



LUCHADORA-

THE ITALIAN FEMINIST MOVEMENT

DATA, CHALLENGES AND SUSTAINABILITY

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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This research, conducted by Semia Feminist Fund, constitutes the first-ever snapshot of the state of the art of the Italian feminist movement, that is, the plurality of formal and informal organisations engaged in the struggle to improve the social, political and legal conditions of women and trans and non-binary people in Italy. The survey, which is part of a feasibility study to establish the first Italian Women's Fund, has no ambition of academic research or exhaustive analysis. Nevertheless, it provides interesting data and raises further questions, shedding light on the notable invisibility of this vital component of the Italian third sector.

Italy, the third largest economy in the European Union, with a solid democratic system, modern infrastructure and relatively high living standards, has yet to meet significant challenges in gender equity. Its performance, entirely below the European average, is feeble in the critical areas of women's economic participation and equal pay, two indicators that relegate the country to the last position among all European Union member states. A disaggregated reading of the Gender Equality Index highlights other critical segments of the Italian situation, particularly in the 'domains' of work segregation (women's employment in specific economic sectors), time management and knowledge.

Sexual and reproductive health also represents a highly vulnerable issue for women in Italy, with an alarming deterioration in the practical application of Law 194, which guarantees free abortion in public hospitals: even if access to abortion is legally permitted, doctors and paramedical personnel can declare a 'conscientious objection' and refuse to perform it. Finally, a further area of grave concern is the substantial lack of protection of the rights and freedom of lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, queer/questioning, intersex and more people.

METHODOLOGY

The report is based on data collected during the desk research phase, which identified 1,047 organisations nationwide, and on the answers to a survey sent to the database of the organisations mapped. Some organisations have been interviewed. In this study, the definition of 'feminist organisation' includes formal and informal groups that claim, promote and defend the economic, civil and political rights of women, girls, trans and non-binary people. This broad definition is intended to include organisations that deal with traditional women's rights themes but also those that, in an intersectional perspective, apply a feminist lens on other issues, such as migration, employment and work, sexual orientation, gender identity and disability, among others.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

The research identified more than a thousand (1,047) formal and informal organisations across the country, mainly located in the north (441) compared to the centre (305) and the south (297) of Italy. The greatest concentration of organisations is found in Lazio (19.39%), followed by Lombardy (11.27%) and Emilia-Romagna (8.98%). More than 40% of the total is based in the richest and best-served metropolitan areas, with a considerable aggregation in the capital's metropolitan area. The presence of feminist organisations is more modest in medium-sized cities (16.95%) and small towns (18.38%) and minimal in rural contexts. The southern macro-area, with its scarcity of large metropolises, sees 27.61% of organisations based in small cities and 9.42% in villages and rural areas.

LEGAL STATUS AND SIZE

An analysis of the legal and organisational structure of the entities mapped by the research shows that most are registered as associations (66.76%), followed by collectives (21.43%) and networks (4.3%), in similar proportions in all regional macro-areas. Other types of feminist organisations (cooperatives, social enterprises, foundations and movements) are present in smaller percentages. Most mapped organisations are small or medium sized (89.49%), and 67.24% operate with less than 15 members, including volunteers and staff, while only a slim percentage of organisations (10.51%) employ more than 30 people. The survey also revealed that 20% of associations still need to comply with the requirements of the third-sector reform and, therefore, present sustainability risks in the medium term.

THE SOCIAL MISSION

The most crucial point emerging from the research is that the movement appears to be focused mainly on fighting gender-based violence: 50.24% of the organisations declare that their primary mission is to combat gender-based violence. As many as 79% of the organisations that participated in the survey include gender-based violence as a priority among their activities. Conversely, the economic fragility of women, female unemployment and the scarce representation of women in the working force, as well as issues related to sexual and reproductive health, seem to receive much less attention.

The emergence of this data is noteworthy in a context like Italy, which has the lowest female employment rate in the European Union and where a significant proportion of women lack economic independence, with profound consequences for their independence and freedom of choice.

A large segment of the movement (15%) sees its primary mission as promoting lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, queer/questioning, intersex and more (LGBTQI+) rights, while 53.8% of survey respondents include this issue in their activities. This figure, which measures the effective intersectionality of the movement on gender minority issues, is not matched by the number of organisations that include, among their activities, support for other intersectional strands such as anti-racism, disability and climate change.

AVAILABILITY OF FUNDS

More than half of the organisations surveyed (59.24%) operate with minimal budgets below €25,000, whereas only 3.26% manage more than €500,000. Given the high number of associations in the sample, it is not surprising that membership fees are a common source of financing. Unexpectedly, however, 27% of organisations mention them as their only funding source. The limitation of self-financing is evident when the number of associates rarely exceeds 30. Approximately 25% of organisations resort to fundraising from the public or crowdfunding mechanisms.

Italian public contributions play a significant role in the sustainability of feminist organisations, especially in large metropolitan areas, and 38% of the responding organisations have been recipients of public funding. Calls for proposals are competitive, and they generally specify priorities, themes and project timeframes and bind the activities and their implementation to very stringent parameters to align with public policies.

Meanwhile, funding from institutions in the private sector is relatively less frequent, with only 14% of responding organisations receiving donations from Italian philanthropic institutions. Few private foundations in the country devote resources to promoting women's rights and women's empowerment, and none is known to support the gender perspective. Although occasional donations are made to specific projects and to fight violence, the approach of Italian foundations to gender inequalities does not seem to result in permanently dedicated grant lines or an intentional and measurable approach to gender funding. Partnerships with local companies support only 11% of organisations. Few larger organisations (3%) have developed relationships with foreign foundations.

CONNECTIVITY AND DIGITALISATION

The study takes the investment of time and information technology (IT) resources required to manage a website as a proxy to measure the degree of connectivity and digitalisation of organisations. The observed outcome is that only 64.47% of the mapped organisations have developed an online presence through a fully developed website. However, the figures reveal significant regional differences: in northern Italy, 73.02% of the feminist organisations have a website; in central Italy and in the south, only 65.25% and 50.51% do, respectively.

NETWORKING

Networking is well developed across the movement, and 67% of the organisations surveyed have established connections and collaborations at different geographical levels. More than half of the organisations (59.02%) collaborate locally, and a significant percentage (41.53%) participate in national networks. However, few organisations (11.48%) are part of international networks. Collaborations are often limited to specific projects (45%), and few organisations claim to pursue a common political agenda (31%).

OBSTACLES TO ACTION AND ACTIVISM

While it is unsurprising that 61% of organisations responding to the survey cite the lack of funds as the main obstacle to growth, a significant number of organisations mention the lack of skills and human capital as a barrier to achieving their goals and a more significant impact on society. The feminist movement and other segments of civil society today seem to understand the limits of the voluntarist approach and the need to acquire, at least in some areas, other tools and specialised competencies for a more incisive and coherent action. The lack of strategic and planning capacity and the need for more skills in communication and fundraising are all indicated as critical areas. Finally, numerous entities (20%) lament the lack of space and infrastructure.

The research shows that the Italian feminist movement urgently needs additional financial and structural resources to support Italy in achieving gender equality. Although further research, data collection and thematic insights are certainly needed, a better comprehension of organisations' size, activities and sustainability challenges can help highlight gaps and better target the available public and private resources.



1. INTRODUCTION AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

1. INTRODUCTION AND SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

This research, conducted by the Semia Women's Fund and co-financed by the Mediterranean Women's Fund, entailed the collection and processing of data on organisations, collectives, groups, networks and movements that make up the feminist ecosystem in Italy to date.

The research originated in the feasibility project and the path preparatory to the establishment of the first Italian Women's Fund. 'Women's funds' or 'feminist funds' are special foundations dedicated to supporting activism for women's and gender rights and are created with a precise vision: to unite, strengthen and connect the organisations and movements that are committed to the promotion of these rights in every country. Currently, there are more than 40 feminist funds worldwide that operate in networks and partnerships with private philanthropy and public institutions, achieving important results in the fight for equality.

The funds adopt an 'intersectional' approach by prioritising the needs of the most marginalised groups that face multiple axes of discrimination (class, ethnicity, gender identity, disability, etc.). The funds have operational methodologies that guarantee integral support to beneficiary organisations: in addition to financial support for activities, they offer organisational development support and training activities in the areas of strategy, planning, communication and fundraising.

The 'gender data gap', namely, the insufficiency of accurate information on the experiences, needs and contributions of women and people belonging to other gender identities in Italian society, has often been denounced by the feminist movement, anti-violence centres and institutions such as the Group of Experts on Action against Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (GREVIO).¹ This lack of data also includes the information available on the operation of third-sector and civil society entities that act to promote and defend

¹ GREVIO is the independent monitoring body of the Istanbul Convention.

women's and gender rights. Except for anti-violence centres, which are listed among the public services at the national and regional levels, there are no comprehensive lists, data or analyses on the formal and informal organisations operating in this field.

Therefore, this research aims to provide an initial analysis of the Italian feminist movement, that is, of the plurality of entities that operate in the country in an organised manner to achieve an improvement in the social, political and legal conditions for women and gender minorities. The goal of the analysis is to bring out the territorial distribution, size, organisational characteristics and thematic focus of these entities as well as some of the obstacles and needs that may limit their action and effectiveness. The study does not claim to be exhaustive in its representation of the ecosystem of feminist activism and associationism and is not academic research but takes on the lexicon and methodologies of feminist analysis to create the premises for the strategic and methodological approach of the first Italian women's fund.

In the initial phase, the survey was conducted through desk research that aimed to aggregate, reprocess and evaluate partial lists and other information publicly available on the web with the help of search engines and social media. This made it possible to record the master data of the mapped organisations as well as information on their size, legal structure, main mission and pursued objectives. The result was the creation of a database of more than a thousand formal and informal entities dealing with women's and gender rights in Italy with the widest spectrum of action (awareness raising, dissemination, advocacy, support and accompaniment, articulation and mobilisation, community development, research, etc.).

The second part of the research was conducted through a survey sent via e-mail and social media to the organisations in the database. The questionnaire collected information on the structure, characteristics and themes of the organisations but also more specific data on financial resources and availability, the use of communication channels, logistical and operational needs and the challenges organisations face in pursuing their goals. A sample of the responding organisations was invited to participate in an in-depth interview on the logistical and operational needs highlighted.

A total of 184 organisations (approximately 18%) took part in the qualitative analysis. The limited response rate was probably influenced by the low profile of the proposing foundation but also by the inadequate availability of time and resources and the lack of digital skills of many small organisations. The responding organisations are in fact those most structured in more connected and developed areas of the country.

Finally, an analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data collected in both research phases was carried out, the results of which are summarised in this document, with further information and details on the methodology provided in the annexe.



2. CONTEXT ANALYSIS

2. CONTEXT ANALYSIS

2.1 THE GENDER EQUALITY INDEX

In this section, we summarise some background information on the Italian situation, offering at least a partial perspective on the significant challenges that Italy, an influential member of the European Union (EU), still faces in terms of gender equality and minority rights. The 2023 Gender Equality Index (GEI) calculated by the European Institute for Gender Equality² places Italy 14th among European nations and shows a gap of 3.6 points below the EU average.³

The GEI index includes several indicators assessing the equality gap (related to the areas of work, money, power, health, time and knowledge) and reveals that the most critical area for Italy is women's employment as the considerable levels of gender inequality relegate the country to last place among all the member states.

The global index calculated by the World Economic Forum, which measures the gap in gender equality in 146 countries, confirms this picture. In 2023, Italy ranked 79th, losing 16 positions compared to the previous year. The weakest indicators concern the wage gap (107th place), women's economic participation (104th place) and girls' secondary education⁴ (95th place).

The European Committee of Social Rights has raised concerns about the failure to

guarantee the right to equal pay and gender employment opportunities in Italy. At the end of 2022, only 50.7% of Italian women were employed.⁵ Female employment has been stagnating in the country for some time, with alarming signs of decline recorded during the pandemic years⁶ when there was talk of a 'she-cession',^{7,8} an all-female recession. Indeed, between December 2021 and 2022, out of a total of 334,000 new jobs, as many as 296,000 were filled by men

² EIGE, (2022), Gender Equality Index, <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/2022/country/IT#:~:text=Progress%20in%20gender%20equality,on%20the%20Gender%20Equality%20Index>.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Il Sole 24ore, (2022), Ragazze e Stem, il 54% ama la scienza. Ma ancora pensa che sia «poco adatta» a una donna, <https://www.ilsole24ore.com/art/ragazze-e-stem-54percento-ama-scienza-ma-ancora-pensa-che-sia-pocoadatta-una-donna-AEf22MDB>

⁵ EIGE, (2022), Gender Equality Index, <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/2022/country/IT#:~:text=Progress%20in%20gender%20equality,on%20the%20Gender%20Equality%20Index>.

⁶ Salzano, (2023), Bloomberg, Italy Has the Lowest Female Labor Rate in European Union, Chart – Bloomberg.

⁷ Il Sole 24ore, (2022), Ragazze e Stem, il 54% ama la scienza. Ma ancora pensa che sia «poco adatta» a una donna, <https://www.ilsole24ore.com/art/ragazze-e-stem-54percento-ama-scienza-ma-ancora-pensa-che-sia-pocoadatta-una-donna-AEf22MDB>.

⁸ Nagaraj, A., (2021), 'Shecession': What COVID-19 has meant for women and work. World Economic Forum, Mar 8, 2021. Gender gap: How has the coronavirus affected women in work? World Economic Forum (weforum.org), <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2021/03/pande-mic-shecession-womens-workplace-gains-gender-gap-covid/>.

(more than 88%), leaving only 38,000 positions available for women.

Moreover, more than 30% of women in Italy work part-time, often in the informal sectors of the economy, where labour rights and health protection are scarce.⁹ In addition to this persistent lack of female participation in employment, the equal representation of women in leadership positions remains a thorny issue in Italy. In 2022, women occupied only 27.9% of leadership positions in the country.

The distribution indices of care work within the family also highlight a strong imbalance between the genders, due not only to the lack of public services but also to the existence of stereotypes that see women as more 'suited' to caring for elderly relatives, children and people with disabilities. Although Italy provides public childcare services for children under the age of three, access to such services and child enrolment rates vary significantly between regions and cities. Overall, only 26.3% of children up to the age of three benefited from formal care in 2019, falling short of the 33%¹⁰ target set by the European Council in 2022. This situation puts pressure on women in their 50s and 60s, who have to balance their work with caring for elderly relatives and grandchildren.¹¹

Recent studies and statistical analyses¹² have successfully applied the GEI model

for measuring gender equality also at the regional level, showing how, in Italy, the national GEI level does not fully capture the serious inequalities and masks much deeper levels of inequality affecting the southern regions. Italian regions have very different socio-economic characteristics in terms of employment,¹³ level and quality of education,¹⁴ infrastructure¹⁵ and cultural norms.¹⁶ Applied to individual Italian regions, all GEI sectoral indicators unequivocally highlight strong disparities, in particular, in the sub-domains of employment, availability of money, time management and power (calculated as the degree of women's participation in regional and municipal institutions).

However, it is the employment rate that shows the deep divide in the national tissue. According to the latest data released by ISTAT,¹⁷ the regions of southern Italy all have female employment rates below the national average (56.5%), with percentages well below 50% for women aged between 20 and 64 years participating in the labour market. Moreover, after the birth of a child, almost 30% of women aged between 18 and 49 years stop working, and only 43.6% remain employed. Further, more than 62% of women's time is spent on care work.¹⁸

If Italy's index is below the European average on work and representation, it ranks 10th among all Member States in the health domain.¹⁹ The indicator measures gender

⁹ Ceglia, D., (2023), Italia prigioniera del gender gap: una donna su due assunta part time. La Repubblica, Italia prigioniera del gender gap: una donna su due assunta part time - la Repubblica, https://www.repubblica.it/economia/rapporti/osserva-italia/conad/2023/02/27/news/italia_prigioniera_del_gender_gap_una_donna_su_due_assunta_part_time-389772183/.

¹⁰ Del Boca, (2022), L'impatto del Covid-19 sul divario di genere in Italia, Fondazione Friedrich Ebert, <https://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/rom/19617.pdf>.

¹¹ INAPP, (2018), Prendersi cura dei più anziani. Invecchiamento e nuove domande per lo sviluppo del lavoro di cura, https://oa.inapp.org/bitstream/handle/123456789/324/INAPP_Fef%C3%A8_Prendersi_Cura_Anziani_2018.pdf?sequence=1

¹² Di Bella, Leporatti, Gandullia & Maggino, (2021), Proposing a regional gender equality index (R-GEI) with an application to Italy, *Regional Studies*, <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00343404.2020.1836341>.

¹³ ISTAT, (2023), Rapporto Annuale 2023 - La situazione del Paese, <https://www.istat.it/it/files//2023/07/PILLOLE-RAPANN-2023.pdf>

¹⁴ Rapporto Invalsi, (2022) Rilevazione nazionale degli apprendimenti 2022, <https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/invalsi/viz/RAPPORTO2021-2022-Grado2-Grado5-Grado10/INIZIO>.

¹⁵ Bucci, Mauro et al., (2021). I divari infrastrutturali in Italia: una misurazione caso per caso. Banca d'Italia, *Questioni di Economia e Finanza* N. 635., <https://www.bancaditalia.it/pubblicazioni/qef/2021-0635/index.html?dotcache=refresh>.

¹⁶ Iagulli, P., (2016), Cultura ed emozioni: una breve introduzione sociologica a partire dalle differenze tra i giovani del Nord e del Sud Italia. *NUOVO MERIDIONALISMO STUDI*, 9-23 <https://hdl.handle.net/11586/431238>.

¹⁷ ISTAT, (2023), Rapporto Annuale 2023 - La situazione del Paese, <https://www.istat.it/it/files//2023/07/PILLOLE-RAPANN-2023.pdf>.

¹⁸ Di Cristofaro & Perrone, (2023). 8 marzo: il lavoro resta il grande tradimento per la questione femminile in Italia. Il sole 24 ore, <https://www.ilssole24ore.com/art/il-lavoro-resta-grande-tradimento-la-questione-femminile-italia-AEiqrsoc>

¹⁹ EIGE, (2022), Gender Equality Index, <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/2022/country/IT#:~:text=Progress%20in%20gender%20equality,on%20the%20Gender%20Equality%20Index>.

equality in three different health-related aspects (health status, health behaviour and access to health services) but does not consider sexual and reproductive rights, which instead represent a factor of vulnerability for women in Italy. Alarming data points to continuous deterioration in the effective application of Law 194, which, while guaranteeing the right to abortion,

provides that doctors and paramedical personnel can refuse to perform abortions based on 'conscientious objection'. The 44% of public and contracted facilities authorised to carry out voluntary interruptions of pregnancy have a percentage of medical and nursing staff who declare conscientious objection of over 80%.²⁰

2.2 GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Violence against women (VAW) is a major problem in Italy. As of 2019, the relative indicators, which had shown stability in previous years, have unfortunately worsened substantially. Against the trend in other European countries, Italy has witnessed a significant increase in femicides.²¹ In 2020, there was a 60% increase in reports from victims, and this increase continued in 2021 with a 13.7% rise from the previous year.²²

According to data provided by the Criminal Police Directorate, in 2022, more than 80% of victims of femicide were killed in family or emotional contexts; of these, 48% lost their lives at the hands of their partner or ex-partner.²³ In 2022, there was also a worrying increase in cases of sexual violence.²⁴

Nonetheless, while the tragic culmination of VAW is represented by femicide, to fully understand the scope of the phenomenon, it is essential to consider the multiple aspects that such violence can take, from physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence to violence directed at an individual simply because of his or her sexual preference or the manifestation of a gender identity other than his, her or their biological sex. Recently, a public map promoted

by the Non Una di Meno movement started collecting data on the murders of trans women as well,²⁵ thus including a broader gender perspective than the official statistics.

There are currently two new instruments created by the incumbent government to combat gender-based violence. The first is the Parliamentary Commission of Inquiry on Femicide and all gender-based violence, and the second is the DDL Roccella-Piantadosi-Nordio. The Commission performs various functions, including monitoring the implementation of the Anti-Violence Plan by the regions, the allocation of resources to anti-violence centres (AVCs) and, in general, the activities related to the work of the AVCs. In June, the Council of Ministers approved a bill to strengthen the protection of victims through a stronger focus on 'spy

²⁰ Lalli & Montegiove, (2021), Legge 194 Mai dati. Perché la relazione del Ministero sulla 194 non basta e servono i dati aperti e per singola struttura degli obiettori di coscienza. Legge 194 Mai dati Associazione Luca Coscioni.

²¹ Cross-border data investigation on femicides in Europe, <https://miir.gr/en/the-undeclared-war-on-women-in-europe-part-1/>.

²² ISTAT, (2022), Il sistema di protezione per donne vittima di violenza, https://www.istat.it/it/files/2022/05/REPORT_CASERIFUGIO-E-CENTRIANTIVIOLENZA_2022.pdf.

²³ Ministero dell'Interno, (2023), Omicidi volontari e violenza di genere, <https://www.interno.gov.it/it/stampa-e-comunicazione/dati-e-statistiche/omicidi-volontari-e-violenza-genere>.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Non Una Di Meno, (2023), Osservatorio nazionale femminicidi, lesbicidi, trans*cidi, <https://osservatorionazionale.nonunadimeno.net/>.

crimes' and the implementation of stricter preventive measures.

Nevertheless, despite having these instruments and the ratification of the Istanbul Convention in 2013, which should have

guided Italy towards significant progress in the fight against violence VAW, the country still struggles to satisfactorily implement public policies to raise awareness, prevention and education in the fight against violence.

2.3 THE RIGHTS OF LGBTQI+ PEOPLE

A further critical area in the Italian context is the protection and promotion of LGBTQI+ people's rights and freedoms. In Italy, homosexuality has been decriminalised since 1889; sexual orientation and gender identity are among the personal conditions protected by Article 3 of the Constitution,²⁶ which guarantees protection against discrimination and ensures the equality of all citizens. Further, the rights to freedom of expression, association and assembly under Articles 21, 18 and 17 of the Constitution apply regardless of sexual orientation and gender identity.

However, overall, the Italian legal framework is fragmented and deficient, leaving LGBTQI+ communities without adequate legal protection. In addition to the limited legal framework, there is general institutional negligence regarding the protection of LGBTQI+ children and adolescents, sons and daughters of same-sex couples, non-binary persons and persons in prison as well as the inclusion of education on gender diversity and sexual orientation in schools.²⁷

Employment discrimination based on sexual orientation is forbidden²⁸ and mentioned in some Italian national collective agreements. Moreover, the provisions of national collective agreements that recognise rights for married persons (e.g. leave for a partner's serious illness) also extend to persons who have entered a civil union.

However, Decree 216²⁹ is limited by the lack of a reference to gender identity, which leaves trans persons unprotected.

In the area of family and reproductive rights, several legislative proposals have been submitted to the Italian Parliament since the late 1980s with the aim of giving legal protection to same-sex relationships between consenting adults. In 2008, interest in marriage equality for same-sex couples gained momentum thanks to an awareness-raising campaign called *Affermazione Civile*,³⁰ which pursued the legal recognition of marriage for same-sex couples in Italy and led to a Constitutional Court ruling³¹ recognising same-sex union, understood as a stable cohabitation between two persons of the same sex, who are entitled to the fundamental right to freely live as a couple, obtaining – within the time,

²⁶ Article 3 states: 'All citizens have equal social dignity and are equal before the law, without distinction of sex, race, language, religion, political opinion, personal and social conditions.

It is the task of the Republic to remove those obstacles of an economic and social nature, which, by limiting the freedom and equality of citizens, prevent the full development of the human person and the effective participation of all workers in the political, economic and social organisation of the country.'

²⁷ For further information, see: <https://www.rapportoantigone.it/diciottesimo-rapporto-sulle-condizioni-di-detenzione/i-diritti-lgbt-in-carcere/>.

²⁸ Article 7 of D.lgs. 165/2001, D.lgs. 216/2003 and article 15 of Law 300/1970.

²⁹ *Ibid.*

³⁰ The campaign was coordinated by *Avvocatura per i Diritti LGBTI – Lenford Network* and the *Associazione Radicale Certi Diritti*. For an examination of the bills presented up to 2010, and an analysis of civil affirmation and its consequences, see: Moscati, M. F., (2014), *Pasolini's Italian Premonitions: Same-Sex Unions and the Law in Comparative Perspective*, London: Wildy, Simmonds and Hill Publishing.

³¹ 138/2010

manner and limits established by law – legal recognition and the associated rights and duties. Nonetheless, in 2016, a law³² was passed that in theory regulates civil unions but, in fact, legalised the exclusion of same-sex couples from marriage and did not extend parental rights to these couples, thus discriminating against their children. Moreover, same-sex couples cannot jointly adopt and have no access to medically assisted reproduction techniques.

In Italy, trans people can change their legal gender and name and obtain changes to the relevant documents in the civil status register and on their identity documents, but only through a judicial procedure.³³ Although the law provides that the applicant must also obtain the judge's authorisation for surgery when 'necessary', both the Court of Cassation³⁴ and the Constitutional Court³⁵ have held that surgery is 'necessary' if the person requesting the legal gender change considers it so. Thus, the compulsory nature of surgical gender reassignment, which was previously a prerequisite for legal gender change, has disappeared.

Finally, as far as intersex people are concerned, there is a legislative gap as there are no ad hoc laws.³⁶ Given the heterosexual binarism that characterises the Italian legal system, every unborn child must be assigned one of the two sexes. This is not so straightforward for intersex children, who are born with sexual organs that are not clearly defined or of a dual nature and who may be subjected to early sex-character modification surgery to fit into one of the two biological sexes.

The LGBTQI+ population in Italy also includes migrants and asylum seekers. Same-sex partners who have entered a civil union with an Italian citizen or a foreigner with a work or residence permit can apply for family reunification.³⁷ The situation of applicants for international protection appears to be more problematic due to the reforms initiated by the Meloni government. The new immigration and asylum policy calls into question the minimum standards of protection in terms of reception and procedures, making effective access to international protection more difficult for those who belong to the LGBTQI+ community, especially if they come from countries considered 'safe' according to a heteronormative and non-inclusive conception of individual specificities.³⁸

³² Law 76/2016, which introduced regulations on civil unions between persons of the same sex and regulates cohabitation.

³³ Law 164/1982 and article 31 of D.Lgs. 150/2011.

³⁴ Court of Cassation, ruling 20 July 2015, No. 15138.

³⁵ Corte Costituzionale, sentenza 5 Novembre 2015, n.221.

³⁶ For further information, see: <https://www.iss.it/infointersex-copertina>.

³⁷ Circolare del Ministero dell'Interno, 5 August 2016, No. 3511.

³⁸ For more information, see: <https://www.sogica.org/it/raccomandazioni-finali/>.

In particular, the Italian legal framework lacks a law protecting against 'homo-lesbo-bi-transphobia', which exists in many European countries. Since the 1990s, many bills have followed one another:

- in 2007, Draft Law No. 2169 on 'Measures for the repression and prevention, as well as repression of crimes against the person and within the family, sexual orientation, gender identity and any other cause of discrimination'
- in 2009, Draft Law No. 1658 aimed at introducing into the Penal Code the aggravating circumstance of the sexual orientation and gender identity of the victim of the crime.
- in 2013, Draft Law No. 245 aimed at extending to sexual orientation and gender identity the protection provided against so-called 'hate crimes'.³⁹
- in 2018, Draft Law No. 569 was filed by MP Zan.^{40 41}

None of these bills were passed.

³⁹ Crimini d'odio puniti dalla legge 205 del 25 giugno 1993.

⁴⁰ 'Modifiche agli articoli 604-bis e 604-ter del codice penale, in materia di violenza o discriminazione per motivi di orientamento sessuale o identità di genere.'

⁴¹ For a list of bills merged with the Zan text, see: [chrome-extension://efaidnbmnnnibpajpcgleclefindmkaj/https://documenti.camera.it/Leg18/Dossier/Pdf/gi0109a.Pdf](https://documenti.camera.it/Leg18/Dossier/Pdf/gi0109a.Pdf)



3. DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT

3. DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT

The initial mapping of Italian organisations committed to the defence and promotion of gender equality was conducted through desk research. The objective of the research was primarily to identify formal and informal entities operating in the third sector or in civil society whose work could be framed within the promotion and protection of gender rights and to create a database.

In the context of this study, the definition of a ‘feminist organisation’ was extended to include not only organisations that deal with traditional women’s rights issues but also those that, from an intersectional perspective, work on other specific issues that serve as drivers of inequality: ethnicity, economic status, gender identity, sexual orientation, disability, physical appearance, migratory status and others. Organisations working on behalf of migrant or detained people and fighting organised crime were also included in the research if they carry out their activities with a gender focus or a feminist perspective.

Conversely, organisations linked to or financed by religious institutions, as well as associations linked to a political party and governmental, regional or municipal associations that are not the subject of Semia’s activities were not mapped. Associations representing categories of professionals, managers or business owners and women’s associations in the tertiary sector as well as

women’s sections of certain trade unions were also excluded because they either are not third-sector organisations or do not fall within the target group of the foundation’s beneficiaries. Based on the data collected, we elaborated demographic analyses such as geographical distribution, specific areas of intervention, legal structure and an estimate of the size of the mapped organisations.

3.1 GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

The research led to the survey of 1,047 organisations across the country, with a prevalence of organisations located in the north (441) compared to the centre (305) and the south (297) of Italy. Some of these organisations work with a national presence or exclusively online (Chart 1).

At the regional level, the highest concentration of organisations was found in Lazio (19.39%), followed by Lombardy (11.27%) and Emilia-Romagna (8.98%). The regions with the lowest percentages of feminist initiatives are Basilicata (0.76%), Valle d'Aosta (0.48%) and Molise (0.29%) (Table 1).

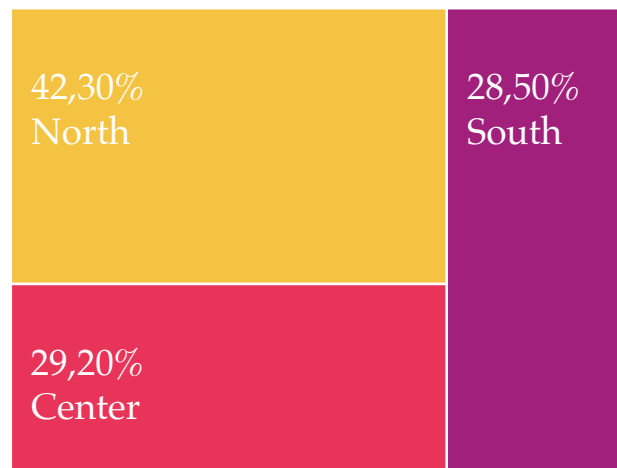


Chart 1. Distribution per geographical macro-area

However, an assessment of the presence of organisations at the regional level cannot be limited to the numerical distribution over the territory. Weighing the number of organisations against the resident population in each region,⁴² we obtain indications of the actual benefit of feminist initiatives for the inhabitants of the territory (Table 2).

Table 1. Feminist organisations per region

Region	Nr of organisations	% of feminist organisations per region
Lazio	203	19,39%
Abruzzo	28	2,67%
Basilicata	8	0,76%
Calabria	26	2,48%
Campania	58	5,54%
Emilia-Romagna	94	8,98%
Friuli-Venezia Giu..	29	2,77%
Liguria	30	2,87%
Lombardia	118	11,27%
Marche	15	1,43%
Molise	3	0,29%
Nazionali/online	4	0,38%
Piemonte	80	7,64%
Puglia	57	5,44%
Sardegna	30	2,87%
Sicilia	87	8,31%
Toscana	72	6,88%
Trentino-Alto Adi..	17	1,62%
Umbria	15	1,43%
Val d'Aosta	5	0,48%
Veneto	68	6,49%

Table 2. Organisations per number of inhabitants

Regions	Numb. of organisations	Inhabitants per organisations
Val d'Aosta	5	24,591
Lazio	203	28,114
Friuli Venezia Giulia	29	41,110
Abruzzo	28	45,352
Emilia Romagna	94	47,095
Liguria	30	50,087
Toscana	72	50,710
Sardegna	30	52,501
Piemonte	80	53,009
Sicilia	87	55,196
Umbria	15	56,942
Trentino Alto Adige	17	63,254
Basilicata	8	67,082
Puglia	58	68,436
Calabria	26	70,819
Veneto	68	71,151
Lombardia	118	84,328
Campania	60	96,417
Molise	3	96,613
Marche	15	98,723

⁴² The data on the distribution of inhabitants in the Italian regions are from ISTAT, (2023), Popolazione residente al 1° gennaio, http://dati.istat.it/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=DCIS_POPRES1.

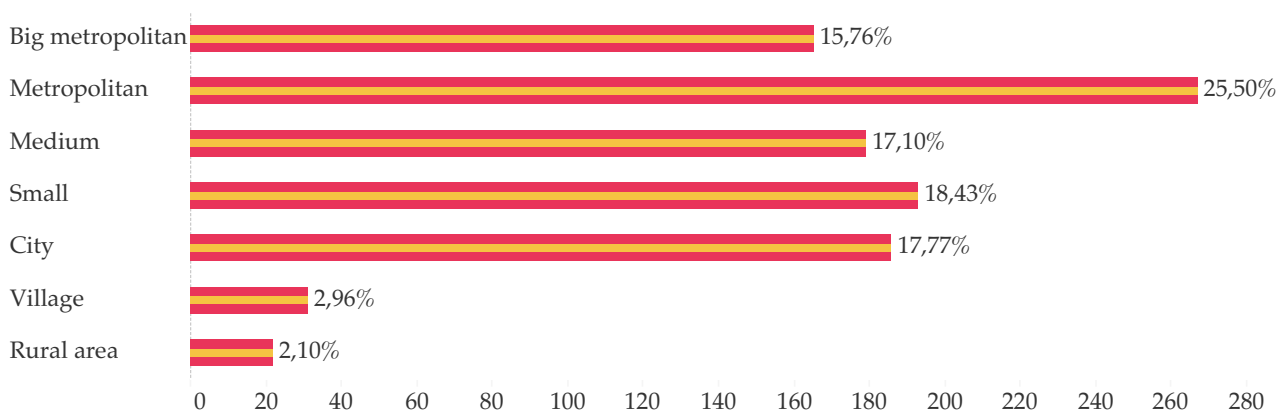
The region with the highest ratio appears to be Valle d’Aosta, with one feminist organisation for every 24,591 residents, followed by Lazio and Friuli-Venezia Giulia, which rise to the top thanks to their low resident population. Lazio and Campania have a similar number of residents⁴³ but host a very different number of feminist organisations and collectives, which makes Campania drop from the eighth position in the ranking of the percentage of organisations per region to the eighteenth position in the weighted table.

The analysis of the geographical distribution also reveals interesting data with respect to the distribution of organisations in population centres. Indeed, the territorial distribution provides a measure of the

spread of initiatives and the possibility for more capillary work.

This analysis gives us the image of a country in which more than 40% of the total number of feminist organisations is found in metropolitan areas, with a considerable aggregation (15.76%) in the large metropolitan area of the capital.⁴⁴ The spread in medium-sized (17.10%) and small cities (18.43%) is lower, while the feminist presence in villages and rural contexts is very small compared to the total. Only in the southern macro-area, with its scarcity of large metropolises, does the work of the feminist movement seem to resist centralisation, with as many as 27.61% of organisations based in small towns but also 9.42% in villages and rural areas (Chart 2).

Chart 2. Presence of organisations in urban centres ⁴⁵



3.2 LEGAL FORM AND SIZE OF THE ORGANISATIONS

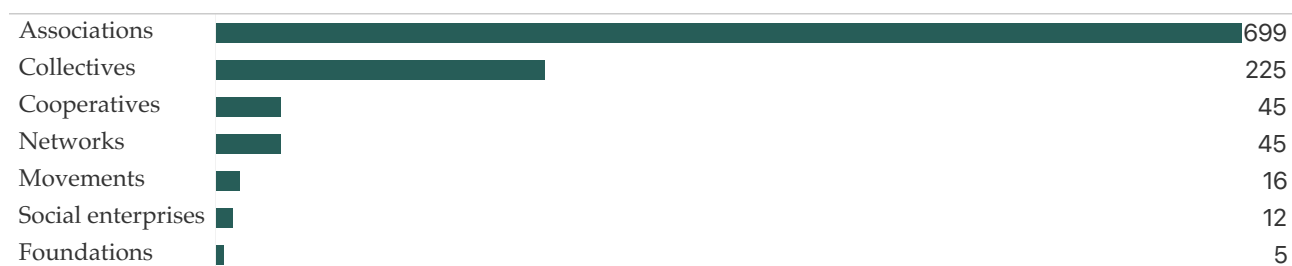
If we consider the legal and organisational structure of the entities mapped by the research, it emerges that most of them are registered as associations (66.76%), followed by collectives (21.43%) and networks (4.3%). This proportion remains constant even in an analysis of regional macro-areas, with Central Italy seeing the proportion of associations rise slightly to 70%. The other types of feminist organisations (cooperative, enterprise, foundation, movement, network) hardly ever exceed 5% of the entities of each macro-area.

⁴³ 5,714,882 and 5,624,420 residents, respectively.

⁴⁴ To classify the size of cities, the OECD parameter was used, adding the smallest agglomerations and classifying them as in Chart 2. <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/regionaldevelopment/Italy.pdf>.

⁴⁵ The total refers to all organisations excluding those with an online presence only.

Chart 3. Legal form of the organisations



However, the conclusion that the movement is predominantly comprised of legally registered structures is doubtful because the prevalence of the associative form in the collected data could be partly attributed to the fact that entities with a higher degree of formalisation are simply more visible online. Meanwhile, the informality of collectives makes it more difficult to identify their territorial presence through remote research.

The networks mapped are typically characterised by shared activist objectives. However, their operations are not continuous, and the goals collectively pursued are often limited to the commemoration or celebration of symbolic dates, such as 25 November or World LGBTQI+ Pride Day.

As for the information gathered on the size of the organisations and their internal organisation, this was found whenever possible by analysing their websites. In other cases, the size of the organisation was estimated based on other factors. For example, in the case of collectives and individual anti-violence centres, all entities were included in the category of small organisations, whereas entities such as networks and movements were assumed to be organisations composed of at least 50 individuals.

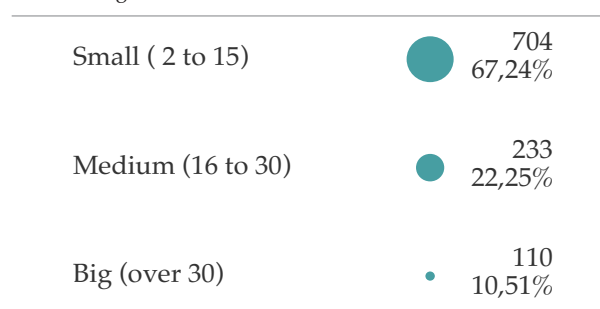
Information from the statistical register of non-profit institutions⁴⁶ reveals that in 2020, 85.7% of Italian non-profit institutions operated without employees, 5.9% employed up to three and 4.7% between

three and nine, and the share of institutions with at least 10 employees was 3.7%. Consequently, in searching for data on the size of the mapped organisations, we reasoned in terms of people involved in the activities, thus including both volunteers and employees.

Chart 4 shows that many of the mapped organisations (89.49%) are small or medium sized, with up to 30 people actively involved in the activities. Only a low percentage of organisations (10.51%) record the involvement of 30 people or more.

Lastly, we mapped and analysed websites, social networks and other public information to find data on the degree of internal organisation of the feminist entities under examination, identifying a varied spectrum of entities, from well-structured organisations, with organised fundraising, a clear division of tasks and roles and annual reports (42.12%) to completely informal organisational approaches with limited planning and poor division of labour (26.84%). For a significant number of entities, insufficient data was collected.

Chart 4. Organisation size



⁴⁶ Accessible at: <https://www.istat.it/it/files/2022/10/REPORT-NON-PROFIT-2022.pdf>.

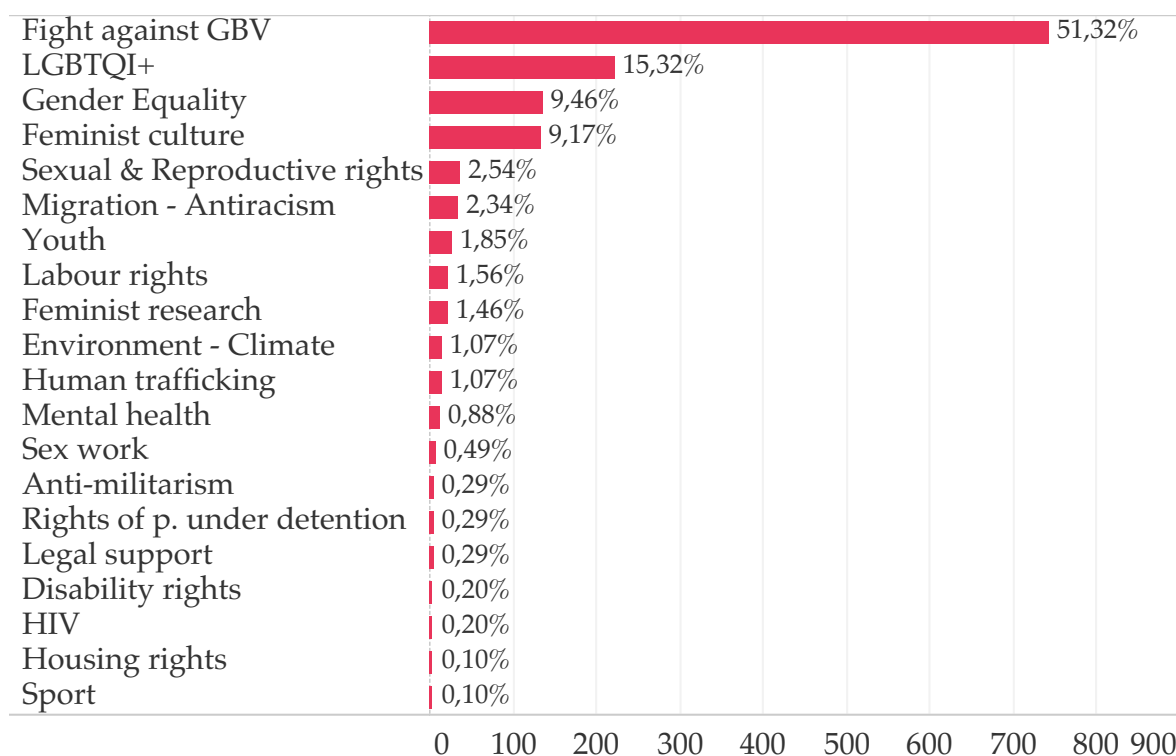
3.3 SOCIAL MISSION

The social mission, that is, the thematic and programmatic focus of the mapped organisations was inferred, when possible, from the analysis of statutes and published manifestos or, alternatively, from the description of the organisational mission on the website or social channels. When information was unavailable, the purpose of the organisations was deduced from the type of activities carried out.

A list (Chart 5) was created to reflect and aggregate the social missions of the mapped organisations. This list is certainly not exhaustive and includes broad definitions such as ‘combating violence’ or ‘gender equality’, within which organisations with a variety of activities in specific areas of intervention can be found, and more specific missions, such as ‘trafficking’ or ‘rights of persons with disabilities’, which instead relate to more sectorial themes. In identifying the missions, we wanted to bring out the movement’s ‘intersectional’ focus, where the traditional lines of action for the defence and promotion of women’s rights intersect and overlap with the fight against other forms of discrimination, such as those based on sexual and relational orientation, gender identity, disability and ethnicity.

An analysis of the responses shows that combating gender-based violence is the main social mission of 51.32% of the mapped organisations, followed by a large segment mainly engaged in the promotion of LGBTQI+ rights (15%). A third segment exhibits a generic focus on gender equality (9.46%) and then activities promoting the culture of and for women (9.17%). The latter category includes many organisations and collectives that make use of cultural and social events as opportunities to conduct awareness-raising activities and occasions for fundraising and gaining new members. Lastly, feminist organisations dealing with specific issues, such as sexual and reproductive health (2.54%), migration (2.29%), combating racism (2.1%) and promoting the rights of human immunodeficiency virus-positive (HIV+) people were found (Chart 5).

Chart 5. Social mission of organisations



The country appears homogenous with respect to the missions of the feminist organisations that this research has mapped. In all three macro-areas, the main mission remains, proportionally, the fight against VAW. In particular, the north hosts 43.35% of the mapped organisations, the south 29.66% and the centre 27%.

Nonetheless, for some intersectional themes differences emerge between the macro-areas. For example, support for the migrant population with a feminist or gender perspective seems to have little representation in organisations in the southern regions, where only one organisation could be detected compared to the 23 mapped in the north and centre. Some emerging issues in the feminist movement, such as climate change and mental health, are also almost exclusively represented by organisations in the north and centre. It is also important to emphasise that in the south, there do not seem to emerge organisations that deal from a gender perspective with issues such as the rights of women with disabilities, HIV awareness, the right to housing, prisoners' rights, sex work and sports.

The over-representation of organisations and collectives engaged in the fight against VAW can be explained by several factors, but two appear preponderant. First, Italy continues to record an alarming incidence of VAW (stalking, harassment and femicide), and this has motivated many organisations to respond to the urgent need for services and assistance for victims. Second, Italian legislation recognises some organisations as AVCs. These structures, to which the main task of combating gender-based violence is delegated, play a crucial role in public assistance to women who suffer violence or are threatened by it. According to the National Research Council, in 2017, more than 75% of AVCs and services re-

ceived public funding.⁴⁷ Considering their crucial importance in the landscape of assistance to women victims of gender-based violence, it is not surprising that the 405 AVCs identified make up 38.68% of the women's and gender rights promotion initiatives mapped in this research.⁴⁸

However, it is noteworthy that under the umbrella mission 'combating gender-based violence' and the title of AVCs, a varied range of other activities and services find their place: in addition to providing safe havens, psychological support and legal assistance, AVCs conduct violence-prevention initiatives through educational programmes and awareness-raising campaigns and provide support for women's economic independence through opportunities for reintegration into the labour market.

Another interesting aspect is the scarce presence of third-sector organisations dedicated to the issue of labour rights in the face of Italy's general backwardness regarding women's employment. As we have already mentioned, this research did not include the many and various associations representing categories of female professionals, managers or business owners that carry out important work in promoting and consolidating women's issues in representation. However, excluding this type of high-end association focused on the presence of women at the top, very few civil society organisations were identified that deal with demands relating to paid work, the non-recognition of care work, the increasing fragmentation and precariousness of the female labour market and the growing difficulties in protecting rights. Among those mapped, some offer labour market orientation services, training sessions to improve skills, awareness-raising activities and language courses for non-Italian speakers.

⁴⁷ CNR, (2019), I centri e i servizi antiviolenza in Italia: quanti sono e come funzionano secondo l'indagine Istat- Cnr. 10/07/2019. <https://www.cnr.it/en/news/8856/i-centri-e-i-servizi-antiviolenza-in-italia-quant-sono-e-come-funzionano-secondo-l-indagine-istat-cnr>.

⁴⁸ See methodological notes.

Given the serious lack of sectoral policies to support women's employment in Italy, several interpretative keys can be attempted to explain the lack of attention from the feminist movement. Perhaps one of the main reasons has to do with the nature of the trade unions in Italy, which, for many decades, assumed the general protection, including in the courts, of female workers. The vacuum left in recent decades by the profound crisis of trade union representativeness regarding precisely the most marginalised groups, subject to multiple inequalities, does not seem to have given rise to the emergence and proactivity of new subjects in the feminist sphere.

Certainly, in recent years, the attention of public opinion has often focused not so much on women's growing difficulties in the workplace (barriers to access, wage poverty, involuntary part-time work, blackmail on maternity, etc.) but mainly on equality and women's possibility of breaking through the so-called 'glass ceilings' in the progression of their career path, implicitly confirming the idea that this was the primary objective to be achieved without reasoning from a more collective and intersectional perspective.

3.4 CONNECTIVITY AND DIGITALISATION

Access to the Internet and broadband connectivity are some of the prerequisites for the spread of information and communication technologies (ICT) among the population and, consequently, among local authorities. According to the ISTAT report on Citizens and ICT,⁴⁹ in 2019, 76.1% of households in Italy had access to the Internet and 74.7% had a broadband connection. There are also differences between municipalities of different demographic sizes: in metropolitan areas, broadband access rates reached 78.1%, whereas in municipalities with up to 2,000 inhabitants, the share drops to 68%. Puglia and Calabria were the regions with the lowest share of Internet users (59.7% and 60.1%, respectively).⁵⁰

In this research, the possession of a website was used as a proxy for the degree of digitalisation of organisations. The management of a website requires a greater investment in terms of skills and resources than the management of a social media account (both for IT conception and implementation and for the necessary continuous technical updates). The result observed is that only 64.47% of the entities mapped have a website. The data on feminist organisations confirm the regional trends highlighted by ISTAT: in northern Italy, 73.02% of feminist organisations have a website, in central Italy, they are 65.25% and in the South only 50.51%.

However, in addition to factors such as the scarcity of financial resources – more salient in the south – and the lack of IT capacity within the organisation, for many more informal entities, the need for a website is low, and a presence on social media is considered sufficient.

⁴⁹ ISTAT, (2019), Aumenta l'uso di Internet ma il 41,6% degli internauti ha competenze digitali basse, <https://www.istat.it/it/files/2019/12/Cittadini-e-ICT-2019.pdf>.

⁵⁰ Ibid.



4. SURVEY AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

4. SURVEY AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

To confirm some of the quantitative demographic analyses and acquire further information, an in-depth questionnaire was sent to the organisations in the database. The survey aimed to investigate the activities, available resources, needs and challenges encountered by Italian feminist organisations in pursuing their social purpose.

A total of 184 organisations agreed to fill out the questionnaire. Unfortunately, the number of responses is too small to consider the evidence gathered to be representative of the universe that emerged from the desk research analysis. However, the additional information provided by a substantial number of organisations active across the country enriches the picture of the state of the feminist movement by offering a cross-section of its activities and operational needs.

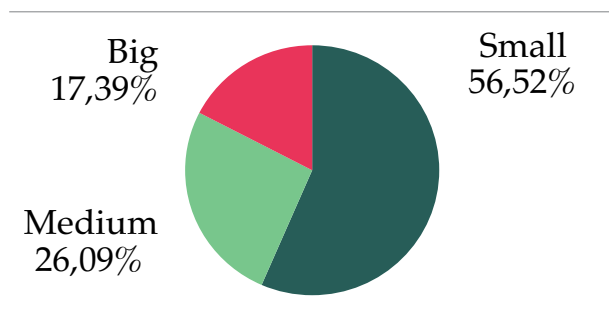
4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF PARTICIPATING ORGANISATIONS

Although organisations located in all Italian regions responded to the survey, Latium (12.5%) and Emilia-Romagna (11.96%) are the most represented regions, confirming the large number of organisations on their territory. Additionally, in the distribution according to macro-areas, 40% of the answers came from northern Italy and 22% from the southern regions. The least represented regions are Basilicata, Marche, Molise and Valle d'Aosta. Of the 184 organisations surveyed, most are in a metropolitan area (39.1%) or a large metropolitan area (30.4%), and the questionnaire did not reach organisations in small towns or rural areas.

The size of the organisations confirms the results of the demographic survey, with more than half of the organisations (56.5%) involving between two and 15 people (members, employees and volunteers) in their activities. Organisations with more than 30 people exceeded the proportion observed through the desk research (10.51%), representing 17.39% of the total (Chart 6). Among the responding organisations, 129

(70.11%) are established as associations and 30 (16.30%) as collectives, while the rest include movements, social enterprises and networks. In addition, 12.5% of the responding organisations stated that they work at the national level. Most organisations with more than 30 people operate in more than one city, organise events at specific intervals or are part of networks or partnerships.

Chart 6. Size



The greater presence of the larger associations and organisations compared to the distribution of the demographic analysis can probably be explained by the fact that the more structured and digitised organisations grasped the survey more easily and were more willing and interested in participating in it.

4.2 ADAPTATION TO THE REFORM OF THE THIRD SECTOR

The organisations interviewed were asked about their position on the process of formalisation and registration on the National Single Third-Sector Register (RUNTS) established at the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies to qualify as third-sector entities (ETS). This adjustment operation required by the law reforming the third sector is an important fulfilment that allows organisations to obtain significant economic benefits such as tax breaks, 5x1000⁵¹ and, for specific types of ETS, participation in calls for public contributions or agreements with public administrations.

In the sample analysed in this research, only 61.41% of the organisations are registered on the RUNTS. Excluding collectives and movements, which are in any case informal entities, the total proportion of registered organisations is 81%. Although this number may seem significant, the existence of legally constituted organisations that renounce adaptation and registration on the RUNTS raises fears of the disappearance over time of a conspicuous number of organisations in areas of the country where their presence is already scarce.

4.3 COMMUNICATION AND DIGITALISATION

Of the organisations that completed the questionnaire, 35.87% do not have a website, a figure in line with the national average found in the quantitative analysis; 53% of them are associations. Organisations were also asked to indicate the main channels they use for communication with donors and beneficiaries. An analysis of the answers shows that social networks, which have no direct costs, are the most used channel to give visibility to the work of the organisations and reach the desired audience.

Few organisations, however, have an integrated strategy between the different channels; therefore, even if social networks act as catalysts of attention, they nevertheless remain predominantly everyday means of information that, without the combined use of other tools and technologies, are inefficient in terms of retaining and activating audiences and, thus, obtaining significant results in terms of participation, donation or activism.

⁵¹ The 5x1000 refers to a share of the IRPEF tax, which the Italian State distributes to support organisations carrying out socially relevant activities. Payment is at the discretion of the citizen-taxpayer, at the time of the tax return.

Table 3. Communication channels

Communication channel	Association	%	Other	%
Social network	120	93,02	57	103,64
Website	94	72,87	24	43,64
E-mail	64	49,61	12	21,82

Search engine optimisation on one's website and e-mail marketing (newsletters) are among the most effective tools for audience retention and adherence because they enable the in-depth coverage of topics, the personalisation of content and numerous mechanisms of engagement. However, they are the least used tools by feminist organisations.

4.4 PRIMARY MISSION AND FOCUS AREAS

The following table shows what organisations state as their primary mission. Confirming the results of the quantitative analysis, in first place is the fight against gender-based violence (29.35%), in second place the promotion of gender equality (17.93%) and in third place LGBTQI+ rights (14.13%).

In addition to the organisation's primary mission, the survey asked to indicate in greater detail all the areas of intervention on which operational activities are focused, choosing as many as desired from the table below. This analysis reveals a different image of the movement, with interesting aspects of intersectionality.

Combating gender-based violence is confirmed as the dominant theme across the movement, with 76% of organisations claiming to deal with it in some form. This is followed by reproductive and sexual health and rights, which interest 37.50% of organisations (compared to 7% who reported it as their primary mission). Support for LGBTQI+ people, which is declared as the primary mission by 14.13% of the organisations in the sample, is included among the issues dealt with by 53% of organisations. Similarly, only 4.35% of organisations declare working with migrant women and anti-racism issues as their primary mission, but 43% include it among their themes.

This broadening of the primary missions to include issues of gender and ethnicity reveals how the Italian movement is widely embracing and implementing the theme of

intersectionality. Some organisations also mentioned more contemporary issues such as the fight against climate change, the rights of disabled people, sex work or mental health, as well as the inclusion of men in the struggle against patriarchal structures, which are emerging in the context of feminist activism.

Importantly, women's work and domestic and care work remain an absolute minority area of intervention for the organisations interviewed, and, in general, women's employment is often understood as the labour reintegration of women victims of violence. This is significant in a context such as Italy, the country with the lowest female employment rate in the EU, where most women do not have economic independence, with profound consequences for personal freedom and choice. Women's inequalities

in employment have deep cultural, family and social roots that are embedded from early childhood and reinforced, after the apparent equality at primary and secondary school, by the horizontal segregation of higher education and work.

Chart 7. Primary area of intervention

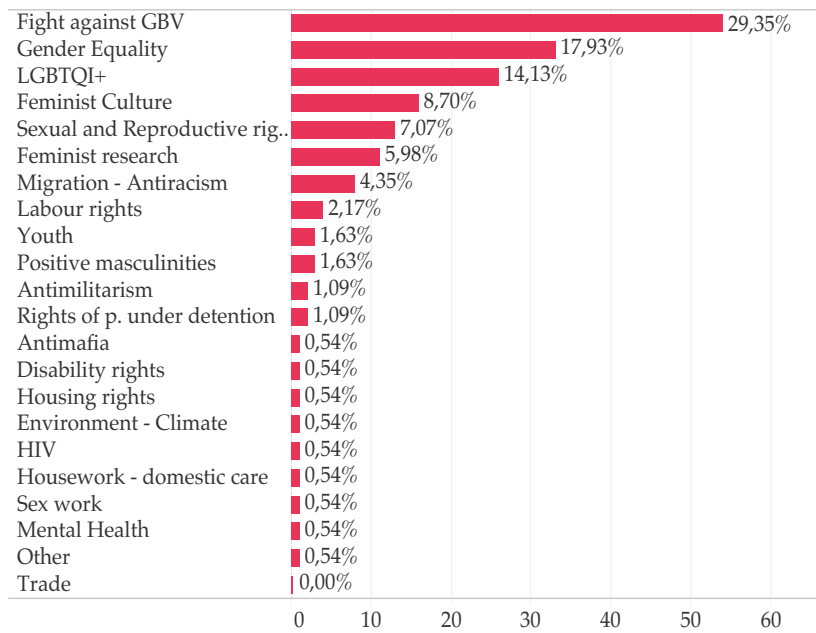
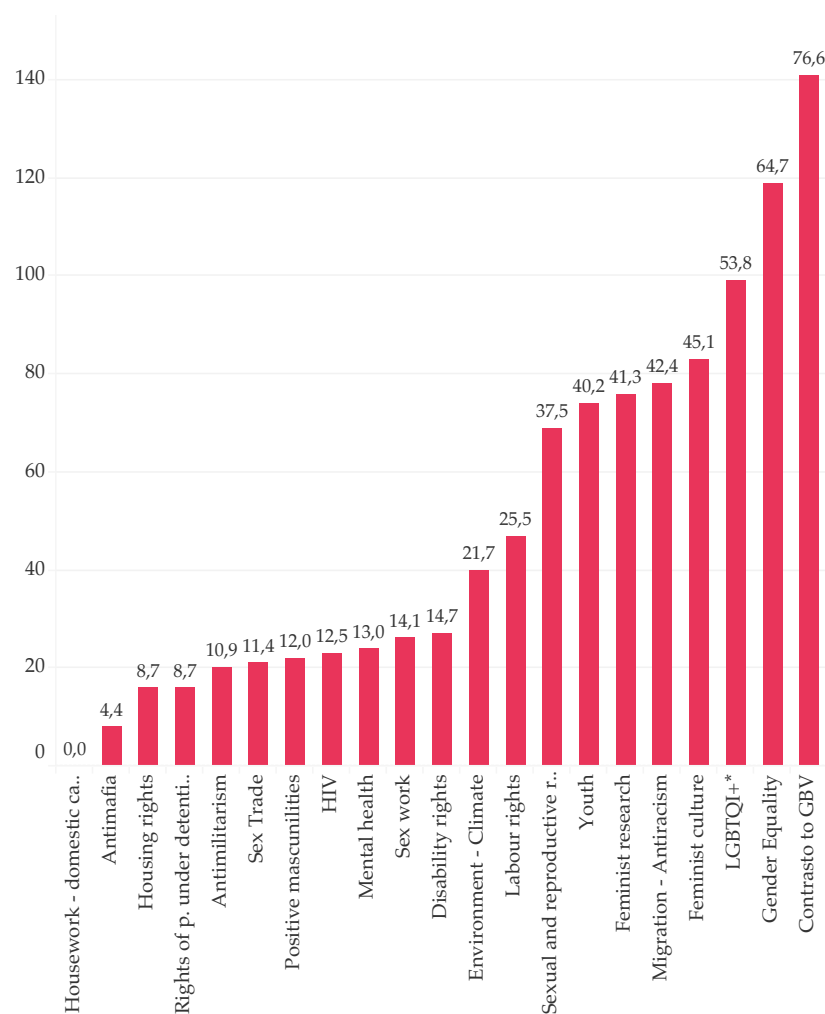


Chart 8. Areas of intervention



4.5 FINANCIAL AVAILABILITY AND STRUCTURAL COSTS

When asked about the size of their budget in 2022, more than half of the organisations (59.24%) stated that they operated with less than €25,000 and only 3.26% with more than €500,000 (Table 4). It is important to mention that some organisations reported operating with a budget well below €25,000. Finally, 30 organisations (16.3%) chose not to declare their annual budget.

Table 4. Budget of organisations in 2022

Budget	N°	%
< 25,000	109	59,24
Da 25,000 a 100,000	27	14,67
Da 100,000 a 500,000	12	6,25
> 500,000	6	3,26
ND	30	16,30

Among organisations with an average budget between €25,000 and €100,000, 93% are associations, whereas around 83% of the collectives operate with less than €25,000, but most of them (84%) were established within the previous three years. Of the 18 organisations operating with more than €100,000, 77% are in the centre-north.

4.6 SOURCES OF FUNDING

Per approfondire l'indagine sulle capacità finanziarie delle organizzazioni, si è anche chiesto To further investigate the financial capacities of organisations, the latter were also asked to indicate their two main sources of funding over the past three years. The results offer interesting insights and highlight critical aspects for the growth of the movement.

Given the large number of associations in the sample, it is expected that dues and membership fees are the most common source of funding. Surprisingly, however, 27% of organisations mention this as their only source of livelihood. In fact, since the 1970s, self-financing has been the historical source of funding for many feminist organisations, guaranteeing limited but free funds for use in associative activities. The limitations of self-financing from membership fees are evident given the small number of members declared by the organisations, which rarely exceed 30.

The inability to develop broader and more diversified strategies for sources of sustenance and development over the past de-

cares is at the root of the structural lack of sustainability and capacity of third-sector organisations in Italy. These organisations are caught in a constant cycle of hunger due to a double constraint: chronic failure to invest in so-called structural costs and dependence on funding tied to micro-projects⁵².

In some cases, self-financing is boosted by membership activities and programmes among an affiliated public interested in the activities of the organisations and by donations from private individuals (13%). Donations from the public through appeals and crowdsourcing activities are also relatively frequent (25%).

⁵² Carazzone, C., (2018), Vita, <https://www.vita.it/due-miti-da-sfatare-per-evitare-lagonia-del-terzo-settore/>.

Table 5. Types of funding

Type of funding	Diversified sources	%	Only source	%
Self-funding/Membership	128	70	50	27
Public tenders	70	38	12	7
Donation from the public	46	25	3	2
Italian Private Foundations	26	14	0	0
Individual Philanthropy	23	13	0	0
Corporate	20	11	1	1
UE tenders and Internat Cooperation	19	10	0	0
Local funds	9	5	0	0
Foreign donors	5	3	0	0

The second most frequent source of funding for responding organisations is public tenders issued by the state, regions and municipalities: 38% of the organisations have received some, and 7% declare them as their only source of funding. A further 10% of responding organisations claim to have experience with European calls for proposals. Calls for tenders generally define priorities, themes, project timetables and subject activities and their implementation and reporting to very binding parameters. Financial dependence on calls for tenders has left little freedom of action for the organisations of the Italian feminist movement in terms of real advocacy strategies and systemic change.

Relatively less frequent is funding from private-sector institutions, with only 14% of the responding organisations receiving donations from Italian foundations. This confirms that very few private foundations in the country still devote resources to the promotion of women's empowerment from a feminist and gender perspective. Although occasional donations are made to specific projects, the approach of Italian foundations to gender issues does not seem to result in real grant-making strategies, neither with permanently dedicated grant lines nor with an intentional and measurable mainstream approach.

Also interesting is the emergence of collaborations with local companies, which nonetheless offer support to only 11% of organisations. Very few of the larger organisations (3%) have developed relationships with foreign foundations.

Analysing the data on the type of funding of feminist organisations in Italy according to the size of the city in which they are based, we observe that overall, self-funding/membership fees are the most common funding source for feminist organisations in all size categories. Public subsidies play a significant role in the survival but not in the development and sustainability of feminist organisations, especially in large metropolitan areas. The availability of public resources is greater in cities where local autonomy makes more resources available. In the metropolitan areas, a few larger and more structured organisations also have access to European and international cooperation funds.

4.7 NETWORK COLLABORATION

To test the level of aggregation and collaboration within the movement, we asked the organisations whether they belonged to national or international networks and, if so, on which activities these collaborations were based. This allowed us to analyse whether participation in the pursuit of common goals is extensive and continuous or whether it is limited to carrying out specific activities.

The answers show that there are connections and collaborations between feminist organisations at different geographical levels, and only 33% of them state that they do not work in a network. More than half of the organisations that stated that they participate in networks (59.02%) do so at the level of local networks, while a significant

percentage (41.53%) collaborate in national networks. Few organisations (11.48%) belong to international networks.

45% of the feminist organisations involved in networks collaborate mainly on the implementation of specific projects while 31% state that they pursue a common political agenda

4.8 OBSTACLES TO ACTION AND ACTIVISM

Finally, the survey asked organisations about operational difficulties preventing more incisive action. As might be expected, among the various obstacles that feminist organisations in Italy can identify, lack of funds for projects or structural costs is the most cited (61%). Insufficient financial resources are not the only impediment to action, however, and the lack of space and infrastructure (offices, meeting places and spaces for activities) accounts for 20% of the responses.

Table 6. Barriers to action and activism

Lack of project & core funds	✖	113 61,41%
Resistance from the context	✖	38 20,65%
Lack of spaces & infrastructure	✖	38 20,65%
Lack of strategy (communication, fun..)	✖	29 15,76%
Lack of training & personnel	✖	27 14,67%
Lack of planning capacity	✖	26 14,13%
Lack of local networks	✖	18 9,78%
Policies and laws in force	✖	18 9,78%
Other	✖	9 4,89%

Although, as already pointed out, the sample examined cannot be considered representative of the entire movement, it includes a significant number of larger and more structured organisations. It is therefore interesting to note the considerable percentage of these organisations declaring a lack of skills and resources as an obstacle to achieving their goals and making a significant impact.

Like other segments of civil society, the feminist movement now understands the limits of the voluntarist approach and the need to acquire, at least in some areas, other tools for more incisive and coherent action. Insufficient strategic and planning capacity as well as the lack of qualified personnel limit not only the success of activities on the ground but also organisations' ability to raise private and public institutional funds. Meanwhile, shortcomings in strategic communication approaches and fundraising

techniques reduce both the impact of public awareness strategies and organisations' ability to mobilise resources from the public.

Finally, many organisations emphasise the difficulties created by resistance and opposition from the wider socio-cultural environment. This may be gender bias, negative stereotypes or resistance to change on the part of certain social groups.

4.9 RELEVANCE OF POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS

To get a measure of the organisations' perception of the impact of political-economic factors, we asked whether the outcome of the general elections in 2022 might present new challenges to the feminist movement and gender equality issues. Keeping in mind that the sample analysed is not representative of all feminist organisations and that there might be different opinions and perceptions within the movement, most feminist organisations responding to the survey (58.47%) believe that the current political dynamics might influence their work and the realisation of their missions on all major issues. Some missions, such as mental health, domestic and care work, trafficking and sex work, seem to be less influenced by the political context.

Table 7. The main missions perceived as influenced by the elections

Mission	%	Positive answers	Total
LGBTQI+	77	20	26
Gender Equality	60	20	33
Feminist culture	56	9	16
Contrast to GBV	53	29	54
Labour rights	50	2	4
Sexual and reproductive rights	46	6	13
Feminist research	45	5	11
Migration - Antiracism	37	3	8

In the detailed responses about how feminist organisations believe that elections could influence their work, the following emerges:

1. Limitations on funds and resources:

- a. Lack of spaces and facilities for activities
- b. Potential limitations on funds allocated to women's and LGBTQI+ needs

2. Limited attention to associationism and the female world:

- a. Reduced collaborations with public administration
- b. Lack of support and backing for organisations from institutions
- c. Obstacles to cultural advancement and the establishment of feminist spaces

3. Policies of exclusion and hatred towards gender differences:

- a. Ideological battle against gender diversity and the LGBTIQ+ movement
- b. Attacks on the rights of women and transgender individuals and intimidation of schools
- c. Gender policies conflicting with feminist policies

4. Reduction of rights and limitations of freedom:

- a. Restriction of access to abortion and reproductive health
- b. Potential constraints on personal and civil rights
- c. Impediments to open discussion of rights
- d. Risk of losing gains achieved by the women's movement



5. CASE STUDY: STRATEGIC, ORGANISATIONAL AND PROJECT MANAGEMENT SKILLS

5. CASE STUDY: STRATEGIC, ORGANISATIONAL AND PROJECT MANAGEMENT SKILLS

To gain a better understanding of the challenges that prevent feminist organisations from achieving their goals, it appeared useful to examine certain internal inefficiencies related to a lack of strategic, organisational and planning skills. To this end, we interviewed 22 organisations that reported these shortcomings as the main obstacle to their work.

The in-depth interviews were structured around the main areas of internal organisation: conversion to ETS, human resources management and training, strategic development, planning and reporting, communication and fundraising.

5.1 ADAPTATION TO THE REFORM OF THE THIRD SECTOR

Of the 22 organisations interviewed, 18 adapted their structure in the terms outlined by the reform of the third sector, citing their main motivation as easier access to public, European or university funding (8), the possibility of offering specific services (7) and collaborating with partners, including institutional ones (4). For those that decided not to convert their structure into an ETS, the reasons cited were mainly a lack of understanding and training (2), bureaucratic difficulties (2), costs (2) and the desire to maintain an informal structure.

5.2 HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT AND TRAINING

All the organisations interviewed rely on voluntary contributions, and the majority (19) operate primarily, if not solely, with voluntary contributions from their members. In four cases, paid work is not stable but related to professional roles and competencies within specific projects. Only three organisations do not use voluntary work.

The organisations remain flexible regarding the type of commitment required of staff volunteers, which is not predetermined, and the roles assigned are often adapted to individual availability. There is an awareness of the need to provide some level of training and induction support to voluntary contributors (10), although the implementation of induction and training practices varies greatly from one organisation to another in terms of content and structure. For example, some organisations limit themselves to informal learning through the involvement of new volunteers in activities, whereas in a few cases, the involvement of volunteers is subject to specific criteria, such as participation in training meetings or preliminary discussions.

Some organisations (5) boast an established and stable volunteer member base, suggesting a high degree of satisfaction

and commitment. However, 17 organisations highlight the problem of volunteer turnover, which is often linked to reasons such as changes of residence, study commitments, paid work opportunities or better volunteering opportunities. Although this turnover can bring new energy and perspectives, it also represents a serious challenge to the consistency and effectiveness of the activities carried out.

Organisations use volunteers in a wide range of roles and activities, ranging from participation in specific projects, administration and event organisation to initiative management, research and data processing. In addition, different modes of teamwork and collaboration between volunteer members emerge, with some organisations favouring a more structured approach (8) and others relying on a process of self-organisation (11).

5.3 STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT

Another aspect considered in the interviews was the ability to act in a planned and strategic manner. The basic interview questions concerned the existence of an internal strategy with medium-term objectives, the tools used for this development and whether this strategy is subject to periodic reviews. Of the 22 organisations interviewed, 12 reported having worked on the development of an internal strategy, although none had ever used strategic planning tools and methodologies. The remaining organisations stated that they did not have a well-defined internal strategy (10).

Many of the organisations that declare having an internal strategy (7) focus on annual objectives, revising them from year to year according to contextual conditions, available funds and the impact of initiatives. However, the strategies described appear more as informal tactics based mainly on experience and direct practice and are evaluated positively for their effectiveness in meeting the immediate needs of the community or target audience.

Among the 10 organisations without a defined strategic process, the tendency is to decide on short-term projects and objectives, often in the face of new financial availabilities and through confrontation between members. These practices are linked to traditional *modi operandi*, the focus on specific projects (6), lack of time (4) and lack of expertise (3). All organisations without an internal strategy expressed interest in receiving training in this area but struggle to find the necessary time and willingness on the part of the people involved (17).

5.4 ACTIVITY PLANNING, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Activity planning is often dependent on fundraising opportunities through self-financing or accessing public and private grants. In the case of the latter, grant rules generally outline and often establish the necessary indicators to demonstrate the impact of activities, which differs from the situation regarding free activities.

A variety of approaches are adopted to monitor the impact of free activities, ranging from informal ones based on collective discussion to the use of more structured tools and actual performance indicators. The choice of approach often depends on the nature and complexity of the organisation's activities. However, most organisations (18) claim to possess a monitoring and evaluation system, albeit simple and basic.

Some of them (4) state a preference for open and free discussion within the group over a formal monitoring measurement system. This approach is often chosen when organisations manage few projects and prefer qualitative evaluation or in organisation that are still at an early stage and lack the technical capacity to implement a structured monitoring system.

The organisations using a monitoring and evaluation system for their activities (18) mentioned diverse systems:

- Quarterly and annual reports on the organisation's work, providing a comprehensive overview of the activities conducted
- Setting indicators provided by funding calls for activity monitoring
- Quantitative evaluation reports and tests
- Internal databases to monitor specific projects, recording obstacles and solutions

Overall, most organisations adopt a 'hands-on' approach that combines qualitative and quantitative assessments to measure the effectiveness of their activities without establishing strategic evaluation protocols or activities and objective monitoring indicators.

5.5 COMMUNICATION

Among the 22 organisations interviewed, only three do not have a website. The reasons for this lack of digital presence are linked to limited internal resources and capabilities for website creation and management (3) as well as not considering it a priority (1). The remaining 19 organisations with websites have various management methods and update frequencies, including content reviews once a week (3), once or twice a month (4) and every four or six months (4). Apart from websites, social media stands out as the most used communication channel, with 19.8% of organisations using Instagram and 18.6% using Facebook.

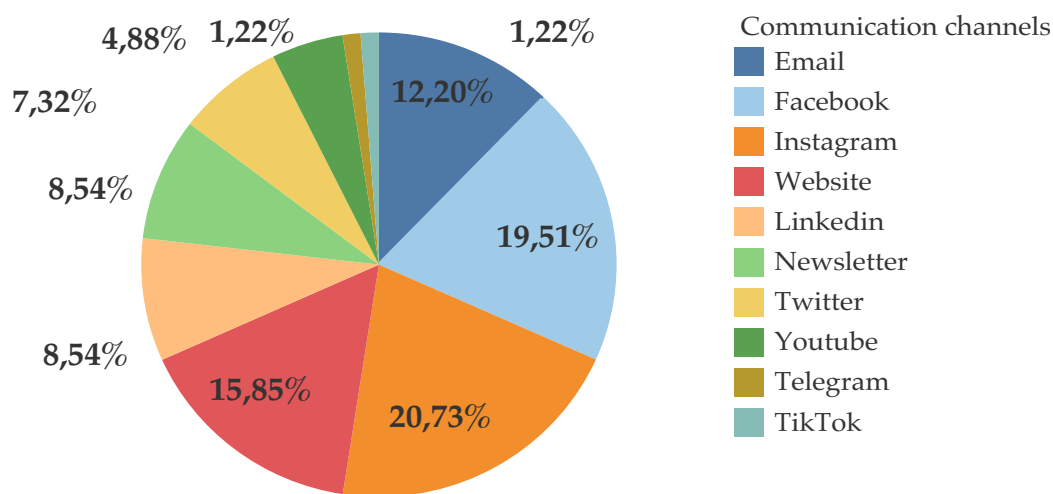
Half of the entities surveyed believe that improving communication channels would be useful. However, among the main obstacles are the lack of time and/or personnel (12), insufficient funds (5) and inadequate digital communication skills (4).

In most cases, for maintaining these channels, management is handled internally (14). Some organisations that possess a dedicated communication team have not developed a specific strategy for audience segmentation, thus differentiating between communication channels (13), or implemented systems for monitoring and evaluating communication activities (9). The organisations claiming to have a communication strategy (2) mainly referred to a shared editorial calendar (3) and a general

definition of goals and features (1). No organisation mentioned paid online promotion campaigns or a consistent investment in social network development.

Those using communication monitoring and evaluation tools (11) utilize Meta's tools (8), website views (1), Mailchimp insights (1) or Google Analytics (1). Some organisations expressed interest in receiving training in communication (10), primarily to stay updated on tools and strategy development (9).

Chart 9. Communication channels



5.6 FUNDRAISING

In the questionnaire, a minimum budget range of €25,000 was established. During the interviews, it emerged that many organisations operate with a significantly lower budget than this threshold.

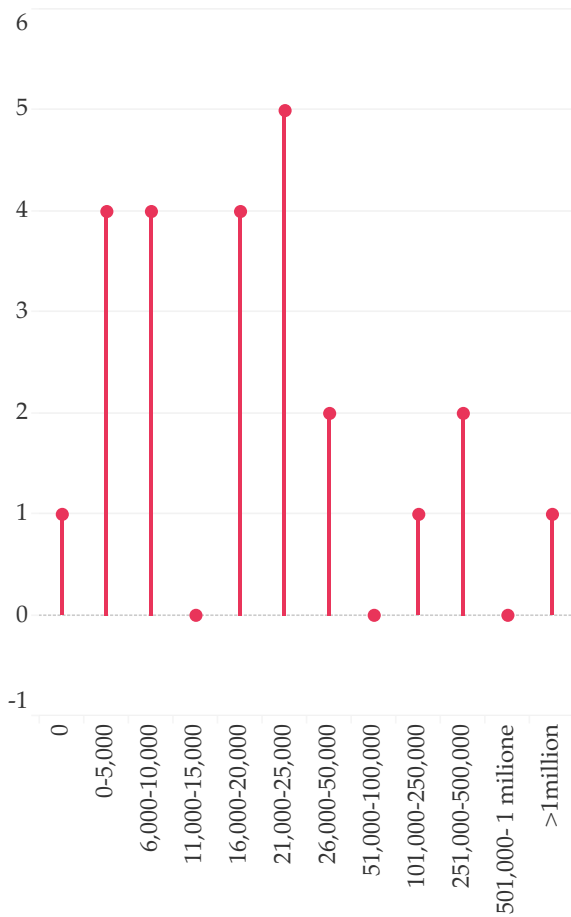
Much of the budget, between 80% and 100%, is allocated to project implementation, while only a small portion is invested in structural costs or other internal initiatives within the organisation. During the interviews, a strong need was expressed to secure funds dedicated to the organisation's structural costs rather than solely for project design.

With regard to fundraising, organisations that rely on a single source of funding

and do not look for alternatives cite several reasons, including the desire to break free from the control of design (1) and the inability to devise alternative fundraising strategies (1), participate in tenders because they do not align with the organisation's values (1) and participate in projects in the lead role (1).

The desire to access diverse funding sources is widely expressed as necessary, but the lack of skills (7), time (3) or resources

Chart 10. Annual budget



(2), along with difficulties in navigating the bureaucratic processes around fundraising (2), makes this ambition unattainable. Among the interviewed organisations, only a few (7) reported having a dedicated individual or team for fundraising, whereas the majority (12) do not have a designated person specifically trained for fundraising.

When asked whether there were individuals within the organisation willing to undergo training, many organisations (8) answered positively. Specifically, they requested training on regional, national and European grants (6), crowdfunding (3), self-financing strategies (2), corporate fundraising (1), public funding (1), collection of the 5x1000 (1) or developing a comprehensive sustainability strategy (1).

Some organisations showed no interest in training because of a lack of staff (2), time (1) or interest in increasing their funds (1).



METHODOLOGY

METHODOLOGY

DESK RESEARCH

Within the context of this study, the definition of feminist organisation broadly includes all organisations advocating for, promoting and defending the economic, civil and political rights of women, girls and other gender identities. This definition does not necessarily reflect expressions of self-identification from the mapped organisations themselves. Indeed, a significant portion of the contemporary Italian feminist movement self-identifies with the term ‘transfeminist’, marking the expansion of the gender concept from a binary model to the acceptance of the existence of diverse trans and non-binary identities. Some other organisations, while not excluding trans identities, still define themselves as ‘feminist’; others exclusively focus on cisgender women (such as in terms of reproductive health), while some identify as ‘intersectional’ or reference objectives of personal empowerment. The deliberately expansive definition aims to include not only organisations dealing with traditional women’s rights issues but also those working from an intersectional perspective on specific themes such as race, class, gender, sexual orientation, gender identity, disability, physical appearance, migration status and geographic origin.

The desk research was primarily conducted through internet search engines but was enriched by social network analyses and recommendations from the organisations mapped. Entities not active on their social media or website for over three years were not included in the mapping.

Because the mapping was functional to the activities of the SEMIA Women’s Fund within the third sector, organisations affi-

liated with or clearly financed by political parties, governmental, regional, provincial or municipal institutions or religious entities were not mapped. Associations representing professional categories, managers or business owners and third-sector female associations were also excluded, as well as women’s sections of certain unions, as they do not fall under the recognised third-sector entities that the foundation primarily engages with.

Throughout the research, the following data was collected:

Region: In the case of an organisation headquartered in a different region than where activities are conducted, the legal address was recorded. When the legal address was not disclosed, the location where most activities were conducted was considered.

City: When possible, the city where the legal headquarters is located has been reported, otherwise, the location where organisations conduct their main activities. Several AVCs and shelters have their main headquarters in a city and secondary offices in smaller towns. In such cases, only the main headquarters was mapped. The same applies to large national organisations that have offices and secondary branches across the country.

City size: To classify city sizes, the OECD parameter was used, including smaller agglomerations, and categorised as follows:

- Major functional urban areas (FUA) with over 1.5 million inhabitants
- Metropolitan FUA with 251,000 to 1.5 million inhabitants
- Medium-sized FUA with 101,000 to 250,000 inhabitants
- Small FUA with 51,000 to 100,000 inhabitants
- Cities with 11,000 to 50,000 inhabitants
- Towns with 6,000 to 10,000 inhabitants
- Rural areas with less than 6,000 inhabitants

Organisation size: Where the website mentions the number of voluntary members and/or employees, the organisation's size was estimated. When this data was not available, the organisation was classified as 'small'. Movements and networks were classified as 'large'.

The classification of organisation size is as follows:

- Small: 2–15 people
- Medium: 16–30 people
- Large: 30+ people

Type of organisation: Based on the available information, the legal status of the mapped entity was collected and categorised as follows:

- Association (Non-Profit Organisation of Social Utility - ONLUS, Voluntary Organisation - ODV, Social Promotion Association - APS): Legally registered and non-profit.
- Collective: A group of individuals sharing a common goal and meeting regularly.
- Cooperative: Legally registered organisation that can derive partial profit from its activities.
- Foundation: Legally registered implementing or grant-giving organisation with a fund for a specific cause.

- Social enterprise: Private entity mainly conducting a business activity of general interest, non-profit and for civic, solidarity and social utility purposes.
- Movement: An aggregation of individuals and formal or informal organisations that identify with a specific idea, ideology, purpose or manifesto and act towards achieving a common objective.
- Network: An entity that serves as a catalyst for a group of people and/or organisations to facilitate actions aimed at achieving common goals as well as sharing information and practices.

Mission and secondary mission: Based on the information gathered from websites or social media, the primary mission of the organisations, that is, the main area of intervention pursued with a gender perspective, was mapped out.

The intervention areas were categorized as follows:

- Anti-mafia: Initiatives and perspectives aimed at combating organised crime and the culture of subjugation to mafia powers from a gender perspective.
- Anti-militarism: Disarmament and opposition to programmes of war armament and military service.
- Migration and/or anti-racism: Counteracting discriminatory policies and practices towards diverse ethnicities and organising support services for migrants, from education to legal support, employment guidance and housing.
- Environment or fight against climate change: Environmental protection and/or combating climate collapse and promoting the ecological transition.
- Rights of detained persons: Awareness about conditions within prisons and support for incarcerated individuals through testimonies, campaigns, legal support and financial assistance.
- Feminist culture: Cultural activities such as book presentations, film screenings, public debates, theatre performances, art exhibitions and concerts, among others.
- Right to housing: Protection and promotion of housing rights or management of living spaces.
- Disability rights: Activities or content production regarding the rights of persons with disabilities.
- Youth and education: Rights of young people and students, including projects involving children.
- HIV: Support or informational content regarding HIV+.
- Care and domestic work: Practices related to informal domestic work and work for dependent individuals like children and the elderly.
- Labour rights: Employment orientation services, skill enhancement training, awareness activities and language courses for non-native Italian speakers.
- Sex work: Advocacy for the rights of sex workers through awareness events, providing informational content, legal assistance, economic support or accommodation.

- **LGBTQI+:** Defence and promotion of LGBTQI+ rights through information, lobbying, events and community support.
- **Positive masculinities:** Awareness activities on the negative effects of toxic masculinity on men, including events, seminars and psychological support.
- **Gender research/data:** Research, data aggregation, and content development with a gender approach.
- **Mental health:** Free mental health support or production of informational content on mental health issues.
- **Sexual and reproductive health and rights:** Promotion and protection activities, production of informational materials, sexual education and awareness activities, including healthcare for trans individuals.
- **Sport:** Sports as a tool for integration, educational activities for youth, or management of a collective space aiming for gender equality.
- **Human trafficking:** Awareness campaigns, lobbying and content production on human trafficking, legal or psychological support or accommodation for victims.
- **Gender equality:** Various activities and content production aimed at accelerating the pursuit of gender equality.
- **Combating gender-based violence:** Counteracting VAW and gender-based violence through psychological, legal or economic support or reintegration into the workforce.

Organisational structure: To define the type of organisational structure, the website or social media profiles were reviewed to extract elements indicative of a greater or lesser degree of internal organisation. Apart from formal registration and inclusion in the RUNTS, the existence of a registered bank account, assigned roles and tasks, tools for short- and medium-term planning, annual reports, communication channels and fundraising techniques were considered.

Digitalisation: The presence of a website was taken as a proxy for the level of digitalisation.

Macro-areas: The country was conventionally divided into:

- **North:** Liguria, Lombardy, Piedmont, Aosta Valley, Emilia-Romagna, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Trentino-Alto Adige, Veneto
- **Centre:** Lazio, Marche, Tuscany, Umbria
- **South:** Abruzzo, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, Molise, Puglia, Sardinia and Sicily

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

For qualitative analysis via a survey, a questionnaire comprising 23 questions was designed. The questionnaire was sent to the e-mail addresses collected during the previous phase or from social media pages. Additionally, a gradual dissemination of the questionnaire was carried out on Semia Fondo delle Donne's social media platforms. A reminder e-mail was sent before the questionnaire's closure.

The questionnaire collected all the demographic data of the interviewed organisations according to the methodology developed previously for the demographic analysis. Additionally, it included the status of compliance with the third-sector reform and registration in the RUNTS.

To define the intervention areas, the same table used for the quantitative analysis was utilised, but the organisations were asked to indicate both their primary intervention area and any secondary areas of work.

The organisations were also requested to provide the following supplementary data:

Budget for 2022 within one of the following ranges: up to €25,000; from €25,000 to €100,000; from €100,000 to €500,000; over €500,000.

Main sources of funding in the last 3 years (multiple choice):

- Self-financing / membership fees
- Italian public grants, including agreements with ministries, municipalities and regions
- European grants / international cooperation
- Individual philanthropy
- Italian private foundations
- Foreign private foundations
- Public donations, including 5x1000
- Donations from companies or corporate social responsibility

Main communication channels with donors and beneficiaries, choosing between e-mail, newsletter, website and social networks.

Membership in local, regional or national networks with which the organisation actively collaborates and the details and terms of such collaboration (initiatives, activities, projects, events, sharing of spaces, sharing of political agenda, etc.).

Main obstacles to achieving the organisation's goals, choosing from the following options:

- Lack of funds for projects or structural costs
- Lack of project capacity

- Lack of strategy (for operations, communication and/or fundraising)
- Lack of training and/or qualified personnel
- Lack of space and infrastructure
- Resistance from the socio-cultural environment
- Lack of collaboration network with similar associations in the area
- Current regulations and laws
- Other

Expectations regarding the impact of the recent political elections (2022) on the organisation's activities and, if positive, the expected negative effect. The final question asked about the willingness to participate in a short qualitative interview.

5.9 CASE STUDY

Nearly all of the organisations that participated in the questionnaire expressed their willingness to take part in an in-depth interview scheduled for 2024. To gather more accurate information about the urgent internal organisational needs reported by the organisations, 22 organizations were selected. These are the organisations that had identified structural deficiencies within the organisation as obstacles to achieving their goals. Telephone interviews via teleconferencing were conducted with the selected organisations.

The in-depth interviews were structured around the main areas of internal organisation: human resource management and training, strategic development, project planning, reporting, communication and fundraising.

GLOSSARY

Crowdsourcing: The practice of obtaining contributions, ideas or resources from a group of people, often through online platforms or social media.

Femicide: The killing of women and girls because of their gender. It can take the form of, among others, homicide following violence by intimate partners, misogynistic torture and murder, murder of women and girls in the name of 'honour', targeted killings of women and girls in the context of armed conflict, dowry-related killings, killings of women and girls because of their sexual orientation and gender identity, killings of Indigenous and Aboriginal women and girls because of their gender, female infanticide and sex-selective feticide, deaths related to female genital mutilation, witchcraft accusations and other femicides related to gangs, organised crime, drug traffickers, human trafficking and the proliferation of small arms.⁵³

Gender data gap: The lack of accurate information regarding the experiences, needs and contributions of women and individuals of other gender identities in Italian society.

Gender identity: The deeply felt and individual experience of one's gender, which may or may not correspond to the sex assigned at birth. It includes the personal sense of the body (which may involve, if freely chosen, modification of bodily appearance or function through medical, surgical or other means) and other expressions of gender, such as clothing, language and behaviour.⁵⁴

Intersectionality: Term coined by lawyer and theorist Kimberlé Crenshaw⁵⁵ as an analytical tool useful for studying, understanding and addressing how sex and gender intersect with other personal characteristics/identities such as racial or ethnic origin, religion or personal beliefs, disability, age, sexual orientation, gender identity and others. These intersections contribute to unique experiences of discrimination. It starts from the premise that individuals live multiple and layered identities arising from social relationships, history and the functioning of power structures. Intersectional analysis aims to reveal these multiple identities, exposing different types of intersecting and multiple discrimination and disadvantages that occur as a result of the combination of identities and the intersection of sex and gender with other factors.⁵⁶

⁵³ European Institute for Uguaglianza di genere, (2023), Femicide, <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1128>.

⁵⁴ European Commission, (2012), Trans and Intersex People: Discrimination on the Grounds of Sex, Gender Identity and Gender Expression. European Network of Legal Experts in the Field of Gender Equality;

Council of Europe, (2015), Case law of the European Court of Human Rights relating to discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation or gender identity.

The definition is based on the definition contained in the Yogyakarta Principles on the Application of International Human Rights Law in relation to Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity, adopted by a group of 29 human rights experts in November 2006 in Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

⁵⁵ Crenshaw, K., (1989). 'Demarginalizing the Intersection of Race and Sex: A Black Feminist Critique of Antidiscrimination Doctrine, Feminist Theory and Antiracist Politics', University of Chicago Legal Forum: Vol. 1989: Iss. 1, Article 8.

⁵⁶ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies, (2009), Glossary of Gender-Related Terms. Available at: <http://www.intergroupresources.com/rc/Intersectionality%20-%20a%20Tool%20for%20Gender%20&%20Economic%20Justice.pdf>.

LGBTQI+: Umbrella term used to refer to individuals with lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, queer/questioning, intersex and other non-normative gender or sexual identities.⁵⁷

Non-binary: Gender identities that are neither exclusively male nor exclusively female and thus exist outside the traditional gender binary.⁵⁸ Non-binary identities can fall under the umbrella of transgender as many non-binary individuals identify with a gender different from their assigned one.

Homo-lesbo-bi-transphobia: Discrimination and violence against homosexual, lesbian, bisexual and transgender people.

Sexual orientation: A person's capacity for deep emotional, affectional and sexual attraction to individuals of a different gender, the same gender or more than one gender and the ability to have intimate and sexual relationships with them.⁵⁹

Intersex: Umbrella term indicating variations in a person's physical characteristics that do not align with strict medical definitions of female or male.⁶⁰

Sex: Biological and physiological characteristics that define human beings as female or male.⁶¹

Trans: Umbrella term referring to individuals whose gender identity and/or expression differ from the sex/gender they were assigned at birth. It can include – but is not limited to – individuals identifying as transsexual, transgender, cross-dressers, androgynous, poly-gender, genderqueer, agender, gender variant, non-conforming or with any other gender identity and/or expression that does not conform to societal and cultural expectations of gender identity.⁶²

Gender equality: The principles of equality between women and men, the equal recognition and enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, as well as measures that provide equal treatment and equal opportunities for women and men in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil and domestic fields or any other field.

⁵⁷ FRA, (2014). EU LGBT survey – European Union lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender survey – Main results.

⁵⁸ Ilga Europe Glossary: Our glossary ILGA-Europe.

⁵⁹ Yogyakarta Principles on the Application of International Human Rights Law in relation to Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity.

⁶⁰ European Commission, (2012), Trans and Intersex People – Discrimination on the Grounds of Sex, Gender Identity and Gender Expression. European Network of Legal Experts in the Field of Gender Equality.

⁶¹ World Health Organisation – WHO. Working Definitions.

⁶² Ilga Europe Glossary: Our glossary ILGA-Europe.

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