity and representative nature of civil society and analyses the percentage of organisation members who belong to ethnic minority groups and to the lowest socio-economic levels, and the participation rate of women or people living in rural areas. This is one of the outstanding results of this dimension, since there is a very high (86.1%) representative diversity, according to the variables analysed, and no sectors appear to have been excluded from participation.

The CSI case study on volunteerism found that men and women devote the same number of hours a month to voluntary work, but those respondents who describe themselves as lower class engage in more hours per month than respondents who describe themselves as upper class.

| Table III.1.1: Voluntary work engagement per socio-economic self-description |
|-----------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Hours engaged per month                             | Upper class     | Middle class    | Lower class     |
| 1 to 20 hours                                       | 77.1%           | 58.7%           | 28.6%           |
| 21 to 40 hours                                      | 22.9%           | 16.8%           | 22.6%           |
| More than 40 hours                                  | 0%              | 24.5%           | 48.9%           |

Source: ICD, 2009b: 18

This result traces its roots in the history of Uruguayan society, which, although it has had a rising social fragmentation since the 1990s, has been historically distinguished because of its integration and homogenous nature prevailing for most of the last century. As compared with other countries in the region, Uruguay presents a society with a relatively high level of equality that is deeply rooted in the institutions that have been the basis for social democracy, as reflected by the daily treatment and the lack of barriers to fluent communication among individuals from different economic conditions (Katzman, 2006).
1.4 Extent of political engagement

The analysis of the political engagement in this dimension reveals that only 14.8% of the population are active members of political organisations\textsuperscript{12} and only 4.4% do voluntary work in this sector.

**FIGURE III.1.3: Types of organisations with volunteers**

\begin{center}
\begin{tikzpicture}
\begin{axis}[
width=\textwidth,
height=0.5\textwidth,
bar width=12pt,
bar shift=0pt,
xtick=data,
xticklabels={Other organisations, Cultural or educational organisations, Churches or religious organisations, Neighbour organisations, Sports and recreational organisations, Humanitarian organisations},
]
\addplot[ybar,fill=blue!50] coordinates {
(1, 46.3) (2, 26.2) (3, 20.5) (4, 18.4) (5, 15.8) (6, 12.7)
};
\end{axis}
\end{tikzpicture}
\end{center}

Source: ICD, 2009b: 13

**FIGURE III.1.3** indicates that 46.3\% of those who volunteer do so for those organisations categorised as ‘other’, which includes political organisations such as political parties (8.2\%), youth organisations (6.6\%), professional associations (5.5\%), labour unions (5.4\%), environmental organisations (2.6\%), human rights organisations (1.9\%), consumer organisations (1.1\%) and others (9.9\%).

When enquiring about individual involvement in political activities, such as signing petitions, boycotts, or peaceful demonstrations, the percentage is also low; only 17.0\% of respondents have been involved in these types of actions during a five year period. Most have signed some sort of petition and to a lesser extent have participated in peaceful demonstrations.

1.5 Depth of political engagement

As mentioned in the analysis of the previous sub-dimension, the extent of political engagement is slightly low. When examining the significant degree of involvement, that is to say, the frequency or depth of engagement, only 27.7\% of the respondents who are members of a political CSO participate in more than one organisation. Regarding voluntary work, the percentage of people participating in more than one organisation is even less and the engagement score for individual activism is also low; only around a fourth declared having had a "very active" engagement in the last five years.

\textsuperscript{12} The analysis includes labour unions, political parties, environmental organisations, professional associations and human rights organisations.
1.6 Diversity of political engagement

Diversity, the representation of minorities and of the most excluded sectors in political activities is high, although slightly lower than the level of social engagement. We must highlight once again that all the lower economic-level sectors, women, ethnic minorities and people living in rural areas participate in the different political spheres.

Conclusion

Civic Engagement is the second weakest dimension reported by the CSI. In spite of its weakness, it is worth highlighting the diversity of engagement in social and political organisations, with a wide participation of women, people from different ethnic groups, people living in rural areas and people from low socio-economic levels.

The main weakness is the low level of participation, seen when considering organisation membership and extent of voluntary work, and slightly higher in socially-based activities than in politically-related activities. Civil society representatives remark on and value civil society engagement, but also consider there to be a participation crisis, where “the participants are always the same,” resulting in weakened efforts, which in turn affect efficiency. However, supplementary studies record an increase in voluntary work in the last decades, which will probably develop through other channels and sectors beyond CSOs. Political activism of citizens in defence of rights or causes is also low.

The low score in political engagement could be rooted in a state-centred and partitocracy society where politics is highly institutionalised and formalised by political parties, resulting in low individual political engagement (see also the relevant case study summary, Annex 6). People participate very actively through institutionalised mechanisms such as elections and plebiscites, but to a very much lower extent in non-institutionalised actions performed by individuals.

Additional information to the CSI analysis supports this. According to the Latinbarometer (2005), only 13.9% of people in Uruguay make donations of any sort to a CSO, with no differences reported between social and political organisations.13

2. LEVEL OF ORGANISATION

This dimension describes and explores the general level of organisation within civil society and addresses the relations among actors in it. It includes sub-dimensions and indicators that focus on the infrastructure of civil society, its stability and its capacity for collective action. The score for the Level of Organisation dimension is 59.5% and is one of the strongest dimensions, along with Perceived Impact. The data for this dimension is derived from the organisations survey, the Union of International Organisations14 and the case studies.

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13 Latinbarometer uses the same classification of organisations as the CSI.
14 The Institute for Communication and Development (ICD) and CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation would like to thank the Union of International Associations for their collaboration with the CSI project in providing this data.
The sub-dimension scores show CSO’s internal governance and peer-to-peer communication as the greatest strengths. The most remarkable weakness is the linkages between national and international CSOs. On the other hand, although financial and technological resources seemed to be adequate, human resources are reported as weak.

### 2.1 Internal governance

This sub-dimension explores the internal organisation and governance of CSOs. In the case of Uruguay, the institutionalisation level of organisations is very high, as the findings record that 90.4% of the CSOs surveyed have an Executive Committee or Steering Committee. The high institutionalisation levels are shown as a strength in all the regions of Uruguay, although the procedures to obtain legal status may present difficulties and take a long time.

Although organisations that obtain legal status are required by law to have an Executive or Steering Committee (standard bylaws), it must be noted that these are not just mere formalities, since more than 70% of the CSOs surveyed stated that their institution’s key decisions are made by the elected or appointed Steering or Executive Committee and that those committees hold regular meetings, with an average of 15 meetings a year.

### 2.2 Infrastructure

This sub-dimension reports the existence of support networks, federations and other similar organisations. Of the participating organisations, 71.3% reported being part of an umbrella or support network, variously described as a network, committee, association, federation, confederation, forum, platform, articulation, commission, council, collective, coordinating body, plenary session or coordination group.

The surveyed CSOs mentioned more than 90 different types of networks. Those mentioned most were: National NGOs Association (ANONG); The Uruguayan Co-operatives Confederation; neighbours associations; SOCAT’s network (Services of Orientation and Consultation for Citizens in the Territory); the PIT-CNT (Inter-Trade Union Assembly, Plenary Session - National Workers Convention); Environmental Education Network; and National Follow-up Commission of Beijing Commitments (CNS Women).

Networking enables organisations to have a more fluent exchange and maximise the impact of their actions, but there is a need to assess these networks in order to establish if they are effective and “real” or if these are simply structures lacking content.
Therefore, a study on networks and platforms (see case study summary, Annex 7) was undertaken as a part of the CSI project. It was found that networks or platforms as they grow mature in the agreements linking them, as well as their strategic nature and long-term objectives, and therefore tend to regularise their operation. On the other hand, the study records a crisis in people's involvement in networks, which matches the general engagement crisis of the Uruguayan society, as seen in the Civic Engagement dimension (see 1.1 and 1.4). Further to participation problems, networks encounter difficulties in performing their daily activities and developing strategic actions due to a lack of human, economic, and time resources. However, this continues to be a valued sphere:

The acknowledgement of civil society and its organisations as actors in their own right, the impact on public policies and the strengthening of organisations, are three of the factors seen as an asset that networks add to the individual work of organisations. (ICD, 2009e: 5)

Organisations in the provinces have made up several local networks but have very little presence in national networks, which mostly continue to have their highest number of partners in Montevideo, the capital. The historical centralism of Montevideo, as the administrative, political and economic district, as well as its housing half the population of the country, results in a gap between Montevideo and the provinces, which is present in all plans of action.

2.3 Sectoral communication

One of the main factors of civil society’s strength is the extent to which its different actors communicate and cooperate among themselves. This sub-dimension explores examples of network activities, data exchange and building-up of alliances to assess the extension of productive linkages and relationships among actors of civil society.

When organisations were asked if working meetings were held with other CSOs and information was exchanged during a period limited to the last three months, the answers recorded a very high percentage, over 80% in both cases. The average number of organisations with which exchanges were made and meetings held was 8 to 10 organisations.

Although there seems to be good communication among the organisations, in all the regional consultations internal and external communications are mentioned as weaknesses in terms of institutional capacities. In the provinces, however, communication with local media is fluent and characterised by good relationships, contrary to what happens with national media in the capital city.

In relation with other organisations, regional consultations detect some tension between organisations in the capital city and in the provinces, which feel consigned to be left aside in the awarding of financing, and fear knowledge gathered in their territory being co-opted by CSOs in the capital city.
2.4 Human resources

The sustainability of an organisation’s human resource base can be assessed by the ratio of paid staff to volunteers. Human resources are deemed sustainable when volunteers represent less than 25% of the average paid staff base. In the case of the organisations surveyed, only a fourth appeared to have a sustainable human resource base.

In addition to sustainability in terms of the ratio of paid staff to volunteers, the survey also enquired about the adequate condition of staff in terms of number and quality. The findings showed that more than half of the organisations consider the number of staff adequate (Figure III.2.2) and over 80% deem the level of staff experience adequate (Figure III.2.3).

However, the lack of a qualified human resource base was emphasised in the provinces. Specific training at the level of CSOs’ mid and managerial positions arises as a prevailing need.

The number of volunteers and paid staff in organisations is also high; in nearly 100 organisations there were 2,194 paid staff and 7,293 volunteers (an average of 66 per organisation). On the other hand, CSOs seem to be a sphere with a strong presence of women, who outnumber the male staff. On average, women also exceed men in number in the positions of executive committees.

2.5 Financial and technological resources

What is the level of financial and technological resources available for civil society? Do those involved consider them adequate? These are some of the questions addressed by this sub-dimension.

When analysing responses about the revenues situation year after year, as well as the level of expenditure, 65.2% of organisations show a stable financial condition. Organisations from the interior of Uruguay are the ones with less sustainability and less stability, according to the survey.
Table III.2.1: CSOs sources of funds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of funds</th>
<th>Percentage of CSOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate funds</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign donors</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual donations</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members’ subscription payments</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When analysing the origin of financial resources, members’ subscription payments appear as the highest income source of most organisations, followed by governmental funds, foreign donors and individual donations. Services account for a low percentage and corporate funds represent a very marginal support.

Among organisations with members’ subscription payments, for 36.7% those payments represent between 80 and 100% of their budget. Among those receiving government funds, for more than half of them (52.5%) those funds account for 80 and 100% of the organisation’s total revenues.

Table III.2.2: Percentage of CSOs total sources of funds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percentage of the organisation’s total sources of funds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 to 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate funds</td>
<td>35.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign donors</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual donations</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members’ subscription payments</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Technological resources and the use of communications technologies are extensive. Eight out of 10 organisations reported having regular access to basic resources such as telephone, facsimile, computer and internet access. Furthermore, 56.9% of those surveyed consider these resources to be adequate for their activities, while only 18.1% find them inadequate.

2.6 International linkages
The percentage of international non-governmental organisations (INGOs) present in the country compared to the total number of INGOs known is only 10.9%, which may indicate a low linkage among national CSOs with international NGOs. This may be due to the withdrawal of almost any international cooperation in Uruguay as a result of its condition as a mid-income country ranked high in the Human Development Indexes compared to other Latin American countries.

Conclusion
The level of organisation is one of the strongest dimensions of civil society in Uruguay. There is a high registration level and most organisations have the legal standing to operate,
although organisations in the provinces expressed that procedures are difficult, due to administrative centralisation in the capital city.

It must be further noted that there are high communication levels among the different CSOs and high network participation as well as high value granted to networks. However, CSOs have very limited institutional capacities for internal and external communication, and networks have difficulties in becoming sustainable spheres from the point of view of both actions and of members’ engagement, which in the opinion of experts, is undergoing a strong engagement crisis.

As far as the internal aspect of organisations is concerned, a challenge posed is the sustainability of human resources, since most organisations, especially the smallest ones, are supported by volunteers, and this renders them more vulnerable and with less capacity to develop and continue operating over time. Training of mid and managerial positions in these organisations becomes a priority, and a constant need for organisations. In some cases this could lead to internal tensions between technical staff and volunteers.

3. **Practice of Values**

This dimension describes and examines the values practiced and promoted by civil society. Some of the questions posed are the following: How much does civil society actively promote democracy at the society level? Are there CSOs specifically engaged in the promotion of democracy? Are there examples of civil society’s specific actions or programmes for promotion of transparency? How much are corruption practices manifested in civil society? Are there forces within civil society that are explicitly racist, discriminatory or intolerant? How much is the use of violence, such as violence against persons or property, employed by civil society’s actors to express their interest in the public sphere?

**Figure III.3.1: Practice of Values sub-dimension scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-dimensions</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Democratic decision-making governance</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour regulations</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codes of conduct and transparency</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental standards</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of values</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Practice of Values dimension scored the lowest in the CSI, at barely 43.4%. To score this indicator, data are taken from the organisations’ survey and from case studies. From the analysis of the sub-dimension scores, only the perception of values sub-dimension score exceeds 50% whereas the others are lower, with labour regulations scoring the lowest.
3.1 Democratic decision-making governance

Even though the percentage of organisations with Steering Committees or Executive Committees exceeds 90% (see 2.1) due to high formality levels, internal democratic decision-making seems relatively low. In 42.1% of CSOs, decisions are made by a democratic method—such as by members, an elected Steering Committee or Executive Committee, or staff. However, most decision-making in CSOs in Uruguay is entrusted to appointed executives. This would show a weakness in organisations’ internal governance, which was also shown by CSOs in regional surveys, where internal democracy was noted as a value, even though there was no agreement on whether internal democracy exists within organisations. The weaknesses pointed out include communication difficulties between management and members, and some problems derived from favouritism and a craving for power within organisations, as well as the lack of possibilities to impact internal decision-making (for more information, see Report on Regional Consultations, Annex 10).

3.2 Labour regulations

This sub-dimension scored the lowest within the Practice of Values dimension. First, the percentage of surveyed organisations having written procedures relating to equal job opportunities and/or equal remuneration for equal work (regardless of the sex of the person performing the job), fails to reach 50%. Second, staff membership in labour unions is still relatively low, even though in recent years the number of labour union affiliations has remarkably increased, owing to a strong boost for union membership due to the creation of Salary Boards.  

However, according to the case study conducted in relation to this dimension (see case study summary, Annex 9) there are some sectors within civil society that do have high union membership rates, such as private teaching centres. For example, the Uruguayan Private Teaching Union (SINTEP) was founded in 1985 and thousands of people employed in private schools are members. Even the NGO Workers’ Union, of the socio-educational sphere (ATONG), is a member of SINTEP.

Even though, as stated in the study, figures may show relative weaknesses, the employment function of social organisations is valued as very professional and based on fair principles. “There have been almost no labour conflicts or complaints filed by NGO officers against their employers, except for some exceptions, and conflicts in education have been settled with no further trouble” (ICD, 2009a: 12).

Another fact worth mentioning is the existence of a significant number of NGOs and other CSOs that have entered into agreements with several state bodies, with this being, to a large extent, their main source of financing. Thus, civil society organisations rank as “employees” or organisations hired by the state and this generates some tension due to the employer-employee double function. Additionally, it is understood that labour agreements with the state

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15 In 2005, when the government took office, the Salary Boards were created as a three-party arena for salary collective bargaining, formed by the government, business and workers. With the institution of Salary Boards, workers began to participate more actively and unions multiplied. The 70,000 new or renewed affiliations registered in 2005 are evidence of this. (Boliolo, Maneiro and Silva, 2006)

16 Private teaching institutions have the same legal capacity as the other CSOs, even though with some regulations and specific controls due to the type of work they perform.
must be reviewed if they do not comply with requirements regarding social security charges and social benefits stipulated by Uruguayan labour laws.

As regards training on workers’ labour rights, the percentage of organisations conducting such training is below 40% and only 27.6% have publicly available policies on labour standards. This is an area where civil society seems very weak.

3.3 Codes of conduct and transparency

The analysis found that 31.0% of the surveyed organisations declare that they have a publicly available code of conduct for their staff, and 54.0% declare that their financial information is publicly available. But when posing deeper questions on the methods for making financial information publicly available, over 60% declared that the information is available at the institution (treasury, committee, etc.), compared to only 13.6% available on websites, and smaller percentages of such information being made public in publications, bulletins or other means.

A case study commissioned on CSOs’ transparency and accountability in Uruguay (see Annex 9) would confirm that answers given by organisations in the CSI represent more the CSOs’ desire than reality:

> Even though organisations are very keen on transparency and accountability, there still lacks theoretical and practical systematisation development, and there are deficiencies in the elaboration and adjustment of tools and their incorporation as an element in institutional planning. (ICD, 2007b:102)

On the other hand, the study concludes that voluntary standards, such as a code of ethics or conduct and performance standards, are practically nonexistent and the only cases found correspond to organisation members of an international organisational structure or those who take part in national or international networks:

> The mostly used accountability methods are related to institutional and statutory dynamics, translating into activity reports, project reports or balance sheets […] the privileged audiences of organisations’ accountability are their donors, including, among others, cooperation agencies and companies, as well as the state, and members of the institution. Beneficiaries and citizens in general take part to a minimum extent. (ICD, 2007b: 102)

As a pioneer example, in 2007, the Uruguayan NGO Association (ANONG) promoted the adoption of a Code of Ethical Conduct for member organisations, to provide its organisations with a legitimacy and trust framework. The Code was approved in April 2008 following a lengthy drafting process. Having a Code constitutes major progress toward generating more legitimacy in society but, even though the approval got favourable reviews among different social agents, the implementation stage has been slow and, from time to time, stagnant. The reconfirmation of the Code by the member organisations themselves has shown very little impact (see case study summary, Annex 9).

CSOs’ weakness in this area and the need to intensify organisations’ transparency and accountability was one of the elements shared in all workshops conducted.
3.4 Environmental standards
As in the previous sub-dimension, the answer to the question ‘Does your organisation have a publicly available policy for environmental standards to be respected within the organisation?’ indicated that this seems to be a duty rather than a reality. In this case, 40.0% declare they do, but when discussing this subject in regional surveys, it is confirmed that the environmental issue is a serious absence in organisations’ daily work, where no environmental protection practices have been incorporated.

This result is related to the priority given by the Uruguayan society to environmental issues. According to the World Values Survey\(^{17}\) in 1996, 54% of Uruguayans believed that environmental protection had to be subordinated to economic growth, and only 26% thought otherwise. Ten years later, after a serious financial crisis and a bi-national conflict, answers were almost equal: 43% gave priority to environmental protection and 42% to the economy.\(^{18}\)

3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole
This sub-dimension examines the perception and promotion of values in civil society. When asked whether there are social forces in the country using violence to express their interests, meaning demonstrations attempted against other persons, buildings or public areas, such as “escraches” (demonstrations against specific persons or entities), road blockades or aggression to buildings, positive and negative answers are almost equally divided (51% and 49% respectively); but when asked deeper about how forces within civil society use violence to express their interests, 34.8% declare this is extremely rare and 37.1% say that isolated groups occasionally resort to violence.

A similar situation applies to groups showing intolerant, racist or discriminatory conduct: 73.9% believe that these groups are isolated or totally marginal and almost 80% know no case at all or can identify only one or two cases.

As to civil society’s perception of its role in the promotion of values within civil society itself, such as democratic decision-making, peace and non-violence, it is deemed to be relatively important, and its role in the promotion of peace and non-violence is held to be more significant than its role in the promotion of CSOs’ internal democracy.

FIGURE III.3.2: Perception of corruption within civil society

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\(^{17}\) World Values Survey Data furnished by the Ministry of Social Development.

\(^{18}\) Certainly the closeness of surveys to the settlement of the pulp mill dispute on the Uruguayan shore of the Uruguay River, which brought about a conflictive blockade of bridges upon a dispute with Argentina for three years, may have affected the results.
In general CSOs are not perceived by the population as corrupt. Barely 20% believe corruption practices within CSOs are frequent or very frequent and the majority, 57.1%, believe they are only occasional.

According to the International Transparency Global Corruption Barometer, presenting conclusions on corruption perception, in 2005 (last date when Uruguay was included), society perceived political parties and the Customs Board as the entities mostly affected by corruption. On to a scale from 1 (no problem) to 5 (a serious problem), political parties scored 4, the police scored 3.9, while, at the other end, NGOs (2.2) and mass media (2.8) ranked as the most reliable sectors (ICD, 2009).

**Conclusion**

The Practice of Values dimension has the lowest score of the CSI, and the labour relations sub-dimension appears to be the weakest. CSOs show deficiencies in promotion of labour rights and standards, as well as in public availability of policies on equal opportunities for men and women, employees’ labour training and levels of membership in labour unions, which are yet rather low. The double function of organisations rendering social services as employer and employee (of the state), brings about several challenges in relation to the different actors involved, either the organisations’ officers themselves or those that, in turn, provide the resources for the organisations’ work and activities.

On the other hand, even though internal democracy, transparency and accountability as well as environmental practices in institutional management are expressly valued, these practices are not sufficiently incorporated, developed or extended.

This dimension presents a gap between the values and the practice. There is a distance between what is promoted by organisations and what they have actually achieved, both in their own institutional management, and in their relationship with other actors of society.

**4. PERCEPTION OF IMPACT**

This dimension, scoring 59.8%, assesses the extent to which civil society is active and successful in the development of its core duties. The specific subjects examined are civil society’s responsiveness (receptivity) to priority social concerns; its impact on social issues; how active and successful it is at influencing public policy; and the impact it has had in the promotion of trust, public spiritedness and tolerance among CSOs.

These issues are presented from two points of view: CSOs’ internal perceptions (organisations survey) and external perceptions (external perceptions survey).
4.1. Responsiveness (internal perception)

Poverty and work/employment were selected, in consultation with the Advisory Committee (AC), as the priority issues to be the bases for surveys when asking about CSOs’ sensitivity and responsiveness to Uruguay’s most burning issues.

Civil society’s own assessment of its responsiveness to the selected issues is very high as 83.5% of CSOs consider that civil society’s responsiveness to poverty has been high or moderate, and 72.7% has a similar concept in relation to generation of employment.

When asking about sensitivity to other priority areas, the responsiveness level has been perceived to be high or moderate in the areas of assistance and education and promotion of rights, but such perception decreases in the promotion of good practices, and among the latter, the promotion of good business practices showed the lowest receptivity. (FIGURE III.4.2)

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19 Several Latin American countries which are implementing the CSI agreed to include other areas for responsiveness analysis. Such areas are as follows: support to poor people and vulnerable groups; promotion of rights; promotion of culture and education; environmental protection; promotion of good government practices; promotion of good business practices; promotion of good citizenship practices.
4.2 Social impact (internal perception)

When assessing the social impact of civil society as a whole in specific areas, 71.1% of CSOs believe that such impact has been high or has shown tangible results, and when asked about the impact of their own organisation, 78.7% perceived such impact as high or showing tangible results.

One third of the surveyed CSOs declare primarily having had an impact on the support to poor people and marginal groups. Education is the second item most mentioned. Employment, housing and food are mentioned very few times.

4.3 Policy impact (internal perception)

When asking about civil society’s impact in general on policies in Uruguay, the percentages of perceived impact decrease and only about half of CSOs perceive impact as high or as having had a tangible result.

In addition, while 59.6% of organisations declare to have worked during the last two years for the approval or implementation of public policies (laws, state programmes, etc.) only 31.9% of them declare to have succeeded in their actions. The areas where most organisations have worked are housing, health and education.

4.4 Responsiveness (external perception)

Civil society’s responsiveness to the country’s priority issues is perceived to have a lower impact by external observers (including governmental authorities, academia, business people, international entities’ representatives) than by civil society itself.

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20 The topic areas included are the following: support to the poor and vulnerable communities, education, housing, health, social development, humanitarian assistance, food and employment.
56.7% of external respondents believe civil society has achieved high impact or some tangible results in the fight against poverty, and a similar percentage (51.6%) in the area of work and employment.

When asked about other areas, beyond the two selected priority areas, the fields where external respondents perceived a higher responsiveness are, first, the promotion of human rights, and second, attention to poverty, with very low levels for the promotion of good governance and business practices.

**FIGURE III.4.3: Civil society’s responsiveness (external perception)**

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>High or moderate</th>
<th>Limited or none</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of good citizenship practices</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of good business practices</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of good governance practices</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental protection</td>
<td>46.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of culture and education</td>
<td>61.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rights promotion</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support given to socially-vulnerable</td>
<td>38.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>groups</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support and training given to the poor</td>
<td>70.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

### 4.5 Social impact (external perception)

When asked about the areas where society has had the highest impact, over half the external respondents declare support to poor people first (51.6%), while 22.6% mention social development. When assessing the impact of civil society on the selected areas, a very high average percentage, 82.9%, consider that it has been high or shown some tangible impact. When asked in general, ‘what kind of impact do you believe civil society has on the Uruguayan social context?’ the perceived impact decreases by almost 10 percentage points.

### 4.6 Policy impact (external perception)

When asked about their opinion on the policies in which civil society has been more active and the result achieved, external respondents mention, first of all, social policies, such as the Emergency Plan, second, education and human rights. Second, they point out political actions regarding indebtedness and budget, and in the third place, gender issues.

The external perception of the civil society’s impact on these policies is very high, since 80.0% believe that actions have been successful. But when asked ‘what level of impact do

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21 The areas mentioned in the survey were as follows: support to the poor and to vulnerable communities, education, housing, health, social development, humanitarian assistance, food and employment.

22 A programme against poverty and social exclusion implemented by the Ministry of Social Development (MIDES) shortly after its creation in 2005.
you believe civil society as a whole has on the formulation of country’s policies?’ the positive responses decrease to 60.0%.

With the purpose of investigating the impact of civil society’s agenda on political parties’ programmes, the role given by political parties to CSOs and the areas where these organisations can contribute to the country, a case study was conducted as part of the CSI examining the programmatic agenda of political parties in the 2009 national elections (see case study summary, Annex 8).

The case study first elucidated the role that political parties’ programmes give to different CSOs, and how they view the relationship of a future government with social organisations. The study then determined that none of the five programmes studied included a specific chapter devoted to social organisations or to the role they are intended to have, but that in all cases, there were references to spheres of participation in specific issues.

As to the participation of organised civil society at some level of public policies (design, planning and implementation) there are some subtle differences regarding the willingness to incorporate the organisations, depending on the parties. Frente Amplio (Socialist Broad Front), a left-wing party holding office from 2005 to 2009 and the winner of the 2009 elections, showed the largest extent of openness to relationships with and participation of CSOs in public policies, both in the design and implementation of plans and programmes, presenting specific relationship mechanisms for the different areas (such as discussion tables and local tables). The other parties proposed to focus the state’s alliances with CSOs almost exclusively on the implementation of policies concerning childhood, cultural or sports programmes.

4.7 Impact of civil society on attitudes

There are no significant differences in trust, tolerance and public spiritedness between civil society’s members and non-members, and this implies that civil society is not directly influencing the attitudes of its members.

In relation to trust in CSOs, 39.0% of the surveyed people declared a high trust level and 61.0% a low trust level, if all the category of CSOs are aggregated (churches, labour unions, political parties, environmental organisations, women’s and humanitarian or charitable organisations). However, upon looking at the disaggregated results and including other types of institutions, as shown in Figure III.4.4, women’s organisations are the ones getting the highest trust levels, with charitable organisations ranking almost equally, followed by environmental organisations. Labour unions get low trust levels, but political parties get the lowest trust level of all surveyed institutions.

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23 The last national presidential elections in Uruguay were held on 25 October and 29 November 2009, first and second round, respectively.
24 Partido Nacional (National Party), Partido Colorado (Red Party), Frente Amplio (Broad Front), Partido Independiente (Independent Party) and Asamblea Popular (Popular Assembly).
In addition to data obtained from surveys, in regional workshops it was believed that, in general, progress has been made in improving the social and political impact of organisations, and that there is a corresponding significant social acknowledgment of CSOs, but also that there are still some imbalances of the impacts achieved depending on the work areas. Some internal and external factors have been specially highlighted, which conspire against a higher impact: low visibility of CSOs’ actions, fragmentation, a lack of space for education and training of CSO managers, communication difficulties and centralisation in the capital city (see also Report of Regional Consultations, Annex 10).

Conclusion
In the light of the results of this dimension, it may be established that the perception of impact of CSOs’ actions is high, even more in the social arena than the political. In addition, the external perception of impact is higher that the perception by CSOs themselves. Nevertheless, in relation to responsiveness to priority issues for the country, such as poverty and generation of employment, civil society perceives itself to have a higher responsiveness than that perceived by external respondents.

As regards the impact on policies and, specifically, on programmatic proposals of political parties, as could be seen in the case study on the 2009 election, even though political sectors have become aware of civil society’s agenda and interests, in many cases they reflect the presence and effectiveness of the state-centred nature of Uruguayan policy:

In most of the proposals for public policies by all political parties, both in governance and in the design and even in the execution of such policies, the state still plays a central role. Some programmes highlight the accessory role given to social organisations, whereas other programmes outline a much more prominent role. (ICD, 2009c: 5)
5. EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

This dimension assesses the context in which civil society exists and functions. A description is made of the social, economic, cultural and legal environment where civil society acts. It consists of three sub-dimensions: 1) the socio-economic context; 2) the socio-political context, and 3) the socio-cultural context. Data for this dimension are obtained from secondary sources, the organisation survey, the population survey and case studies.

**FIGURE III.5.1: External environment: sub-dimension scores**

![Bar chart showing sub-dimension scores](chart)

This dimension scores 72.8, the highest score of the Uruguay CSI, thus showing that civil society in Uruguay develops in an enabling environment from the socio-economic, socio-political and socio-cultural point of view.

5.1 Socio-economic context

This sub-dimension examines Uruguay’s social and economic situation, and the impact of such a situation on civil society.

The following international sources are used to analyse the indicators:

- a) Social Watch’s Basic Capabilities Index (2008), consisting of the following three criteria covering health and basic education provisions: the percentage of children who reach fifth grade at school; the percentage of children who survive until at least their fifth year (based on mortality statistics); and the percentage of births attended by health professionals.

- b) Transparency International’s Corruption Perception Index (2008), which measures the perception of corruption within the public sector.

- c) The World Bank Gini Coefficient (2007-2008), which shows the inequality levels among society, i.e. the gap between affluent and poor populations.

- d) World Bank Development Indicators (2007), which are used to see the quotient between external debt and GNI (Gross National Income), as an indicator of economic development.
Data gathered from these different international sources indicate a country with a very high level of basic capabilities (near 100%), with average economic development, an average level of social inequality, and rather low corruption levels. 

5.2 Socio-political context
The examination of basic features of the political system in Uruguay and the impact on civil society includes the following: political rights and civil liberties (rule of law, personal autonomy and individual rights, freedom of speech and of religion), rights of association and organisation and state effectiveness.

The following information sources are used:


b) World Bank Governance Indicators (2007), Governance Efficiency Indicator

The results obtained from these international indicators show a country enjoying a very high level of individual rights and freedoms, where the rule of law and freedom of speech and religion are guaranteed, as are the rights of association and organisation.

To assess the legal framework in a subjective manner, CSOs’ own experience is also taken into account. When consulting on the legal framework, answers that consider society’s rules and regulations to be enabling or moderately enabling and those that consider them limiting or highly restrictive are divided into equal shares.

Table III.5.1: CSOs’ legal framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you believe civil society’s laws and regulations to be…</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly restrictive</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather limiting</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately enabling</td>
<td>52.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally enabling</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, in interviews the issue of the laws regulating civil society appeared as a concern of relevance. It was stated that it is much too comprehensive a framework, failing to take into account the diversity of associative world and the different organisational types, and failing to facilitate or promote associations, even discouraging associations to a certain extent. 

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25 For the CSI, due to international comparison reasons, the results of the 2008 Global Corruption Report were used. In 2009, according to the same research, the index of Uruguay decreased two points, scoring 6.7, placing the country at the 25th position of the index, among 180 rated countries.

26 The Constitution expressly provides for the rights of association and of free expression of thoughts in articles 39 and 29, respectively. The wording of the Constitution makes reference in several articles to non-profit private institutions of a certain type, as well as to rights and, in some cases, limitations to the activities of such institutions: article 5, religious organisations; articles 57 and 58, labour unions; article 69, teaching and cultural institutions; article 77 section 11, political parties. Regulations are not specified in the Constitution but in several legal and regulatory provisions. The basis of legal rule on CSOs of the legal system is article 21 of the Civil Code (passed on 23 January 1868 as amended on 19 October 1994). In 1999, after several years of negotiations, a Law on Foundations was approved (Law No. 17163).
On the other hand, the vast majority state they have received no restrictions or attacks from central government, with just 17.5% mentioning having suffered either. In addition, CSOs that took part in regional surveys consider that the government of 2005 to 2009 period encouraged several political reforms that have had a positive impact on the generation of social movements, and that room has been created that enables participation, even though results have not been as expected in all cases. Health reform, which incorporates the health users’ movement, was offered as an example of a sphere making possible citizens’ action in policy monitoring, although limited, since there is little likelihood of CSOs’ influence at the time of reframing public intervention. In spite of the creation of spheres, it is remarked that no change has been made to foster citizen participation at the different stages of policies.

With the purpose of deepening the relationship between society and state, a matter highlighted by CSOs, a case study was conducted on the spheres of relationship and shared participation (see case study summary, Annex 6). The study analysed in depth a significant number of relationship mechanisms currently in progress, some of them created in recent years and others implemented before 2005.

The assessments of secondary sources found that the different spaces are similar, both in the perceived positive aspects, and in detected critical views.

The most remarkable positive aspects are: openness of dialogue spheres among governmental authorities with other social organisations; the opportunity to participate in the design of public policies (in those cases where the interlocutor state opens space for this level of involvement and the access to information); the institutional strengthening of organisations involved in participation processes; and the increase of transparency in the execution of public policies, deriving from reciprocal controls between governmental and non-governmental actors.

But there are also some critical views in this respect, such as: continuity, in general terms, of views regarding state-centralisation and partricy in political groups leading the state, even in the presence of a participative rhetoric; the absence of a uniform strategy in the different state counterparts in relation to the stimulus of participative dynamics; marked asymmetry in the handling of and access to information between governmental and non-governmental actors; unawareness of local realities; predominant discussion of short-term issues to the detriment of the possibility of building a strategic view and priority agenda; and a training deficit in several non-governmental actors compromising their effective access to information and their effective capability of incidence.

The study showed that even though the relationship level achieved is more fluent, civil society has not been able to meet the initial expectations, since the inertia of a state-centred system based on political parties is still very strong.

5.3 Socio-cultural context

This sub-dimension examines the extent to which socio-cultural rules and attitudes are favourable or detrimental to civil society. The study examines interpersonal trust, tolerance of society members (for instance of people of different race, religion, ethnicity, and immigrants, foreign workers, people with HIV/AIDS and homosexuals), and public spiritedness (for example, the level of acceptance of people who avoid a fare on public transport, cheat on their taxes, claim government benefits to which they are not entitled, or accept bribes).
When asked if people can be trusted or if one must be careful, only 17.0% of the population survey declared that most people can be trusted, whereas 83.0% declared that one must be very careful. This level of interpersonal distrust seems to have increased in recent years, since according to the results of Latinobarometer 2005, when asked the same question, 78% believed that “one is never careful enough with strangers” and 19.1% said that most people can be trusted. (Latinobarometer Corporation, 2005). However, the index is much higher for tolerance: when asked if they would like being neighbours with people of a different race, people with HIV/AIDS, homosexuals and heavy drinkers, among others, tolerance levels are above 90% in all cases.

Public spiritedness also reaches high levels. In this indicator, people are asked to rate from “never justified” to “always justified”, certain actions such as “claiming government benefits to which you are not entitled,” “cheating on taxes if you have the chance” and “accepting bribes in the working environment.” On average, the general opinion is that these actions are almost never justified.

Conclusion

The External Environment dimension scores the highest in the CSI, showing an enabling socio-political, socio-cultural and socio-economic context for civil society’s development. If civil society has failed to reach a higher development level, answers should not be sought in the environmental context. Besides, over 80% of organisations declare not to have suffered any attacks or restrictions from the government. Laws, even though they may need to be revised, should not hinder civil society’s progress.

Beyond the data furnished by indicators, this dimension provides relevant information for analysing the civil society–state relationship. Even though spaces for dialogue and shared participation have been opened and a more fluent relationship level has been achieved, civil society has failed to meet the expectations for influencing policies since the inertia of state-centralisation and partocracy within the system is still very strong.

In this dimension, one of the most remarkable findings is the low level of interpersonal trust, in a country with good corruption levels as per international indexes. According to a study recently conducted:

Uruguay reports a slow improvement in probity levels, characterised by the perception of no systemic corruption and the permanent feeling of administrative abuse of power, use of contacts, and difficulties to enter the culture of transparency and good administrative practices. (ICD, 2009:9)

IV. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF CIVIL SOCIETY

The five dimensions analysed show strengths and weaknesses, the identification of which is a main goal of this study and of these tools, in order to elaborate strategies and courses of action for the strengthening of civil society in Uruguay.

The main strengths and weaknesses, which have been identified by the CSI quantitative research and case studies, as well as in the opinions given by participants in civil society, and
Strengths

- The **level of social voluntary work** in the last years has increased, and has reached as far as 20% of the population over 14 years of age. Women and younger people are an inspirational example, since they make up the majority of the volunteers.

- The **diversity of participation** is one of the highlighted strengths. It has been noted that people of all walks of life actively participate in civil society initiatives, including people from the lowest socio-economic levels, women and ethnic minorities.

- There is a **high level of regularisation** in social organisations, since most of them have legal status, and internal decisions come from Steering Committees.

- It is important to highlight the **high levels of communication** amongst organisations in civil society, and the high rate of participation in networks (over 71% mentioned that they belong to a network), as well as the value and relevance given to these platforms.

- Civil society is perceived as **active and successful** in the development of some specific functions, and the perception of impact of civil society is high, with the social level being higher than the political level. The level of responsiveness of civil society on issues such as poverty reduction and job creation is considered to be very high, both by the people involved and by the organisations, although this level of impact is considered to be medium by external observers.

- The **external environment or context** in which civil society operates seems to be very favourable, especially in the socio-political arena, with very few restrictions imposed by the government on civil society. The laws that specifically refer to social organisations are considered to be moderately enabling, while it is claimed that the current administration has fostered a number of reforms of public policies that have caused a positive impact, with the opening of new participative opportunities for civil society, although the evaluation of the results of participation is not always positive.

Weaknesses

- There is a **relatively low level of civic participation and civil commitment**, which is slightly higher in social organisations than in political organisations. This can be seen both at the level of membership and of voluntary work. The representatives of civil society consider that the commitment and dedication of the people who participate in CSOs is essential, but against they speak of a certain participation crisis, since “always the same people participate”, and hence efforts become weaker, and efficiency is lost.

- Citizens’ individual **political activism** is also low in terms of defending specific causes or citizens’ rights. This low political commitment at the individual level may originate in a state-centred and political-party oriented society, in which politics are
highly institutionalised and formalised in political parties, resulting in people not committing individually to political issues.

- The lack of trained human resources and their limited sustainability appears to be a weakness, especially in organisations in the provinces. A great number of CSOs, especially smaller ones, are mostly supported by voluntary personnel, thus becoming more vulnerable, and with lower capacity for development.

- In a country with a low level of decentralisation in decision-making processes, organisations seem to be affected by the traditional tensions between the capital city (Montevideo) and the rest of Uruguay. Organisations that are distantly located from the power centres have little access to information and to funds, and they encounter many procedural difficulties as a result of this centralisation.

- Although the levels of articulation and participation in networks is very high, as well as peer communications, the internal and external communications of CSOs is one of the greatest weaknesses that have been reported. Institutional strengthening of CSOs in this area is considered to be necessary, together with cooperative work with the media.

- Despite the existence of many networks, their efficacy and tangible impact is questioned. Besides, at the networks level, a strong participation crisis is perceived, where the same people participate, in addition to existing communication problems and difficulties in exchanging information and in provoking an impact.

- The values dimension has received the lowest rate by the CSI, and the area of labour relations shows the highest level of weaknesses. CSOs record some weaknesses in the promotion and publicity of work rights and standards, of equal opportunities for men and women, in employees’ training, and at the union membership level.

- Even if CSOs’ internal democracy is appreciated as an important asset, it is not always translated into practice: the real level of democratic decision-making processes in institutions is highly questioned, and there are communication difficulties between managers and members, as well as some problems derived from favouritism and a craving for power within organisations. This situation hinders opportunities for participation in internal decision-making processes.

- There is also a need to improve and deepen the transparency and accountability of organisations, especially towards their benefactors and public opinion.

- As regards the incorporation of environmental practices in institutional management, the weakness here is notorious. Except for organisations that specifically work in this area, the rest have made no progress in this aspect.

- Even if new opportunities for dialogue and cooperation with the government have been created and a more fluent level of relationships has been achieved, civil society expectations for having an influence on politics have not been accomplished.

- Different internal and external factors conspire against the achievement of a higher impact, such as the low visibility of the courses of actions taken, in many cases
because of the inaccurate communication of the successes and good practices of civil society, which entails the fragmentation of these actions.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the results of the research and the strengths and weaknesses identified, the representatives of CSOs and other external interlocutors had the opportunity to elaborate some possible strategies and courses of actions to strengthen civil society.

The following are the main courses of action presented.

- **The promotion of participation and strengthening of voluntary work**, through:
  - the creation of volunteers’ demand and supply data banks that may better satisfy the needs in each area;
  - basic training for volunteers;
  - recognition and compensation mechanisms to get more young people involved;
  - publicity of activities and their results to encourage an increase in the number of people interested in participating;
  - incorporation of social participation and civil commitment in professionals’ development and teachers’ curricula at all levels;
  - discussions amongst CSOs about what kind of participation should be promoted.

- **Promotion of civil society networks and partnerships**, through:
  - strengthening of inter-institutional networks;
  - trust-building and loyalty-building amongst institutions;
  - application of principles of local empowerment;
  - brokering of agreements amongst institutions with particular expertise and institutional strengths, including financial and work-sharing agreements.

- **Advocate for a direct subsidy from the state** to support CSOs with fewer resources so that they can develop technical and administrative staff capabilities and improve the service they provide to the community.

- **Staff strengthening** at institutions through:
  - organisations’ design of services’ sales strategies that may allow them to improve their personnel situation;
  - agreements with the UTU (Uruguay Work University) or with the UDELAR (University of the Republic), to provide CSOs with free training in their areas of interest.

- **Assist organisations in the provinces to have access to funds and information about financing sources**, through:
  - building local or regional networks to exchange information (e.g. on voluntary work, financing or training sources);
  - creating a donors’ list, both in printed and online forms, which can be frequently updated and complemented with the publication of a newsletter.
Create a census, directory or guide of CSOs, available in printed form and on the internet:
- to have national coverage, local and national media groups could be engaged;
- government institutions such as the Ministry of Social Development, town councils and universities could also become partners in this initiative.

Maintain coherence between preaching values and putting them into practice at the internal level:
- social organisations should incorporate behaviour or ethical codes, both for individuals and for networks or other institutions;
- promote self-regulation as the most suitable solution, as opposed to vertical external controls.

Promote mechanisms of social accountability, so that with the implementation of agreements and standards, organisations can collectively (in a permanent or time-specific network, association or platform) carry out social accountability:
- create indicators and tools that can facilitate the inclusion of the beneficiaries’ and targeted groups’ voices so as to include them in a project from definition and design, through to implementation, monitoring and evaluation;
- take into consideration the three levels of accountability: for donors, for other organisations (peers) and for targeted groups (beneficiaries).

Measure the impacts of different programmes and organisations’ projects:
- create indicators;
- ensure evaluation encompasses evaluation against the accomplishment of an organisation’s mission;
- encourage external and peer evaluation of CSOs by other CSOs with knowledge and expertise, to generate cross and inter-organisational knowledge.

Work with media groups:
- develop opportunities for CSOs to express who they are and what they do, and make their actions more visible;
- study the viability of civil society owning a television channel (a law has recently been passed in Uruguay that creates 10 digital channels, two of which should have a social orientation);
- reinforce labour agreements with community radio stations.

Promote multipliers and exchanges, through:
- internships or didactic exchanges;
- dialogues with universities, companies and media groups to create further opportunities of interaction and mutual learning.

Establish competitive government funding, which may require the participation of several organisations, for mutual strengthening and greater articulation. In government calls for projects and cooperation, joint applications from different CSOs could be included as a condition.
- Systematise organisations’ learning processes and experience sharing, to achieve higher levels of incidence and impact.

- Promote change in the legal framework:
  - create legislation that takes account of different CSO types;
  - expedite the procedures to obtain legal status, something that can be very cumbersome, especially for the organisations in the provinces.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The different CSI findings show a graphic interpretation of the situation of the civil society at a given moment, through the Civil Society Diamond, whose edges and size define society’s main features.

**Figure VI.1: Civil Society Diamond for Uruguay**

The Uruguayan Civil Society Diamond portrays a civil society with a medium level development which operates in a highly favourable environment, with a relatively high level of organisation, and whose actions are perceived as having relatively high impact. However, people’s participation is relatively low, as well as the practice and promotion of values, the latter being the lowest one of all dimensions.

**Table VI.1: CSI dimension scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civic Engagement</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Organisation</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice of Values</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Impact</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Environment</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study of the scores in the five dimensions (Table VI.1) and the analysis of the size of the diamond and the circle around it (external environment) show that the development of civil society is not consistent with the environment around it. The context could foster the further development and greater growth of civil society.

The level of civic engagement and people’s participation is relatively low. However the level of participation is higher in social organisations than in political ones, and social voluntary work has increased in the last years, reaching almost 20% of the population over 14 years of age.

The information concerning infrastructure, human resources, organisation financial resources and cooperative relationships between CSOs and other institutions, show a civil society with a high organisation and formality level, and with strong communications and work relationship links, since most of the organisations participate in some kind of network. Even so, problems in CSOs can still be identified, such as a lack of trained human resources and the sustainability of the human resource base, as well as serious difficulties in fundraising that may assure the continuity of CSO activities.

In a country with a low level of decentralisation, organisations seem to be affected by the traditional tensions between the capital city Montevideo and the rest of the country, with organisations located far away from the power centres having little access to information or different kinds of resources and financing sources. Despite their high level of regularisation and the great number of existing networks, the effectiveness and tangible impact of these are questioned, together with their maturity and real level of participation; according to many opinions, also at the level of networks, the same people participate, which creates difficulties for communication and exchange of information.

The information concerning the values practised by civil society was deeply analysed by the participants in the surveys and workshops. The need to focus on values connected with basic universal values has been agreed and insisted upon, both for individual and for organisational, collective participation in civil society: respect for human rights, transparency in organisations, democratic processes, and democracy in organisations and their governance. The promotion of peaceful conflict resolution, the use of non-violence, people’s solidarity and gender equality in institutional responsibilities are also parameters used to measure the values promoted by civil society in Uruguay, and this dimension has received the lowest score.

Even if the promotion of a culture of non-violence, peace and respect for democracy is perceived as moderately high, CSOs seem to fail in other aspects. For instance, organisations lack, for the most part, written policies about equal opportunities, their staff are not members of labour unions, and organisations do not provide their staff, paid or volunteer, training or information on labour rights. In the same way, although internal democracy in organisations is considered to be an important value, it does not always translate into practice: the real level of decision-making processes in institutions is seriously criticised, since communication difficulties between managers and members, and craving for power within organisations, are commonplace. This affects the existence of opportunities for direct participation in decision-making processes. Another area to highlight is the call to improve and deepen aspects that contribute to the transparency and accountability of organisations, especially towards their
beneficiaries and public opinion, and the incorporation of environmental practices in institutional management, which is practically nonexistent in CSOs in Uruguay.

Civil society is perceived as active and successful in the development of certain specific functions, and the impact perceived of civil society is high, being higher in social than in political organisations. Civil society responsiveness in issues such as poverty reduction and job creation is considered to be very high by organisations, but civil society is seen as having a medium level of responsiveness by external observers.

The impact on the relationships of civil society with actors and government agencies is heterogeneous, since in some programmes a simple additional outsourcing role is assigned to CSOs, while in other programmes and contexts organisations achieve a higher level of responsibility. According to those who have analysed the data compiled, different internal and external factors act against the achievement of a higher impact, and one reason is the low visibility of actions, in many cases because of incomplete publicity of civil society successes and good practices. Other problems and difficulties that have been identified are a lack of training opportunities for CSO staff and volunteers, as well as difficulties in communications.

The external environment and context in which civil society operates seems to be highly favourable, especially in socio-political aspects, with few restrictions on social organisations from the government. The legislation specifically related to the possibility of working in social organisations is considered moderately enabling, while it is perceived that the current administration has fostered a number of public policies that have made a positive impact favouring the participation of CSOs. New dialogue opportunities have been created, and access to information has been enhanced. The participation of the organisations involved brings about a higher level of publicity of their actions, and as a result, they can expect to become institutionally stronger, while the implementation of their public policies will become more transparent.

However, it is evident that the state-centred and partocracy approach, very typical of Uruguayan society, is very difficult to change, and it oftentimes creates asymmetries in different areas, from access and handling of information to the responsibility assigned to organisations in the execution of social policies. These asymmetrical relationships often bring about limitations in the capacity of many CSOs, which hinders their effective influence in society. Even in a favourable context and with experiences of cooperation with the state, several signs of mutual mistrust can be seen at different levels, with civil society networks, with the government, and with some political parties.

Because of some methodological changes, the data collected for the CSI 2003-2006 phase is not strictly comparable to the one collected in this last study, but they give us an idea about the direction of the changes in almost five years. In 2005 civil society was presented as operating in a relatively favourable context, with a medium development level in the promotion and practice of values, but with a low impact of its actions, and with a weaker structure (ICD, 2006).

This indicates that apparently there has been some improvement in the context and in the external environment as a result of the improvements in the socio-political, socio-economic and socio-cultural context. Likewise, the results indicate that the perceived impact of CSOs actions is higher, which would show a better positioning between the different society members and public opinion. Further, while the evaluation of the practice and promotion of
values shows a decline, this could be in part attributed to the introduction of new measurement indicators. An improvement can be noticed in the organisational level (“structure” in the previous version) between 2006 and 2010, although the comparison in this case is less realistic, since civic participation (which is now an independent dimension) belonged to the structure dimension, and it could have rated a lower score in this dimension.

In the observation of the strengths and weaknesses identified on both occasions, some of the weaknesses identified still persist: the low level of participation in CSOs, the lack of communication channels and communication difficulties for CSOs, the lack of transparency and accountability, the weak impact on public policies, and the scarcity of actions in favour of environmental sustainability. Hence, these are some of the central issues that civil society should reflect on to give new directions to their internal actions, as well as to their relationships with other actors.
## ANNEX 1. CSI INDICATOR MATRIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub dimension</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1) Dimension: Civic Engagement</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Extent of social engagement</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.1</td>
<td>Social membership 1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.2</td>
<td>Social volunteering 1</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.3</td>
<td>Engagement with community 1</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Depth of social engagement</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.2.1</td>
<td>Social membership 2</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2.2</td>
<td>Social volunteering 2</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2.3</td>
<td>Engagement with community 2</td>
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<td>Diversity of social engagement</td>
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<td>Extent of political engagement</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.6.1</td>
<td>International linkages</td>
<td>10.9</td>
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<td><strong>3) Dimension: Practice of Values</strong></td>
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<td>Publicly available code of conduct</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.4.1</td>
<td>Environmental standards</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Perception of values in civil society as a whole

- **3.5.1 No violence perceived**: 34.8
- **3.5.2 Internal democracy perceived**: 62.2
- **3.5.3 Corruption levels perceived**: 21.9
- **3.5.4 Intolerance perceived**: 78.2
- **3.5.5 Perceived dominance of intolerant groups**: 73.9
- **3.5.6 Perceived promotion of non-violence and peace**: 64.9

### Dimension: Perception of Impact

#### Responsiveness (internal perception)

- **4.1.1 Impact on social interest 1**: 83.5
- **4.1.2 Impact on social interest 2**: 72.7

#### Social impact (internal perception)

- **4.2.1 Social impact in general**: 74.9
- **4.2.2 Social impact of the organisation itself**: 78.7

#### Policy impact (internal perception)

- **4.3.1 Policy impact in general**: 50.5
- **4.3.2 Policy activity of the organisation itself**: 59.6
- **4.3.3 Policy impact of the organisation itself**: 31.9

#### Responsiveness (external perception)

- **4.4.1 Impact on social interest 1**: 56.7
- **4.4.2 Impact on social interest 2**: 51.6

#### Social impact (external perception)

- **4.5.1 Social impact on selected interests**: 82.9
- **4.5.2 General social impact**: 73.3

#### Political impact (external perception)

- **4.6.1 Policy impact on specific fields 1-3**: 80.0
- **4.6.2 Policy impact in general**: 60.0

#### Civil society impact on attitudes

- **4.7.1 Trust difference among civil society members and non-members**: 8.9
- **4.7.2 Difference in tolerance levels among civil society members and non-members**: 12.0
- **4.7.3 Difference in public spiritedness among civil society members and non-members**: 3.4
- **4.7.4 Trust in civil society**: 39.0

### External Environment

#### Socio-economic context

- **5.1.1 Basic capacities index**: 96.3
- **5.1.2 Corruption**: 69.0
- **5.1.3 Inequality**: 55.1
- **5.1.4 Economic context**: 45.6

#### Socio-political context

- **5.2.1 Political rights and freedoms**: 97.5
- **5.2.2 Rule of law and civil liberties**: 95.8
- **5.2.3 Associational and organisational rights**: 100.0
- **5.2.4 Legal framework experience**: 66.3
- **5.2.5 State efficiency**: 61.4

#### Socio-cultural context

- **5.3.1 Trust**: 17.0
- **5.3.2 Tolerance**: 96.7
- **5.3.3 Public spiritedness**: 89.5

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CIVICUS Civil Society Index Analytical Country Report for Uruguay
ANNEX 2. MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Association of Non-Governmental Organisations (ANONG)</td>
<td>Daniel Miranda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jewish Volunteer Network</td>
<td>Dora Shlafok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguayan Network against Domestic and Sexual Violence</td>
<td>Teresa Herrera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Inter-American Platform of Human Rights, Democracy and Development (PIDHDD)</td>
<td>Mariana Labastie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguayan Catholic Education Association (AUDEC)</td>
<td>Marcelo Fontona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-Trade Union Assembly, Plenary Session - National Workers Convention (PIT CNT)</td>
<td>Fernando Pereira</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Women Association (AMRU)</td>
<td>Teresa Pedemonte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIESEC Montevideo</td>
<td>Noemí Delgado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Community Radio Stations Association – Uruguay Chapter (AMARC)</td>
<td>José Imaz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Follow-Up Commission (CNS)</td>
<td>Lilián Abracinskas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarandí Radio</td>
<td>Jaime Clara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft</td>
<td>Leticia de Pena</td>
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<tr>
<td>United Nations Development Programme (PNUD)</td>
<td>Virginia Varela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Bank</td>
<td>Valeria Bolla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Citizenship Development Bureau-Ministry of Social Development (MIDES)</td>
<td>Mariella Mazzotti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Management and Modernization Department, Office of Planning and Budget (OPP)</td>
<td>Alejandra Erramuspe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ombudsman Office – Montevideo</td>
<td>Fernando Rodríguez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureau of Social Development, Municipality of Canelones</td>
<td>Gabriela Garrido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguayan Interdisciplinary Study Centre, School of Humanities, UDELAR</td>
<td>Álvaro Rico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish International Cooperation Agency for Development (AECID)</td>
<td>Blanca Rodríguez (Observer)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANNEX 3. DESCRIPTION OF THE METHODOLOGY USED

According to the CIVICUS guidelines, the different methods used for the CSI, listed in the implementation sequence, have been:

- *Compilation of secondary information*: bibliography review, review of unpublished documents and websites, in order to gather information about civil society in Uruguay.

- *Population Survey*: This was conducted between the end of April and the beginning of May 2009. A representative sample of 1,100 homes was chosen through a random, probabilistic and stratified way, by sex and age (individuals 18 years of age or older), in regions and cities of over 5,000 inhabitants. The technique used to conduct the survey was a survey questionnaire designed by CIVICUS CSI and adapted by ICD.
The field work was run by the company “Gente Encuestas”. The error margin was ±2.9%.

- **Organisations Survey**: This survey was conducted between May and June 2009 through another questionnaire developed by CSI and adapted by ICD, and the field work was run by the company “Gente Encuestas”. For the elaboration of the organisations’ sample, a database of different organisations was unified in the first place, and subsequently a selection was made, taking into account certain criteria that may assure the representation of the whole civil society in different categories of CSOs, their geographical distribution, the diversity of the thematic areas and the period they were created, among others. The initial sample was studied by the Advisory Committee, which made some suggestions according to their experience. An alternative list was also made in case substitutions could be justified in the process. 116 organisations were surveyed, which represented all categories of civil society (see categories in Appendix 4), except for political parties, since the CSI team and the Advisory Committee had previously agreed not to include this category in the survey, due to its special characteristics. Out of all the CSOs surveyed, 60% are located in Montevideo and 40% in the provinces.

- **External Perceptions Survey**: The survey to qualified informants was simultaneously run with the Organisations Survey between May and July 2009. This one was conducted via telephone calls and email. For this survey, publicly recognised personalities bearing national responsibilities were selected, with decision-making positions, including people with great experience and deep knowledge of civil society, representatives of national and local government, of companies, of communications media, and of international organisations and donors’ organisations. A good representation of the provinces was included, although most of the respondents ended up being from Montevideo, because of the administrative centralisation of the capital city. A total of 31 surveys were conducted. The questionnaire used was designed by CIVICUS, and adapted by ICD for the Uruguayan context, and the field work was run by the company “Gente Encuestas”.

- **Case Studies**: According the CIVICUS requirements, five study cases were commissioned, one for each dimension. The topics for Uruguay’s case studies were: voluntary work; the significance of organisation networks in civil society; the impact of the civil society agenda on the 2009 national elections programmes; instances of the relationship between civil society and the government; and civil society responses to the call for better accountability. The summaries of the case studies can be consulted in Annexes 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9.

- **Regional Focus Groups in different areas/regions**: A number of surveys and regional workshops were conducted in order to match research and action, and to involve different participants in the discussion and reflection about the main strengths, weaknesses, and situations faced by civil society in Uruguay according to the CSI findings. For the regional division, the areas used were the ones chosen by the Network Consultancy Group,\textsuperscript{27} the advisory body of Project J “Strengthening the

\textsuperscript{27} The networks that belong to Project J Advisory Group are: NGO National Association (ANONG), National Commission of Monitoring (CNS Women), National Association of Small and Medium-size Enterprises
capacity of the Civil Society”. The four regions and the areas or provinces (*departamentos*) included are: Littoral Area (Río Negro, Paysandú, Salto and Bella Unión (Artigas); Northern Area (Artigas, Rivera, Tacuarembó and Cerro Largo); Eastern Area (Maldonado, Rocha, Treinta y Tres, Lavalleja and coastal Canelones); South-Western Area (San José, Colonia, Canelones, Florida, Flores, Soriano and Montevideo). The survey in the Eastern and South-Western areas was conducted on 31 August 2009, the one in the Littoral Area on 12 September, and the one in the Northern Area on 29 September 2009. A total of 242 people participated, 95% from the provinces and 5% from Montevideo. A summary of the discussion can be found in Annex 10.

- **National Workshop**: This initiative aimed at gathering a wide range of civil society actors and allies, government agencies, international organisations, donors, academic areas and media groups in order to create a common understanding of the current status of civil society and a common agenda of initiatives to strengthen it. The CSI National Workshop in Uruguay took place in Montevideo on 29 October 2009. Around 100 representatives of CSOs from all over the country participated, in addition to governmental bodies, academic institutions, international organisations and donors. A summary of the events that took place in this workshop is available in Annex 11.

**ANNEX 4. CATEGORIES OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS**

1. Faith-based organisations
2. Labour unions
3. Women’s organisations
4. Student and youth organisations
5. Developmental CSOs (e.g. NGOs working in literacy, health, social services)
6. Advocacy CSOs (e.g. civic actions, social justice, peace, human rights, consumers’ groups)
7. CSOs active in research, information dissemination, education and training (e.g. think tanks, resource centres, non-profit schools)
8. Non-profit media groups
9. Associations of socio-economically marginalised groups (e.g. poor people, homeless, landless, immigrants, refugees)
10. Social service and health organisations (e.g. charities raising funds for health research and services, mental health associations, associations of people with physical disabilities)
11. Other fund-raising bodies and organisations
12. Professional and business organisations (e.g. chambers of commerce, professional associations)

(Anmype), Network of Environmental NGOs, Afro World Organisations, Children’s Rights Committee, Human Rights Inter American Platform (PIDDHH), and the Uruguayan Network against Domestic Violence.
13. Community organisations (e.g. village associations, neighbourhood committees)
14. Community-level groups/associations (e.g. burial societies, self-help groups, parents’ associations, village associations, indigenous people’s associations, monasteries, mosque-based associations)
15. Economic interest CSOs (e.g. cooperatives, credit unions, mutual saving associations)
16. Ethnic, traditional or indigenous associations or organisations
17. Environmental CSOs
18. Culture and arts and social and recreational CSOs
19. CSO networks/federations/support organisations/single issue coalitions

**ANNEX 5. DIMENSIONS AND POTENTIALS OF VOLUNTARY WORK IN URUGUAY – CASE STUDY SUMMARY**

Taking into consideration that Civic Engagement was one of the dimensions recording the lowest score in the Uruguay CSI study, it was deemed important to carry out an in-depth study on voluntary work, aiming at identifying possible strategies for strengthening social and political participation in voluntary work.

Through an agreement with the Office of Planning and Budget (OPP), the Ministry of Social Development (MIDES), the UN Volunteers Programme (UNV) and the UN Development Program (UNDP), ICD added to the CSI population survey a set of 21 questions related to voluntary work, and the survey was extended to people older than 14. This nationwide survey was applied in April and May 2009 to a representative sample consisting of 1,407 homes in localities and cities of more than 5,000 inhabitants. The technique used in the survey was personal interview. As a starting point, the definition of voluntary work used and communicated to the surveyed persons was: “a non-remunerated job or activity, carried out at someone’s own will with the intent of benefiting other people, without any other kind of duty or obligation to such people of family or friendship ties.”

According to the study, 19.9% of Uruguayans are, at the time of being interviewed, involved in some kind of voluntary work, and more than 43% of the population performs or has performed voluntary activities at some time in their lives. These figures indicate a growth in voluntary work, as compared to the data obtained during the last decade. Since 1998, voluntary work had changed from actively involving 7% of the population to 20%. Growth of voluntary work may be due to different factors which, to different extents, contribute to the achievement of this change in the last decade. For example, the economic crisis, a greater spread of information, and a growth of opportunities to perform voluntary work in an organised manner, may be mentioned as potential factors.

Voluntary workers perform their activities in a wide variety of institutions. Cultural and recreational organisations attract a greater number of people, followed by churches, parishes or religious organisations. On top of this, most people carrying out voluntary work develop educational or recreational activities, perform manual or physical tasks or offer personal care, attention and assistance.

Regarding the motivations which lead people to get involved in voluntary work, almost 80% were motivated by family, friends, neighbours, co-workers or study mates, who in turn form
part of organisations, and 21.5% decided to get involved in voluntary work on their own initiative. Among people who never carried out voluntary work, the reasons are, among others, lack of time or motivation.

On average, people carrying out voluntary work devote 26 hours per month or 312 hours a year to such activity. Considering that 19.9% of the adult population older than 14 carries out voluntary work (455,020 people, according to the data of the National Institute of Statistics, Census of 2004) (INE, 2004), people taking part in voluntary work would contribute to Uruguay 142 million hours per year.

Based on the information gathered, a series of actions and policies to be developed are proposed for fostering voluntary work and participation: make large-scale calls for voluntary work initiatives; disseminate and promote information campaigns about voluntary work; communicate the benefits of volunteering for both communities and volunteers; educate future generations, within families, about voluntary work; create new opportunities of undertaking voluntary work especially in education and recreational areas; incorporate voluntary work in Corporate Social Responsibility programmes and programmes offered by schools and other educational centres.

ANNEX 6. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE STATE AND CIVIL SOCIETY: PARTICIPATION FIELDS – CASE STUDY SUMMARY

The CSI’s results in Uruguay show an external environment that is highly empowering for civil society participation. The socio-cultural, socio-economic and socio-political context are seen as very favourable, with a score of eight out of 10 for facilitating characteristics of the socio-political environment.

However, the CSI indicators about the socio-political environment are mainly obtained from international sources and studies, and no account is given to the relationship between the state and civil society, which is a central concern of CSOs. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap in knowledge.

The government which took office in Uruguay in March 2005 directed a series of reforms in the economic and social fields, including the creation of new initiatives for the development of social policies, and the establishment of a new civil society relationship and participation mechanisms. The “promotion of social participation” was defined as a distinctive feature of the new government, and in the past years since 2005, new and diverse participation channels were opened.

However, it should be appropriate to analyse, among other aspects, how effective the relationships in different areas between government and civil society are, and what weight and influence that civil society had in the spaces where it participated. In order to answer these questions, an in-depth study of an important number of current relationship mechanisms was performed, based on secondary information sources.

This analysis of the relationship mechanisms shows a much more mixed scenario, with some experiences valued as effective and useful, and others considered frustrating or little developed in recent years.
Even though they each have certain nuances, assessment of the different participation experiences by civil society show they all follow similar courses, both in positive and negative aspects. In general, there is an acknowledgement of the wider definition of “public matters,” and of the greater participation opportunities in the design of policies and in the information. However, a continuity is also perceived of the state-centred and particracy-dominated vision of the political teams which conduct state affairs, as well as strong asymmetries in the handling of and access to information between governmental and non-governmental players, a lack of knowledge of local realities and a deficit in training of non-governmental actors.

The study verifies that even though a more fluid and higher relationship level has been achieved, everything indicates that civil society has not been able to satisfy its initial expectations, since the system’s state-centred and particracy inertias continue to be very strong.

ANNEX 7. CIVIL SOCIETY NETWORKS AND ORGANISATIONS: VALUE AND POWER – CASE STUDY SUMMARY

The CSI Organisational Survey found that 71% of organisations are members of umbrella organisations. In view of this very high percentage of organisations which state that they participate in networks, it is important to qualitatively assess the strengthening and action of these organisation networks, in order to obtain elements useful for forming an integral view of the level of civil society organisation. In the interviews carried out throughout Uruguay during the CSI research, participants agreed in pointing out the value of networks to obtain greater effectiveness in actions, but they also stated weaknesses in participation levels, engagement of participants and continuity processes.

How strong is the cooperation of CSOs in Uruguay? Are networks effective? Do they last long? Are they acknowledged? What value do the networks add to the work and to the individual achievements of organisations forming part of them? Why do organisations join in networks? Is participation in networks active and intense? How is network internal management administered?

To answer these questions, a study was designed based on secondary data sources (including different bibliographic sources) and in-depth interviews with network and platform representatives.

CSOs’ networks and relationships are acknowledged by the actors themselves as privileged areas to perform joint work, influence policies and foster institutional development of organisations. Other sectors, such as government and international bodies, acknowledge networks as reference points and key interlocution actors, as they represent a greater number of organisations that are experts in specific subjects. In the last few years, networks have spread, but the life cycles of such networks are variable. Due mainly to the lack of economic and human resources, but also due to the lack of engagement and low participation of their members, networks become weaker as time goes by, and many of them even disappear. The growing challenge is to generate innovative ways of participation, which provoke greater involvement and renewal of networks.

On the other hand, network strength depends, to a large extent, on the strength of the member organisations, on the degree of visibility achieved and on the capacity to influence the public
agenda. It may vary according to the type of network or the objectives proposed by a network, but in general, the number of partners or members does not necessarily guarantee a network’s success; the priority seems to be the quality of participation.

In view of the above, the challenge is to develop actions aimed at: increasing network representation, so that they turn into true representatives of a certain sector or a certain area; a greater institutional strengthening of networks, which demands greater human and financial resources; and increasing members’ participation in a common political project, which will lead to greater influence levels and with the increased ownership of a network by its members.

**ANNEX 8. CIVIL SOCIETY’S AGENDA IN THE 2009 ELECTORAL CANDIDATES PROGRAMMES – CASE STUDY SUMMARY**

Which is the role given by Uruguayan political parties to CSOs in their government programmes and plans for future projects? In which areas do parties understand that these organisations may make fundamental contributions to Uruguay? What impact does civil society’s agenda have in the party programmes presented to citizens by the different candidates in the national elections?

To answer these questions, the programmes of the candidates in the 2009 Uruguay national elections were studied. Particularly, special emphasis was placed on looking for the inclusion in the programmes of key issues which have been raised in work performed by social organisations, as well as the possible spaces of interaction that the parties and their leaders intend to have with CSOs, if they became governors or legislators. Detailed analysis of ten different issues indicates an uneven and asymmetric presence of the civil society agenda in party programmes, with very different approaches of different parties, or clear absences, and very often, generic treatment of issues or the making of very general statements. Omissions or testimonial statements indicate a very weak social demand in connection with the issues involved.

Upon trying to clear up the role given by party programmes to the different organised forms of civil society, or the way in which they visualise the relations of a future government with social organisations, a striking absence is verified. None of the five programmes studied contained a specific chapter devoted to social organisations or to the role that they should have, in general terms, under a possible government administration of the relevant party. References to participation spaces of social organisations in specific matters appear everywhere, but, in general, there are not many proposed relationship mechanisms or concrete forms of involvement of CSOs.

On the other hand, as regards participation of organised civil society at any level of public policies - from their design and planning to their execution - different disposition variances are registered, according to the parties. *Frente Amplio*, the left party currently ruling Uruguay, is the one which reveals the greatest degree of opening concerning the relationship and participation of CSOs, and it provides for the inclusion of CSOs at the time both of the design and implementation of plans and programmes, presenting specific relationship mechanisms (such as debate tables and local tables) for each area. However, in the overwhelming majority of public policy proposals of all the political parties, both in the direction, design and even the execution of these proposals, the government’s role is still of the essence.
ANNEX 9. DEMANDS FOR GREATER RESPONSIBILITY AND BETTER PRACTICES – CASE STUDY SUMMARY

In the quantitative studies performed under the CSI in Uruguay, the Practice of Values dimension is the one which obtained the lowest score, with barely 43.4 points (in a scale from 1 to 100). From the analysis of sub-dimension scores (perception of values, environmental standards, code of conduct and transparency, labour regulations and internal democracy), perception of values exceeds 50% while the rest are below this level, with labour regulations having the lowest score.

This study explores the answers that CSOs provide to the issues of different sectors of society, and the solutions they suggest to satisfy new demands challenging them, and tries to distinguish why possible answers do not match the challenges presented.

The study’s hypothesis is that CSOs exercise power in their different interventions, and that such exercise of power may generate new demands of liability, transparency and accountability, to which demands the organisations answer with different regulation and self-regulation paradigms.

Research questions focused on the exploration of variables which influence and determine the liability of CSOs, the way in which organisations assume these liability demands, the implications of their actions and interventions, and the relation of the group of answers with self-regulation or the external regulation.

Some of the questions to be answered were the following: How do civil society organisations answer to the demands of transparency and accountability raised by the different interlocutors? How is internal administration managed in the day-to-day operations of organisations which makes such administration perceived as a weakness? Which are the most outstanding aspects when CSOs establish labour relationships, either by exercising power or submitting to it? How frequent are the self-regulation, self-certification or external certification practices of CSOs? Which practices of internal communication are the most frequent ones, and how may the detected weaknesses (communication between managers and members, the existence of favouritisms and craving for power within organisations and the lack of influence on internal decision-making processes) be improved?

CSOs, with a greater visibility, and exercising more power than before, relate to new actors in a completely different manner to the sector’s long term allies, whether they are financing agencies, government entities or the proper individual and collective membership of organisations. The different mechanisms explored and used (codes of conduct, certification mechanisms, participation in multisectoral bodies, groups of quality indicators, assessment and self-assessment mechanisms) many times face CSOs with the problem of using regulation or self-regulation as adequate answers.

The study concludes that advances concerning self-regulation, transparency and accountability are still very limited.
ANNEX 10. REPORT ON REGIONAL CONSULTATIONS – SUMMARY

Introduction
The purpose of regional consultations carried out under the CSI is to link research to action, and to empower participants in the analysis and deliberation of the main weaknesses, strengths and opportunities faced by civil society, in view of the CSI's findings.

The country was divided into four regions, which include the following districts or areas:

- **Littoral** – Río Negro, Paysandú, Salto and Bella Unión (Artigas)
- **North** – Artigas, Rivera, Tacuarembó and Cerro Largo
- **East** – Maldonado, Rocha, Treinta and Tres, Lavalleja and coastal Canelones
- **South-West** – San José, Colonia, Canelones, Florida, Flores, Soriano and Montevideo

Consultations of East and South-West areas were made in Montevideo on 31 August 2009, those of the Littoral area were carried out in the city of Salto on 12 September, and those of the Northern region in the city of Rivera on 26 September. A total of 242 people took part, representing civil society and other sector organisations, of 13 districts: Artigas, Canelones, Cerro Largo, Colonia, Florida, Maldonado, Montevideo, Paysandú, Río Negro, Rivera, Salto, Soriano and Tacuarembó. Ninety-five of the participants represented inland organisations, and only 5% were organisations of the capital city. In addition to the extension of geographical representation, there was a great institutional diversity in the type of organisations and sectors represented. Members of NGOs, study centres, cooperatives, networks, community radio, rural fostering commissions, labour unions, neighbour commissions, polyclinics, sport clubs, social counselling, social movements, Caif Centres (Care Centres for Children and its Families), ministries and local boards took part.

Shared issues
Although each region has its own particular characteristics which are marked by their own story, by institutional development, work areas, access to power centres, interlocution with governmental actors, and access to financing, among other causes, common matters shared by the regions were identified:

1. The dedication and social engagement of people who actively participate in organisations and groups is prominent, as well as the diversity of organisations in which there is participation. On the other hand, the issue raised as a weakness is that “there are always the same persons taking part in them”, which makes efforts weaker and put the efficiency of actions at stake. Promotion and education for participation, as well as the regulation of some aspects, such as voluntary work, through the approval of a relevant law, arise as work lines to be followed.

2. High regularisation levels of organisations are highlighted in all regions as a strength, even though it is mentioned that proceedings to obtain legal status are difficult and take too much time.

3. Network working, which has had a substantial growth in recent years, allows organisations to have a more fluid exchange and to strengthen the impact of their actions, but it is necessary to carry out an assessment of networks to determine if they are effective and “real” or if they are mere structures lacking any content.
4. In all regions, weaknesses derive from internal and external communication and from the lack of institutional capacities for the development of a good communication. Communication with the local media is highlighted as fluent and characterised by good relationships, as opposed to what happens with the national communication media.

5. The lack of technological resources, directly related to scarce financial resources, and also the lack of human resources trained to work in these types of organisations, are two shared aspects in the regions. Specific training of CSOs’ mid and managerial positions is an imperative need.

6. In some regions, a tension is envisaged between the organisations of the capital city and those of the provinces, which feel that they are pushed into the background in the award of funding, as well as concerning the ownership of knowledge accumulated in their territory.

7. Internal democracy of organisations appears as a value even though there is no consensus in this respect, since opinions among organisations differ. This is very much related to institutional formats (e.g. association, cooperative, commission) and what these demand or imply. Communication difficulties between management and members, the existence of favouritisms and craving for power within organisations and the lack of spaces for influence in the taking of internal decisions are mentioned as weaknesses.

8. A need to go deeper in organisational transparency and accountability is acknowledged as an element shared by all regions.

9. The incorporation of environmental practices in institutional management is inexistent, underlining the low awareness existing in society as a whole concerning environmental matters. Promotion and sensitisation of this topic should be a line of action to be followed.

10. As regards the social and political impact of organisations, the common feature is that advances were achieved and that there is a social acknowledgement of CSOs’ relevance to society, but there are still imbalances of impacts achieved according to the work areas. An important advance concerning sensitisation of citizens’ rights is mentioned, for instance. But special emphasis is made on some internal and external factors conspiring against a greater impact: low visibility of CSOs’ actions, fragmentation, lack of formation and training spaces for their staff, communication difficulties and centralism in Montevideo.

11. Good receptivity at government level to dialogue and work with CSOs is highlighted, and the case of MIDES is specifically mentioned. A very high percentage considers that there is a great receptivity to proposals raised from the social sector.
ANNEX 11. REPORT ON THE NATIONAL WORKSHOP – SUMMARY

The CSI Uruguay National Workshop was held on 29 October 2009 in Montevideo. Sixty representatives, from CSOs from across Uruguay, government entities, academia, international organisms and donors took part. Delegates of 12 districts were present in the activity: Artigas, Canelones, Cerro Largo, Colonia, Maldonado, Montevideo, Río Negro, Rivera, Rocha, Salto, San José and Soriano.

In general, workshop participants agreed with the CSI results and its graphical presentation (the Civil Society Diamond), but discussion among the participants went deeper and about certain topics were hotly debated. The main matters identified were the following:

**The civil society–state relationship.** There is still a debate to be held on the role of civil society as an implementer of public policies, and the relationship with its contractor (the state). The predominant vision of civil society as a mere implementer of social policies is criticised.

**Tension between Montevideo and inland provinces.** It is considered that many times, policies are designed and planned in the capital city, and they do not match the realities of the different inland districts.

**CSOs’ financing.** The high tax burden that must be faced by CSOs, the lack of access to information about sources of finance and the need for the government to make a money transfer to organisations working in communities with no resources were raised. In most cases, it is understood that money is awarded to develop actions or services, but that no funds are devoted to pay people who deliver projects or for institutional infrastructure.

**Inclusion of topics.** Discussion highlighted the need to raise awareness and include in projects issues which still have very low presence: ethnic and racial issues, disability and the environment. In this item, the distance between civil society and academia and the lack of an assessment of civil society potential and its acquired knowledge were remarked.

**Network strengthening.** Networks are another aspect of the sector’s institutional development which were highlighted, since these offer a method of improving relationships with government, given that an isolated organisation has less power as an interlocutor.

**Tensions between technicians and experts.** There is a certain confrontation between technicians and experts within organisations. There are differences as to their scope of work. Remarks were made concerning the need not to generate any confrontation, but to understand that both are necessary for an organisation to be sustainable.
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