

# A Snapshot of Civil Society in Mexico

## Analytical Report on the CIVICUS Civil Society Index

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## FOREWORD

Civil society's growing role in the democratic development of countries and its strategic importance in supporting causes for vulnerable groups and the common good have led to the need to better understand and position this plural, heterogeneous and dynamic sector. Numerous analytical and conceptual efforts have been made to face this challenge, while efforts have also been made in Mexico to dissect and understand civil society in an attempt to contribute to its fortification. One of the most significant international efforts has been made by CIVICUS through its Civil Society Index (CSI), which is a standardised methodology to measure the state of civil society in individual countries that seeks to boost knowledge of the sector both nationally and internationally.

The CSI analysis is centred on five fundamental dimensions that in turn contain various sub-dimensions and indicators used to create a snapshot of civil society in a given national context. These dimensions form the CSI diamond, a visual representation of the values obtained in the various indicators from a range of quantitative tools. With the understanding that numerical values are never sufficient to truly grasp the reality of a country, the CSI is complemented by qualitative tools, which enable a deeper understanding of civil society issues. In the case of Mexico, the CSI process also helped to create a dynamic exchange among various actors, both within the sector itself as well as with the government and business sectors, thus enabling the development of strategic recommendations to strengthen the sector.

As a part of the fortification of civil society, the CSI study must be implemented in each country by civil society organisations that have the experience and recognition within the sector as civil society drivers, as well as the ability to properly carry the project out. In Mexico, the CSI was implemented by two organisations: the Mexican Centre for Philanthropy (Cemefi) and the Citizens' Initiative for the Promotion of a Culture of Dialogue (ICPCD). Although these organisations have different profiles, the complementary nature of their focus areas and the various types of groups they relate to led to a rich and detailed study, given the diversity of the actors included. This work sheds light on some of the most interesting results obtained over the two years of work in the construction of the CSI for Mexico. It does not intend to be all encompassing; rather it seeks to establish major research guidelines for the purpose of understanding the sector and to provide examples of both the complexity of carrying out research of this type and the richness of information and experiences that resulted.

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The study could not have been carried out without the trust and financial support of the British Embassy in Mexico and the Kellogg Foundation, which not only provided financial resources for the project but also helped with its consolidation and development, providing, for example, contacts with the media and local government to increase the study's impact.

Research teams at Intelligence Systems in Markets and Opinion, S.C. (SIMO) and Social Administration and Cooperation, A.C. (GESOC) deserve special recognition as they contributed substantially by applying measurement instruments and supporting the draft of this report. We would also like to thank the researchers that were hired to perform case studies, which enabled a deeper understanding of the most relevant issues during the course of the study.

With their experience Natalie Akstein, Tracy Anderson, Amy Bartlett, Mariano Dedonatis, Andrew Firmin, Mark Nowotny and others at the CIVICUS team helped us undertake the research and prepare this report. Colleagues in the other Latin American countries that implemented the CSI, Argentina, Chile, Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela, deserve our thanks as well. Their assistance in the process, the joint decision-making for consistent regional comparison and the continual exchange of experiences were fundamental for the Mexico study.

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<sup>1</sup> Annex D contains a list of members of the Advisory Committee and the focus group host institutions.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD.....	3
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	5
LIST OF TABLES.....	7
LIST OF FIGURES.....	7
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	8
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY.....	9
I. THE CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX PROJECT APPROACH.....	12
1. PROJECT BACKGROUND .....	12
2. PROJECT APPROACH.....	13
3. CSI IMPLEMENTATION.....	16
3.1 Specific CSI application in Mexico .....	17
4. LIMITATIONS OF THE CSI STUDY .....	18
II. CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO.....	19
1. THE CONCEPT OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO .....	19
2. CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO: FIVE DECADES OF DEVELOPMENT .....	22
2.1 The 1960s and 70s: initial forms of autonomous organisation .....	22
2.2 The 1980s: CSO growth and diversification .....	23
2.3 The 1990s: consolidation and thematic plurality.....	24
2.4 CSOs in current times .....	26
3. MAPPING CIVIL SOCIETY .....	28
III. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY .....	30
1. CIVIC ENGAGEMENT .....	30
1.1 Extent of socially-based engagement .....	31
1.2 Depth of social engagement.....	31
1.3 Diversity of socially-based engagement.....	32
1.4 Extent of political engagement .....	33
CONCLUSION .....	37
2. LEVEL OF ORGANISATION.....	37
2.1 Internal governance .....	38
2.2 Infrastructure .....	39
2.3 Sectoral communication .....	40
2.4 Human resources.....	41
2.5 Financial and technological resources .....	42
2.6 International linkages .....	44
Conclusion .....	44
3. PRACTICE OF VALUES.....	45
3.1 Democratic decision-making governance.....	46
3.2 Labour regulations .....	46
3.3 Code of conduct and transparency .....	47
3.4 Environmental standards.....	48
3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole.....	48
Conclusion .....	50

4. PERCEIVED IMPACT .....	51
4.1 Responsiveness (internal perception) .....	52
4.2 Social impact (internal perception) .....	53
4.3 Policy impact (internal perception) .....	53
4.4 Responsiveness (external perception) .....	55
4.5 Social impact (external perception) .....	56
4.6 Policy impact (external perception) .....	56
4.7 Civil society impact on attitudes .....	57
Conclusion .....	59
5. EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT .....	60
5.1 Socio-economic context .....	60
5.2 Socio-political context.....	62
5.3 Socio-cultural context .....	63
Conclusion .....	64
IV. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO .	65
V. RECOMMENDATIONS .....	66
VI. CONCLUSIONS.....	67
APPENDICES .....	70
ANNEX 1 CSI INDICATOR MATRIX .....	70
ANNEX 2 SUMMARY CASE STUDIES .....	72
ANNEX 3 REGIONAL FOCUS GROUPS .....	81
ANNEX 4 LIST OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE RESEARCH .....	82
BIBLIOGRAPHY .....	93

## LIST OF TABLES

TABLE I.1.1 List of CSI implementing countries 2008-2011.....	13
TABLE II.3.1 Third sector organisations.....	29
TABLE III.1.1 Civic Engagement Dimension scores .....	31
TABLE III.1.2 Population membership in political organisations.....	34
TABLE III.2.1 Level of Organisation Dimension scores .....	38
TABLE III.2.2 Financing sources .....	43
TABLE III.3.1 Practice of Values Dimension scores.....	45
TABLE III.4.1 Perceived Impact Dimension scores.....	52
TABLE III.4.2 Level of confidence in institutions .....	58
TABLE III.5.1 External Environment Dimensions scores .....	60
TABLE III.5.2 Socio-economic context.....	61
TABLE III.5.3 Socio-political context .....	62
TABLE III.5.4 Socio-cultural context.....	63
TABLE A3.1.1 Regional Workshops.....	82

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1 Civil Society Diamond for Mexico.....	10
FIGURE I.2.1 The Civil Society Index Diamond.....	15
FIGURE I.3.1 CSI programme activities .....	16
FIGURE III.1.1 CSO engagement by ethnic group .....	33
FIGURE III.1.2 Participation in public/political activities .....	35
FIGURE III.1.3 Political CSO engagement by ethnic group.....	36
FIGURE III.2.1 Women and men in executive positions .....	39
FIGURE III.2.2 Membership of organisations in networks .....	39
FIGURE III.2.3 Participation in meetings .....	41
FIGURE III.2.4 Volunteers and paid staff ratio.....	42
FIGURE III.2.5 Income and expenditure changes .....	43
FIGURE III.3.1 Decision-making in CSOs .....	46
FIGURE III.3.2 Publicly available financial reports .....	47
FIGURE III.3.3 Description of violent forces within civil society .....	48
FIGURE III.3.4 Frequency of corruption cases in civil society .....	49
FIGURE III.4.1 Civil society's impact on priority concerns (internal perception) .....	52
FIGURE III.4.2 Civil society's impact on social concerns (internal perception).....	53
FIGURE III.4.3 Policy impact (internal perception) .....	54
FIGURE III.4.4 Mechanism to impact public policy-making (internal perception) .....	54
FIGURE III.4.5 Civil society impact on priority concerns (external perception).....	55
FIGURE III.4.6 Civil society's impact on social concerns (external perception).....	56
FIGURE III.4.7 Policy impact (external perception) .....	56
FIGURE III.5.1 Level of trust in CSOs .....	63
FIGURE VI.1 Civil Society Diamond for Mexico .....	68

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

BCI	Basic Capabilities Index
Cemefi	Mexican Centre for Philanthropy
CIDE	Economic Research and Teaching Centre
CLUNI	Unique Registry Code
CONPAZ	Coordination of Non-governmental Organisations for Peace (CONPAZ)
CPI	Corruption Perceptions Index
CSI	Civil Society Index
CSO	Civil society organisation
ENAFI	National Philanthropy Survey
ENCASU	National Survey on Social Capital in Urban Areas
ENCUP	National Survey on Political Culture and Citizens' Practices
ENSAV	National Survey on Solidarity and Volunteer Actions
EZLN	Zapatista Army of National Liberation
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Gesoc	Social Administration and Cooperation, A.C.
HDI	Human Development Index
IADB	Inter-American Development Bank
ICPCD	Citizens' Initiative for the Promotion of a Culture of Dialogue, A.C.
IMF	International Monetary Fund
Indesol	National Social Development Institute
INEGI	National Statistics and Geography Index
ITAM	Autonomous Technology Institute of Mexico
LFOSC	Federal Law to Stimulate CSO Activities
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement
PAN	National Action Party
PRI	Institutional Revolutionary Party
RTI	Right to Information
RMALC	Mexican Network of Action on Free Trade
SAT	Tax Administration Service
SSM	Mexican Social Secretariat
SIMO	Intelligence Systems in Markets and Opinion, S.C.
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WVS	World Values Survey



## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The complex development of civil society in Mexico has been marked by the political and social dynamics created by institutions as well as the unwritten rules of the party that governed for more than 70 years. Certain events have helped characterise the current state of Mexican civil society, such as the movement headed by Salvador Nava in San Luis Potosí in the late 1950s, the student movement of 1968, citizens' efforts after the 1985 Mexico City earthquake and especially the movement surrounding the right to clean elections and multi-party democracy. This has enabled the consolidation of a sector that is diverse in its causes as well as in its internal dynamics and the mechanisms of its interaction with other actors. The exact number of CSOs in Mexico is not currently known, but estimates range from 20,000 to 35,000.<sup>2</sup> Although this is a small number in terms of the population size, their substantial growth and recognition in the public arena over the last few decades suggest the need for greater research and analysis.

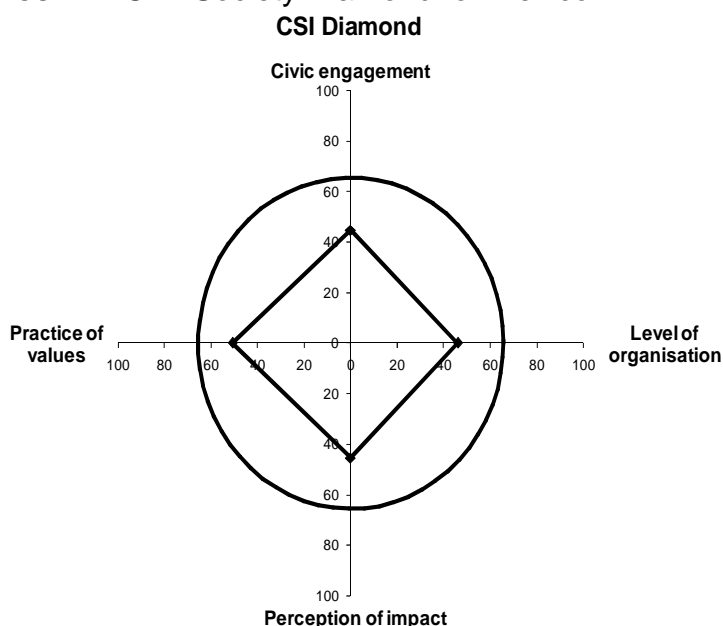
There are several specific studies that focus on the historical turning points in the sector as well as on the current situation and future perspectives. However, few studies have been able to establish a panoramic view of civil society in Mexico, and above all, to provide a snapshot of the various actors involved in its development. Since 2001, CIVICUS has used a research initiative, the Civil Society Index (CSI) to obtain a picture of civil society. One feature of the CSI is the ability to compare countries that implement it, due to the standardised methods used in its construction. This report sheds light on some of the most relevant results of the CSI implementation in Mexico, which was headed by the Mexican Centre for Philanthropy and the Citizens' Initiative for the Promotion of a Culture of Dialogue. Our objective is to provide a tool that supports the knowledge and the development of the sector in Mexico.

The CSI is graphically represented by a diamond constructed using values obtained in each of the five dimensions. The dimensions are: 1. **Civic Engagement** - the measure to which people are committed to and participate in social and political initiatives; 2. **Level of Organisation** - the degree of institutionalisation that characterises civil society; 3. **Practice of Values** - the extent to which civil society practices certain fundamental values; 4. **Perception of Impact** - the level of influence civil society is capable of exerting in the political and social arenas, in accordance with internal and external perceptions; 5. **External Environment** – the conditions under which civil society operates, consisting of socio-economic, political and cultural variables. In the case of Mexico, the application of the various methodological tools led to the following diamond shown in Figure 1 below.

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<sup>2</sup> This figure does not include religious, political and mutual benefit organisations. Sources: Mexican Centre for Philanthropy, 2009; estimates from INEGI Economic Censuses 1994, 2004 and 2009 and Social Index, 2007.

FIGURE 1 Civil Society Diamond for Mexico



There is a significant correlation among the various dimensions that lead to a roughly balanced diamond shape. In the case of Mexico, there is greater realisation of the Practice of Values and a weaker presence of Civic Engagement. Meanwhile, the values for the Level of Organisation and Perception of Impact are very similar. The fifth dimension, the External Environment, is represented by a circle that surrounds the diamond. It shows a potential for growth in civil society in accordance with the current conditions of the country.

The methodology is designed to enable a participative approach, such that the information is used as a basis to create spheres of dialogue regarding civil society's fundamental issues. This dialogue enabled the interaction among various civil society groups throughout eight regions of Mexico, the identification of points of commonality to strengthen the sector and the development of relationship-building strategies with other sectors. This report also includes a section on civil society strengths and weaknesses that were identified by actors involved in the process. Some of the main strengths of the sector include the commitment by the people who work in it, the democratic values under which activities are carried out and the recognition of the importance for training as well as knowledge about the lines of action that should be followed to strengthen the sector.

Although the study does not intend to cover all facets of civil society in Mexico, it provides an outline of the general panorama of the country and it identifies potential areas for improvement and strengthening. Some of the findings corroborate other studies, such as the low participation of citizens in CSOs and the low level of trust in public institutions. This can be observed in the Civic Engagement dimension. Others delve into the dynamics and institutionalism of CSOs, as seen through the Level of Organisation dimension. With the Practice of Values dimension, it is possible to observe

congruence between the values that uphold civil society and those that are applied within the organisations themselves. The study also shows the difference in perception among CSO members and actors outside the sector, visible through the Perception of Impact dimension. Also worth noting is the complexity that results from applying a methodology with a western origin in traditional societies with indigenous customs. This facet was addressed in one of the five case studies that complement the quantitative information.

## 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 on 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 overcoming these limitations. It aims to create a knowledge base and impetus 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.

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 specific 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 Mexico 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. A pilot project of the tool was carried out in 2000 in 13 countries, including

Mexico.<sup>3</sup> The pilot implementation process and results were evaluated. This evaluation led to 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 the 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 current phase of the CSI.

TABLE I.1.1 List of CSI implementing countries 2008-2011<sup>4</sup>

Albania	Ghana	Niger
Argentina	Italy	Philippines
Armenia	Japan	Russia
Bahrain	Jordan	Serbia
Belarus	Kazakhstan	Slovenia
Bulgaria	Kosovo	South Korea
Burkina Faso	Lebanon	Sudan
Chile	Liberia	Togo
Croatia	Macedonia	Turkey
Cyprus	Madagascar	Uganda
Djibouti	Mali	Ukraine
Democratic Republic of Congo	Malta	Uruguay
Georgia	Mexico	Venezuela
	Nicaragua	Zambia

## 2. PROJECT APPROACH

The current CSI project approach continues to link 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 foundations, which have greatly influenced the implementation that this report is based upon, include the following:

<sup>3</sup> On this occasion, the project was implemented by Cemefi. The pilot countries were Belarus, Canada, Croatia, Estonia, Indonesia, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan, Romania, South Africa, Ukraine, Uruguay, and Wales.

<sup>4</sup> Note that this list was accurate as of the publication of this Analytical Country Report, but may have changed since the publication, due to countries being added or dropped during the implementation cycle.

**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 a particular 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 that involves a wide range of stakeholders who collectively own and run the project in their respective countries.

**Capacity development:** Country partners are first trained on the CSI methodology during a three-day regional workshop. Following 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 various CSI tools (e.g., focus groups, Advisory Committee, 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.

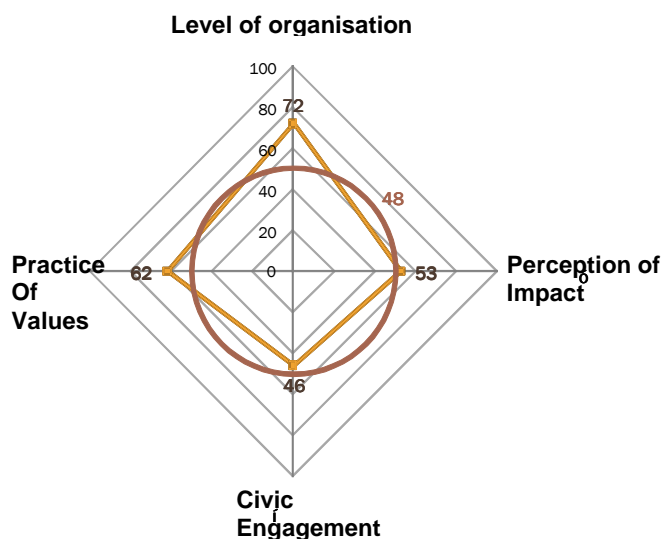
With the above-mentioned foundations, the CSI methodology uses a combination of participatory and scientific research methods to create an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level.

- (1) Civic Engagement
- (2) Level of Organisation
- (3) Practice of Values
- (4) Perception of 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. The Diamond's size seeks to portray an empirical picture of the state of civil society, the conditions that support or inhibit its 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 well-being.

FIGURE I.2.1 The Civil Society Index Diamond



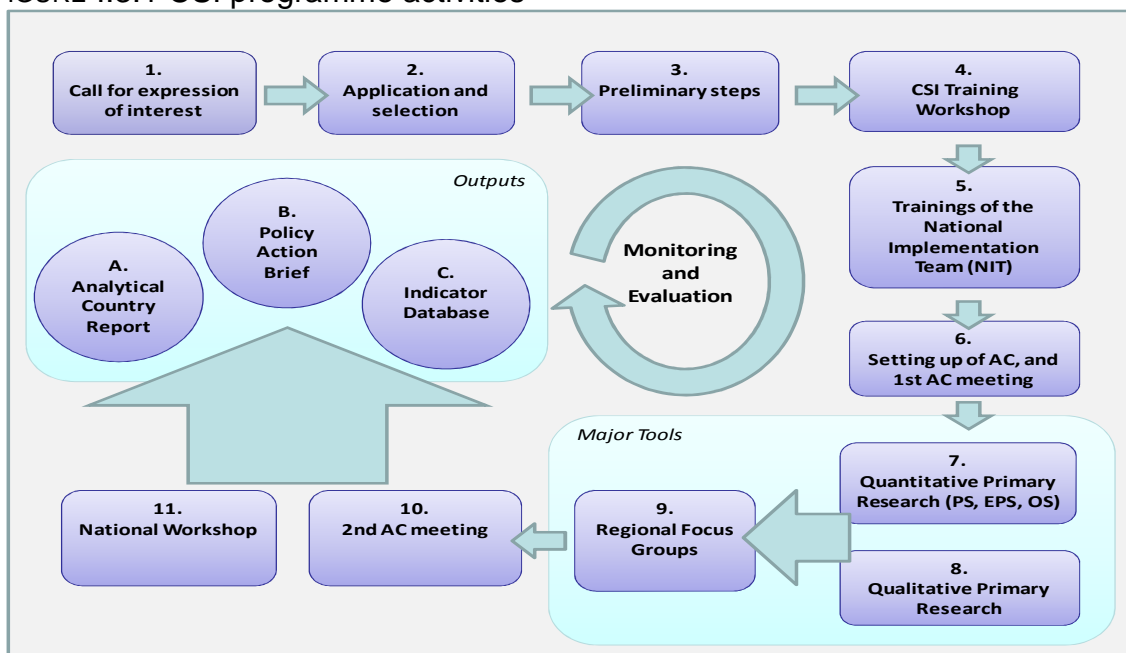
The CSI is valuable for Mexican CSOs and related sectors as it provides an overview of the current state of organised social activities. With this perspective, the Mexico implementation team worked together with Latin American countries and the CIVICUS team to adapt the various tools to the regional context. While always remembering that the adoption of the methodology in Mexico would permit the comparison of results with other countries that implement CSI, the implementation team considered it important to develop indicators to measure certain specific circumstances of civil society in Mexico that were beyond the standard indicators. As a result, the domestic study remains compatible with the international method and is therefore feasible for use in comparative purposes, but at the same time goes beyond this through the inclusion of factors and indicators focused on issues specific to Mexican civil society.

Thus, although this document is focused on the implementation of the CSI in Mexico, it also presents issues considered to be fundamental to the Mexican situation by both national implementing institutions. In the first section, certain considerations regarding the implementation of the study in Mexico are presented. The second presents a brief overview of the history and most significant moments of civil society in the modern age. The third section focuses on the main findings of the study through the analysis of each of the five dimensions that make up the Civil Society Diamond. Subsequently, a brief analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of civil society is presented, as obtained from multiple focus groups and a national workshop that was held with more than 80 Mexican civil society representatives. From the work with organisations and other strategic actors, an identification of certain common points of action was possible, which served as a basis for the development of recommendations to strengthen civil society in Mexico. Finally, conclusions of the study are presented.

### 3. CSI Implementation

There are several key CSI programme implementation activities as well as several structures involved, as summarised by Figure I.3.1 below:<sup>5</sup>

FIGURE I.3.1 CSI programme activities



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

- 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**

<sup>5</sup> For a detailed discussion on each of these steps in the process, please see Mati et al.



**Survey** aiming at measuring the perception that stakeholders, experts and policy makers in key sectors have of civil society's impact.

- Tailored **case studies** which focus on issues of importance to the specific civil society country context.
- **Advisory Committee** meetings made up of civil society experts to provide advice on the project and its implementation at the country level.
- Regional and thematic **focus groups** where civil society stakeholders reflect and share views on civil society's role in society.
- 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.

### 3.1 Specific CSI application in Mexico

To carry out CSI activities, representatives of Cemefi and ICPCD formed an implementation team. Intelligence Systems in Markets and Opinion, S.C. (SIMO) provided support for the Population, Organisational and External Perceptions Surveys. SIMO also moderated focus groups. Social Administration and Cooperation, A.C. (GESOC) served as an expert on civil society. GESOC was commissioned to moderate the National Workshop, reviewing the report and case studies and the development of the historical framework (Chapter II of this report).

The Advisory Committee consisted of members of civil society and strategic sector actors including academics, members of international organisations, businesspeople and public employees. The Committee supported the operational team with regard to the implementation mechanisms for each tool, results presentation and the case studies that correspond to each dimension.<sup>6</sup>

The following tools were used to develop the indicators that make up the Civil Society Diamond: 1) a survey of 350 CSOs selected at random from a directory of 20,196 CSOs; 2) in-depth interviews with 50 strategic external actors including academics, public employees, international organisation representatives, labour union members and representatives of companies and business foundations; 3) a survey of the general population with 1,200 people surveyed from a national scope.

To complement the quantitative information, eight regional workshops were held in the following federal states: Chihuahua, Federal District, Jalisco, Nuevo León, Oaxaca, Puebla, San Luis Potosí and Yucatán. Focus groups were an important tool to understand the perceptions of local and regional civil society and to observe the

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<sup>6</sup> Annex D contains a list of members of the Advisory Committee.

differences in each location in order to enrich the qualitative results of the CSI. A National Workshop was also held in Mexico City that included 80 CSO representatives and more than 20 representatives from government, business and academia. The National Workshop received significant media coverage and led to media interviews and follow ups.

Five case studies were commissioned to facilitate an in-depth and systematic analysis of issues that may not have been adequately captured by quantitative data and to take into account noteworthy specifics of certain regions. Subjects addressed were: 1) a comparative study on the measurement methods of civic engagement; 2) characteristics of civil society organisation in Oaxaca; 3) analysis of the 'Construye – T' programme of civic education in schools; 4) CSO networks and the water problem in the Valley of Mexico; 5) the situation of CSOs in terms of Chihuahua's lack of security.

This Analytical Country Report is one of the major outputs of the CSI implementation process in Mexico, 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 the country.

#### 4. Limitations of the CSI study

The methodology applied in the CSI provides a general overview of civil society in the country. A highly diverse array of strategic actors in the sector was involved, mainly because of the complementary characteristics of the organisations implementing the CSI.

A major limiting factor for the study was the lack of a CSO registry in Mexico. To overcome this, the implementation team built a database of more than 20,000 CSOs using cross-referenced information from the largest national directories to obtain a representative and random sample. Despite this, it is clear that some forms of civil society, such as social movements, were not easily captured, given that their contact information is not readily available. The implementation team sought to alleviate this factor through focus groups and case studies. In particular, through the studies it was possible to focus on specific instances of civil society in the State of Oaxaca and social movements regarding water in the Valley of Mexico.

With the objective of achieving the most standardised and comparable methodology possible, the CSI Diamond, the study's principal representation, only considers the indicators that are fed by quantitative tools and therefore does not necessarily reflect Mexico's diverse cultural and social aspects. The implementation team even had difficulties in defining civil society, as in some cases it was controversial to consider indicators that were designed using logic more related to developed countries with a high level of income. This was particularly notable with regard to understanding civil society dynamics in Mexico's indigenous communities.

Even with these limitations, the virtues of the CSI and its scope have been valuable in the creation of knowledge regarding Mexican civil society. It should be highlighted that

the study addresses issues that have not been noted in other national research, such as the impact of CSOs on public policy and relations with other sectors. In addition, the CSI has served as a catalyst for debate and analysis regarding the establishment of a common agenda for CSOs at a regional and domestic scale. It has also sparked the interest of strategic partners due to the visibility given by the media to the study.

## II. CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO

### 1. The Concept of Civil Society in Mexico

No consensus exists with regard to a definition of civil society. Attempts to form this definition have been varied and supported by social and political philosophies that are difficult to reconcile. Nevertheless, in the context of a study such as this with clear empirical objectives, it is necessary to have a working definition of the concept to orient and delimit the debates that have moulded civil society's onset and development in Mexico.

Currently, according to authors such as Manor, Robinson and White (2009), two major currents can be identified in the definition and analysis of civil society on an international level: political and sociological. The political concept is based on the Anglo-American tradition of the liberal democracy theory, which identifies the institutions and civic activities of citizens as an essential component of a particular type of political society that stems from the principles of citizenship, rights, democratic representation, free markets and respect for the law.

The sociological tradition tends to define civil society as the sphere of intermediation between the state on one side and the basic fundamentals of society (individuals, families and companies) on the other, which is populated by social organisations that have autonomy with respect to the state and the market and that have members that participate voluntarily. In the case of Mexico, these currents are summarised in two major postures: those that define the associative dimension of civil society in terms of notions such as 'third sector', 'solidarity sector' or 'non-profit sector' and those that define it more in terms of 'civil society organisations'.

Behind these two postures lie political-symbolic ideas of civil society actors with origins and perspectives that differ from each other. The analytical perspective closest to the political-normative current with roots in the Anglo-American tradition tends to emphasise voluntary and solidarity work in organisations as well as the differentiation (including being non-politicised and free from conflict) of these types of organisations from the state and the market. It is from this perspective that the associative dimension of civil society is defined as the 'third', 'solidarity' or 'non-profit' sector.

This analytical current grew significantly in Mexico with works by Salomon and Anheier (1994) and Putnam (1995). The current emphasis on the notion of civil society from an empirical and descriptive perspective, despite not being complemented in a sufficient

manner with a robust theoretical argument (Verduzco, 2003), has been quite efficient in advancing a broad body of knowledge about and empirical analysis of the third sector in Mexico.

Perhaps the most emblematic example of this current in Mexico was made by the Johns Hopkins Comparative Non-Profit Sector Project, which has a clear empirical-descriptive basis. Here, the third sector or non-profit sector is defined using fundamental characteristics that distinguish organisations that make up this type of sector from the others:

*a. Organised* – having a certain level of institutionalism. This does not imply that they are legal or registered, rather that they have precise objectives, defined activities and organisational structures.

*b. Private* – they are not institutionally part of the government, nor do public employees exclusively make decisions in the organisations. In other words, the government does not have a monopoly on their management. This does not mean that these organisations cannot receive public financing or that public employees cannot be members of the Board of Directors. These organisations should be:

*i. Non-profit* - assets/resources/surpluses are not distributed to members of the organisation and if a certain level of surplus is accumulated, it is invested in the objectives of the organisation.

*ii. Self-governed* - they have the capacity to control their own activities. Some private, non-government organisations still can have very limited actions due to other actors, e.g., a business foundation that depends on resources and interests of the company that founded it. Therefore, organisations must have autonomous governing bodies and must be able to take decisions that go beyond the interests of any actor outside the organisation.

*c. Voluntary* - they must be organisations created independently. Involved persons must not have any obligation to become members and must have some type of voluntary participation (The Johns Hopkins Comparative Non Profit Sector Project).

Another analytical school of thought on the civil society concept can be identified in Mexico, which is close to the sociological current and which has a very robust theoretical tradition, but with a much more limited empirical foundation. This approach to civil society is more linked to the role it has played in the processes of social change and democratic transition in Mexico over the last three decades. This is the analytical emphasis of Mexican authors including Olvera (1999, 2001, 2004); Canto (1998a, 1998b, 2004); Reygadas (1998) and others. These authors found their theoretical references in the German sociological tradition with authors including Cohen and Arato (1992), Pérez-Díaz (1997) and Villespín (1996) and practices in popular, social and citizens' movements of the 1980s and 90s.

This current of theory emphasises the role of rights (and therefore of democracy) in the emergence and development of civil society and the citizens' organisations of which it

consists. Following Cohen and Arato, Alberto Olvera states civil society has two main components: an institutional element and an active element. The first refers to the set of institutions that establish and protect the effective fulfilment of civil, political and social rights and that enable citizens to freely associate and protect themselves from the power of the state and the market. The second component refers to the set of groups consisting of citizens who, based on the exercise of their liberties, add the interests, values and demands of their members, extending them towards political and economic systems (Olvera, 2004).

From this perspective, civil society includes organised groups, but is not limited to them. Olvera (2004) adds that the main innovation of collective action by modern CSOs (if compared to revolutionary movements or post-revolutionary corporatist organisations) lies in two basic principles: autonomy and self-limitation. These organisations are organised and declared to be autonomous entities with respect to the political system and the market. Although some have a clear vocation to affect issues of public interest, their methods and strategies of actions are not performed through the political and party system, nor do they seek profits as the main objective of their organisations, even though they are private organisations. They are self-limiting organisations to the extent that their collective actions are directed neither to obtaining political power nor to becoming part of the state. They operate in the framework of institutional arrangements of the state and of market principles and tend to seek only to control or mitigate their excesses and negative effects. A final key element of this perspective is the recognition of the organisational heterogeneity and the plurality of interests that come about by exercising liberties.

Both perspectives developed in Mexico present problems in configuring and clearly defining the objective and scope of this study. The political-normative current presents two main challenges: a) this approach to civil society tends to emphasise forms of solidarity action and civic participation that can transcend the organised forms of participation (such as voluntary action) and b) it lacks a robust theoretical foundation that provides an explanation of the specificities and characteristics that distinguish it from other forms of association.

Likewise, the sociological current also has some problems. Perhaps the most relevant issue is its emphasis on organisational diversity and the plurality of interests and agendas that characterise the sector. This brings with it the need to consider organisations that do not necessarily practice or promote civic actions, or to exclude organisations that have an independence relative to the state or the market are not so clear, whether because they receive significant financing from one or the other, or because they operate from a market logic standpoint (such as savings and loan institutions).

Considering the two currents and the importance of utilising an operative definition that is sufficiently robust and adequate for the case of Mexico, it was decided to build a definition based on the strengths of both currents to shape the scope of the research in such a way as to address the plurality of the sociological definition and to delimit the

actors that make up the universe for data collection. For the purpose of this study, civil society is therefore defined as follows:

“Citizens who act collectively to defend a cause or common interest, who are characterised by being voluntarily organised, autonomous, not being part of the government or the market and not having profit objectives.”

This definition enabled the identification of actors to be considered in the CSO sample and the external actors’ sample (two information sources for the construction of the CSI Diamond).

## 2. Civil Society in Mexico: Five Decades of Development

### 2.1 The 1960s and 70s: initial forms of autonomous organisation

Following the Mexican Revolution, the state formally recognised at the constitutional level a broad set of individual rights and guarantees of a liberal nature, while in practice an authoritarian regime consolidated itself based on a corporatist structure that did not permit a clear difference between the state and social spheres (Olvera, 2000). In this context, the only organisations recognised as legitimate representatives of workers, peasants and members of the middle class were corporatist organisations affiliated to the party of the state. Corruption (providing benefits in exchange for political favours) and co-optation (recruiting leaders of disobedient groups for public positions to restrict their capacity for political initiative) were frequently used tools in the corporatist structure of the Mexican state.

Only some social sectors partially escaped from this centralised corporatist control that lasted for nearly five decades: higher education institutions, the Catholic Church (Cadena Roa, 2004: 160; Reygadas, 1998) and organisations linked to the Church that performed charitable and social assistance work without questioning the system. This led to the development of a civil society with private characteristics and with little interest in having an influence on the public sphere.

In 1968, the student movement became a turning point that included (in addition to a significant number of students) workers’ groups and the urban middle class who sought to free political prisoners and to repeal the social dissolution law that was used by the state to jail activists and dissidents. The movement achieved unprecedented visibility just a few months ahead of the opening of the 1968 Olympics in Mexico City, but was brutally repressed on 2 October of that year. As a result, the legitimacy of the state was damaged and this caused society to gradually increase its criticism (Cadena Roa, 2004: 171).

At the same time, the Latin American religious arena was experiencing a reorientation of social doctrine. The Catholic Church, with the rulings of the Vatican II council, favoured the instigation of a ‘development ministry’ in the region (Velázquez, 1978, in Reygadas, 1998). In the case of Mexico, the Christian Social Secretariats of cities including Cuernavaca, León, Mérida, Monterrey and Morelia improved relations with the

worker, peasant and professional sectors and sought to provide them with tools to organise and improve social and economic aspects, such as savings institutions and consumption and production cooperatives (Reygadas, op. cit.).

Influenced by the Mexican Social Secretariat (SSM), more than a thousand cooperatives had been founded by 1964, including the Mexican Confederation of Popular Savings Institutions. From SSM's perspective, the sustainability of these initiatives required the creation and operation of 'intermediary organisations' that accompanied and strengthened the base organisations (Velázquez, op. cit.). In the years following their foundation, these organisations went through a process of achieving autonomy from the Church that was strengthened by new currents and methodologies of interventions, such as Paulo Freyre's 'popular education' or Ivan Illich's 'deschooling society.'<sup>7</sup>

A third factor that contributed significantly to the erosion of the state corporatist apparatus was a massive migration to the Mexico City metropolitan area that fed a rising demand for services and for which the state was not prepared. As a result, a new type of social actor emerged: the urban-popular movement.

## 2.2 The 1980s: CSO growth and diversification

The 1980s was definitive for the independence and consolidation of CSOs as the most visible element of Mexican civil society. We can observe at least three factors that acted as catalysts for this process: the structural adjustment of the economy, the Mexico City earthquake of 1985 and the election of 1988.

The severe economic crisis of 1982 and the subsequent structural adjustment had a significant effect not only on popular sectors but also on the middle class, which saw the channels of social mobility more limited than before (Loaeza, 1988). The withdrawal of the Mexican government from the supply of goods, services and subsidies led to the emergence of new CSOs that addressed the issue in various ways: those that focused on the creation of self-managing alternatives, those linked to popular urban movements and those with a human rights perspective.

The second factor that catalysed the emergence of organised citizens' activity was the 1985 Mexico City earthquake. This saw a social response to the government's mistakes in the handling of the earthquake (Cadena Roa, 2004: 180) and is considered by many authors as a turning point in organised and voluntary participation by the Mexican people (Reygadas, 1998: 281). In addition to opening a new scenario for social participation, the earthquake provided CSOs with three changes that empowered their development and consolidation: a diversification of financing sources, the need to coordinate efforts, and as a result, greater public visibility. The significant resources sent to Mexico for the emergency and reconstruction efforts also gave CSOs better capacity for action, negotiation and public influence (Reygadas, op. cit.)

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<sup>7</sup> Both authors developed concepts regarding social education and were critical of the education system in Latin America. For Freyre see "Pedagogy of the oppressed". For Illich see "Deschooling Society."

Another characteristic of this decade was the emergence of organisations that addressed issues such as human rights, gender equality and the environment, mainly following movements in the USA and other parts of the world that addressed these issues with more political objectives. Eventually, these types of movements would help shed light on the gap between the foundations that preserved the strength of the Mexican state (economic growth and the populist leadership of the country) and the lack of legality (corruption, little respect for the law and governmental opacity).

For these types of organisations, the electoral arena became one of the preferred spheres of debate and political struggle, peaking during the 1988 presidential elections when the government had to resort to electoral fraud to keep the incumbent party in power (Favela Gavia, 2004: 131). That year was marked by protests against economic policies and the elections on 6 July presented the ideal channel for these social manifestations. As an initial consequence, CSOs strengthened their position of separation from and antagonism towards the government, creating a situation of mutual distrust (Butcher, 2006: 392).

### 2.3 The 1990s: consolidation and thematic plurality

In the 1990s CSOs in Mexico witnessed a significant increase in association, visibility and public impact. Some of the main public interest issues around which plurality and capacity were organised and consolidated included: 1) the struggle for democracy; 2) the peace process in Chiapas state and development among indigenous peoples<sup>8</sup>; 3) the legal-juridical recognition of CSOs; 4) the effects of free trade and the consequences of the economic crisis of 1995. The decade also marked a historical moment that led to a clear and definite differentiation of the many identities and projects of the plural sectors of Mexican CSOs.

This was the result of the decade beginning with the First Annual Seminar on the Situation and Perspectives of Private Assistance, Promotion and Social Development Institutions in Mexico. The seminar brought together a heterogeneous group of people including philanthropy groups such as Cemefi (Mexican Centre for Philanthropy), business groups and related groups such as Cifra and the Business Coordination Council, social assistance groups linked to the Catholic Church and the Society of Jesus, international foundations such as the Ford Foundation, the US Embassy, representatives from the Federal District, organisations with close ties to the federal government such as the Miguel Alemán Foundation and the Mexican Health Foundation and left-wing social CSOs with close ties to grassroots organisations (Reygadas, op. cit.). The seminar was valuable in that it opened up a common sphere of discussion through which the various analyses and intervention paradigms that existed amongst CSOs were put into perspective. In the following years this diversity evolved, becoming what Reygadas (op. cit.) identifies as the three CSO currents of action: assistance,

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<sup>8</sup> As a consequence of the indigenous uprising commanded by the EZLN (Ejército Zapatista de Liberación Nacional) in January 1994.



philanthropy and development promotion, each having their own distinct identities, programmes and interventions.

This differentiation was a key factor in the development and consolidation of new networks and areas of relations and coordination among CSOs of different currents. The Convergence of Civil Organisations for Democracy was founded a few months after the Seminar. It is a network that brings together organisations that promote development. Later, in 1993 the Mutual Support Forum was founded under the umbrella of the Foundation for Community Support, which is part of a group of organisations made up of private assistance institutions, social and development promotion organisations, foundations and social funds. Meanwhile, the Federal District Private Assistance Council continued with promotion and integration efforts for those types of organisations. Likewise, Cemefi was consolidated as an initiative to bring together the associative sector. It emerged from the Mexican business sector with an approach ranging from philanthropy to social responsibility. For the remainder of the 90s these various areas had, at times, certain points in common while at other times they were opposed, yet this was all a key aspect of the process of consolidating the identity of the sector, which entailed the search for legal and fiscal precepts that acknowledged the specificity of civil society as an associative sector.

Parallel to these processes, two issues set the stage for the greater emergence, organisation and mobilisation of CSOs and their spheres of coordination. First was the struggle for democracy in the context of local elections in 1991 and 1993 and federal elections in 1994 and 1997. Second was the trade liberalisation of the Mexican economy, particularly under the North American Free Trade Agreement. In the former, human rights organisations played a major role by reintroducing political rights as an integral part of human rights and proposing citizen observation of the electoral process as a new form of civil intervention in the voting process (Monroy, 1993).

Citizen actions for election monitoring reached a high point through the creation of the Civic Alliance by the Mexican Academy for Human Rights, the Convergence of Civil Organisations for Democracy, the National Agreement for Democracy, the Citizen's Movement for Democracy, the Council for Democracy and the Arturo Rosenbleuth Foundation. The strategy included the monitoring of almost all aspects of the electoral process. This experience had several impacts on the development of CSOs. It positioned them as credible, legitimate players with the capacity to influence public opinion. It also showed the value and potential of research applied to citizen work, and served as a breeding ground for the creation of new leadership within civil society.

In parallel, the rise of the Zapatista Army for National Liberation on 1 January 1994 marked the start of a growing number of initiatives, mainly from indigenous peoples, to seek greater inclusion and respect for cultural diversity (Reygadas, 1998: 421). A few days after the Mexican army entered Chiapas territory, local CSOs joined together to create the Coordination of Non-governmental Organisations for Peace (CONPAZ), to guarantee neutral humanitarian work in the area and to allow the circulation of information on the conflict, especially in relation to human rights. Another notable

response from citizens was a march held on 12 January 1994 that was organised by various CSOs which demanded a ceasefire and political dialogue. Over 150,000 people participated in the march (Reygadas, 1998:444). Meanwhile, international solidarity was seen in the following manner: United Nations international observers in Chiapas; the presence of UNDP, FAO and IADB on a mission to analyse the regional situation; and the presence of the Red Cross International Committee, among others. Given the degree of visibility attained by the movement, CSO participation in the peace process was highly significant. Its main contribution was to include civil society in the dialogue, the mediation and the search for alternatives to the war (Reygadas, 1998: 580).

Meanwhile, the liberalisation of the Mexican economy, the implementation of the North American Free Trade Agreement and the economic crisis of 1995 led to the creation of new CSOs and increased prominence for those created decades earlier. Many organisations, researchers, journalists, union leaders and political analysts sought increased public debate within the government and Congress regarding NAFTA. These actors helped form the Mexican Network of Action on Free Trade (RMALC) in 1992. The organisation focused on producing applied and comparative research regarding NAFTA and its implications on various sectors. Likewise, participation by Mexican, US and Canadian civil society, in a range of forms of civil transnational activism, was a central aspect in the reformulation of this agreement with regard to environmental issues (Icaza, 2001:8).

## 2.4 CSOs in current times

In 2000, democracy was consolidated in Mexico when the National Action Party (PAN) won the presidency with Vicente Fox Quezada, thus ousting the PRI's decades-long hold on power. This event had many relevant repercussions. First, it implied that many of the agendas of networks and coordination initiatives that had worked for this cause now lost relevance, visibility and public force. Second, many of these organisations' leadership roles were abandoned when those leaders took on government positions as a consequence of federal, state and municipal power changes, in addition to an absence of specialised positions for government tasks. Though this led to a short-term loss of public presence and capacity in civil society, it also paved the way for needed changes of leadership, and the creation of new arenas and methods of public engagement. Thus, a new set of priorities were established, followed by the creation of new CSOs with different methodologies and areas of focus. Additionally, CSOs that were founded earlier not only were strengthened, but also were able to find fertile ground for moving forward with their objectives in this new context.

President Fox's transition team worked with various CSOs through discussion sessions. These served to increase the visibility of the most important demands of civil society while supporting the development of a legal framework for CSOs. Four issues fundamentally marked the associative sector's development in this decade: 1) the consolidation of public government right to information (RTI) requirements; 2) the consolidation of a legal and fiscal framework for the sector; 3) the increase of social responsibility by the business sector and; 4) growing public insecurity related to an increase in organised crime at the end of the decade. Some of the organisations'

leaders were replaced with younger professionals who were able to refresh the work performed by CSOs or who created their own organisations. This led to an impact on the dynamics, capacities and forms of action of many organisations. New organisations tended to specialise in applied research inspired by international experiences and to produce better-informed public campaigns. However, the existing gap separating civil organisations, grassroots organisations and social movements widened.

The possibility of accessing public information through RTI's legal and institutional recognition allowed civil society to engage with the government's main public policy instruments: budgets. By the second half of the decade, public actions were taken by multiple organisations that complemented budget analysis with analysis of public policy results, particularly for social and public security policies.

This new situation created a more suitable atmosphere for the growth of the business sector's role and impact on development, the environment and the social sphere. This led to accelerated growth of business foundations and voluntary participation programmes promoted by companies. Another result was the launch of initiatives by civil society to publicly credit and acknowledge companies that complied with certain environmental and social standards. As one example, Cemefi launched the Socially Responsible Business Distinction at the start of the decade. In Mexico this new issue, which, along with initiatives such as the Global Reporting Initiative and ISO 26000, can be recognised as a reflection of a broad international movement that spurred a large practising community and led to high visibility and public impact levels.

Another issue that marked the emergence of new social actors is an increase in public insecurity, particularly over the last few years. The surge of crimes such as kidnapping (mainly affecting the upper class) and public security problems associated with drug trafficking (mainly affecting the working class) has seen the appearance of a new type of actor on the scene: activists from high society (many of whom are businesspersons) whose families have been affected. By taking advantage of high profile cases and making use of their wide-ranging network relations and resources, these new social leaders have managed to place the issue of security at the top of the public and government agendas.

Given growing security problems due to drug trafficking, which is highly focused on particular geographical regions and tends to affect the poorer sections of society rather than the middle and upper classes, the federal government decided to strengthen its combat actions, mainly by using public security forces, including the Mexican Army. This decision has led to an increasing number of claims about human rights violations made by human rights promotion and defence organisations. Another aspect that mobilises organised civil society movements in relation to security is the scrutiny of and public outcry over the systematic murder of women in the border zone, especially in the city of Juárez. Though this problem came about before Mexico's current critical security situation, it has become a movement that represents civil society and an example of organisation in border towns that are now facing conflicts arising from clashes between drug traffickers and the armed forces.

One of the sector's most significant challenges is the lack of resources to finance its work, which is related to the legal and fiscal framework of activity. The Federal Law Promoting CSO Activities, passed in 2004, (LFOSC) represents a significant leap forward by acknowledging the social relevance of CSO work. The law created the Federal Registry of Civil Society Organisations headed by the National Social Development Institute (INDESOL). Each organisation is given a Unique Registry Code (CLUNI), which is essential for obtaining public resources from government programmes. This has led to a greater degree of transparency between CSOs and the government (Hevia and García, 2009). However, the law's implementation and its regulation have faced challenges. The main challenge is the fact that the institutional judicial framework regulating the actions of CSOs in Mexico currently has a heterogeneous and contradictory set of regulations that "reflects a transition towards democracy in which the entire Mexican political system can be found, which means that while some regulations are democratic (inclusive), others are in a process of increasing openness, while there are others that are still closed to citizen participation" (Favela, 2004 pg.124).

In fiscal matters, the authorised donation receiving system and CLUNI, which were both created to ease access to private and public funds, still have to be endorsed by the LFOSC, since its application has led to "parallel windows with similar paperwork and requirements which are practically duplicated" (Tapia and Robles, 2006). Furthermore, federal and state entities should also work together to support the activities of CSOs, since the federal framework and local support policies create confusion between these and the LFOSC (Robledo, 2008). Manuel Canto Chac believes the law has become much more of a control mechanism for CSOs, rather than one of support (Canto, 2007). Despite the law, there is no actual support policy for CSOs. Therefore, efforts by the government sector and those of CSOs end up being isolated and disjointed, and do not necessarily translate into a true support mechanism for CSOs.

### 3. Mapping Civil society

In Mexico, the various contexts used to identify, categorise or classify CSOs have been as diverse as the theoretical currents that were described above. From a political-regulatory standpoint, Cemefi has proposed a civil society division of two main categories: organised and non-organised. The second category entails spontaneous or issue-specific movements or mobilisations with set objectives and which tend to disappear quickly. They are noted for not having a formally defined structure, though they could later become an organisation. Within the organised civil society category, Cemefi identifies two large types of organisations: for profit and non-profit. The former are mainly companies. In the context of non-profit CSOs, Cemefi highlights the 'third sector', made up of four large types of organisations:

TABLE II.3.1 Third sector organisations

Association type	Definition	Quantity	Percentage (%)
Helping others	Philanthropic sector including foundations, operative associations and institutions providing services to the sector	19,428	54.9
Mutual benefit	Exclusive benefits for members, including social and sports clubs, business chambers, professional associations, labour unions and others	8,391	23.7
Religious	Directly related to a church or place of worship that mainly determines their actions and organisation mechanisms	7,390	20.9
Political parties and policies	Seek political power through the democratic competition system	148	0.4
TOTAL		35,357	100

Source: Third Sector Statistics Compendium (Cemefi, 2009), Directory of the National Bureau of Religious Associations (Segob, 2010), Political Association Directories, IFE and State Electoral Institutes, 2010.

With regard to CSO distribution by area of focus, 45% of organisations are concentrated in social support and/or aid services, about 18% tend to community development and 8% focus on health. The rest of the organisations are focused on issues such as education, research, the environment and human rights. There is a low percentage of donor organisations in Mexico. Those classified in the SAT Donation Directory as philanthropic intermediaries and volunteer promoters (283 CSOs) amount to less than 1% of the total number of organisations.<sup>9</sup>

In terms of geographic distribution, there is a high degree of organisations concentrated in the 20 most populous cities and particularly in the Federal District. In these 20 cities are found 74.5% of authorised donor receivers and 47.3% of CLUNI organisations.<sup>10</sup> Of all organisations registered at Indesol, 23.15% are located in the Federal District, as are 29.4% of authorised donation receivers, although this area's population represents less than 10% of the total.<sup>11</sup> The rest of the country has poor associative density in relation to the population. The States of Mexico and Veracruz are relevant in this sense, since each holds 6.3% of CLUNI organisations while their populations represent 12% and 8% of the national total.

<sup>9</sup> Source: CSO Registry of the National Social Development Institute (Indesol, 2010), Directory of Authorised Donation Receivers (SAT, 2009), Directory of Philanthropic Institutions (Cemefi, 2010).

<sup>10</sup> Source: Non-Profit Sector Statistical Compendium, 2011 (Cemefi, *Mimeo*).

<sup>11</sup> Source: CSO Registry of the National Social Development Institute (Indesol) and SAT, 2009.

### III. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY

#### 1. Civic Engagement

A significant element of civil society development in a given country's national reality depends on citizen engagement in civil actions and participation in groups or associations that represent common interests and causes. Measuring this engagement is crucial since it provides an indication of a people's capacity and interest in participating in public matters.

CSI has developed a series of sub-dimensions and indicators that attempt to measure civic engagement data. Mati et al. (2010) note that civic engagement or 'active citizenship' describes formal and informal activities performed by individuals in pursuit of common interests. CSI measures three aspects of social and political participation:

- 1) Extent of engagement - as members of and volunteers in organisations and associations;
- 2) Depth of engagement – which evaluates the frequency and extent of civil society activities performed by individuals;
- 3) Diversity of engagement – which examines gender, socio-economic, ethnic and geographic distribution of civil society participants.<sup>12</sup>

**Social participation** refers to any citizen activities that include exchanges within the public sphere to allow for social or recreational interests to move forward. In addition to promoting mutual care and offering mechanisms for the use of free time, these activities build social capital. **Political participation** implies activities through which people try to make progress on common political or public interests. These activities aim to have an impact on policies and/or to generate social change at macro levels.

According to this dimension, the extent and intensity of engagement in Mexico is greater in social CSOs than in political organisations. It was also observed that according to interviewee perceptions, there is a great diversity of participation in these types of organisations. The score emphasises engagement by persons belonging to groups that could be historically classified as least favoured or at risk of vulnerability, such as women, indigenous people and people with disabilities.

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<sup>12</sup> This dimension was configured using data from the Civil Society Index Population Survey.

TABLE III.1.1 Civic Engagement Dimension scores

	<b>Social CSOs</b>	<b>Political CSOs</b>
<b>Extent of participation</b> Membership, volunteering, community participation and individual activism	<b>32.7%</b>	<b>17.7%</b>
<b>Depth of participation</b> Frequency and extent of participation as a member, volunteer, community participation, and individual activism	<b>35.7%</b>	<b>14.6%</b>
<b>Diversity of participation</b> Inclusion of vulnerable groups in CSOs	<b>86.9%</b>	<b>80.7%</b>
<b>Civic Engagement - overall score</b>	<b>44.7%</b>	

### 1.1 Extent of socially-based engagement

CSOs with the highest active participation are sports and recreation related, followed by religious CSOs<sup>13</sup>. More than a third of interviewees (36%) responded that they do not dedicate any time to volunteer work, with a little over 20% choosing not to respond to the question. Of those people who do perform volunteer work (42% of interviewees), 14% responded that they dedicate from 1 to 10 hours a month (between 0.52 and 5.2% of the work day in Mexico), 13% dedicate from 11 to 20 hours per month (5.7 and 10.4% of the work day) and 7% between 21 and 30 hours (10.9 to 15.6% of the work day).<sup>14</sup> The rate of volunteer work is greatest in sport/recreation and religious organisations, with 12.2% of the interviewed population indicating they performed volunteer work in sport or recreation organisations, 10.1% in religious organisations and 8.3% in art, music or education organisations.

The family unit continues to be the most important sphere for social activity in Mexico, followed by friendships. Slightly more than 33% of the population stated that they socialise never or hardly ever with co-workers and approximately 45% showed a minimum level of interaction with other CSO members or members of the same religious organisation.

### 1.2 Depth of social engagement

This indicator measures how deeply rooted citizen engagement is. Participation in more than one organisation is a sign that citizens use these cooperation and coordination mechanisms habitually to defend or develop a particular cause. Depth is measured through intense participation or participation in more than one social organisation, and in social activities held at least once a month.

Only 4.83% of the population is active in more than one social organisation. The most frequent combination of active membership in multiple organisations can be found in

<sup>13</sup> Church membership was not included.

<sup>14</sup> In Mexico, the work week cannot exceed 48 hours. Therefore, there are an estimated 192 work hours per month. (Estimates based on Articles 61 and 69 of the current Federal Labour Law).

sports or recreation organisations and art, culture or education organisations. The next most frequent combination was active membership in church CSOs and sports or recreation CSOs. Only 0.3% of the population is active in more than two social organisations.

In Mexico, 5.9% of the population performs volunteer work in more than one social organisation. Multiple volunteer activities can again be seen in sports/recreational CSOs and those dedicated to art, culture or education, followed by volunteer work in religious CSOs and sports/recreation CSOs. About 1% of the population performs volunteer activities in more than two organisations, with the most usual combination being that of religious, sports/recreational, art and culture or education CSOs.

Most of the population (80%) visits family once a week. A lesser percentage (40%) visits friends, while only about 15% of the population said they get together weekly with co-workers, members of organisations or religious congregations. Of the surveyed population, 34% stated they get together with co-workers once or twice a week while 20% stated that they get together once a month with other members of the same organisation or religious congregation.

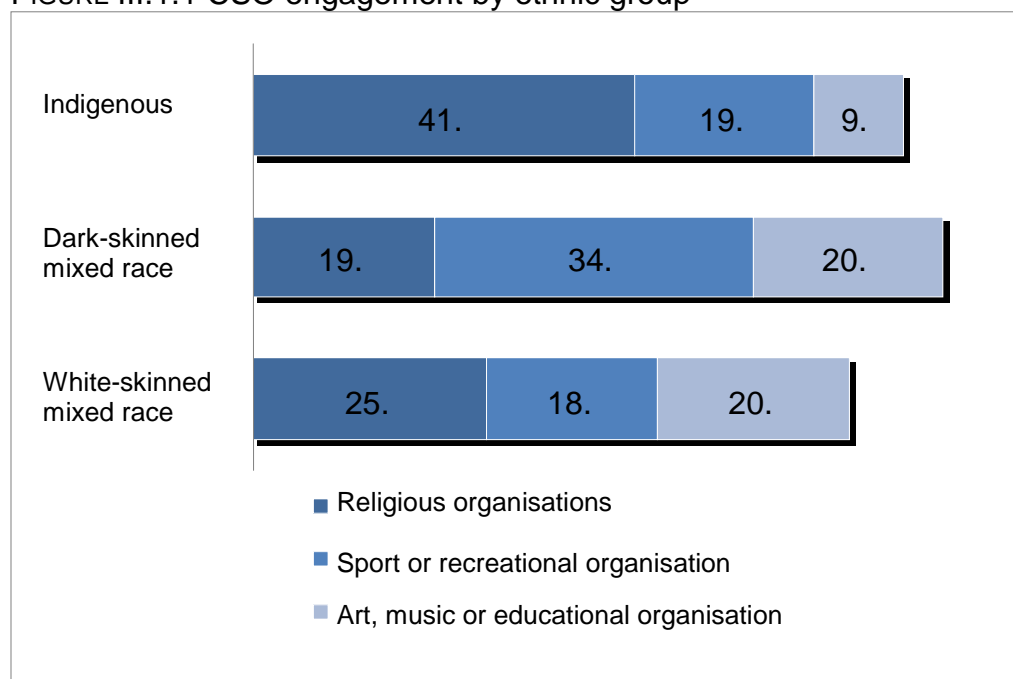
### 1.3 Diversity of socially-based engagement

Engagement diversity refers to the level to which the most vulnerable or least favoured groups within society are directly involved in CSOs. It is a relevant measure since it implies that these groups are not only the recipients of the benefits of ideals defended by CSOs, but are also active members who participate in their development.

According to the survey results, there is an equal proportion of active membership by women and men (50%). However, men participate more in sports or recreation activities (59% of total members), while women participate more in religious organisations (63% of members).



FIGURE III.1.1 CSO engagement by ethnic group



The indigenous population (8% of the sample) participates more in religious organisations. The same can be seen for white people of mixed race (30% of the sample), but in lower proportions. The dark-skinned mixed race population, which represents the largest part of the sample (62%) participates more in sports or recreational organisations.

In relation to education levels, slightly more than 41% of active members of social organisations have incomplete or complete university studies, 21% have secondary school (complete or incomplete), 26% have vocational studies (complete or incomplete) and 8.6% of active members have a primary school education (complete or incomplete). The remaining active members do not have formal studies.

#### 1.4 Extent of political engagement

The extent of political engagement measures a society's level of commitment to public or political issues through their involvement in CSOs which aim to bring their causes to a public forum. The indicator examines the following: 1) active membership in political organisations; 2) volunteer work in political organisations; and 3) percentage of the population involved in political activism.

TABLE III.1.2 Population membership in political organisations

<b>Organisations</b>	<b>Active members</b>	<b>Inactive members</b>	<b>Do not belong</b>
Environment	3.5%	2.5%	94.0%
Trade unions	2.4%	1.3%	96.3%
Humanitarian or charity based	2.3%	1.8%	95.9%
Political parties	1.7%	1.9%	96.4%
Professional organisations	0.6%	0.7%	98.7%

In relation to political organisations, we noted greater membership (active or inactive) in environmental organisations. Labour unions and humanitarian or charity organisations follow in terms of active membership.

As indicated in Table III.1.1, the population in Mexico participates more in social CSOs than in political ones. This can also be seen in volunteer work. In the case of political CSOs, 5.1% of the population stated they volunteer in environmental organisations, 4.8% in humanitarian or charity organisations and 1.8% in political parties. The remaining political organisations did not account for 1% of the population in volunteer work.

In terms of citizen engagement in political activities, 40.7% of the population has signed a petition in the last five years, 23.5% has attended a public demonstration and 7.7% has participated in a boycott. Though it can be seen that a high percentage of the population has not engaged in any type of public action, it is also true that there have been significant events in the last few years that have led to an increase in citizen participation, especially in peaceful demonstrations such as marches against violence and insecurity.<sup>15</sup>

### 1.5 Depth of political engagement

This sub-dimension refers to the frequency and intensity with which citizens engage in political organisations or in political/public acts through the following indicators: 1) membership in more than one political organisation; 2) volunteer work in two or more political organisations; 3) highly active participation in political or public acts, such as signing public petitions or participating in peaceful demonstrations.

Only 1% of the population actively participates in more than one political organisation, with the most frequent simultaneous membership being in labour unions and political parties. This is congruent with the corporatist history of Mexico and labour unions' strong ties to the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI), which created some of the largest unions in Mexico. Authors such as Cohen and Arato and Olvera argue that considering labour unions and political parties as part of civil society greatly depends in

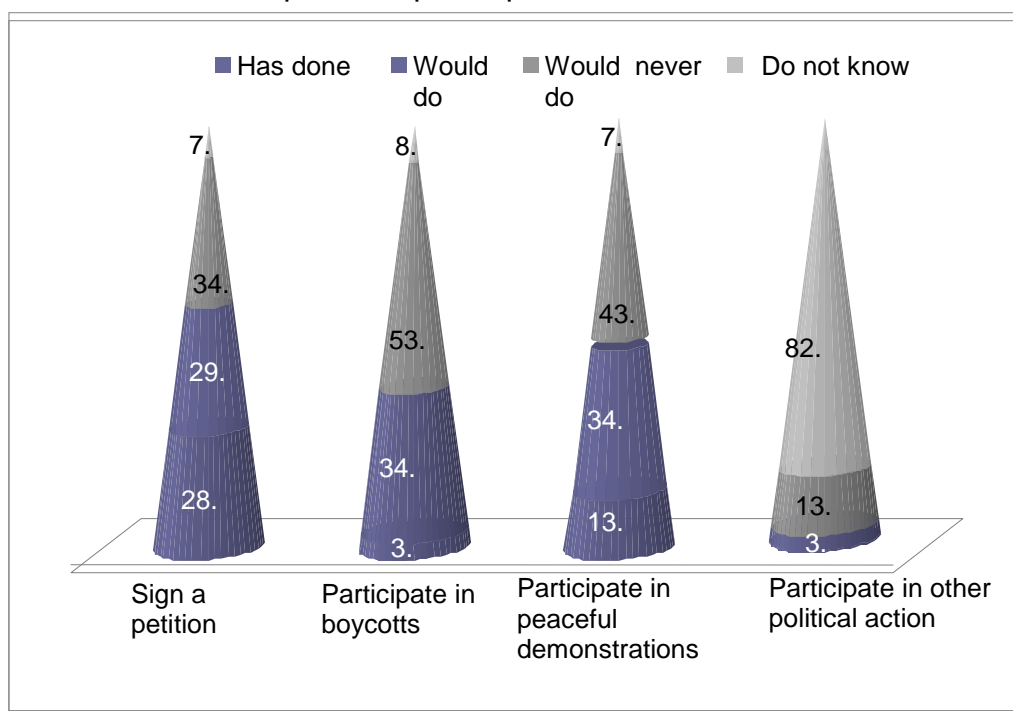
<sup>15</sup> As an example, on August 30th 2008, more than 500,000 people gathered in downtown Mexico City to manifest against insecurity.

their origin and development. Given the Mexican context, the Advisory Committee chose not to consider these institutions as part of Mexican civil society, on the basis of their clear interest in attaining political power. This means that they were considered as external stakeholders in this study's surveys.

The second most frequent combination of multiple memberships is represented by professional organisations and humanitarian or charity organisations. A very small percentage of the population declared membership in more than two political organisations.

In terms of volunteer work with multiple organisations, only 1.4% of the population said they participate as a volunteer in more than one political organisation, with the most usual combination being that of environmental and humanitarian or charity CSOs, followed by multiple volunteer activities in labour unions and political parties.

FIGURE III.1.2 Participation in public/political activities

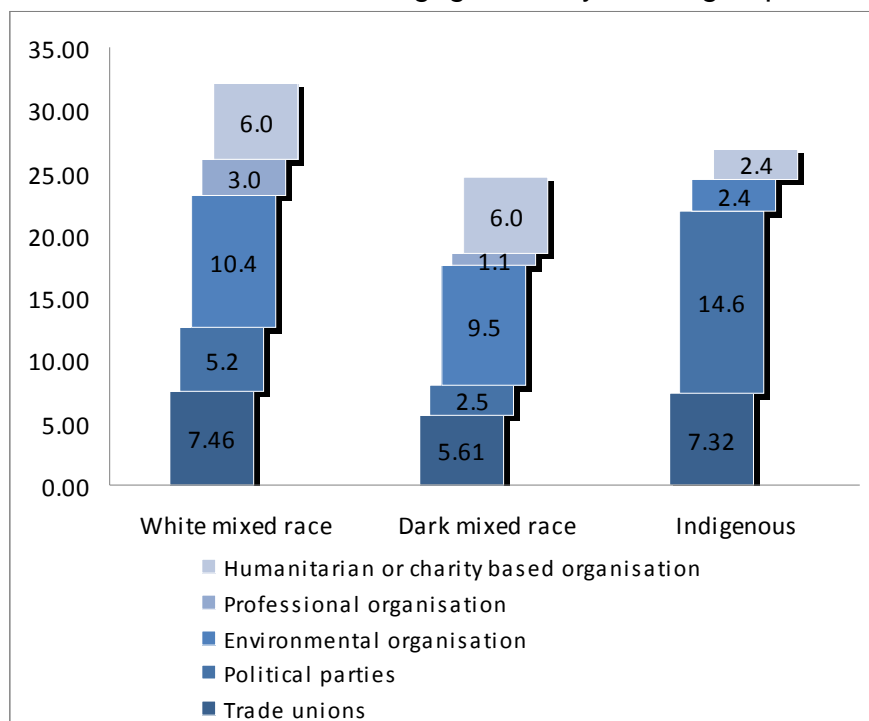


In terms of participation in political actions, about 30% of the surveyed population mentioned having signed a petition while another 30% said they would be willing to do so. Few have participated in a boycott (3.5%), while slightly less than 35% would do so at some time and 50% would never do it. In terms of attending peaceful demonstrations, almost 14% reported having done so, while 34% would and almost 44% would not be willing to participate. Therefore, there is a high percentage of the population that does not believe in political action, as the figure above shows.

## 1.6 Diversity of political engagement

The indicator for diversity of political engagement measures the percentages of members in these types of organisations that belong to vulnerable groups or those at considered at risk of vulnerability. An analysis was made as to gender, ethnic group and education level. It is noteworthy that women have greater participation than men in political organisations, though many of these institutions have been traditionally run by men: 67% of humanitarian CSO members and 60% of environmental CSO members are women. In terms of political parties and labour unions, the percentage is lower, slightly above 50%.

FIGURE III.1.3 Political CSO engagement by ethnic group



The white mixed-race population has a greater diversification of membership in political CSOs as compared to the other two ethnic groups considered. It is striking that 14.6% of the indigenous population surveyed participates in political parties. This shows a level of political involvement of communities that traditionally may have been assumed to be excluded from political life.

However, caution must be used when interpreting this information since membership does not necessarily imply true participation in decision-making activities within political parties and could be seen more as a reflection of corporatist mechanisms for the co-optation of vulnerable groups.

Lastly, in relation to active political membership and level of education, 41.6% of active members have complete or incomplete university studies, 16.6% have completed secondary school and another 16.6% have finished primary school. This shows that, as

in the case of social membership, there is a higher incidence active membership among persons with higher educational levels.

## Conclusion

The dimension's overall result (44.7%) is influenced by the high percentages achieved in the engagement diversity sub-dimensions, while the values obtained in other sub-dimensions are relatively low. There is consistency in the data regarding higher engagement in social organisations than in political ones. However, the CSI methodology is quite broad when seeking to capture a country's social capital and, for example, grants the same weight to religious and recreational organisations as to environmental or human rights organisations.

The consequences of this type of engagement standardisation is analysed in the case study for this dimension, which examines the complexity of combining indicators that take into account traditional activities, such as participation in religious groups, with an active participation in causes that have gained relevance over the last few decades, such as those related to citizen involvement in public and democratic decision-making. It is also worth noting that the dimension's highest values were obtained in the engagement diversity sub-dimension. This is partly due to the CSI methodology's conceptualisation of vulnerable groups or those at risk of vulnerability, such as women and indigenous people. Though the positive scores resulting may reflect active participation by groups that directly seek solutions to individual or social problems through cooperation and coordination, this should be contrasted with other findings of the study. For example, although there are more women than men participating in CSOs, men mostly hold the executive positions. Such considerations should be taken into account in the analysis of the following dimension, the level of organisation.

Other significant issues include low levels of citizen engagement in public or political actions, as well as a low level of membership in CSOs in general, whether social or political in nature. This could be partly explained by the low level of trust among citizens and towards CSOs. As we shall discuss later, 75% of the population believes that care must be taken when dealing with other people. Although CSOs achieved a much higher rating for public trust than government institutions or private companies, 40% of the population still declared that they do not have a high level of trust in them.

This undoubtedly poses a challenge for the sector, on the assumption that when it can increase society's trust and show positive consequences of its work, it can expand the number of people interested in participating in its causes.

## 2. Level of Organisation

This dimension seeks to establish the extent to which civil society is organised and the types of resources and infrastructure it has. "The Level of Organisation dimension studies civil society's entire organisational development. To achieve this, it evaluates complexity and sophistication levels in a carefully selected sample of civil society organisations" (CSI, 2008).

CSI considers six sub-dimensions used to measure the level of civil society's organisation.<sup>16</sup> These sub-dimensions are as follows:

1. Internal governance – which seeks to establish the percentage of CSOs that have an executive board or steering committee.
2. Support infrastructure – which examines the extent to which CSOs are formal members of support organisations, such as networks and federations.
3. Sectoral communication – which analyses the exchange of information and participation in meetings with other organisations.
4. Human resources – which looks into the composition and sustainability of CSO personnel.
5. Financial and technological resources – which explores the degree to which CSOs have a solid financial foundation and access to technologies such as Internet and telephone.
6. International linkages – which assesses the type and nature of international linkages of CSOs in Mexico.

In the case of Mexico, this dimension had an average value of 45.9 out of 100. In general terms, this suggests that this dimension could be developed further.

TABLE III.2.1 Level of Organisation Dimension scores

Internal governance Organisations that have a board of directors or coordinating committee	72.0%
Membership of other networks Formal membership of an umbrella organisation	41.1%
Sectoral communication Participation in meetings or exchange of information with other organisations	63.9%
Human resources Organisations with a sustainable base of human resources	12.4%
Financial and technological resources Organisations with a solid financial base and access to technologies	65.9%
International links Presence of international NGOs in Mexico	20.3%
Level of Organisation - overall score	45.9%

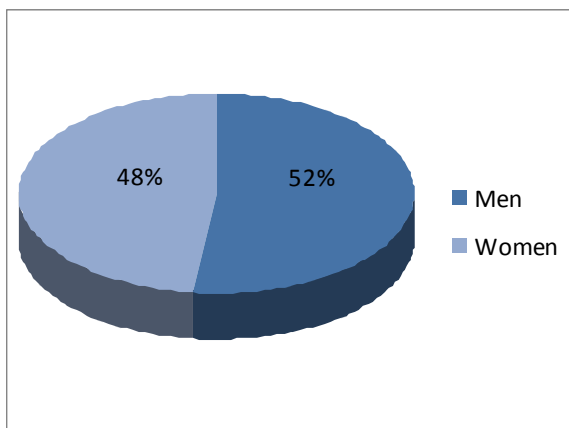
## 2.1 Internal governance

This sub-dimension is assessed through the percentage of CSOs that report a formal governance structure, an internal management system with clearly defined roles and mechanisms established for electing government bodies and for making decisions. This sub-dimension has the highest rating with a value of 72%. This means that in Mexico, regardless of lower scores in other organisational aspects, most Mexican organisations

<sup>16</sup> This analysis took into account the data obtained from the Organisational Survey carried out on CSOs during the research stage, information supplied directly by CSOs during regional workshops and information derived from the corresponding case study.

have a formal government structure; in almost all cases (71%) there is a collective body where one person is designated to make the organisation's most important decisions.

FIGURE III.2.1 Women and men in executive positions

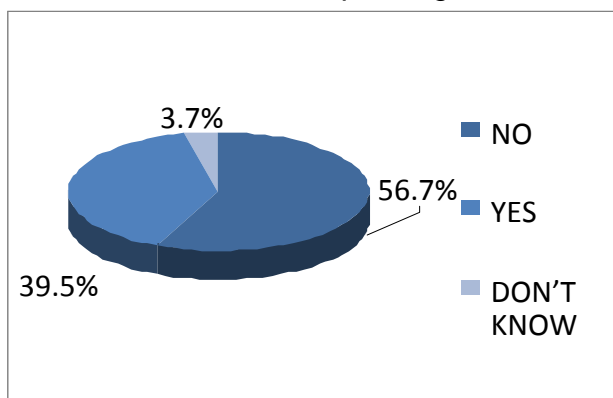


Further, of the surveyed organisations, 52% of personnel are men and 48% are women. However, 30% of all women hold executive positions, while 35% of men. This means that there continues to be a higher proportion of men holding management positions than women.

## 2.2 Infrastructure

This sub-dimension seeks to assess the level of strength in the sector by identifying the percentage of CSOs that belong to a federation or support organisation.<sup>17</sup> This is based on the premise that the level of coordination and network density of civil society is a sign of strength. The result obtained in this sub-dimension found a low percent (39.5%) of organisations belong to a network or federation.

FIGURE III.2.2 Membership of organisations in networks



<sup>17</sup> The term 'support infrastructure' in Spanish does not necessarily refer to the CSI definition, but is generally associated with an organisations' material base and resources. However, in light of the comparison, we will be using the term.

Most CSOs (56.7%) responded that they do not belong to a network or federation. Those that do, when asked to mention a group to which they belong, named 119 different groups, but only three networks or federations were mentioned more than once,<sup>18</sup> which tells us that there are not many CSO networks or federations that are truly well-known national reference points for all organisations. For CSI, this is an indicator of weakness in the level of organisation of Mexican CSOs.

Using the Organisational Survey Data, it is also possible to assess the intensity of CSO engagement in networks or federations. By considering participation to be active when an organisation carries out joint activities with other organisations or holds an executive position within a network, or passive when an organisation only receives periodic information from a network or federation, 80% deem their participation active while 20% state it is passive.

Although CSOs have the perception of actively participating in networks or federations, the truth is that slightly more than half of surveyed organisations are not linked to another organisation, and this is a factor that weakens the coordination and density levels of networks within Mexican civil society. Some of the existing networks state that they have lost some of their active membership, have fewer resources to mobilise or have seen their power to convene decline.

### 2.3 Sectoral communication

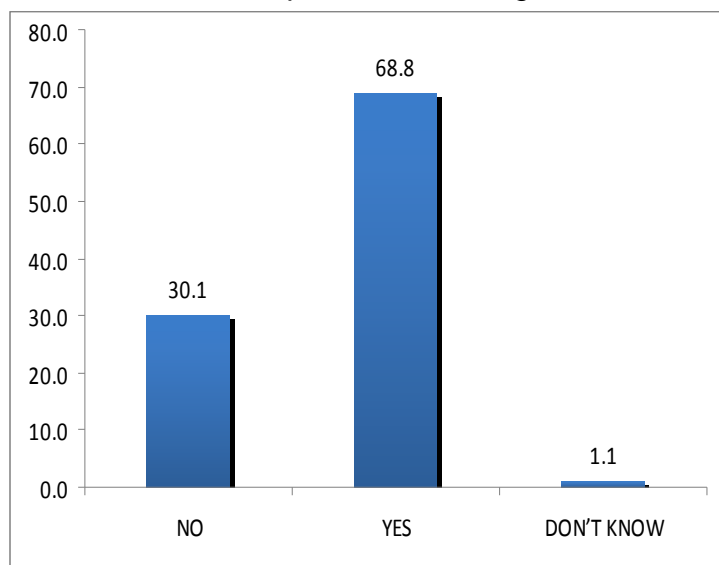
This sub-dimension assesses the extent of linkages and relations between civil society actors through information exchange and alliance construction. CSOs were asked if, over the last three months, they had held meetings or shared documentation with other organisations working on similar tasks.

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<sup>18</sup> The Mexican Centre for Philanthropy was named 13 times; the Private Assistance Council was named seven times and the Dr. Simi Foundation was named twice.



FIGURE III.2.3 Participation in meetings



Of all the organisations (68.8%) stating they had attended meetings in the last three months, 54% affirmed having met with up to five organisations, 16% with up to 10 and 12% with up to 15.

Another indicator relates the percentage of organisations that have exchanged information with their peers over the last three months; 58.1% of surveyed CSOs affirmed having exchanged information.

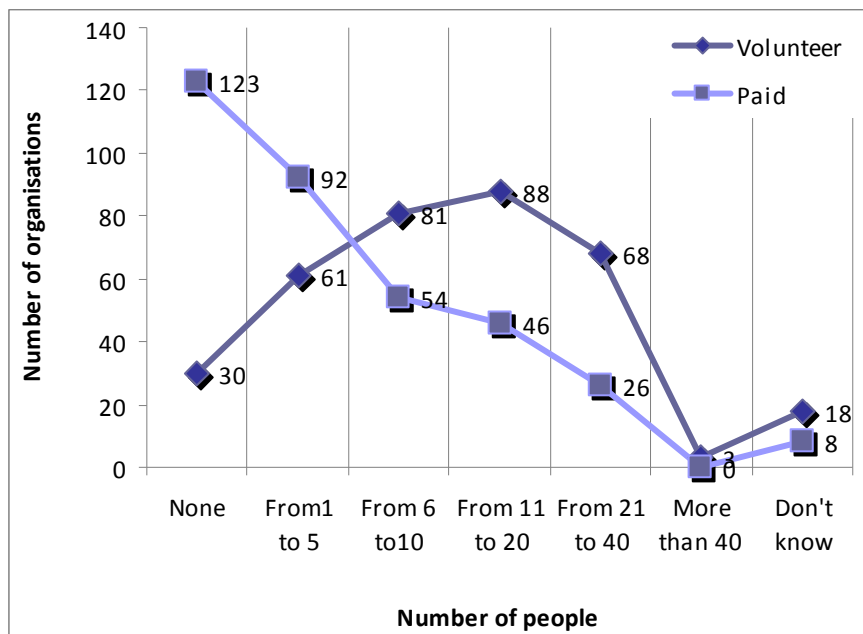
If we take into account the score obtained in the previous sub-dimension, we can affirm that, although there is relevant interaction and contact among organisations, this does not currently translate into a consolidation of networks that strengthen the sector. This was affirmed in regional workshops where, in general, organisations stated that the alliances they currently have respond to circumstantial or very specific needs, such as reporting certain types of situations that violate human rights, electoral issues, and specific campaigns to address sexual or reproductive health or family violence. This can be seen as due to levels of social polarisation and party politics that are experienced in many of Mexico's regions, which have led to a lack of trust and a weakening of many CSOs. Although at other times, especially in the 90s, there was a great capacity for articulation and creating coalitions and alliances, currently the perception of most organisations is that this capacity has decreased. At the regional workshops, one of the organisations' most frequently mentioned needs is fostering and recovering articulation and alliance construction capacities.

## 2.4 Human resources

This sub-dimension scores civil society human resource sustainability through an analysis of the ratio of the number of volunteers and paid staff in an organisation. From the CSI perspective, an organisation's human resource base is sustainable when volunteers represent no more than 25% of an organisation's total staff.

It is worth noting that this sub-dimension's result is the lowest of all at 12.4%. This shows that in Mexico, CSOs do not have a sufficiently stable human resource base, which is undoubtedly related to the financial resources sub-dimension discussed below.

FIGURE III.2.4 Volunteers and paid staff ratio



This graph shows that of the 349 surveyed organisations, 123, or slightly more than 35%, state they do not have paid staff. Ninety-two organisations state they have between 1 and 5 paid persons and after that the curve descends (Organisational Survey, 2009). For volunteers, the inverse occurs. Only 30 organisations stated not having any volunteers and, as the number of volunteer personnel increases, so does the number of organisations, until reaching 11 to 20 volunteers, after which the numbers decrease. Therefore, the big picture is that most of the organisations in Mexico survive thanks to volunteer work while few of them have paid staff.

## 2.5 Financial and technological resources

This sub-dimension measures the percentage of resources coming from various types of CSO financing such as public or private resources, membership fees and donations. It also attempts to assess the degree of sustainability of CSO resources and the degree to which organizations have access or availability to technologies such as telephone, Internet and computers in order to do their work. In this sub-dimension, Mexican CSOs obtained a relatively high score of 65.9%.

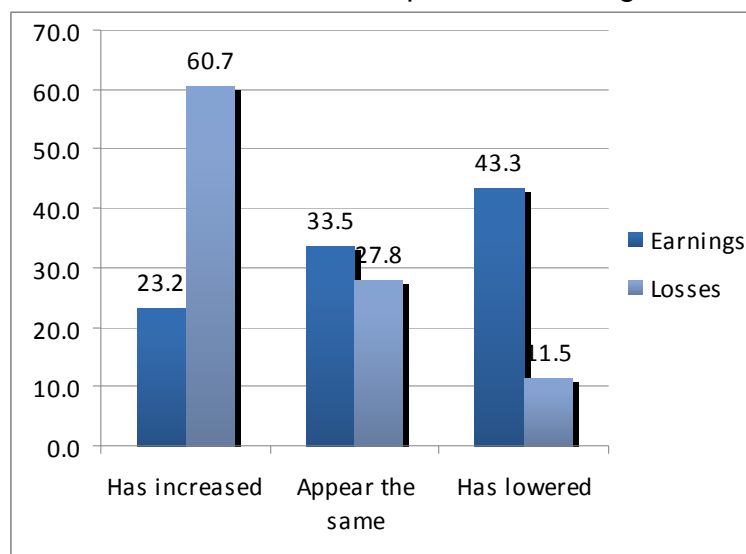
Most organisational resources come primarily from individual donations and secondarily from public funds, followed by donors and national businesses. It is evident that international cooperation no longer has the significance it had in prior years.

TABLE III.2.2 Financing sources

Source of funding	%
Individual donors	23.38
Government	22.00
National sources	11.94
National businesses	9.83
Selling of services	8.22
Foreign donors	5.58
Membership fees	4.00
Non-specified	8.00

The fact that individual donors are CSOs' main source of financing can mean greater autonomy and a significant investment in awareness and fundraising events. Further, given Mexico's regulations, access to public funds involves onerous terms and conditions and delays in obtaining funds, while short project execution timeframes and extremely rigorous methods for reporting expenses are common. These issues make it difficult for public funders to adapt to the pace and dynamics of CSOs.

FIGURE III.2.5 Income and expenditure changes



When CSOs were asked about income changes in relation to the previous year, 43.3% reported a decrease in income, 33.5% reported a similar income and only 23.2% reported an increase in income (Organisational Survey, 2009). Meanwhile, 60.7% of organisations reported spending increases in comparison to the previous year. This shows that Mexican CSOs are facing an increasingly difficult situation in terms of financial resources. Only 26% of the surveyed organisations said their financial resources can meet their needs. Meanwhile, most organisations reported having access to a telephone and computer. However, a high percentage of CSOs (34%) report not having an Internet connection.

## 2.6 International linkages

This sub-dimension reports on international linkages of CSOs and the nature of these relationships. This score in this sub-dimension is 20.3, which represents the proportion of international NGOs in Mexico out of all international NGOs (13,799). This figure was calculated using data from the Yearbook of International Organisations (2008/2009). According to this source, Mexico ranks among the countries with the most linkages in Latin America, second only to Argentina with 20.75%.<sup>19</sup>

In contrast with this, and based on the Organisational Survey, only 6.6% of surveyed organisations report working at an international level and only 15 organisations out of a total of 349 surveyed explicitly indicated belonging to an international network or federation. This shows that although Mexico houses multiple international organisations, in the sphere of CSOs there seems to be a low level of international linkages, which coincides with what has been previously reported for the national sphere in terms of the scarcity of networks or federations for CSOs. However, from a more qualitative rather than quantitative perspective, and based on organisations' statements during regional workshops and case studies, it is important to note the high impact of international CSO actions working in defence and promotion of human rights, the struggle for transparency and access to information and citizen participation in public affairs. Articulation through international initiatives in this sense undoubtedly is a relevant intervention strategy for CSOs in Mexico.

## Conclusion

A statistical analysis of the surveyed samples allows for the formulation of preliminary conclusions regarding the level of organisation of Mexican CSOs. For example, an obvious factor that determines the level of development of organisations is their access to budget. It can be said that organisations with budgets of over USD 50,000 per year tend to have a larger paid staff, greater possibilities of having a collective governance body and frequently take part in a group or network of organisations. These organisations capture almost twice as many resources through the sale of services and have greater possibilities of training personnel. It could also be said that the larger the budget and the scope of the CSO, the greater the possibility of interaction with other organisations. Being located in the Federal District is a relevant factor that also explains CSO associations. These organisations tend to have a larger paid staff, greater possibilities of membership in a network or federation of organizations and tend to exchange more information with other CSOs.

In contrast, despite having fewer resources, CSOs with budgets under USD 50,000 have surprisingly higher financial sustainability scores. Local (municipal level) organisations and those with budgets under USD 50,000 tend not to have formal collective governance entities and fewer paid staff. They also exchange less information and receive a smaller amount of government funds.

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<sup>19</sup> Cemefi, the Citizen's Initiative for Promoting a Culture of Dialogue and CIVICUS are grateful to the Union of International Associations for providing this information for the Civil Society Index project.

Regional (state level) organisations tend to be younger than the rest and have relationships with a smaller number of organisations. Likewise, their exchange of information is also limited. They tend to have a larger percentage of government funds and positively rate certain internal CSO factors (such as internal management, commitment and effects on public policy). There were very few significant differences with regard to national CSOs, except that they tend to have larger budgets as well as a higher number of paid staff members.

The broad diversity of organisations and their problems in contexts that are as diverse as Mexico's regions show us that, on average, with an average score of 45.9 in the Level of Organisation dimension, there is a significant potential for development.

### 3. Practice of Values

One of the main roles of CSOs is the promotion and practice of values in society. This CSI dimension measures the extent to which organisations develop and apply certain core values, such as democracy, non-violence, tolerance, transparency and trust, in their institutional practices. The Practice of Values dimension is captured through indicators concerning both CSO's institutional policies and their practices towards other actors in society as a whole:

1. Democratic decision-making governance - who takes decisions at CSOs.
2. Labour regulations - the existence of policies regarding equal opportunity and equal pay for equal work, training and labour standards
3. Code of conduct and transparency - the existence and use of internal codes of conduct and the percentage of financial information made publicly available.
4. Environmental standards - the percentage of CSOs that have an environmental policy.
5. Perception of values in civil society as a whole - how CSOs perceive civil society in general through the practice of the values they promote, such as non-violence, tolerance, democracy, transparency and trust.

TABLE III.3.1 Practice of Values Dimension scores

Democratic decision-making governance (Who makes decisions)	44.5
Labour regulations (Institutional policies)	45.7
Code of conduct and transparency (Existence of codes of conduct and financial transparency)	64.7
Environmental standards (environmental policies and practices within CSOs)	50.4
Perception of values in civil society as a whole (Active promotion of values)	48.5
Practice of Values- Overall score	50.7

This dimension scored an average value of 50.7%. The code of conduct and transparency in CSOs sub-dimension scored the highest, 64.7%, and is considered a

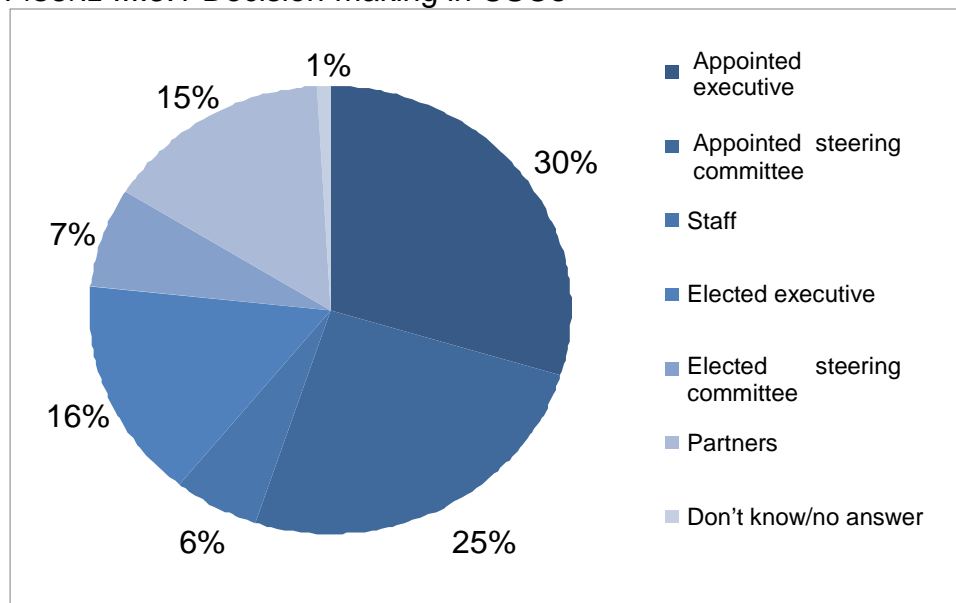
common practice in organisations. The lowest score, 44.5%, was for democratic decision-making governance.

One of the greatest challenges within this dimension is the cultural diversity existing in Mexico, with a connected issue of the different interpretations given to the values promoted by CSOs. For instance, in rural areas, which account for the highest levels of the indigenous population, collective and community values are deeply rooted, in contrast with the individualism that prevails in urban areas.

### 3.1 Democratic decision-making governance

More than half of the organisations surveyed stated that CSOs entrust decision-making to appointed executives or appointed steering committees; 23% declared that decision-making lies in the hands of elected executives or steering committees, 15% that decisions are made by partners, while only 6% said that staff are responsible for decision-making (OS, 2009).

FIGURE III.3.1 Decision-making in CSOs



On the other hand, in the External Perceptions Survey, 38.6% of external stakeholders believe that staff have high or significantly high influence on decision-making, 40.9% consider staff have average influence and only 20.5% think that staff members have very low influence.

This shows that the external perception is more positive than CSOs' own assessment.

### 3.2 Labour regulations

This sub-dimension seeks to measure the existence of institutional policies regarding equal opportunity, equal pay for women and men, and labour standards and training on labour rights for CSO staff.

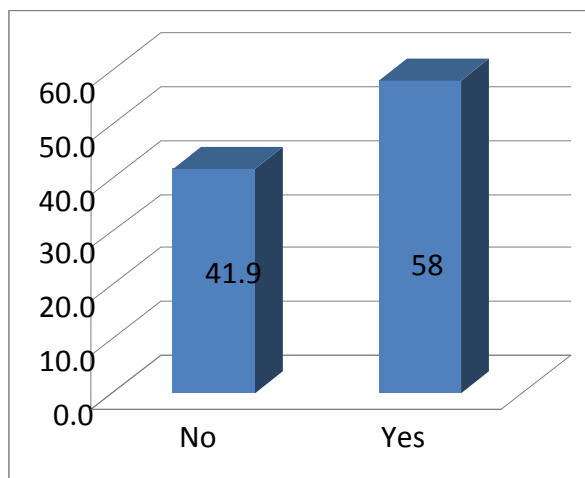
In this regard, it should be highlighted that approximately half of the CSOs surveyed (53.6%) declare having written policies in place regarding equal opportunity and equal pay. This does not necessarily mean that equal opportunity practices do not exist in other organisations, but that, it can be assumed, many of them do not consider it important to have these policies in written form.

It is also important to note that, in spite of the provisions of the Federal Labour Law, hardly any Mexican CSOs are able to comply fully with the obligations and rights stated, due to the economic instability they encounter. Staff are usually hired for each particular project and under limited labour conditions. This can be seen reflected in the fact that 92% of CSOs state that none of their paid staff are members of labour unions.

### 3.3 Code of conduct and transparency

The code of conduct and transparency sub-dimension seeks to measure the extent to which organisations have a publicly available code of conduct and also make their financial information available. Of the surveyed organisations, 71.2% declare they have a publicly available code of conduct; however, of those without one, only 29.7% expect to develop one.

FIGURE III.3.2 Publicly available financial reports



The other relevant data is the number of CSOs that have publicly available financial reports. As shown in the graph, 58.0% of the surveyed organisations say that their reports are available. This score suggests that if transparency is supposed to be one of the values promoted by CSOs, there is still much progress to be made. Most of the CSOs that make their financial statements available do so on their own websites or on those of the governmental institutions that support their activities (OS, 2009).

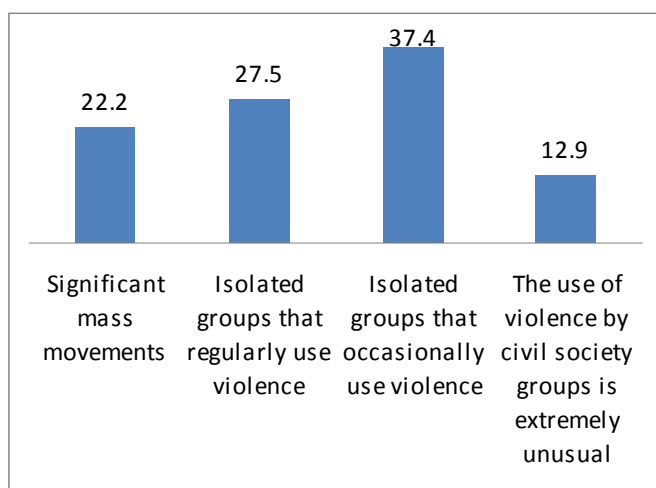
### 3.4 Environmental standards

This sub-dimension involves the extent to which CSOs adopt policies that support environmental standards. In this regard, 50.4% of the surveyed CSOs declared that they have such a policy, and half of these organisations affirm that their policies are publicly available. In addition, almost 60% of the 49% of organisations that say they have not made the policies publicly available are thinking of publishing them in the future.

### 3.5 Perception of values in civil society as a whole

This sub-dimension analyses how CSOs perceive civil society as a whole practices values such as non-violence, democracy, trust and tolerance.

FIGURE III.3.3 Description of violent forces within civil society



One of the indicators that measure this sub-dimension is CSO's perception of the use of violence, that is to say, the existence of civil society groups that use violence to promote their interests.

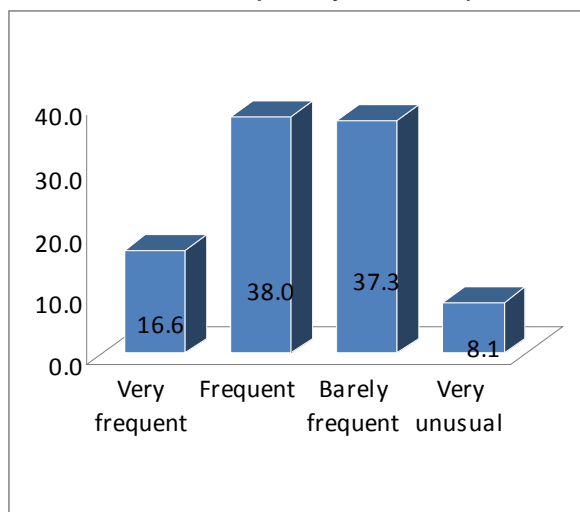
Most of the surveyed CSOs consider there are violent forces within civil society, but that these constitute isolated groups that use violence occasionally. However it should be noted that a substantial portion, 22.2% of CSOs, consider that these groups are significant mass movements within civil society, and only 12.9% of those surveyed state that the use of violence by civil society groups is extremely unusual. There is no doubt about the fact that these data reflect the growing perception of insecurity experienced in Mexico which has become stronger in recent years. Although there are several causes for this phenomenon, insecurity is frequently associated with the existence of organised crime groups, mainly linked to drug trafficking. We would argue that these groups should not be deemed part of civil society, since they are clearly organisations immersed in illegal acts, but their presence does impact the perception of violence within Mexican society.



Another relevant indicator is the extent of perceived corruption amongst Mexican civil society. Most of the surveyed CSOs agreed that corruption cases are frequent in Mexico. As shown in Figure III.3.4 below, 37.8% of the CSOs surveyed state that corruption cases in civil society are frequent, 37.5% that these are occasional and only 8.1% believe them to be rare.

The perception of the surveyed CSOs agrees with the findings reported by Transparency International: 75% of the Mexican population perceive that corruption has increased in the last three years.<sup>20</sup> The institutions considered the most corrupt in Mexico are in first place, political parties and secondly, the police. The Transparency International report further indicates that 31% of the people have bribed at least one of nine different service suppliers in the course of a year. Clearly, corruption in Mexico is perceived as an important problem that affects and implicates civil society.

FIGURE III.3.4 Frequency of corruption cases in civil society



Another revealing piece of information within the Practice of Values dimension is the existence of expressly racist or discriminatory civil society forces. In this respect, half of the surveyed CSOs said that there are none of these forces in CSOs; 43.1% declared that there are some such groups, while only 6.3% consider there are many civil society groups or forces that are expressly racist or discriminatory.

The fact that half of CSOs have declared that none of these groups are present reveals a widespread perception of and identification with the role CSOs are expected to play in the promotion of values and ethical practices in society. However, it is important to note that in Mexico there are examples of organisations that discriminate against homosexuals, or that engage in aggressive practices against women who have had an abortion. Although these actors may be marginal, their impact may be very important.

<sup>20</sup> Transparency International, Global Corruption Barometer 2010. Consulted online, October 2010.

Within this context, CSOs' views regarding the role of civil society in the promotion of peaceful and non-violent behaviours is in general positive, with 32.3% of CSOs surveyed deeming that this role is high or very significant, and 41% considering it as at least moderate. However, 22.4% of the surveyed CSOs think civil society's engagement in the promotion of non-violence is low or limited, although only 4.4% of them believe it to be non-existent or insignificant.

Many Mexican CSOs are engaged in various types of action in the promotion of democratic governance. In the Organisational Survey 15% stated that they promote democratic governance from an educational approach, and 25% by supporting vulnerable groups and through humanitarian help, while 19% act from a social development perspective.

There are also a number of organisations that specifically promote electoral democracy, participatory democracy and stronger civil rights. These organisations take part in networks that promote democracy by pursuing legislative reforms and the extension of participatory spaces for citizens at national and international levels. These organisations include, among others, *Fundación para la Democracia y Debate A.C. (Democracy and Debate Foundation)*, *Iniciativa Ciudadana para la Promoción de la Cultura del Diálogo, A.C. (Citizens' Initiative for the Promotion of a Culture of Dialogue)*, *El Consejo Conciudadano para la Reforma Electora (Citizen Advice Group for Electoral Reform)*, *Iniciativa Ciudadana para la Seguridad y Democracia, A.C (Citizen's Initiative for Security and Democracy)*.

## Conclusion

The Practice of Values dimension records an average value of 50.7%, with code of conduct and transparency being the sub-dimension scoring the highest. This may reflect advances made by Mexico in regulations governing transparency and publicly available information.

As far as CSOs' democratic governance is concerned there is an interesting contrast between the perception of external actors and the perception of organisations themselves, with the former considering that there is great participation of executives and paid staff in decision-making processes, despite CSOs themselves declaring that appointed executives or steering committees are, in general, the ones that make decisions.

It must further be noted, concerning labour regulations, that CSOs in Mexico face a complex situation since in general they defend the rights granted by the Federal Labour Law but on the other hand they are hardly able grant their employees convenient labour conditions. Only a few organisations can guarantee social security, pensions or permanent employment, which gives rise to a wide gap between discourse and practice. In spite of the fact that the Law to Promote the Activities of CSOs has been in force in Mexico since 2004, this regulation, up to the present, has focused on the registration of organisations and the granting of a Single Identification Code so that organisations are able to access public resources and fund part of their activities. There is, no doubt,

much to be done to develop other prerogatives that focus more on fostering the role of CSOs as public interest stakeholders.

Finally, one of the core issues in this dimension is the extent of the deterioration perceived as a result of growing corruption, impunity and insecurity in Mexico. This critical situation is daily confronting the essential values promoted by CSOs. Furthermore, the 'normalisation' of violent situations never before seen in Mexico, and further boosted by the media, is a phenomenon that undermines the sector's work.

Mexican society is undergoing a difficult time of deep disillusionment and frustration. As reported by the Institute of Studies for Democratic Transition (*Instituto de Estudios para la Transición Democrática*), while 44% of Latin Americans are happy with democracy, only 28% are in Mexico. While 33% of Latin Americans state that governments work for the common good, Mexico scores below the average at 21%. In the region, 51% of respondents agree with the statement that "democracy helps to solve problems" but in Mexico the percentage barely reaches 41%. It is therefore clear, as far the Practice of Values is concerned, that Mexican CSOs face a core challenge of recovering citizens' fundamental values and trust.

#### 4. Perceived Impact

The fourth dimension that makes up the Civil Society Diamond is Perceived Impact, defined as "the extent to which civil society is able to impact on the social and policy arena, according to internal and external perceptions"<sup>21</sup> It is assessed along the following sub-dimensions:

1. *Responsiveness*, which shows perceptions regarding civil society capacity to address the most important social concerns in Mexico.
2. *Social impact*, which measures civil society's impact on society in general.
3. *Policy impact*, which assesses civil society's policy impact in general and on selected key policy issues.
4. *Civil society impact on attitudes*, which measures the impact of civil society participation on advancing positive values.

Responsiveness, social impact and policy impact are assessed from the point of view of both civil society internal perceptions and external perceptions.

**Internal perception** (civil society members) was measured through the Organisational Survey, while the **external perception** was assessed through a survey of strategic actors (belonging to the government, academia, media, international organisations and the private sector).

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<sup>21</sup>CIVICUS, A Toolkit for the CIVICUS Civil Society Index (2008 Edition), Introduction and conceptual framework, p.7

TABLE III.4.1 Perceived Impact Dimension scores

Responsiveness (internal perception)	71.7%
Responsiveness (external perception)	34.1%
Social impact (internal perception)	60.8%
Social impact (external perception)	58.9%
Impact on public policy (internal perception)	28.0%
Impact on public policy (external perception)	46.8%
Civil society impact on attitudes	17.5%
<b>Perception of Impact overall score</b>	<b>45.5%</b>

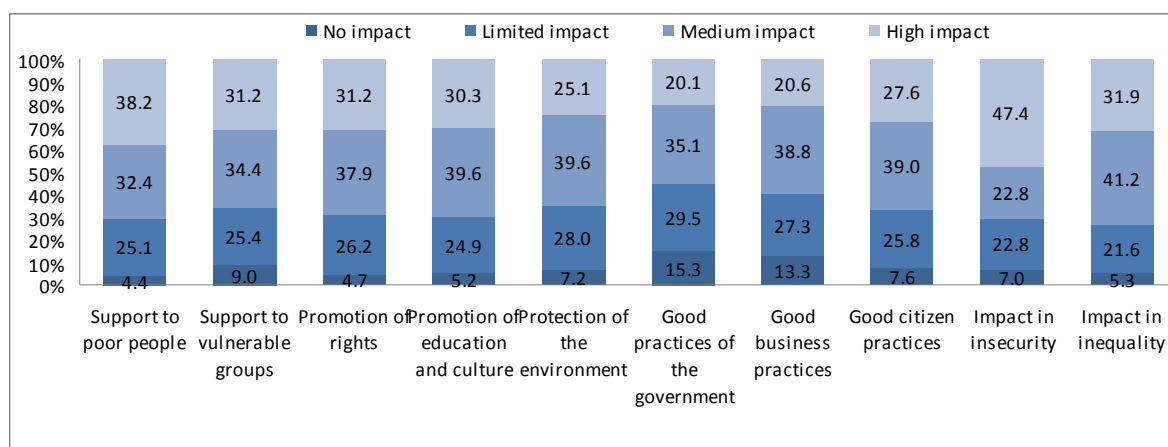
In the case of Mexico, perceived impact scored an average value of 45.4%, that is to say, respondents believe that civil society has an average impact on social problems, public policies and citizens' attitudes.

Internal and external perceptions show material differences in responsiveness and public policy impact, but greater agreement on social impact. As far as impact on attitudes is concerned, there is little added value seen from civil society participation.

#### 4.1 Responsiveness (internal perception)

Responsiveness shows civil society's self-perception of its efficiency in addressing priority social concerns in Mexico.

FIGURE III.4.1 Civil society's impact on priority concerns (internal perception)

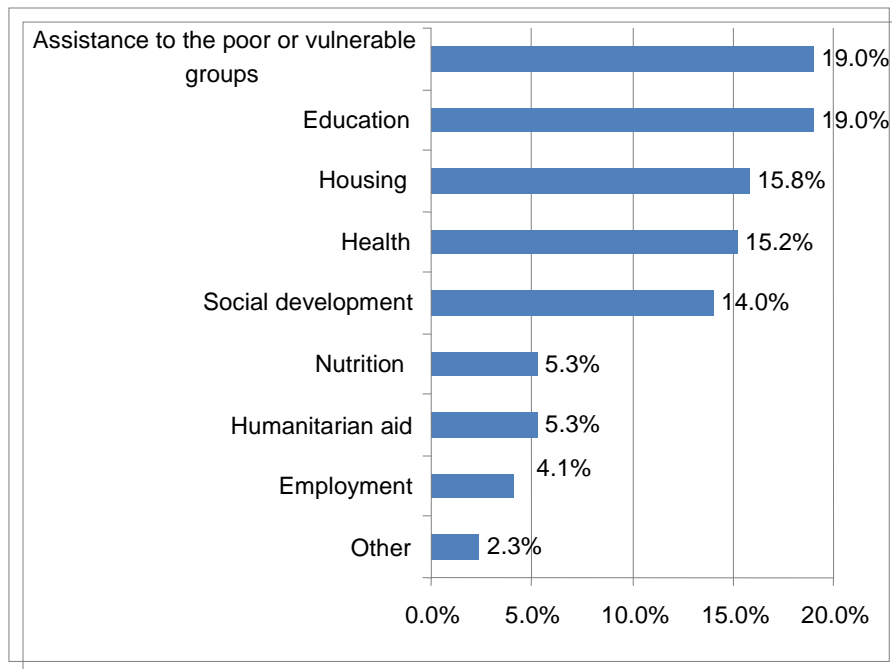


The internal perception is that civil society's impact on social concerns in Mexico runs from medium to high, as shown in the graph above. Of the CSOs surveyed, 47.4% consider insecurity to be the issue with the highest civil society impact and the most relevant concern at present; 38.2% of CSOs considered that civil society has a high impact on providing support to the poor, a valued aspect in the Mexican context, given the high indices of poverty.

## 4.2 Social impact (internal perception)

This sub-dimension measures civil society members' perceptions of CSOs' impact on the social context, and received an above average score of 60.8%.

FIGURE III.4.2 Civil society's impact on social concerns (internal perception)



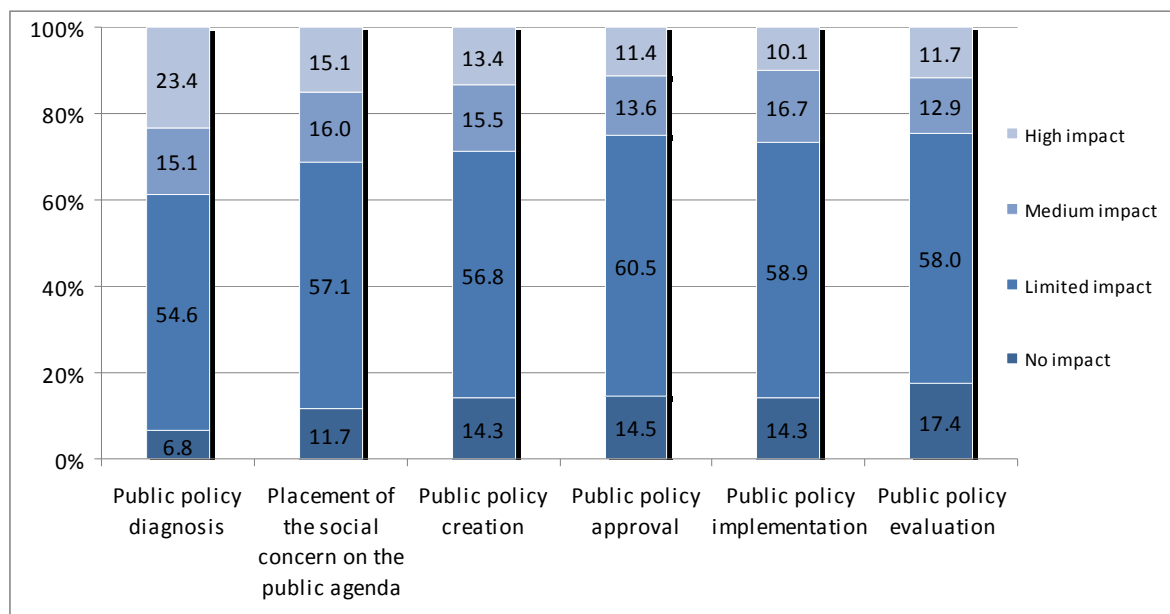
The issues on which civil society assess itself to have the highest impact are support to poor or vulnerable people and education. Nineteen percent of the organisations surveyed agreed that civil society has a high impact on each of these issues. With respect to the other concerns (education, household, health, social development, food and employment), the internal perception of social impact was higher than the external perception (See Figure III.4.6). This appears to show that CSOs deliver a greater spectrum of work than may be perceived by external actors.

## 4.3 Policy impact (internal perception)

Policy impact refers to actions taken by civil society to propose public policy and to see it adopted. According to the internal perception, civil society policy impact is low: CSOs surveyed gave a score of only 28.0% to this sub-dimension.

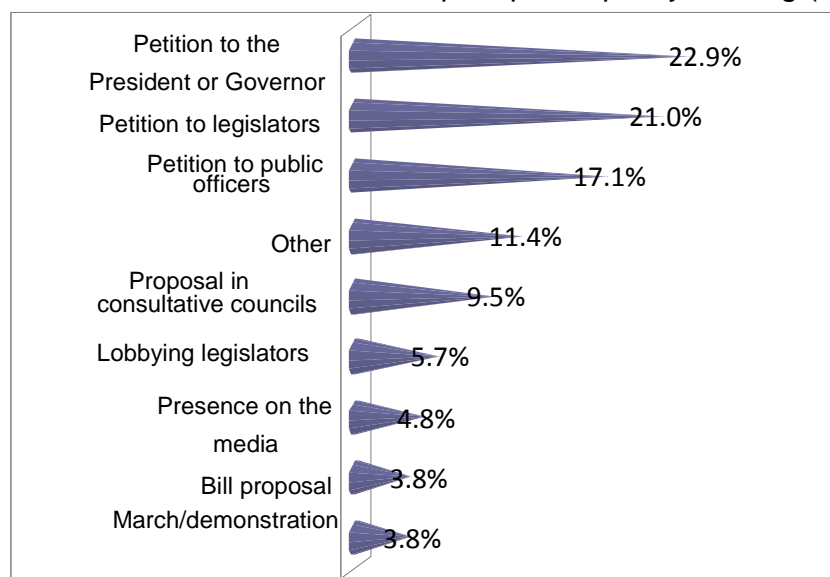
The standard CSI methodology only asks questions about impact assessment in the public policy field. In order to obtain more information, the implementation team decided to include questions referring to problem diagnosis, placement of an issue on the public agenda, creation of public policies, and approval, implementation and evaluation of public policies. The results are presented below. They show that CSOs perceive that civil society has a limited all-round impact on policies, its greatest impact being on problem diagnosis (OS, 2009).

FIGURE III.4.3 Policy impact (internal perception)



It should be noted that 42.2% of the organisations surveyed have tried to influence the implementation of a public policy. From this percentage, 22.9% indicated that the mechanism used was a direct petition to the President or a governor (executive leader at state level). Twenty-one percent of the organisations indicated that they had made an appeal to legislators, while 17.1% of the CSOs had directed their advocacy efforts towards public officers (OS, 2009).

FIGURE III.4.4 Mechanism to impact public policy-making (internal perception)



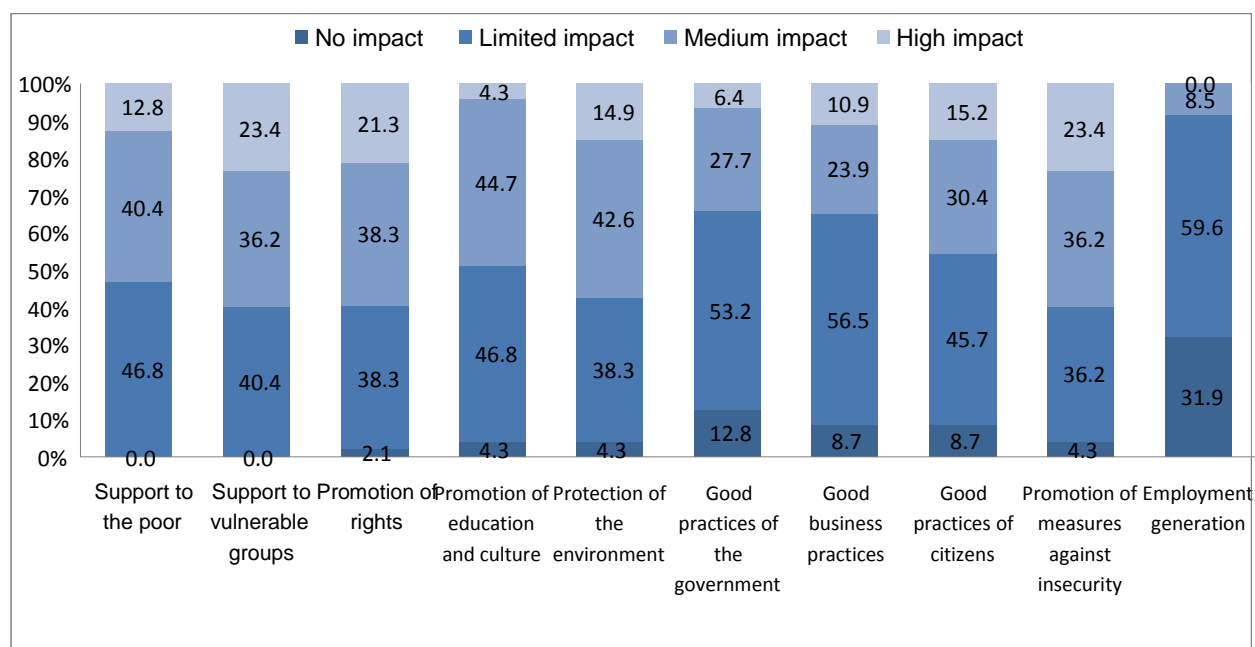
The above figure shows that personal relations among members of civil society and members of the government are the mechanism used to impact public policy, while mechanisms such as the filing of a proposal or bill are less used.

Finally, it should be noted regarding the CSOs that have tried to impact public policies that 29% out of the 42.2% declared that their proposal was accepted, while 34% stated their initiative was still under discussion. In only 10% of the cases, the proposal was rejected, but 27% of the CSOs mentioned that their proposal was not even listened to by government. This reveals that, although there are no appropriate institutionalised mechanisms to impact on public policies, the perception is that most civil society proposals are at least considered by government.

#### 4.4 Responsiveness (external perception)

This indicator shows how external stakeholders assess civil society's work to respond to priority concerns.

FIGURE III.4.5 Civil society impact on priority concerns (external perception)

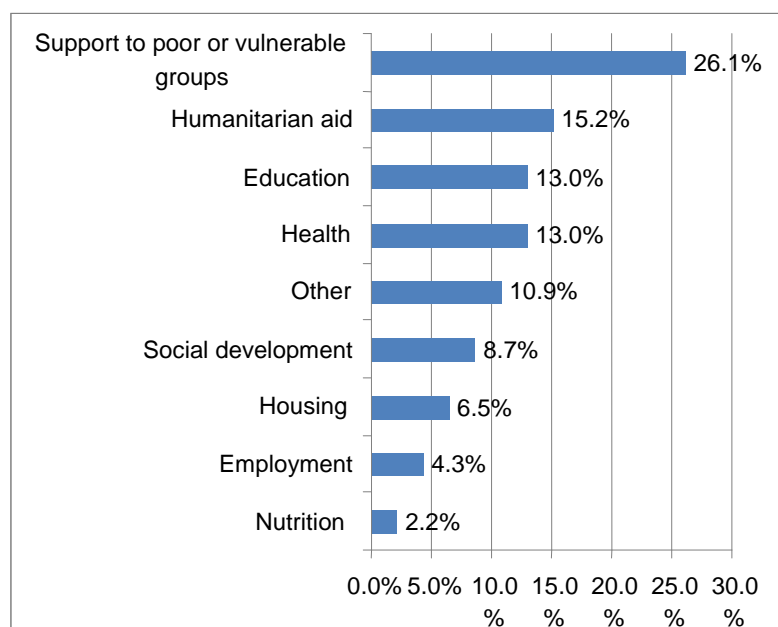


The external perception survey identifies the promotion of measures against insecurity and the support of vulnerable groups as the two highest priority concerns. In both cases, 23.4% of the strategic actors surveyed considered that civil society has a high impact. Overall, according to external perceptions, civil society's responsiveness to priority concerns is assessed as having a medium to limited level (EPS, 2009).

#### 4.5 Social impact (external perception)

This sub-dimension illustrates the external actors' perception of how civil society organisations impact the social context. The score here of 58.9% does not differ much from the value given by civil society's self-assessment (60.8%).

FIGURE III.4.6 Civil society's impact on social concerns (external perception)



Strategic actors agreed with the internal perception that the social priority concern for civil society is the support to poor or vulnerable communities (26.1%). This indicates the sector is still focusing its work on giving support to third parties.

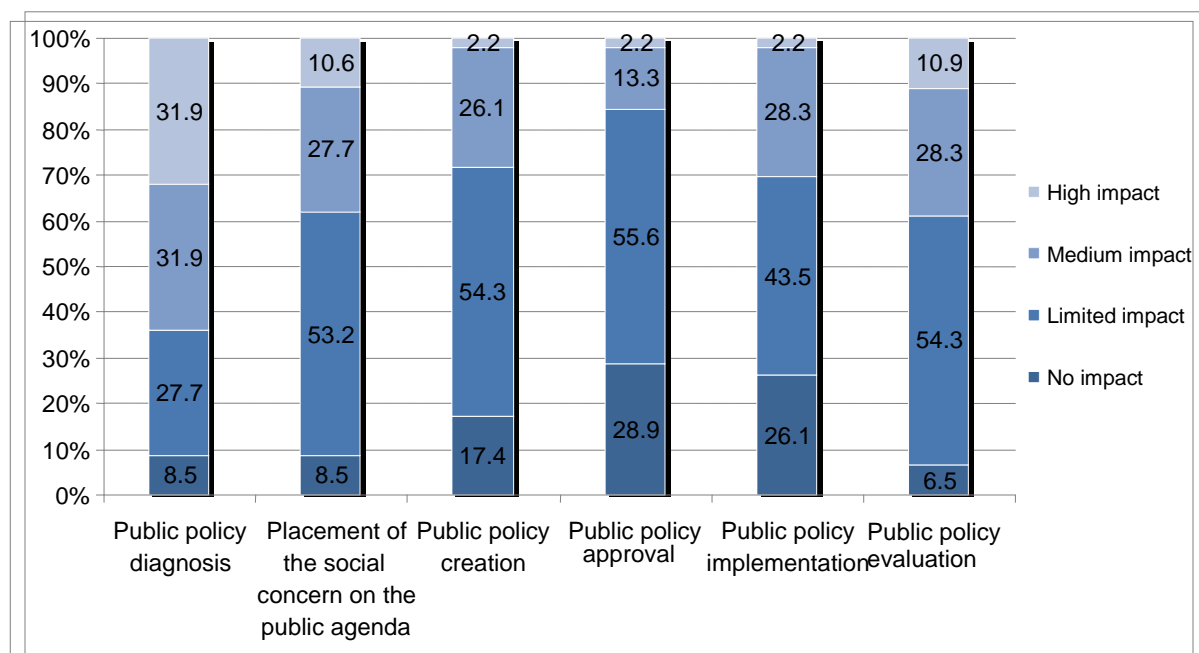
This sub-dimension also took into account the strategic actors' perception of civil society's impact on Mexico's social context in general. Of the external stakeholders surveyed, 58% considered the impact to be limited in general, while 36% acknowledged a middle-level impact. Only 4% of the surveyed believe civil society has a high impact. Based on this result, it can be assumed that the external perception is that civil society activities have no substantial impact on Mexico's social context. A possible explanation for this is the lack of visibility of CSOs' actions and of mechanisms to promote the sector's work.

#### 4.6 Policy impact (external perception)

External actors considered that the general impact of civil society on public policy accounts for 46.8%. This shows a perception of middle-level impact.

FIGURE III.4.7 Policy impact (external perception)





As in the Organisational Survey, strategic actors perceived that civil society has a higher impact on problem diagnosis (31.9%). However, unlike the internal perception, the assessment of impact percentage is very low in three phases of the public policy cycle (policy drafting, approval and implementation) (EPS, 2009). Based on that information, it can be assumed that civil society participates only in the first phase of the public policy cycle, an indicator of missing policy-impact mechanisms.

#### 4.7 Civil society impact on attitudes

The seventh sub-dimension consists of civil society's impact on attitudes, which aims at comparing behaviour differences between civil society members and non-members in specific situations. The scores of this sub-dimension were considerably low (17.5%) thus suggesting that there is not much difference between the attitudes of civil society members and the population in general.

One of the indicators to measure civil society's impact on attitudes is the level of interpersonal trust. From the population surveyed, 72.1% of civil society members and 78.9% of total non-members stated that most people cannot be trusted. This shows that, irrespective of civic engagement, citizens have little interpersonal trust.

TABLE III.4.2 Level of confidence in institutions

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Membership</b>	<b>A lot</b>	<b>Some</b>	<b>Little</b>	<b>None</b>
Chamber of deputies/ senators	Member	3.9%	21.3%	25.4%	49.5%
	Non-member	3.4%	24.6%	28.9%	43.0%
The army	Member	20.7%	45.0%	20.4%	13.8%
	Non-member	23.2%	42.1%	25.4%	9.3%
Public officers	Member	4.1%	19.0%	31.0%	45.9%
	Non-member	2.5%	23.9%	29.6%	44.0%
Large companies	Member	4.5%	46.5%	32.0%	17.1%
	Non-member	5.1%	34.5%	32.1%	28.3%
Church or churches	Member	23.0%	50.3%	15.2%	11.6%
	Non-member	23.4%	40.7%	24.6%	11.3%
United Nations	Member	17.3%	47.7%	21.5%	13.5%
	Non-member	16.8%	41.1%	28.4%	13.7%
Environmental organisations	Member	16.0%	51.0%	25.0%	8.0%
	Non-member	20.1%	43.6%	25.7%	10.6%
Women's organisations	Member	19.0%	44.4%	23.5%	13.0%
	Non-member	20.0%	42.1%	26.9%	11.0%
Humanitarian organisations	Member	21.3%	39.5%	24.9%	14.4%
	Non-member	19.6%	39.0%	26.0%	15.4%
Political parties	Member	3.9%	18.7%	28.3%	49.1%
	Non-member	3.8%	20.9%	29.5%	45.9%
Federal executive power	Member	6.2%	21.7%	26.7%	45.4%
	Non-member	7.1%	26.6%	28.3%	38.0%
The Courts/ Attorney General	Member	5.0%	18.1%	29.2%	47.8%
	Non-member	4.9%	24.5%	31.6%	38.9%
Police	Member	4.6%	18.6%	35.9%	41.0%
	Non-member	6.4%	23.8%	39.5%	30.3%
Press and television	Member	10.8%	41.2%	33.0%	14.9%
	Non-member	11.5%	41.0%	34.5%	13.0%
Labour unions	Member	4.2%	28.0%	40.2%	27.6%
	Non-member	8.3%	31.0%	38.9%	21.8%

Regarding the level of trust of civil society members and non-members in institutions, both groups of respondents agreed that the church or churches deserve the highest level of trust. Civil society members have less trust in the legislative chambers (deputies and senators) and non-members in political parties. In general, the results show that citizens have some degree of trust in social groups but no trust at all in public sector groups. This indicates there is a significant level of distrust in governmental institutions.

Tolerance is another attitude assessed for civil society members and non-members. Both sectors agreed that they would be more tolerant of people from a different religion, unmarried couples living together and indigenous people, while the least tolerated groups include alcoholics and drug addicts. It is worth mentioning that 29.5% of civil society members and 25.9% of non-members expressed intolerance of homosexuals. This proves that there is still intolerance in Mexico towards sexual diversity, and that CSO membership does not necessarily promote an attitude of tolerance and diversity.

Finally, civil society's impact on attitudes was also measured through the public spiritedness of the surveyed population, which refers to social attitudes about complying with collective coexistence rules. For 91.8% of civil society members, the acceptance of intra-family violence is not justifiable, while divorce is the least condemned (34.2%). Civil society non-members are of the same opinion, since 86.2% of the surveyed agreed on rejecting intra-family violence.

## Conclusion

The main feature of Mexican civil society is the attention it provides to third parties and, taking into account that Mexico is a country where at least a third of its inhabitants are poor, CSOs have been engaged in supporting this population. On the other hand, insecurity is a priority concern due to Mexico's current situation. Over the last years, drug trafficking and violence have increased and consequently the actions of CSOs engaged in defending human rights and promoting security have become more evident.

Some degree of optimism was detected amongst both civil society and strategic actors regarding civil society's impact on public issues. Nonetheless, results are contradictory, showing a high percentage of social impact alongside poor mechanisms of influence over and little trust in government institutions. This probably derives from a lack of a clear concept about the meaning of impacting public policies. Regardless, both CSOs and strategic actors agreed that civil society activities in the public policy process focus on diagnosing the problem and placing it on the agenda. Furthermore, the influence mechanism used by CSOs is direct contact with authorities. These two factors may indicate the absence of formal communication channels between civil society and the government for conducting joint work on policy development.

Finally, the implementation team considered it relevant to point out that it was hard to measure civil society's impact on attitudes due to the composition of the methodological tools, particularly in the case of public or civic spiritedness. This occurs because surveys do not differentiate between attitudes that should never be justified and those that should always be justified, such as the case of bribery that should not be permitted from a civic point of view, and homosexuality, a condition which should be accepted since it implies an important degree of tolerance.

## 5. External Environment

The four dimensions described in the sections above are analysed within the context of a fifth dimension that the CSI calls the external environment. This does not form part of the diamond itself, but represents the circle surrounding the diamond, and describes the socio-economic, political and cultural context within which civil society operates.

One of the obstacles encountered during the research phase in Mexico was the difficulty of covering all the geographical regions of the country in order to include civil society's large diversity and plurality, considering the wide gaps that separate social groups, geographical regions and cultural realities. The magnitude of poverty and social inequality among the different regions and indeed within regions, contrasts with the wealth of other areas and municipalities.

Therefore, it is improper to make generalisations about Mexican reality and although an effort was made to provide a comprehensive context, it is important to acknowledge that without doubt, the study has left out relevant aspects.

The **socio-economic** context describes the level of social development (basic education, health care resources, infant mortality) combined with macro-economic indicators. The **socio-political context** analyses the basic characteristics of the political system and its impact on civil society, including, among others, political and civil rights and freedoms, legal framework, the relationship between the state and civil society and state efficiency. The **socio-economic** context analyses the extent to which rules and socio-cultural values and attitudes such as tolerance, interpersonal trust and public spiritedness determine civil society's behaviour.

TABLE III.5.1 External Environment Dimensions scores

Sub-dimension	%
Socio-economic	66.7%
Socio-political	67.4%
Socio-cultural	62.8%
Average	65.6%

The values obtained in each sub-dimension show that, on average, the external environment is considered fairly positive for the development of civil society from a CSI perspective, since it implies that Mexican civil society still has space to develop. The results obtained suggest that CSOs may be failing to make the most of all the available spaces and resources.

### 5.1 Socio-economic context

The figures shown in the table below are drawn from data of the 2009 Social Watch's Basic Capacities Index (BCI), 2009 Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index (CPI) and World Bank development and inequality indicators.

TABLE III.5.2 Socio-economic context

Indicators	%
Index of Basic Capabilities	94.4%
Corruption	36.0%
Inequality	53.9%
Economic context	82.3%
Average	66.7%

The results of the research show that, on average, the socio-economic context is considered relatively favourable, with a score of 66.7%, a figure largely derived from Social Watch's Basic Capacities Index (health, education, and infant mortality: 94.4%) and the economic context, scoring 82.3%. However, two aspects arouse concern: corruption and inequality.

Based on data furnished by Transparency International (2009) Mexico has not made any progress regarding the struggle against corruption, in spite of it being one of the core items on the agenda of the 2006-2012 National Development Plan. Mexico has the same score as twelve years ago, though many countries have overtaken it: in 1998 Mexico ranked 56 in the world; while in 2009 it was ranked 89 with a 3.3 score (on a scale of 0 - 10, with 10 indicating no corruption). In Latin America, Mexico is ranked 20, above Argentina and the Dominican Republic but below Guatemala and Panama.

Inequality constitutes another great concern (scoring 53.9%) due to the huge differences existing among social groups and geographical regions. The Gini coefficient for 2008 is 0.530 (where 0 indicates perfect equality and 1 absolute inequality), slightly higher than the 2006 figure of 0.516 (IMF, 2010). The ratio between the total income of 10% of the population with the lowest income and 10% of the population with the highest income is 27.7 for 2008, a slightly higher figure than in 2006 (26.1) although substantially lower than in 2000 (36.0) (Cemefi, 2011 – mimeo).

As far as income is concerned, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) considers that Mexico belongs to the largest economies in the world and ranks 53 out of a total of 182 countries, in the 2009 Human Development Index (HDI) (Rodríguez, 2009:209). The National Institute of Geography and Statistics (*Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, INEGI*) reported that during the first quarter of 2010, 31 million people (71.3% of the economically active population) had a daily income of approximately US\$ 11.4 (three times the minimum wage) or less; 2.5 million people were unemployed and 12.5 million people depended on informal trading, the highest figure in the last six years (INEGI, 2010A and Martínez, 2010). In 2009, Mexico's Gross National Income (GNI) shrank by 6.5% (INEGI, 2010B). The GNI per capita decreased from US\$ 10,216 in 2008 to US\$ 8,134 in 2009 (Cemefi, *op. cit.*). This is no doubt a consequence of the international economic crisis which impacted the Mexican economy.

## 5.2 Socio-political context

The socio-political context sub-dimension analyses the legal framework in force and other components such as civil and political rights. In accordance with the CSI methodology, three out of five indicators (rights of association and organisation, rule of law and civil liberties and political rights and freedoms) are based on the Indexes created by Freedom House, as captured in the 'Countries at the Crossroads 2010' report (González, 2010); the legal framework variable is derived from the Organisational Survey and government efficiency results from data of the World Bank governance survey.

TABLE III.5.3 Socio-political context

Indicators	%
Political rights and freedoms	80.0%
Rule of law and personal freedoms	66.7%
Associational and organisational rights	75.0%
Experience of legal framework	62.7%
State effectiveness	52.6%
Average	67.4%

Three out of four citizens surveyed report they enjoy political rights and freedoms and rights of association and organisation. However, the government's efficiency as well as legal framework rank less positively: 52.6% and 62.7%, respectively.

One of the many factors that contribute to strengthening civil society is a sound legal framework to enable the sector's full development. The quality of the legal framework constitutes a basic condition that favours the development of strong institutions, respect and law enforcement as prescribed by law, and prevents impunity, so that citizens may fully assert their rights and feel protected. Civil society's long struggle for a more democratic Mexico has attained the enactment of laws that enable more citizen participation in issues of public interest.<sup>22</sup>

It should be noted that the surveyed CSOs' opinion regarding the regulatory framework is not very favourable. When asked how they would grade the legal framework, tax policies and social policies, 44% stated the legal framework is somewhat restrictive, 38% considered that tax and social policies are to some extent limiting, and 12% of the CSOs declared that they had faced illegitimate restriction or some kind of attack by the local or federal government in the last ten years.

<sup>22</sup> For more details see section II.2 of this report.

### 5.3 Socio-cultural context

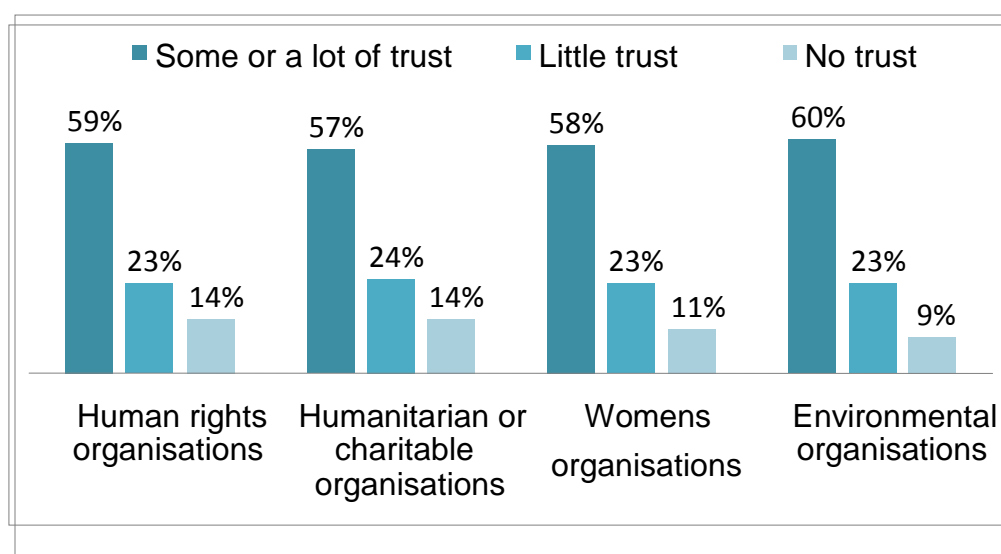
TABLE III.5.4 Socio-cultural context

Indicators	%
Trust	22.9%
Tolerance	87.0%
Public spiritedness	78.6%
Average	62.8%

The source of information for measuring the socio-cultural context is the Population Survey. It is a striking fact that only 22.9% of people surveyed expressed the view that they could trust most people. More likely, the degree of distrust revealed is strongly influenced by the increasingly insecure environment. This result is consistent with other surveys such as the National Survey on Political Culture and Citizenship Practices (*Encuesta Nacional sobre Cultura Política y Prácticas Ciudadanas*) - ENCUP, 2008.

To the extent that crime-related organisations gain public spaces and the government does not try to stop crimes or punish the guilty, a negative perception about governance and distrust of people prevails. This offers an indicator of the erosion of the social fabric. In addition, 70% of people surveyed stated that they have no trust in political parties or the Mexican National Congress. Large companies, labour unions and television also do not enjoy citizens' trust, (5%, 6% and 11% respectively). The Church is the institution trusted the most by citizens (67%) and CSOs rank a potentially useful third in terms of the population's trust with an average of 58.5%.

FIGURE III.5.1 Level of trust in CSOs



The data could be said to reflect views of a population that is not very well acquainted with CSOs' work; this lack of visibility probably varies by regions. On the other hand,

although many CSOs see the importance of developing public positions and influencing public policies, the truth is that, on some occasions, these communication attempts are dispersed and have little impact.

In spite of the generalised distrust currently prevailing in Mexico and the lack of legitimacy of political institutions, as reported by the ENCUP study conducted in 2008, one out of every two Mexican citizens considers that Mexico lives in a democracy. Nonetheless, one in three expressed that they were dissatisfied with it (ENCUP, 2008).

The right against discrimination was included in the Mexican Constitution in 2001 and since then there has been some progress in eradicating discriminatory practices which, out of ignorance and prejudice, are still deeply rooted. However, the inequality level between men and women is still very significant in almost all aspects of social, political and economic life. The Global Gender Gap Report 2008 of the World Economic Forum ranks Mexico 98 among 134 countries (Hausmann, Tyson and Zahidi, 2009:8-9). Based on the 2001 First National Survey on Political Culture and Citizenship Practices (ENCUP, 2001), Mexico appears to have made significant progress concerning homosexuality: in 2010, 23% of the surveyed mentioned that they did not want to be neighbours of homosexuals, compared to a figure of 66% in 2001. The Population Survey conducted for this research showed that 23% of the respondents do not want to be neighbours of homosexuals; 10% answered they did not want to have as neighbours persons suffering with HIV/AIDS and 10% would wish to avoid immigrants or people of a different ethnicity. It is still striking that 9% of the population declared that they did not want indigenous people as neighbours considering Mexico is a country with a high indigenous population.

## Conclusion

The CSI shows that the external environment in Mexico is considered relatively favourable and civil society has spaces and resources available to develop more. Although the national economy is depressed due to the world financial crisis, some international sources perceive a socio-economic environment relatively optimistic in general terms and consider that the socio-economic criteria facilitate a favourable development of civil society.

Material legal reforms have been conducted in Mexico in favour of a more participatory democracy, and citizens surveyed considered that, in general terms, they enjoy liberties and social, civil and political rights, freedoms and rights of association and organisation. However, especially in some states, the legal, tax and social framework is still deemed restrictive, and a considerable percentage of organisations reported having suffered some illegitimate restriction or some kind of attack by government.

Mexican citizens' distrust is high, both in terms of interpersonal relations and with respect to the government. The greatest majority has expressed distrust of the judiciary and the police, as well as of political parties, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. Currently, inequality, violence and insecurity generate major concern and erode the social fabric; in addition, corruption and impunity corrode the administration of justice. In



spite of the generalised distrust, the lack of legitimacy of political institutions has not, however, translated into rejection of democracy as a form of organisation, despite Mexican citizens' strong disappointment.

## IV. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN MEXICO

Part of the CSI approach is the identification of strengths and weaknesses of civil society, in order to help elaborate a strategy for strengthening the sector. Following are some of the strengths and weaknesses of civil society in Mexico which were frequently mentioned by the different focus groups and at the National Workshop.

### **Strengths**

- Influence on legislative reforms and on implementation of new laws to promote greater citizenship participation in public issues.
- Growing awareness of the importance of forging alliances and creating working networks to strengthen the negotiation skills of civil society members with authorities.
- Involvement with international bodies, which helps to strengthen civil society.
- Mexican CSOs focus their work on several issues; this indicates there are several social needs and causes.
- Society in general trusts the work performed by social and civil organisations.
- CSOs acknowledge the importance of diversifying sources of financing and precise and accurate information of how to do their job in the most professional way.
- In states with a high percentage of indigenous people there are different examples of citizenship participation, strongly related to indigenous cultures.

### **Weaknesses**

- Legal and tax instruments are rigid and limited, resulting in obstacles and costs for CSOs' development.
- Scarce sources of financing, both public and private, restrict CSOs' scope of action and reduce the possibility of developing an infrastructure of quality. Likewise, low funds contribute to low levels of professionalisation.
- There is systematic poor practice of transparency and accountability both within organisations and externally.
- There is low visibility of the sector's impact and significance, mostly due to the absence of mechanisms and indicators to assess such impact.
- A culture characterised by paternalism, clientelism and corporatism brings about donor dependency and limited public engagement. Consequently, many organisations lose autonomy as a result of depending almost exclusively on governmental financing.
- The poor level of citizenship participation explains the low level of assertion of rights, civic action and cooperation in the design of public policies.

- There is generalised distrust of governmental institutions and an atmosphere of uncertainty in many places.
- Most of the CSOs are not well-equipped in human resources. This endangers their permanence in the sector since their goals are not clear in the medium and long-term.
- More research, systematisation and analysis of instruments regarding civil society are needed, for sharing between CSOs and with other strategic actors.
- Different ideologies have resulted in a fragmented and dispersed civil society, which hinders the development of networks and solid strategies to impact public policies.

## V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are the recommendations that were most suggested by the participants at the regional and national workshops:

### ***General recommendations***

- Establish a tax and legal framework to facilitate the work of CSOs.
- Encourage higher citizenship participation and more donations of time, money and talents.
- Seek more resources from the government and more transparent resources.
- Demonstrate higher CSO impact in the decision-making process.
- Strive for more visibility of civil society's work.
- Develop accountability mechanisms that can be shared and made available among the general population.

### ***Recommendations by dimension***

#### ***a. Civic Engagement***

- Implement methodologies, social programmes and high quality infrastructure to support the emerging culture of citizen participation.
- Promote education and civic awareness.
- Build a responsible social capital, with the capacity to associate with governments and businesses.
- Strengthen civil society and organisations' knowledge of their rights and obligations.

#### ***b. Level of Organisation***

- Foster a process of reflection among CSOs regarding the role they play in society, the goals guiding them and the means they take to pursue their goals.
- Increase CSOs' external accountability mechanisms towards society.
- CSOs should develop actions to recover the public space, which revolves too much around the government.
- Work in CSO networks to strengthen the sector and increase the impact on other strategic actors.

- Improve CSOs' technological tools and training on how to use them.

#### ***c. Practice of Values***

- Develop mechanisms that promote democratic decision-making and governance.
- Better regulate labour conditions of CSOs' staff and comply with relevant legislation to ensure good practices are modelled.
- Make organisational policies, such as codes of conduct and environmental policies more publicly available.
- Promote tolerance and democratic values in society through programmes and citizen participation projects.
- Encourage the transparency of governmental resources provided to CSOs through the proper publication of the support granted on Transparency's portal (government website for the transparent use of resources) and other official tools.

#### ***d. Perceived Impact***

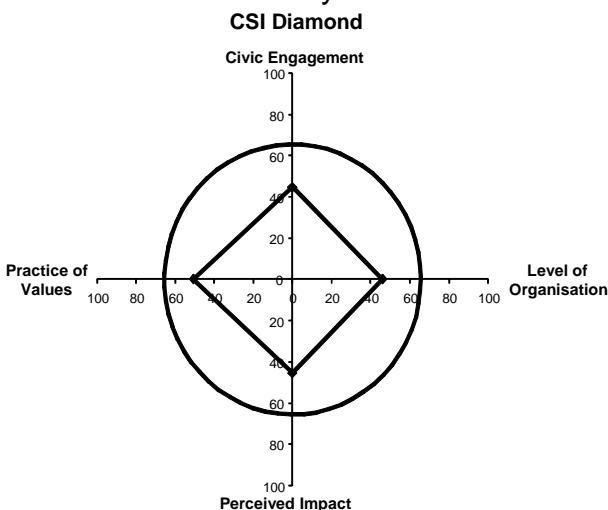
- Prioritise as strategic the parts of organisations engaged in establishing links with the government, the media and other key actors.
- Create indicators to measure impact and assess organisations' contribution to society.
- Focus on increasing organisations' impact at the local level.
- Train organisations on influencing public policy and on impact assessment.

## **VI. CONCLUSIONS**

The development of civil society in Mexico over the last years has been complex and, without question, dramatic. In line with this significant growth, there has been an increase in the studies and analyses of the role of this sector. This report is an attempt to contribute to the creation of a knowledge base for civil society through the application of an international methodology, the main feature of which is to enable the comparison of civil society in other national realities. As a result of its participatory research methods and the use of both qualitative and quantitative tools, the CSI also enabled dynamic feedback to be provided between participants and has helped lay the foundations for dialogue and action not only between organisations of civil society but also with strategic actors of the government and business sectors.

The Civil Society Diamond, a graphical representation of the values obtained in the different dimensions, shows that the political, economic, and socio-cultural context of Mexico's civil society, although limited, favours the sector's growth.

FIGURE VI.1 Civil Society Diamond for Mexico



Compared to previous decades Mexico has a better environment for enabling stable growth of civil society, notwithstanding the recent conditions of insecurity, although these will undoubtedly have a direct effect on the sector's structure in the coming years.

Taking into account the dimensions that make up the diamond, it is clear that in spite of some perceptions shared at focus groups, at the national level Mexican civil society has the possibility of strengthening. The Civic Engagement dimension indicated the need to build up social capital with knowledge and interest in social causes, but also proved that Mexican society engages in social concerns that promote its personal and spiritual development. As to the Level of Organisation, it can be seen that citizens are capable of generating actions in special cases to develop a solution to a problem, and that for such purposes it is not always necessary to create a formal organisation. Practice of Values was the dimension recording the highest scores, however, the standardisation of CSO practices and the codes governing them should be considered. Finally, regarding Perceived Impact, in spite of the existence of successful cases related to CSO's impact on policies, mechanisms of influence should be created to enable organisations to impact the public sphere more.

The picture of civil society, based on the research, provides a good idea both as to the strengths and the opportunity areas for the sector, among which institutional and professional interaction, especially in the governmental sector, stands out. Many of the results obtained in surveys, as well as the perceptions derived from the qualitative exercises, point out the need to seek a more informed and structured relationship with the government, the re-appropriation of the public sphere such as the citizenship arena, and the generation of proposals to improve the corresponding legal and tax framework.

The organisations' perceptions, reinforced by the results of the Population Survey, also reveal that a growing social need in Mexico is to increase citizen participation and volunteering. For that purpose the channels to make civil society actions visible to

society in general need to be improved, and also it is essential to work hand in hand with other sectors to generate a social environment of interpersonal trust and trust in the social causes promoted by CSOs.

The naturally plural and diverse nature of civil society makes a unified and single-direction body of work difficult; however, qualitative research showed there are transversal key concerns identified by almost all organisations such as legal and tax frameworks, the need to increase and diversify income through private donations and governmental transfers, and the desire for more transparent management of financial and human resources, both by the organisations and the private and or public institutions supporting or interacting with them.

The CSI does not pretend to cover each aspect of civil society and, in this regard, has a series of known limitations. The CSI consists of a perception study capable of capturing exclusively the instant in which the methodology is applied; some indicators could be improved and some may be too complex to implement considering the characteristics and history of our country. While bearing this in mind, CSI has enriched the general situation of civil society in Mexico, by not only enabling an international comparison, but by also offering those already involved in the sector or who wish to learn about it a starting point from which to become acquainted with civil society and its issues.

## APPENDICES

## ANNEX 1 CSI Indicator Matrix

Sub-dimension			Data result
	Indicator	Name	
<b>1) Dimension: Civic Engagement</b>			<b>44.7</b>
1.1		Extent of socially-based engagement	32.7
	1.1.1	Social membership 1	24.8
	1.1.2	Social volunteering 1	24.5
	1.1.3	Community engagement 1	48.9
1.2		Depth of socially-based engagement	35.7
	1.2.1	Social membership 2	19.5
	1.2.2	Social volunteering 2	24.1
	1.2.3	Community engagement 2	63.4
1.3		Diversity of socially-based engagement	86.9
	1.3.1	Diversity of socially-based engagement	86.9
1.4		Extent of political engagement	17.7
	1.4.1	Political membership 1	9.2
	1.4.2	Political volunteering 1	11.6
	1.4.3	Individual activism 1	32.3
1.5		Depth of political engagement	14.6
	1.5.1	Political membership 2	9.0
	1.5.2	Political volunteering 2	6.5
	1.5.3	Individual activism 2	28.4
1.6		Diversity of political engagement	80.7
	1.6.1	Diversity of political engagement	80.7
<b>2) Dimension: Level of organisation</b>			<b>45.9</b>
2.1		Internal governance	72.0
	2.1.1	Management	72.0
2.2		Infrastructure	41.1
	2.2.1	Support organisations	41.1
2.3		Sectoral communication	63.9
	2.3.1	Peer-to-peer communication 1	69.6
	2.3.2	Peer-to-peer communication 2	58.1
2.4		Human resources	12.4
	2.4.1	Sustainability of HR	12.4
2.5		Financial and technological resources	65.9
	2.5.1	Financial sustainability	45.3
	2.5.2	Technological resources	86.4
2.6		International linkages	20.3
	2.6.1	International linkages	20.3
<b>3) Dimension: Practice of Values</b>			<b>50.7</b>

3.1		Democratic decision-making governance	44.5
	3.1.1	Decision-making	44.5
3.2		Labour regulations	45.7
	3.2.1	Equal opportunities	53.6
	3.2.2	Members of labour unions	6.2
	3.2.3	Labour rights trainings	64.9
	3.2.4	Publicly available policy for labour standards	58.0
3.3		Code of conduct and transparency	64.7
	3.3.1	Publicly available code of conduct	71.2
	3.3.2	Transparency	58.1
3.4		Environmental standards	50.4
	3.4.1	Environmental standards	50.4
3.5		Perception of values in civil society as a whole	48.5
	3.5.1	Perceived non-violence	12.9
	3.5.2	Perceived internal democracy	66.2
	3.5.3	Perceived levels of corruption	8.1
	3.5.4	Perceived intolerance	71.3
	3.5.5	Perceived weight of intolerant groups	59.0
	3.5.6	Perceived promotion on non-violence and peace	73.3
<b>4) Dimension: Perception of Impact</b>			<b>45.4</b>
4.1		Responsiveness (internal perception)	71.7
	4.1.1	Impact on social concern 1	73.1
	4.1.2	Impact on social concern 2	70.2
4.2		Social Impact (internal perception)	60.8
	4.2.1	General social impact	55.1
	4.2.2	Social impact of own organisation	66.4
4.3		Policy Impact (internal perception)	28.0
	4.3.1	General policy impact	28.9
	4.3.2	Policy activity of own organisation	42.2
	4.3.3	Policy impact of own organisation	12.9
4.4		Responsiveness (external perception)	34.1
	4.4.1	Impact on social concern 1	59.6
	4.4.2	Impact on social concern 2	8.5
4.5		Social Impact (external perception)	58.9
	4.5.1	Social impact selected concerns	77.4
	4.5.2	Social impact general	40.4
4.6		Policy Impact (external perception)	46.8
	4.6.1	Policy impact specific fields 1-3	65.2
	4.6.2	Policy impact general	28.3
4.7		Impact of civil society on attitudes	17.5
	4.7.1	Difference in trust between civil society members and non-members	4.2
	4.7.2	Difference in tolerance levels between civil society members and non-members	3.3
	4.7.3	Difference in public spiritedness between civil society	16.6

		members and non-members	
	4.7.4	Trust in civil society	45.8
<b>5) Contextual Dimension: Environment</b>			<b>65.6</b>
5.1		Socio-economic context	66.7
	5.1.1	Basic Capabilities Index	94.4
	5.1.2	Corruption	36.0
	5.1.3	Inequality	53.9
	5.1.4	Economic context	82.3
5.2		Socio-political context	67.4
	5.2.1	Political rights and freedoms	80.0
	5.2.2	Rule of law and personal freedoms	66.7
	5.2.3	Associational and organisational rights	75.0
	5.2.4	Experience of legal framework	62.7
	5.2.5	State effectiveness	52.6
5.3		Socio-cultural context	62.8
	5.3.1	Trust	22.9
	5.3.2	Tolerance	87.0
	5.3.3	Public spiritedness	78.6

## ANNEX 2 Summary case studies

### 1. Civic Engagement

#### ***Measurement of civic engagement in Mexico: Scope and limitations of household surveys***

*Gabriela Cordourier and Carolina Izaguirre*

#### **Introduction**

The main purpose of this study is to analyse the assessment of the CSI civic engagement component through an examination of other surveys available in Mexico: ENCUP, EMV, ENCASU, ENSAV and ENAFI, alongside the CSI population survey, and to answer the following questions: what concept of citizenship engagement underlies these surveys? What indicators are used for measuring citizen engagement in Mexico? To what extent are they compatible?

The CSI measures three aspects of engagement: *extent*, as members or volunteers at organisations and associations; *depth*, which assesses the frequency and range of civil society activities performed by individuals; and *diversity*, which examines the distribution by gender, socio-economic status, geographical origin and ethnicity of people participating in civil society. The civic engagement dimension breaks down into six sub-dimensions and 14 indicators. CIVICUS' way of measuring this dimension is broad and



the fact that the index construction assigns the same importance to all the indicators may slant the measurement.<sup>23</sup>

Five surveys were used to assess the consistency of the results obtained by the 2005 WVS. These surveys are representative at the national level of the population over age 18 and include a list of questions which may be compatible with the methodology applied by the CSI to assess the component of 'civic engagement'. A comparison of the two surveys reveals:

- The 'civic engagement' index estimated by the WVS is 22 points above the one reported by the CSI (33.9). This shows there is an overestimation of this component in the WVS. The ENCUP, on the other hand, records an underestimation of 10 points. ENSAV, ENAFI and ENCASU's scores range from 34.3 to 39.3.
- The WVS highlights that the diversity of social and political engagement reaches values above 90. The reason for this is that the WVS' social engagement dimension includes the church, sports clubs, social clubs, art, music, education, and consumers' organisations. Furthermore, the political organisations category extends to labour unions, political parties, environmental organisations, professional organisations and charity or humanitarian organisations.
- All the surveys are in significant agreement concerning the sub-dimensions related to extent and all of them observe that depth references are overestimated (mainly in the WVS) as compared with the CSI. Depth of political engagement is around 1.9, according to the CSI, and only ENSAV records a similar value.

Based on the analysis of six surveys available in Mexico, a consistency was found in the average results (except for the WVS). The reason for this is the wide-ranging definition of the WVS' social engagement and political engagement categories, which go beyond that of the other surveys, and which do not necessarily fully include all categories.

On the other hand, when comparing these findings at the sub-dimension level it was found that those relating to extent show the greatest coincidences in all the surveys, while the references to depth reported an overestimation (mainly in the WVS).

For the analysis of the condition of civil society, it is essential to have in advance a delimited definition of civil society; one that helps us to construct an actual indicator of the power of this sector of society. Indicators are useful to assess and monitor movements, but we must not forget they present limitations, and therefore should be used and interpreted with caution.

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<sup>23</sup> For example, the civic engagement of an active member in a political organisation is not the same as that of person who is an active member of a sports club.

## 2. Level of Organisation

### ***Diversity of civil society's expressions: The Oaxaca Case***

Víctor Manuel Rodríguez Olvera

#### **Introduction**

This study is intended to go into depth on the Level of Organisation dimension of the CSI. This dimension observes the organisation development of civil society as a whole and focuses on establishing how well civil society is organised and what type of resources and infrastructure it has for development.

Oaxaca is considered one of the zones with the greatest multicultural richness and complexity of Mexico. It has a large portion of territory still in the hands of indigenous people, who consider the land as a collective asset for community use. The population equals 53% of the total indigenous population of Mexico. The state is divided into 12 regions and 570 municipalities, of which 418 have a predominantly indigenous population. Out of them, 412 municipalities elect their authorities in a traditional way or according to habits and customs, at community assemblies. There are several ethno linguistic groups including *Zoques*, *Amuzgos*, *Chontales*, *Chochos*, *Chatinos*, *Triquis*, *Huaves*, *Cuicatecos*, *Nahuas*, *Zapotecos*, *Mixtecos*, *Mazatecos*, *Chinantecos*, and *Mixes*. Indigenous languages with the largest number of speakers are *Zapoteco* and *Mixteco*.

It is impossible to talk about Oaxaca, 'Land of the Sun,' (setting aside the multiple cultures it comprises, and which make this a region of 'many Oaxacas') without considering that it is one of the states with the highest indexes of rural and urban poverty and a deeply unequal development distribution. In this context, it is necessary to get further insight into the several forms and modalities of organisation of civil society in Oaxaca. These include community assemblies, the *tequio* (organised work for the benefit of the whole community), and small producers' co-operatives. These modalities are not necessarily contemplated in the design used by the CSI in research, but they need to be examined to understand multicultural societies with indigenous values, contexts, beliefs and regulatory systems according to habits and customs beyond western democracy. Specifically, how are these traditional organisation forms related to other modalities such as those used by legally organised CSOs that have emerged in Oaxaca to work on very different social, economic and political issues?

The level of organisation of Civil Society in Oaxaca is considerably high and has several expressions and forms of institutional nature. The indigenous regulatory system, called 'of positions' (*de cargos*) or of 'habits and customs', broadens concepts of citizen participation. Community assemblies and debate are an essential part of coexistence of indigenous peoples. In this sphere, horizontal relationships are intensified within communities due to their notions of communality; when an issue arises affecting an individual or a family, a solution is immediately sought for all members of the community. Therefore, a cultural model is reproduced integrating the whole society, the legitimacy of which does not necessarily lie in the institutional requirements demanded

by the nation-state. At the community assembly, citizens actively participate in the discussion of issues and take collective decisions to solve them. "Citizens generate the public asset and consider them something of their own not only pertaining to the government. I.e., if the community wants drinkable water, a water committee is created and it works jointly with the government to demand services. Instead, in urban or more 'civilised' areas, people make a call from home and everything is individualistic."<sup>24</sup>

On the contrary, in urban municipalities, organisations are based on a more vertical and hierarchical relationship of actors and political parties, resulting in communication and decision-making processes governed by more individualistic interests. In this public space, CSOs are located somewhere in the middle between state vertical relationships and community life horizontal relationships. CSOs in Oaxaca are as varied as the diversity of cultural, economic, social and political expressions found in the state. Their institutionalisation level is quite high and responds to practical and strategic needs. CSOs' work, while generally closely related to communities, requires professionalisation. It is necessary to be legally organised in order to access to public and international cooperation resources.

Traditional organisation forms are not necessarily institutionalised and operate through informal mechanisms which are, nonetheless, deeply rooted in community life and are very much effective in the achievement of goals.

The study shows that the community nature of traditional organisation forms and modalities in Oaxaca questions, undoubtedly, the variables suggested by the CSI in its level of organisation dimension. For example, with respect to internal governance, they would hardly acknowledge decision-making processes not supported by the community assembly or conducted individually. In addition, formal membership of second tier organisations or federations, as an indicator of soundness in supporting infrastructure, has little to do with the consistency of informal networks built by immigrants by reproducing their community spaces in the countries where they arrive. Even though they are indicators specifically built for CSOs, the truth is that in realities such as the one in Oaxaca, very different social organisation modalities coexist. The soundness of these modalities is explained by issues such as their dynamics and sustainability over time or by the strength of ties and social fabric in which they are developed.

CSOs have a great diversity of specific goals; it is therefore impossible to classify them within a single line of action. In an entity like Oaxaca, where governmental authoritarianism has prevailed for many years, it is interesting how this diversity leads to synergy when organisations are faced with a governmental decision affecting their interests. Their ability to offer a spontaneous response, either to resist or to present alternative proposals, is remarkable and capable of convening both multicultural (not institutionalised) citizenship and broad social movements.

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<sup>24</sup> Interview held during the study.

### 3. Practice of Values

#### ***Towards democratisation of school spaces: CSO's democratic values through the CONSTRUYE T programme***

*Fernando Gaál Rodríguez*

The study is focused on the case of the 'Construye T' Programme, implemented by the Public Education Secretariat (SEP) in cooperation with the United Nations Development Programme, UNICEF and a broad participation of CSOs, both in the design of activities and in the execution of the programme. It is intended to support and favour the integral development of students in education environments where inclusion, equity and democratic participation prevail. *Construye T* consists of six special dimensions for young people's development: self-knowledge; healthy life; non-violence; school and family; young people's participation, and life project. By means of training actions on these dimensions, the programme seeks to promote values by encouraging the engagement of young women and men in activities oriented around citizenship building and democratic decision-making based on common interests. CSOs are trained under the programme guidelines to help reproduce and apply the knowledge acquired at school.

*Construye T* has been conceptualized as "a programme intended to build education communities favouring inclusion, equity and democratic participation of young women and men and their parents, as well as the development of individual and social skills to prevent any risk factors faced by students."<sup>25</sup>

The objectives of the study are: to identify the mechanisms whereby CSOs taking part in the programme encourage the practice of values by young women and men in education processes and school environments; to understand the scopes, obstacles and areas of opportunity for CSOs to conduct a civil society initiative converted into public policy; and to assess the impact of the networks of relationships established by the *Construye T* programme on the promotion of values.

Since the programme is federal, the study was conducted by means of focus groups and in-depth interviews with a sample of CSOs and of young participants, as well as with the programme facilitators and school committees.

*Construye T* is a unique programme because its design and implementation entail CSOs' active participation. In this respect, it can be stated that it managed to break paradigms through the type of relationships established in the classroom, and is a promoter of democratic values based on the exercise of inclusion and participation in unique spaces. This public policy makes young people visible, in a historic moment when the state is mostly required to acknowledge their existence and the drive of their strengths.

In spite of the fact that the perception of young people is that they participate and are included, the study shows the persistence of adult practices to control young people

<sup>25</sup> <http://www.extranetconstruye-t.sems.gob.mx/home/homegral.asp>

And despite the horizontal nature of relationships pursued by the programme, there is still a lot of work to do in the promotion of new forms of relationships based on democratic values. In this respect, it is still an incipient participation process.

Even though civil society has been acknowledged as an essential actor in the programme, the study reveals that the impact has not been as strong as expected; since the participant organisations do not have sufficient political capital to generate institutional power, impact, influence and greater weight on the decision-making process.

In this respect, the interaction between local authorities of the SEP and CSOs requires an in-depth review of the manner in which joint decisions are made and the types of relationships and synergies established by them, since CSOs depend on them to act.

Finally, *Construye T* is a public policy which needs to be seen by young people as not another proposal from their school or teachers, but rather as a policy in which they are key actors for design and implementation. Undoubtedly, the democratic values promoted by the programme constitute significant progress in the citizenship construction process, but the truth is that there is still a long way to go before young people can fully exercise their rights.

#### 4. Perception of Impact

##### ***Social networks for water protection in the Mexico Basin***

*Leonardo Garavito*

The Mexico Basin region faces a growing risk of water shortage. Not only does such risk depend on the physical and ecologic characteristics of the environment, but also on the social values which determine how the water in the area is used and for what purpose. The study analyses the environment and the perceived impact that water-related CSOs have in the Mexico Basin.

The study examined a group of social organisations that seek to promote a cultural transformation in the water management model of the region, and the impact of a demonstration they organised. The main question was: to what extent do social organisations which work for water care in the Mexico Basin shape a collective social action with political and cultural potential relevance?

The methodology used entailed two steps: context analysis and perception of impact analysis.

##### **Context analysis**

- *Definition of the historical field:* Highlights the main spheres and topics, and identifies the potential scope of demands and controversies proposed by the demonstration.

- *Regulatory and symbolic construction of water:* Regulatory and political-administrative structures of the state define a language and action forms considered socially and politically correct, thus framing and restricting the political and cultural influence of social demonstrations.
- *Type of results:* Main restrictions and opportunities offered by the context to the development of the demonstration.

### **Perception of impact analysis**

- *Analysis of collective action interpretation frameworks present at the demonstration:* Building of shared meanings through diagnostic, predictive and motivational frameworks.
- *Networks of proximity perception:* Construction of shared identities supporting the demonstration and survival as a collective actor.
- *Type of results:* Assessment of potential of demonstration for shaping a collective actor and fostering political and/or cultural changes.

The main findings of the case study in connection with the opportunities and restrictions provided by the context were the following:

- The demonstration in defence of water in the Mexico Basin resonated with the *Global Water Movement* and draws on symbolic resources to debate the dominant cultural model.
- Within the political system, tensions were identified between traditional political practices (authoritarianism and centralism) and recent democratisation and decentralisation processes in connection with water.
- Water has suffered a symbolic transformation from being considered an abundant resource to a scarce resource, which favours conflicts.
- The social and political context of the demonstration aimed at being progressively more receptive to its proposals and participation.

As regards the process of development of shared meanings, the demonstration proved to have a group of common ideas which structured its speech and actions. Among these ideas, the following stand out:

- The accusation of irrationalities in the political-administrative system in connection with water management, as well as population beliefs and practices related to water waste or excessive consumption.
- The call for review and reform of the political-administrative system in connection with water and the support of a new culture of water care.
- The demonstration was perceived as an agent necessary to address such problems and, therefore, its continuity is foreseen on account of its potential to train the population and to hold authorities to account.

In connection with the development process of alliance and support networks, findings obtained were as follows:

- The 14 organisations which took part in the case study form an interactive network and a process for the construction of a shared identity connecting them.
- The network is characterised by a relatively low connectivity, though sufficient to integrate the majority in a demonstration.
- In spite of its relative weakness, the network evidences the existence of a relational structure capable of supporting the flow of information, material and non-material supports and planning for collective action.

Organisations currently working in defence of water in the Mexico's State Basin can be perceived as a collective actor which has the potential to have an actual political and cultural impact in the public arena. The origin and potential power of demonstrations is evidenced through two processes:

- First, in the area where these organisations work, there is a progressive loss of authorities' power, as well as a growing uncertainty in the political system concerning water management.
- Second, a social network is identified inside the demonstration, capable of providing a flow of material and non-material resources among its participants

## 5. External Environment

### ***The response of Chihuahua organised civil society to insecurity and violence***

*Victor Manuel Quintana S.*

The main purpose of this work was to carry out a qualitative analysis of the situation faced by CSOs, specifically those involved in the defence of human rights, and the manner in which they are addressing the insecurity and violence experienced in the State of Chihuahua. This study provides examples of the way in which CSOs act in a highly adverse environment.

For the performance of this study, a historical analysis was carried out on the emergence of human rights and feminist CSOs in the state. This analysis enabled the identification of the evolution of the group of CSOs and their principal networks. It further focused on the case of the killing of women, which has been occurring since 1993, as well as the reactions of the Chihuahua CSOs in particular. Finally, it studied (more generally) how CSOs' are addressing this concern in a context of generalised and intensified violence in Chihuahua.

For the past 20 years, the State of Chihuahua has been suffering several forms of insecurity and violence. First, violence was restricted to violations of human rights by police forces and the army within the context of the operations carried out by the authorities to fight against drug trafficking during the eighties and the nineties, especially in La Sierra. After that, in the nineties, insecurity claimed as its main victims urban

working women, mainly in the Cities of Juárez and Chihuahua (the so-called *women slaughtering*, which persists to the present day).

More recently, from 2007 insecurity and violence have escalated following the federal and state governments' declaration of 'war against drug trafficking' through the *Chihuahua Joint Operations* and after that the *Chihuahua Coordinated Operations*. Not only does such violence affect the drug cartels themselves, but there has also been an outburst of common crime which seriously damages life and property of families and communities.

During the first two violence cycles (the violation of human rights and *women slaughtering*) there was no wide or organised response from Chihuahua civil society. However, some groups joined together to protest and there appeared a series of organisations devoted to the promotion and defence of human rights. These organisations had an intense activity in this field and very soon acquired legitimacy and national and international presence. The main achievement of the CSOs of these years was to significantly reduce torture as an ordinary practice of police bodies.

In view of the increase of systematic women slaughtering, there has been a wider, although not large-scale, reaction of CSOs. They mount demonstrations, and several organisations have been created with the purpose of providing victim assistance, demanding justice, offering training to face violence situations, and assisting families of slaughtered or disappeared women.

It is important to point out that these organisations carry out very significant awareness-raising and lobbying work at national and international levels. The action of women and feminist organisations, although not able to eradicate women slaughtering, has made important advances in public policies such as the State Law for Women's Access to a Life Free of Violence and the creation of specialised institutions like the Chihuahua Women Institute and the assistance centres for violence against women.

The flood of violence, death and insecurity from the beginning of 2008 has generated uncertainty and fear among the majority of the Chihuahua population. In such context, CSOs have reacted more than before, yet without a response capable of transforming the current situation. More than in other occasions, a wide diversity of social groups has demonstrated in several ways including protests, ritual events, symbolic expressions and sport events calling for peace. However, in view of the magnitude of events, these are still dispersed and non-synchronised responses with the broad purpose of demanding peace, but which face difficulties in seeking more concrete and specific purposes.

In view of the circumstances, there appeared a large number of organisations of a new kind which, from several ideological positions, demanded the end of violence. Some of them demand the resignation of the Federal Executive Branch and that the army leave the State; others demand the taking of more decisive actions against the alleged criminals. In parallel, already existing social organisations with wide standing, such as



human rights and women organisations (those which provide assistance to young people and children) have intensified their work in areas such as those of accusation, assistance to families of the murdered and the disappeared, and are working to propose policies and programmes to rebuild the social fabric.

To sum up, the situation of violence and insecurity which prevails in Chihuahua and in other regions of Mexico presents CSOs with a new kind of challenge. There is no doubt that the role of these CSOs is essential, but in spite of the fact that a greater activation of the Chihuahua civil society is observed, the magnitude of the problem demands an effort of convergence and union to develop a diversified and efficient strategy to attack manifestations of violence and insecurity, as well the multi-factor causes of them. CSOs in Chihuahua are active in acts of resistance and in developing proposals within a very adverse environment, and today offer a basic reference point for organisations in other regions of Mexico.

### ANNEX 3 Regional Focus Groups

Focus groups offer one of the CSI's qualitative tools and contribute by establishing a space for reflection at the regional level on civil society as a whole.

The decision on which cities should host the workshops was not easy and was made based on a geographical and communications analysis among the States of Mexico. The CSI also considered which cities must necessarily be analysed in order to build up an accurate picture of civil society development.

The work of regional groups was particularly intense due to the melting pot of cultures and regions in Mexico. In this regard, the original plan considered conducting five workshops but eight were eventually conducted in the cities mentioned below:

TABLE A3.1.1 Regional Workshops

<b>Host institutions</b>	<b>Participating states</b>	<b>Date</b>
British Embassy in Mexico (Federal District)	D.F., Tlaxcala, Hidalgo, Mexico, Morelos	30/8/2009
Corporativa de Fundaciones (Guadalajara, Jal.)	Jalisco, Colima	9/9/2009
Acción Ciudadana (San Luis Potosí, S.L.P.)	San Luis Potosí	7/10/2009
Fundación Haciendas del Mundo Maya / Instituto de la Juventud de Yucatán (Mérida, Yuc)	Yucatán, Campeche, Quintana Roo	28/10/2009
Social Development Secretariat - Nuevo León state / ITESM (Monterrey, N.L.)	Nuevo León, Tamaulipas	18/11/2009
Espiral por la Vida / Canica de Oaxaca (Oaxaca, Oax.)	Oaxaca	9/12/2009
Centro para el Fortalecimiento de Organizaciones Civiles (Chihuahua, Chih.)	Chihuahua	4/2/2010
Universidad Iberoamericana Puebla (Puebla, Pue.)	Puebla	26/2/2010

The workshops followed a common agenda:

- a. Welcome
- b. What is the Civil Society Index?
- c. Definition of civil society
- d. CSI Framework
- e. Assessment of civil society (construction of regional diamond)
- f. Next steps
- g. Evaluation of the focus group and closing

Focus groups were an important tool used to capture local and regional civil society perceptions and observe the differences in each of the places where they took place, hence enriching the CSI qualitative results. They also operated as driving forces to gather local organisations which otherwise might have no opportunity to interact closely. The interest aroused through these exercises was reflected in the constant contact of some of the participating organisations with the implementation team to monitor the research, and their interest in the results.

## ANNEX 4 List of participants in the research

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