

COUNTRY GENDER EQUALITY PROFILE OF GEORGIA



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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABL	Administrative Boundary Line
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ATIPFUND	LEPL Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Violence against Women
CEDAW Committee	Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
CGEP	Country Gender Equality Profile
CRRC	Caucasus Research Resource Center
DV	Domestic Violence
EC	European Commission
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEC	Gender Equality Council of the Parliament of Georgia
GEL	Georgian lari
Geostat	National Statistics Office of Georgia
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
GIA	Gender Impact Assessment
GID	Geneva International Discussions
GoG	Government of Georgia
HIES	Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HR NAP	Human Rights Strategy and Action Plan
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ILO	International Labour Organization
Inter-Agency Commission	Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues

IPRM	Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISSET-PI	International School of Economics at Tbilisi State University – Policy Institute
Istanbul Convention	Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LGBTQI	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Questioning/queer, Intersex
MIA	Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MoIDPOTLHSA	Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs of Georgia
MP	Member of Parliament
NAEC	National Assessment and Examination Center
NAP	National Action Plan
NCDC	National Center for Disease Control and Public Health
NDI	National Democratic Institute
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NSFG	National Science Foundation of Georgia
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
PDO	Public Defender’s Office of Georgia
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PwD	Persons with Disabilities
RGA	Rapid Gender Assessment
RIA	Regulatory Impact Assessment
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEN	Special Education Needs
SRB	Sex Ratio at Birth
SRHR	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

TFR	Total Fertility Rate
TIAR	Total Induced Abortion Rate
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UHP	Universal Healthcare Programme
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VAC	Violence against Children
VAW	Violence against Women
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WHO	World Health Organization
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Georgia has made significant progress throughout the past three decades towards gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE). However, available data and multiple assessments show that much work still needs to be done.

The present Country Gender Equality Profile (CGEP) reviews the 12 critical areas of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA): institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women; women and poverty; the education and training of women; women and health; violence against women; women and armed conflict/women, peace and security; women and the economy; women in decision-making; women and the media; women in agriculture and the environment; and the girl child. The twelfth area—the human rights of women—is considered cross-cutting for all 11 areas.

By analysing existing policies and the latest available quantitative and qualitative data under each area, the CGEP attempts to identify existing gender gaps across legal and policy efforts and provides recommendations for the international and national agencies to better address gender inequality in Georgia.

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women: In Georgia, institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women are established at different branches and levels of the Government. In the legislative branch, the **Gender Equality Council of the Parliament** (GEC) was established in 2004 and transformed into a standing body in 2010. The GEC aims to support the Parliament of Georgia in defining state policy on gender issues, ensuring gender mainstreaming in legislative processes and providing monitoring and oversight to the executive government's progress on gender equality. In the executive branch, the **Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues** was established in 2017. The Inter-Agency Commission aims to promote gender mainstreaming in all policies and programmes within the executive government, support the collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data, and coordinate the implementation and monitoring of national action plans on gender equality, violence against women and UN Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security. The Law

on Gender Equality obliges the local municipalities (sakrebulo) to establish gender equality councils. The **municipal gender equality councils** are responsible for ensuring systematic work on gender issues in their municipalities, implementing relevant national gender equality policies, collaborating with the GEC, studying gender-equality-related issues, and planning and implementing gender-equality-related activities and events in the municipal gender equality councils. At the national level, the **Public Defender's Office** (PDO) represents the key institution in Georgia's gender equality architecture legally mandated to monitor the protection of gender equality and provide an appropriate response to violations of gender equality. To implement this work, the Gender Equality Department was established within the PDO on 15 May 2013. The aim of the department is to oversee the protection of human rights and freedoms in the field of gender equality, to promote gender mainstreaming in PDO activities and to raise public awareness on gender equality in Georgia.

Women, poverty and social exclusion: Despite a significant decrease in the poverty indicators during the past decade, many people remain vulnerable to deprivation, especially due to a crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic. Poverty is especially higher among the rural population and persons with disabilities. The existing social protection system and strategies have proven to be ineffective against social and economic vulnerability. A significant part of employed women is left out from these social protection benefits since the biggest share of employed women is engaged in the informal sector. Most of the women employed in the informal sector (e.g. domestic workers) found it challenging to benefit from the state assistance that was part of the COVID-19 pandemic anti-crisis plan. Maternity protection is assessed to be fully inadequate for women employed in the private and public sectors (excluding civil servants) and does not align with the requirements of the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183). In addition, the existing accumulating pension scheme is believed to bear risks of reproducing and amplifying the gender gap due to its savings-based design, considering women's lower participation rate in the formal economy and broader paid labour alongside the existing gender pay gap.

Education and training of women: Access to quality secondary education remains a challenge for the country as a whole but especially so for rural areas and regions densely populated by ethnic minority groups. The pandemic put an additional strain on the overextended education system and created the danger of learning loss, which will have far-reaching implications for adolescents in their later years of education and work. Mainstreaming gender issues in the curriculum remains a problematic issue, as is the sensitization of schoolteachers, to ensure that the teaching in the classroom reflects the ideas of equality and inclusion.

Engagement in higher education is equally high among girls and boys, but the popularity of vocational education remains limited. The distribution of men and women across different fields of study at the tertiary level is heavily skewed, with women underrepresented in STEM fields and overrepresented in education, the arts and the humanities. Additionally, employment rates and salaries of female graduates are lower compared to men.

Women and health: The Government of Georgia needs to ensure that the international obligations regarding women's health are implemented successfully. Women still do not have access to high-quality pre- and postnatal services, especially women living in rural areas. Furthermore, vulnerable groups such as women with disabilities, ethnic minority women and women living in rural areas have additional barriers to accessing healthcare services. The use of modern contraceptives is low in Georgia, and the unmet need for family planning is rather high. Women still have a number of barriers to accessing safe abortion. The assessments showed that COVID-19 had a major influence on healthcare service provision. Accordingly, it is critical that healthcare policies, technical guidelines and protocols for service delivery, including sexual and reproductive health and HIV-related services, are adapted to the COVID-19 situation and that the timely provision of services continues.

Violence against women: The data show that violence against women (VAW) and domestic violence (DV) remain a prevalent problem in Georgia. Women experience different forms of violence, and as the data show, the prevalence of VAW is especially higher among women with disabilities. Although public attitudes are changing, and the legal framework along with respective social support services are becoming

progressively more functional, many things still need to be improved. The gaps in legislation and service provision became especially visible during the pandemic, which made gender inequality even deeper and extremely increased the risks of VAW and DV.

Members of the LGBTQI community remain under extreme threat from not only radical groups but also their own family members. Due to homophobic and transphobic attitudes from the authorities and the police, in many cases LGBTQI persons avoid referring to the police in cases of violence. Furthermore, support mechanisms established for VAW/DV are not sufficient for the cases of violence towards LGBTQI persons.

Women and armed conflicts, peace and security: The representation of women in the security sector, as well as women's participation in conflict resolution efforts and peace dialogues, is extremely low, excluding the experiences and contributions of women in peace processes. Women are also underrepresented in people-to-people diplomacy initiatives. COVID-19 became an additional barrier to women's participation in the decision-making and formal peace processes.

IDP and conflict-affected women residing along the administrative boundary lines face a variety of social and economic problems. The specific needs of women and girls are still concealed and not addressed properly.

Women and the economy: Women's participation in the labour market remains low compared to men's participation, and they face challenges in earning equally due to various factors, such as the additional responsibilities of unpaid domestic and care work, which is still believed to be women's domain and which significantly limits opportunities for women to equally participate in the labour force. Furthermore, women tend to be concentrated in economic activities with lower salaries (such as the humanities, education and health care), and they are underrepresented and are in low positions within higher-salaried industries (such as STEM). The COVID-19 pandemic and related crisis further exacerbated this gap and put women in an even more unfavourable position in terms of participation in the labour market and the economy. It is critical that the Government of Georgia continues working to improve the labour legislation in Georgia, as much work still needs to be done to

make it more gender-sensitive and inclusive. At this moment, the Labour Code of Georgia does not cover informally employed workers (including domestic workers), while this group turns out to be one of the most vulnerable groups from the viewpoint of decent work and job security.

Women in decision-making: Georgia has taken significant steps forward to increase women's participation in decision-making processes in recent years. Mandatory quotas are one of the most important changes introduced. However, the data illustrate that the representation of women in the legislative as well as executive government, at both the local and central levels, in the judiciary system, in managerial positions and in higher ranks, remains low. Public attitudes have changed in recent years; however, the share of people who favour men in managerial positions is still high. Accordingly, it is critical that the Government introduce extra measures along with mandatory quotas to further increase the number of women in the Parliament and in local self-governance. Furthermore, special efforts need to be made to increase the proportion of people with disabilities, especially women, among civil servants. The inclusion, representation and leadership of women in decision-making processes during the development of COVID-19 policies needs to be ensured.

Women's access to ICT, and women and the media: Women's and men's ownership of a mobile phone in equal measure is one of the primary indicators of gender equality and also is essential for security reasons insofar as independent access to such a device ensures access to emergency services and hotlines for victims. The data show that although there is almost equal access to mobile phones and the Internet for women and men in Georgia, significant discrepancies can be observed at the urban/rural level.

There is a lack of research analysing the gendered aspects of disinformation and media literacy. Research suggests that despite existing regulations and standards, gender issues are covered in the media in a stereotypical manner, indicating the weaknesses of normative and professional standards of media, as

well as the lack of competence among media professionals in covering gender issues.

Women in agriculture and the environment: Women's participation in the agriculture sector remains a challenge. A GEWE perspective is missing from the related normative documents and laws. The data show that women are excluded from many aspects of rural and agricultural development due to their limited access to finances and other important resources that are essential for agricultural business. In turn, this lack of access to resources and finances excludes women from decision-making. In family farming practices, women mainly are involved in manual work; they do not have access to available technologies and machinery, which is considered men's prerogative.

Research shows that women are disproportionately affected by environmental challenges and energy poverty. Combating energy poverty with consideration of gender aspects should be among the primary objectives of energy and environmental policies. Furthermore, there is a lack of awareness among the general population on the effects of environmental change.

The girl child: In a patriarchal society like Georgia, son preference is still quite strong. This translates into a sex imbalance, with the sex ratio at birth (109.3 male births per 100 female births) higher than the biological norm (104–106). Even though Georgia took significant steps towards the elimination of child marriage, the phenomenon continues to disproportionately affect the lives of girls in the country. Women residing in rural areas, Azerbaijani women and women with a lower level of education are more likely to get married at an early age. Furthermore, violence against children (VAC) is accepted by a large part of Georgian society. Despite having information on what violence is, there are occurrences of VAC including sexual violence. Child labour and the involvement of children in hazardous work has been a problem in Georgia since before the pandemic. However, COVID-19 further increased the risks of child labour due to the worsened economic conditions.

1. INTRODUCTION

Gender equality and the empowerment of women are acknowledged as a critical component of democratic and stable societies. Georgia prioritized gender equality and women's empowerment goals and took commitments by joining relevant international platforms and actions. In 1994, Georgia ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). With this step, Georgia became accountable to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW Committee). In 1995, Georgia participated in the UN Fourth World Conference in Beijing, where the Beijing Platform of Action (BPfA) was adopted, which identifies the establishment of strong institutional mechanisms for women's empowerment as one of the critical areas of concerns. Within the framework of the BPfA, Georgia took on the obligation of ensuring progress in all 12 areas of concern. In 2000, UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security was adopted and is binding on all UN Members States, including Georgia.

In the legislative branch of the Government, the first institutional body working on gender equality issues in Georgia was established in 2004—the Parliamentary Gender Equality Advisory Council. The Council aimed to monitor and oversee the Government's progress towards gender equality, support the development of state policies addressing gender equality issues and provide assessments and recommendations on gender mainstreaming in legislation.

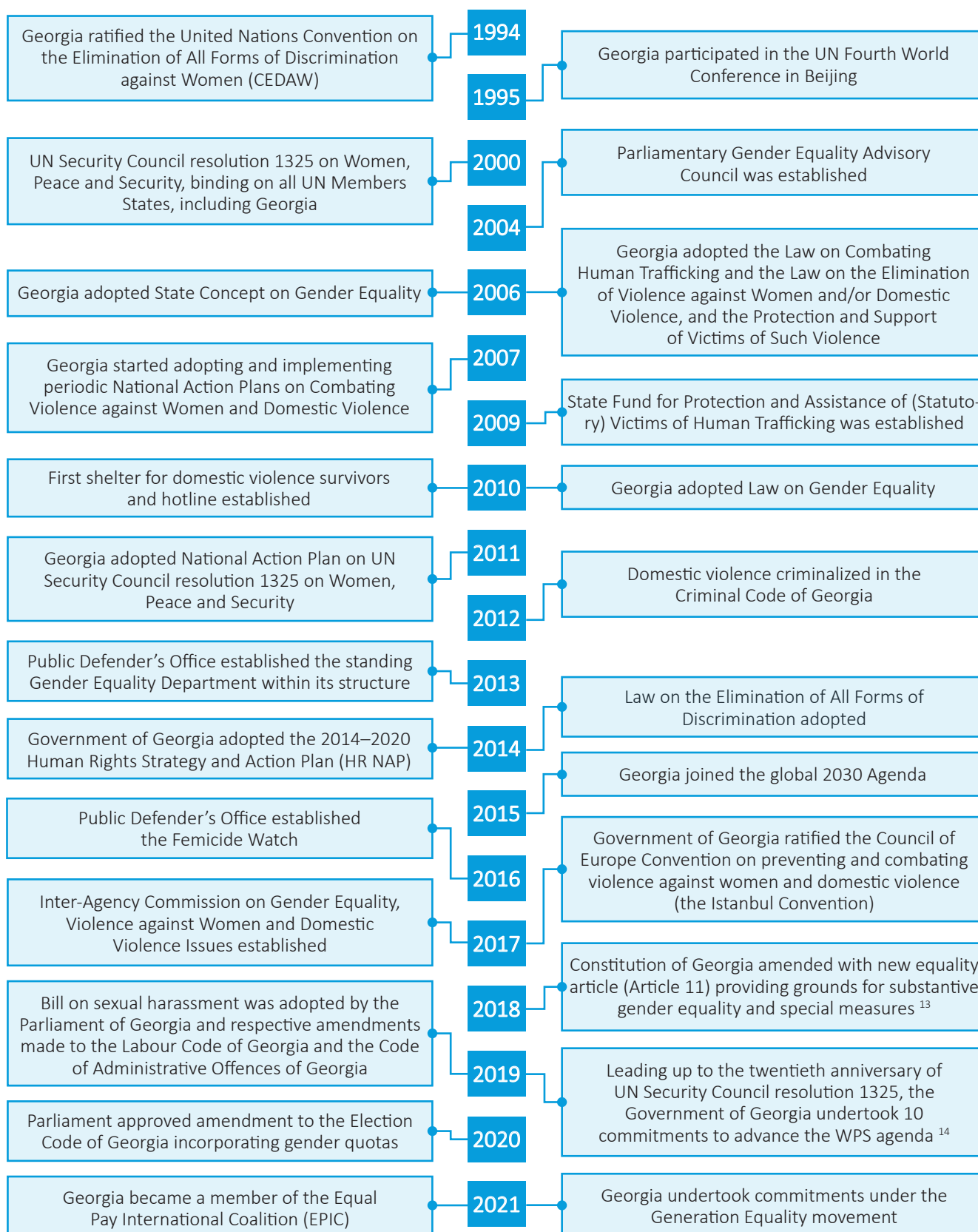
In 2006, the Parliament of Georgia adopted the State Concept on Gender Equality as well as the very first Law on Combating Human Trafficking and the Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence, and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence,¹ which was followed by the establishment of the State Fund for Protection and Assistance of (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking in 2009 and the first shelter for domestic violence survivors and a hotline in 2010.

In 2010, the Parliament of Georgia adopted the Law on Gender Equality² and, in 2011, the first National Action Plan on UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.³ Since 2007, Georgia has been adopting and implementing periodic National Action Plans on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence. In 2012, domestic violence was criminalized as the Criminal Code of Georgia was amended,⁴ and in 2014, the first Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination⁵ was approved by the Parliament of Georgia.

The Government of Georgia adopted the 2014–2020 Human Rights Strategy and Action Plan (HR NAP)⁶ for the periods 2014–2016, 2016–2017 and 2018–2020.⁷ Action plans include results and activities per various critical areas of human rights, including gender equality. In 2015, Georgia joined the global 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and nationalized the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in November 2019, including SDG 5—to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.

In 2017, the Government of Georgia ratified the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (the Istanbul Convention),⁸ which was one of the most significant steps towards improving VAW legislation; and in the same year, the Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues⁹ was established with the aim to coordinate the implementation of national action plans on gender equality and women's empowerment. In 2019, the legislation establishing regulations on sexual harassment was adopted by the Parliament of Georgia, and respective amendments were introduced to the Labour Code of Georgia¹⁰ and the Code of Administrative Offences of Georgia.¹¹ In 2020, the Parliament approved amendments to the Election Code of Georgia requiring political parties to include one member of the opposite sex for every four members in the election lists that are submitted to the Central Election Commission.¹²

TABLE 1.1:
Timeline of Georgia's commitments to gender equality and the empowerment of women



According to World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report (2021), Georgia ranks 49th out of 156 countries with a score of 0.732 on the Global Gender Gap Index.¹⁵ This is a 25-point improvement compared to 2020 when Georgia ranked 74th with a score of 0.708.¹⁶

Despite the significant progress Georgia has made throughout the past three decades towards gender equality and women's empowerment, multiple assessments show that much work still needs to be done. The CEDAW Committee's concluding observations (2014) refers to gender gaps in almost all areas, starting from Parliament and the legislative framework to the existing national mechanisms and measures for the advancement of women, stereotypes and harmful practices, violence against women, trafficking of women, participation in political and public life, education, employment, health, rural women, disadvantaged groups of women, marriage and family relations.¹⁷

The Country Gender Equality Profile (CGEP) represents an important guide for UN Women and the United Nations Country Team as well as for the Georgian Government, civil society and other development partners to assess the existing situation regarding women's empowerment and gender equality in Georgia. The existing CGEP builds on the previous CGEP (2019)¹⁸ and is further based on recent data that became available during the past two years. The document provides a comprehensive and updated picture of the gender equality situation in the coun-

try. As in the case of the previous CGEP, SDG targets and indicators¹⁹ (both global and nationalized) are used to measure progress towards the 2030 Agenda. Along with the SDG framework, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) are two main overarching documents that inform the present analysis. The Constitution of Georgia, the Anti-Discrimination Law of Georgia (2014)²⁰ and the Gender Equality Law of Georgia (2010)²¹ have been further considered umbrella national documents together with the above-mentioned three international instruments.

The present CGEP reviews the 12 critical areas of the BPfA, which are as follows: institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women; women and poverty; the education and training of women; women and health; violence against women; women and armed conflict/women, peace and security; women and the economy; women in decision-making; women and the media; women in agriculture and the environment; and the girl child. The twelfth area—the human rights of women—is considered cross-cutting for all 11 areas.

By analysing existing policies and the latest available quantitative and qualitative data under each thematic area, the CGEP attempts to identify existing gender gaps across legal and policy efforts and provides recommendations for the international and national agencies to better address gender inequality in Georgia.

2. INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISMS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women have been identified as one of 12 critical areas of concern by the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA). As a signatory party to the BPfA, Georgia undertook the obligation to ensure progress in all 12 areas of concern, including the establishment of strong institutional mechanisms for women’s empowerment. As stated in the Beijing Declaration, “a national machinery for the advancement of women is the central policy-coordinating unit inside government. Its main task is to support government-wide mainstreaming of a gender-equality perspective in all policy areas,”¹ and “in addressing the issue of mechanisms for promoting the advancement of women, Governments and other actors should promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes so that, before decisions are taken, an analysis is made of the effects on women and men, respectively.”²

In Georgia, institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women are established at different branches and levels of the Government as follows:

- Legislative branch: Gender Equality Council of the Parliament³
- Executive branch: Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues
- Local governments: municipal gender equality councils
- National level: Public Defender’s Office

Gender Equality Council of the Parliament

The Gender Equality Council of the Parliament (GEC) was established in 2004 and transformed into a standing body in 2010. The main aim of the GEC is to support the Parliament of Georgia in defining state policy on gender issues, ensuring gender mainstreaming in legislative processes and providing monitoring and

oversight to the executive government’s progress on gender equality.⁴ In 2017, the GEC became the permanent consultation body to the Parliament of Georgia. Currently, the GEC includes 18 members: 12 women and 6 men. The chairperson of the GEC is a woman.

The Public Defender’s Office of Georgia (PDO) positively assesses the GEC’s work in terms of gender mainstreaming as the GEC has conducted gender impact assessments (GIAs) of several laws in recent years. However, it also notes that gender mainstreaming efforts by the GEC lack a systemic approach and are largely donor driven. In this regard, the PDO recommends that the GEC adopt a normative framework making GIA mandatory for law-making processes in Georgia.⁵ The joint shadow report on CEDAW (2021) acknowledges the progress of the GEC in terms of establishing a communications strategy and gender analysis methodology as well as starting thematic inquiry groups; on the other hand, as it is emphasized in the report, the findings of the thematic inquiries are not incorporated into the Government’s strategic plans, including COVID-19-related anti-crisis plans.⁶ The same report states that the structure of the GEC hinders it from effectively monitoring gender equality policy in the country; furthermore, the GEC fails to effectively respond to the discriminatory rhetoric by decision makers and other groups in society.⁷

Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues

The Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues was established in 2017 and represents the central unit within the executive government on gender equality and women’s empowerment.⁸ The Commission is co-chaired by the Prime Minister’s Advisor on Human Rights and by a Deputy Minister of Justice of Georgia. The Commission further consists of dep-

uty ministers from line ministries/state agencies, as well as the General Prosecutor's Office of Georgia, the State Care Agency (ATIPFUND), the Civil Service Bureau and the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat).

The Inter-Agency Commission aims to promote gender mainstreaming in all policies and programmes within the executive government, support the collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data, and coordinate the implementation and monitoring of national action plans on gender equality, violence against women and UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.⁹

The Inter-Agency Commission represents an important mechanism for the advancement of gender equality and women's empowerment at the national level; however, the PDO analysis states that Decree No. 286,¹⁰ under which the Commission was established, does not operationalize the specific measures for coordinating different state agencies and encouraging the implementation of gender mainstreaming in the executive government and sectoral politics.¹¹ Moreover, frequent changes in the leadership hinders the implementation of systemic reforms and approaches related to the gender equality agenda in the country. The effective functioning of the Commission is also impeded due to the limited material and technical resources.¹²

Municipal Gender Equality Councils

The Law on Gender Equality obliges the municipalities (sakrebulo) to establish gender equality councils and appoint respective public servants as responsible for gender equality issues. The majority of chairpersons of gender equality councils at the municipality level are men (46 men versus 19 women), while more women are the responsible persons on gender equality issues at the city halls of municipalities and cities (65 women versus 9 men).¹³

The municipal gender equality councils are responsible for ensuring systematic work on gender issues in their municipalities, implementing relevant national gender equality policies, collaborating with the GEC, studying gender-equality-related issues, and planning and implementing gender-equality-related activities and events in the municipality.¹⁴

Municipal gender equality councils are essential mechanisms for ensuring gender equality at the local level. According to the 2021 analysis by the PDO, 57 municipalities have developed a local government gender equality action plan. However, the PDO identifies a number of gaps in the functioning of municipal gender equality councils, such as the lack of information, awareness and knowledge of gender-specific issues among council members. According to the PDO report, the council members do not have an adequate understanding of their functions and responsibilities, nor do they have information on gender-related legislation amendments; they also lack the knowledge and skills for identifying women's needs and for gender-sensitive budgeting.¹⁵ The PDO evaluates the role of local municipalities as ineffective mechanisms for gender equality at the local level and identifies the need for more specific tools and instruments, as well as more coordinated and stronger collaboration among municipal gender equality councils and the Inter-Agency Commission to ensure the establishment of a strong and sustainable mechanism for gender equality at the local level.¹⁶

Public Defender's Office

The PDO is the key institution in Georgia's gender equality architecture legally mandated to monitor the protection of gender equality and provide an appropriate response to violations of gender equality. To implement this work, the Gender Equality Department was established within the PDO on 15 May 2013.

The Gender Equality Department represents one of the key institutional mechanisms of gender equality in Georgia. The aim of the department is to oversee the protection of human rights and freedoms in the field of gender equality, to promote gender mainstreaming in PDO activities and to raise public awareness on gender equality in Georgia.¹⁷

The PDO issues recommendations and conclusions on a variety of gender-equality-related cases and issues, monitors the implementation of national and international gender-equality-related legislation, conducts research on GEWE, carries out awareness-raising activities and publishes annual and special issue reports on women's rights.¹⁸ In addition to this, the

Gender Equality Department examines and responds to the violations of rights on the grounds of gender, including gender identity and sexual orientation; examines applications/complaints received by the PDO relating to the violation of gender equality; and drafts relevant reports, recommendations and proposals.¹⁹ Between 2014 and 2019, the department reviewed

1,449 applications.²⁰

In 2016, the PDO established the Femicide Watch, which annually analyses cases of gender-based murders, attempted murders and suicides of women, and it provides recommendations on victim protection mechanisms to the relevant agencies.²¹

3. WOMEN, POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

3.1 Legislation and policy overview

The Constitution of Georgia recognizes the social state principle and highlights the aspiration to establish a social and just state. In 1994, Georgia ratified the UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, based on which Georgia recognized the right of each individual to an adequate standard of living, including basic income, food, housing, water, sanitation and clothing. In addition, Georgia has committed to implementing all 17 SDGs, including SDG 1 (No Poverty), SDG 8 (Decent Work and Economic Growth), SDG 5 (Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment) and SDG 10 (Reduced Inequalities).

The social security system of Georgia, which has been developing since 2006, covers social assistance schemes, the old-age scheme, social services, the social safety net and social compensation schemes. The Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs of Georgia provides direct financial assistance through the following programmes:

- Old-age pension (71.4 per cent women and 28.6 per cent men)
- Regression pension (monetary compensation for work-related health injuries)
- State compensation (a monetary allowance paid to persons for the implementation of special services, after their retirement from work, for their disability status or due to the

death of a family member or breadwinner)

- Subsistence allowance (cash social assistance prescribed to families according to their rating score assessed by a representative of the Social Service Agency) (54.7 per cent women and 45.3 per cent men)
- Social assistance package (a monthly monetary allowance given to targeted groups, e.g. persons with disabilities, persons who lost a breadwinner, victims of political repression, etc.) (34.8 per cent women and 65.2 per cent men)
- One-time compensation paid during maternity leave in case of pregnancy, childbirth and childcare, as well as during the adoption of a newborn child for the employed women
- Allowance for the improvement of the demographic situation
- Household subsidy (a type of monetary assistance issued to certain groups such as war veterans)
- Reintegration allowance (monetary assistance paid to the biological families of the persons living in specialized institutions in order to support reintegration with their biological families)
- IDP allowance

The share of state budget expenses on essential services, such as education, health and social protection, has increased during the past decade (Figure 3.1).

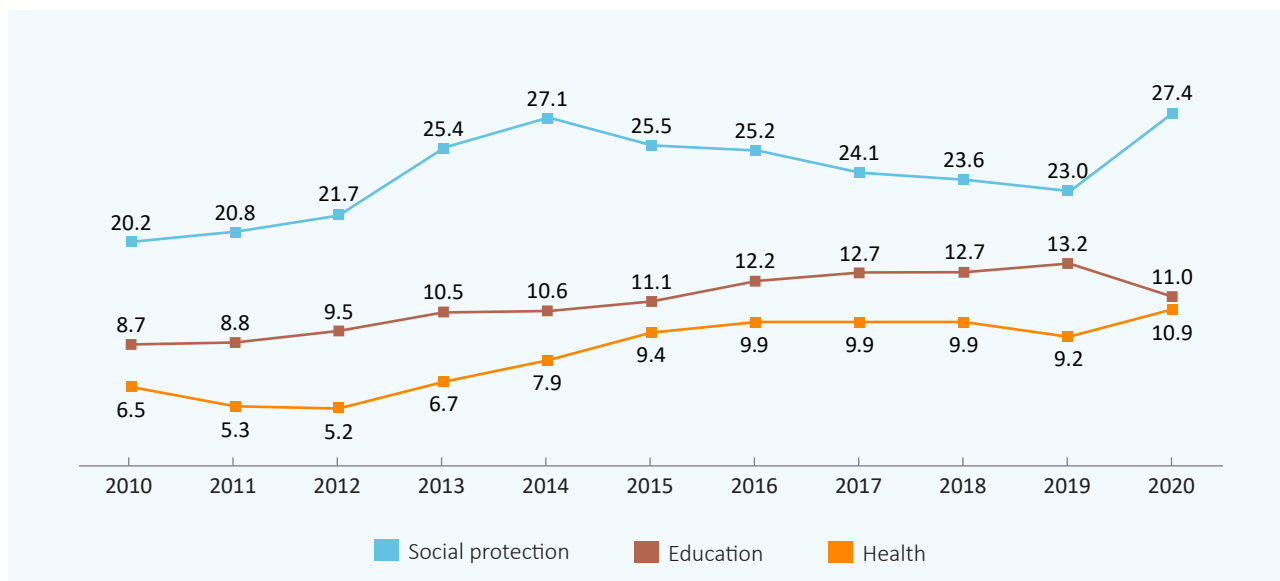


SDG indicator 1.a.2.

In 2020, 11 per cent of total government spending was on education, 10.9 per cent was on health and 27.4 per cent was on social protection.¹

FIGURE 3.1:

SDG indicator 1.a.2. Proportion of total government spending on essential services (%)



Source: Authors' own calculations using Ministry of Finance data.

As a response to the COVID-19 crisis, on 24 April 2020, the Government of Georgia presented an initial Anti-Crisis Economic Plan with a cost of GEL 3.5 billion. The plan included three main components: assistance to citizens and social support (GEL 1.035 billion), assistance to businesses and entrepreneurial support (GEL 2.11 billion) and assistance to strengthen the health sector (GEL 350 million).² On 27 November 2020, the GoG presented the fourth stage of the Anti-Crisis Economic Plan, which included GEL 545 million for assistance to citizens and a social support component.³ This included the following:

- Subsidized utility costs for four months from November 2020 to February 2021.
- A monthly allowance of GEL 200 for six months (total GEL 1,200) for employees who lost their jobs or were on unpaid leave
- One-time compensation of GEL 300 for those who were employed in workplaces closed due to the lockdown.
- Assistance amounting to GEL 600 for families whose social rating score is between 65,000

and 100,000.

- Assistance amounting to GEL 600 for families whose social rating score is between 0 and 100,000 and have three or more children under the age of 16.
- Assistance amounting to GEL 600 for persons with severe disabilities and disabled children.
- The possibility of deferring bank loans for those who were employed in workplaces closed during the lockdown.

3.2 National data

3.2.1 Poverty

The data on multiple indicators, such as national and international poverty levels, show that the poverty level has significantly decreased during the past decade in Georgia. The Gini index in 2019 was 35.9 per cent in Georgia, which is 0.5 points less compared to the previous year.⁴ Compared to the countries of the Europe and Central Asia region, Georgia still ranks as one of the highest on the Gini index.⁵



SDG indicator 1.2.1.

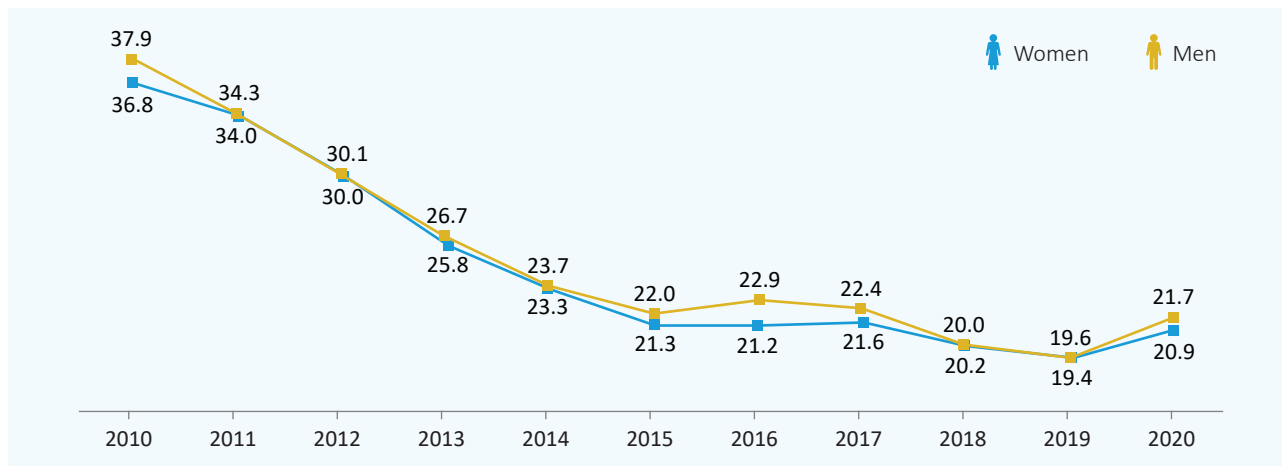
In 2020, 20.9 per cent of Georgian women and 21.7 per cent of Georgian men lived below the national poverty line (absolute poverty line in Georgia).⁶

The data do not highlight a significant difference between women and men in this regard (Figure 3.2).

The poverty level has remained higher among rural populations over the years (Figure 3.3).

FIGURE 3.2:

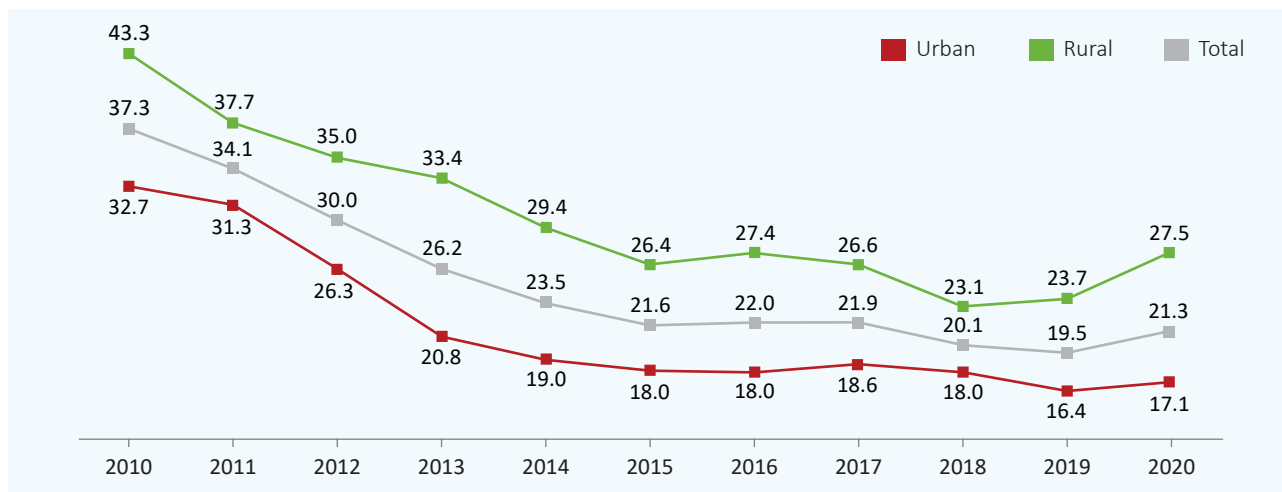
SDG indicator 1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex (absolute poverty line in Georgia) (%)



Source: Geostat, HIES (2010–2020).

FIGURE 3.3:

SDG indicator 1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by settlement type (absolute poverty rate) (%)



Source: Geostat, HIES (2010–2020).

Poverty is similarly prevalent between men and women; however, further analysis reveals disparities between the sexes. A World Bank analysis, which is based on the 2018 data, provides evidence of the following:

- People living in female-headed households are more likely to be poor than people living in male-headed households in Georgia.⁷
- People living in households with only women adults are more prone to poverty.⁸
- Households with a person with disabilities (PwD) are more likely to be poor.⁹
- Girls are the most vulnerable group in Georgia, as more than one in every four girls (26 per cent) live in a poor household.¹⁰
- Divorced women are 10 per cent more likely to face poverty than married women.¹¹
- Women with incomplete secondary education are three times more vulnerable to poverty than women with a higher education.¹²





SDG indicator 10.2.1.

In 2018, 15 per cent of people were living below 50 per cent of median income (or consumption), while the number decreased to 14.7 per cent in 2019 and to 13.4 per cent in 2020.¹³

TABLE 3.1:

Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income (or consumption) (%)

	2018	2019	2020
	14.7	14.6	13.1
	15.3	14.7	13.7
Aged 0–17	17.4	17.0	15.0
Aged 18–65	15.4	15.2	14.8
Aged 65+	9.7	9.7	6.5

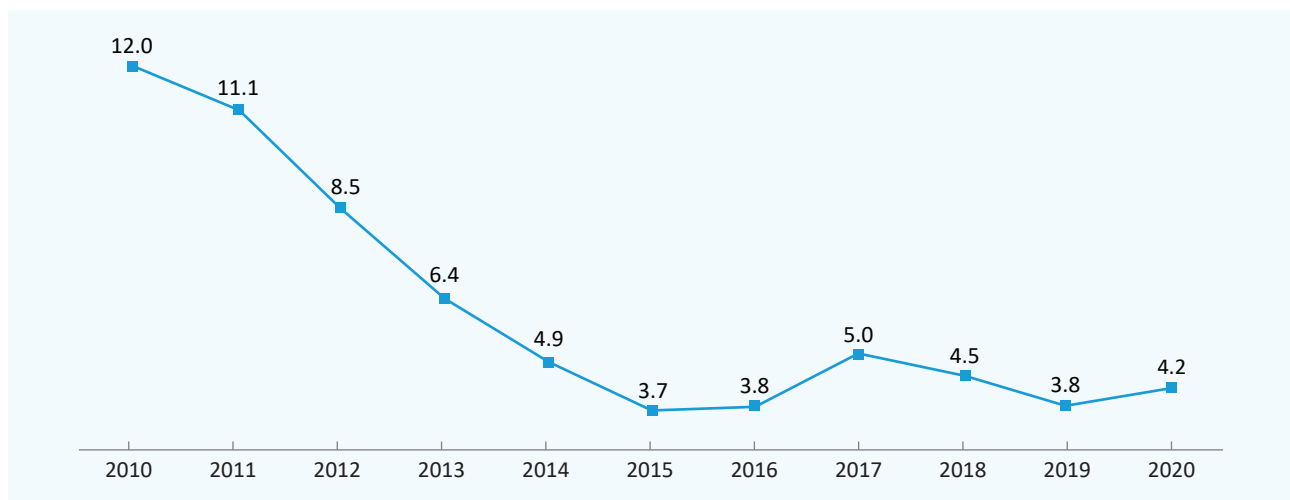
Source: Geostat, HIES (2018–2020).

The proportion of the population living below the international poverty line was 4.2 per cent in 2020. The val-

ue has increased for both women and men since 2019; this may be attributed to the COVID-19-related crisis.

FIGURE 3.4:

Proportion of population below the international poverty line (US\$1.90/day, 2011 PPP) (%)



Source: Geostat, HIES (2010–2020).



SDG indicator 1.1.1.

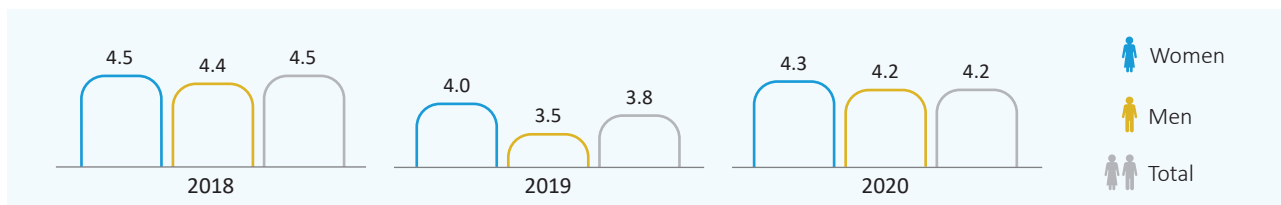
In 2020, 4.3 per cent of women and 4.2 per cent of men lived below the international poverty line (US\$1.90/day, 2011 PPP) in Georgia.¹⁴

Data from the 2018–2020 period show that more women than men are living below the interna-

tional poverty line in Georgia.

FIGURE 3.5:

SDG indicator 1.1.1. Proportion of population below the international poverty line (US\$1.90/day, 2011 PPP) (%), by sex



Source: Geostat, HIES (2018–2020).

In 2019, 14.8 per cent of the population lived below the lower-middle-income international poverty line (US\$3.20/day, 2011 PPP; GEL 3.20).¹⁵ The value

has decreased in recent years, from 15.5 per cent in 2018¹⁶ and 16.1 per cent in 2017.¹⁷



SDG indicator 8.10.2.

In 2017, 61.2 per cent of adults aged 15+ (63.6 per cent of women and 58.5 per cent of men) had an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider.¹⁸

Asset ownership is a central aspect of analysing poverty and living standards. The data show that most assets (e.g. real estate, land and major appliances)

within households are possessed and disposed of by men. Such disparities in asset ownership are more pronounced in rural areas.¹⁹

TABLE 3.2:

Incidence of immovable asset ownership, by type of ownership, sex and settlement type, 2015 (%)

		Documented			Reported		
		Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Dwelling	Men	48.5	44.4	46.3	83.0	78.2	80.4
	Women	29.0	36.6	33.4	77.7	74.6	75.9
Agricultural land	Men	45.2	18.2	30.6	72.4	26.8	47.7
	Women	20.3	6.9	12.6	57.0	17.2	34.1
Other real estate	Men	8.3	12.6	10.6	11.3	19.5	15.7
	Women	3.7	7.5	5.9	6.5	12.7	10.1

Source: Geostat 2018a.

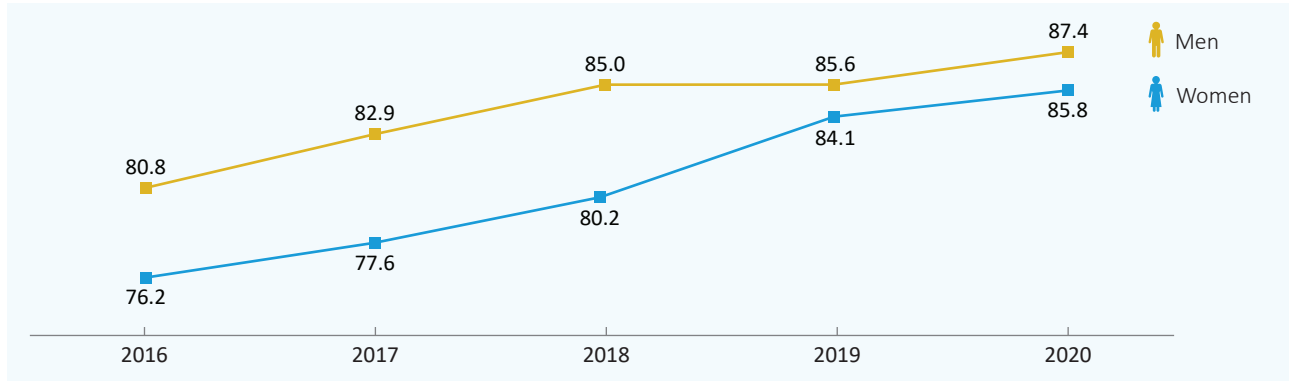


SDG indicator 5.b.1.

In 2020, 85.8 per cent of women and 87.4 per cent of men owned a mobile telephone.

FIGURE 3.6:

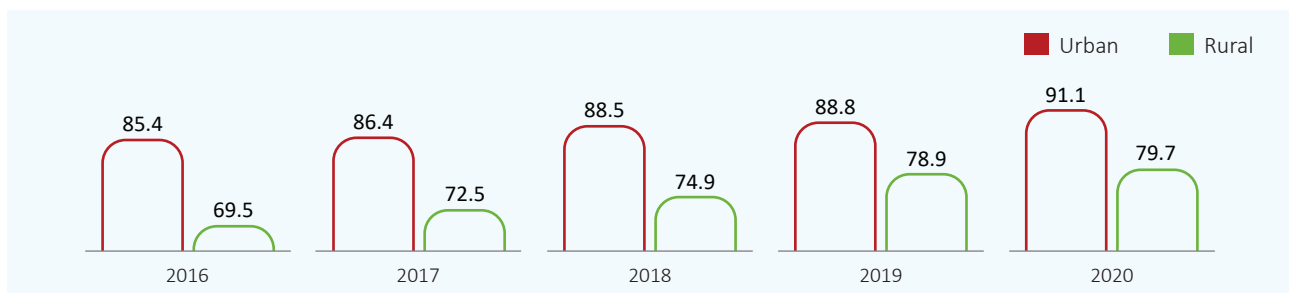
SDG indicator 5.b.1. Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex (%)



Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2016–2020).

FIGURE 3.7:

SDG indicator 5.b.1. Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by settlement type (%)



Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2016–2020).

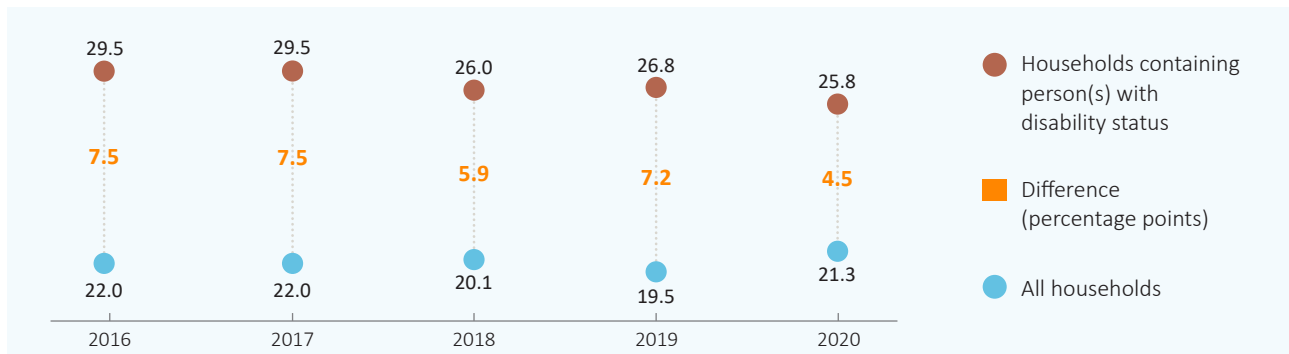
Data about poverty levels among minority groups, such as people with disabilities, ethnic and religious minorities, LGBTQI persons and others, are missing in the national data. Studies conducted in recent years indicate that about one in every five LGBTQI respondents report having experienced problems with homelessness throughout their lifetime.²⁰ LGBTQI people face intensified risks of violence from family members due to their sexual orientation and gender

identity, and they get forced to leave their household.²¹

The analysis conducted by UN Women and UNICEF based on Geostat’s Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (HIES) shows that persons with disabilities experience higher poverty levels. In 2020, 25.8 per cent of households with a person(s) with disabilities were living below the national poverty line. The value is higher than that for all households (21.3 per cent).²²

FIGURE 3.8:

National poverty rates for all households and households containing at least one person with disability status (%)



Source: UN Women and UNICEF 2021. Based on Geostat’s HIES.

COVID-19 significantly amplified poverty at the international as well as national levels. The data on national poverty show that the poverty level slightly increased in 2020 (21.3 per cent) compared to previous years (19.5 per cent in 2019 and 20.1 per cent in 2018).²³ A simulation analysis of the micro-economic short-term impacts of COVID-19 conducted by the World Bank suggests that poverty in Georgia could significantly increase and could impoverish 375,000 people.²⁴ Furthermore, COVID-19 is expected to exacerbate income inequality in Georgia, forcing thousands of households into downward mobility and reducing the size of the middle class.²⁵ According to COVID-19 impact assessments, women, elderly people, people from rural areas and people with a lower level of education were more likely to report food insecurity.²⁶ According to a rapid gender assess-

ment (RGA), approximately 43 per cent of Georgians reported a decline in their income from productive activities. Furthermore, the data show that ethnic minorities, those with jobs, those with no higher education and those with no children were more likely to report reduced income from productive activities.²⁷

3.2.2 Social assistance

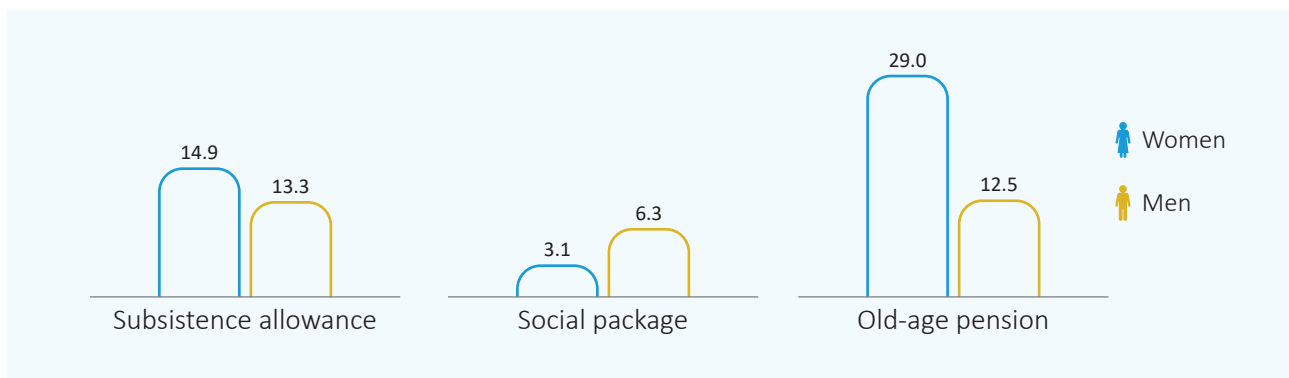
According to an analysis conducted by the ILO and UN Women (2020), women are more likely to benefit from Georgia’s current social protection system across the lifecycle, except during working age,²⁸ the reasons behind it might be associated with women’s lower participation rate in the labour force and inadequate maternity protection benefits (to be discussed in the sections below).



SDG indicator 1.3.1.

Women represent the highest share of social protection programme²⁹ beneficiaries. According to the latest data in 2020, 14.1 per cent of the population (524,598 individuals) were covered by a subsistence allowance; 4.7 per cent (174,612 individuals), by a social package; and 21.1 per cent (783,705 individuals), by an old-age pension.³⁰

FIGURE 3.9:
Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, 2020 (%)



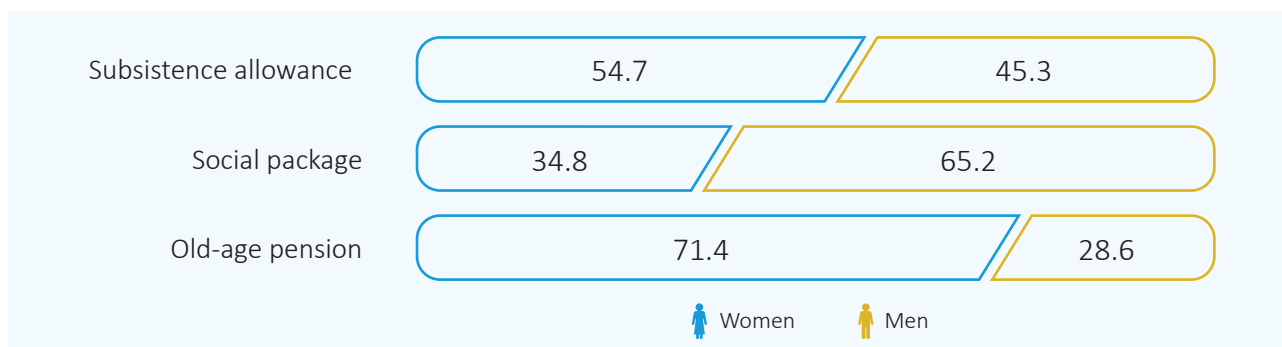
Source: Authors’ own calculations using Geostat data.

The old-age pension is the biggest category of the social security system, covering up to 21 per cent of the whole population.³¹ Women are allowed to receive a pension from the age of 60; and men, 65. Due to women’s longer life expectancy, old-age pension recipients are 2.5 times more likely to be women than men.³² For instance, in 2020 among old-age pension recipients, 71.4 per cent were women and 28.6 per cent were men (Figure 3.10). It is important to mention that the newly adopted pension scheme is believed to be reproducing and

amplifying the gender gap due to its savings-based design, considering women’s younger retirement age, their lower participation rate in paid labour and the existing gender pay gap (to be discussed in the sections below).³³

On the other hand, since there are more men among PwDs, veterans and state compensation recipients, men are almost twice as likely to receive a social package than women (65.2 per cent men and 34.8 per cent women).³⁴

FIGURE 3.10:
Proportion of social protection recipients, by sex, 2020 (%)



Source: Authors' own calculations using Geostat data.

The discrepancy is visible among persons with disabilities as they receive monetary benefits in the form of a 'social package'. UN Women and UNICEF's analysis of the distribution of social package beneficiaries by sex and age group shows that men beneficiaries exceed women in all age groups. It is important to men-

tion that the number of women beneficiaries of a social package significantly decreases by age 60. The reason behind this is the fact that a person with disability is required to choose between a social package or an old-age pension as they reach their respective age (60 for women and 65 for men).³⁵

TABLE 3.3:
Distribution of social package beneficiaries, by sex, age group and disability level, 2020

Age groups	Children		Severe disability		Significant disability		Moderate disability	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<18	7,148	4,505	-	-	-	-	-	-
18-39	-	-	4,151	2,794	10,009	7,099	2,142	1,470
40-49	-	-	3,313	1,989	9,318	7,519	1,706	901
50-59	-	-	5,204	3,154	14,371	15,170	2,587	1,514
60+	-	-	6,316	3,003	9,789	98	1,361	7

Source: UN Women and UNICEF 2021. Based on Social Service Agency data.

A regulatory impact assessment (RIA) of the ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), showed that domestic workers, the absolute majority of whom are women (99 per cent), are fully excluded from targeted social protection due to it being tied to formal employment. Furthermore, they are deprived of the opportunity to be included in the pension scheme. According to the RIA, taking into account that the vast majority of domestic workers are women, such a design of a social protection and pension scheme might contribute to greater levels of gender inequality among older ages.³⁶

Maternity protection is assessed to be fully inadequate for women employed in the private sector as

well as the public sector (excluding civil servants); indeed, maternity protection in Georgia falls short of the required two thirds of women's previous earnings, as per the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183).³⁷ According to an RIA of ILO Convention No. 183, the maternity leave compensation covers only 65 per cent of the subsistence minimum for the equivalent of 1.5 adults for six months.³⁸

Issues affecting single mothers are another important gap in Georgia's social security system. According to the joint order by the Minister of Justice of Georgia and the Minister of the IDPOTLHSA, as well as the Civil Code of Georgia, a single mother is an individu-

al who is unmarried and has a biological or adopted child under the age of 18 whose father's name is not listed on the birth certificate.³⁹ This creates an obstacle for many single mothers who are unmarried and raising their children alone without the father's help while the father's name is indicated on the child's birth certificate.⁴⁰ There is no specific social assistance scheme covering single mothers, except for those whose annual salary is less than GEL 3,000 and therefore exempt from taxes.

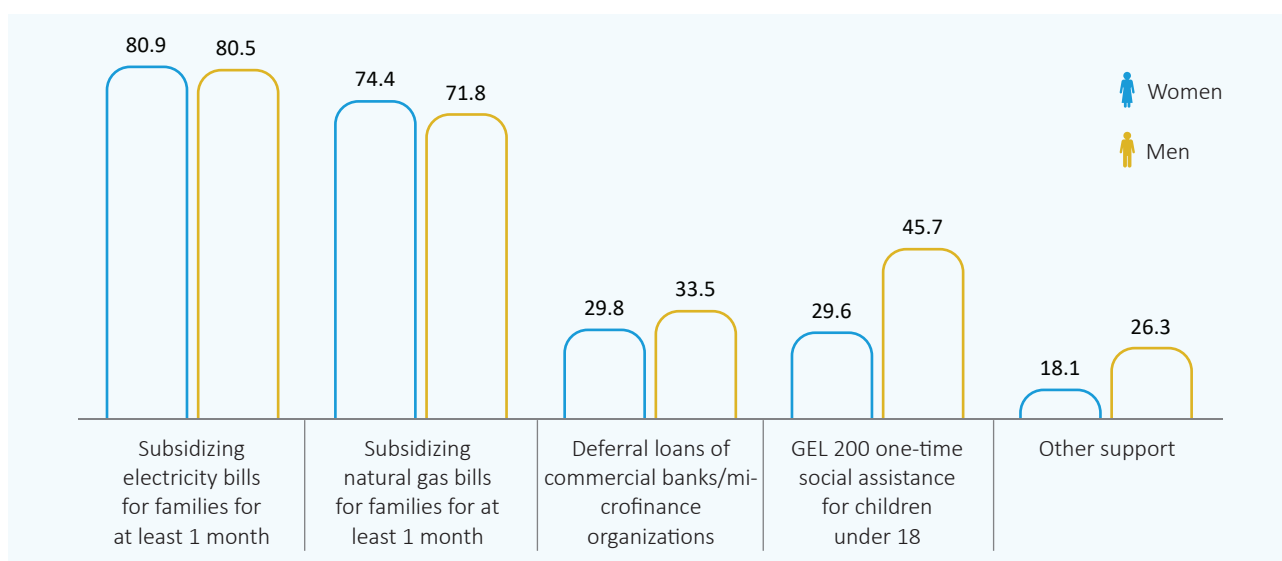


According to the Real Time Monitoring survey results, conducted between March and Decem-

ber 2020, 80.6 per cent of households received electricity subsidies for at least a month, 72.7 per cent received a natural gas subsidy for at least a month, 40.4 per cent received a one-off social assistance payment of GEL 200 for each child under the age of 18, and 23.6 per cent received other assistance from the Government. In addition, 32.3 per cent of households had their loans from commercial banks and microfinance organizations deferred.⁴¹ The data show that female- and male-headed households received assistance more or less equally, but it is worth noting that male-headed households were more likely to receive GEL 200 for children, deferral loans and other support (see Figure 3.11).

FIGURE 3.11:

Percentage of households that benefited from the COVID-19 impact mitigation measures introduced by the Government, by sex of household head (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2020.

Although the attempt for an inclusive anti-crisis plan was acknowledged, the plan had significant gaps. According to the different evaluations of the plan, the utility subsidies programme was conducted on an unfair basis, as the vouchers were based on the volume of consumption and, in many cases, may not have accomplished the purpose of the assistance.⁴² Furthermore, the actual amount of assistance for PwDs and socially vulnerable families exceeded the allocated budget, which proves the high demand for assistance and the need to increase the number of beneficiaries to include more PwDs.⁴³ There are far more families eligible for the subsistence allowance than the programme can cover.⁴⁴

3.2.3 Access to basic services

According to the 2018 data, 96.5 per cent of house-

holds have access to basic drinking water services, 92 per cent of households have access to basic sanitation services, and 93.3 per cent of households have a handwashing facility where water and soap or detergent were present.⁴⁵ However, 30.8 per cent of households' drinking water is contaminated by *E. coli*.⁴⁶ Updated data on access to water and sanitation are not yet available.



During COVID-19, access to water and sanitation became an especially urgent need. According to the first wave of the RGA, approximately half of the respondents experienced some difficulties in medical supplies for personal protection; of them, 54 per cent were women and 46 per cent were men.⁴⁷ The second wave of the RGA found that 94 per cent of Georgians had no disruptions in the water

supply. Furthermore, fewer people (12 per cent) experienced problems with accessing hygiene products and personal protective equipment in the autumn of 2020 compared to the spring of 2020 (24 per cent).⁴⁸

In terms of accessing essential services, 59 per cent of Georgians reported no problems in this regard. The further analysis shows that women and unemployed people were more likely to experience disruptions in accessing essential services, such as medical and social services.⁴⁹

3.3 Summary and recommendations

Georgia has achieved pertinent progress in social aspects over the past decade; however, there are significant gaps and challenges that require improvement. As stated in a World Bank assessment, in 2020 many people remain vulnerable to deprivation, especially due to a crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic. Rural poverty still remains the primary challenge that needs to be addressed with adequate measures.⁵⁰

The existing social security system and strategies have proven to be ineffective against social and economic vulnerability.⁵¹ For instance, the system lacks key lifecycle provisions such as an employment injury scheme, unemployment insurance and survivors' benefits for adults.⁵² Furthermore, key lifecycle benefits during working age, such as maternity protection, paid sick leave and an accumulated pension system based on savings, are only available for those employed in the formal sector. This means that more than half of employed women are left out from these benefits, considering the fact that the biggest share of employed women is engaged in the informal sector.⁵³ In addition, existing maternity protection as well as assistance for single mothers are evaluated as fully insufficient.

- Ensure that the Government of Georgia ratifies and complies with the ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), the Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention, 1982 (No. 157), and the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202).
- Improve the maternity protection system so that it fully meets the requirements of ILO Convention No. 183, and ensure the provision of adequate maternity compensation, compensation during pregnancy and breastfeeding and compensation if a woman is temporarily out of work because of harmful and hazardous factors.
- Ratify ILO Convention No. 189 to make sure that all women engaged in informal employment have the opportunity to benefit from social assistance and state protection programmes.
- Improve social services, and ensure that men and women of all ages, as well as marginalized populations, have full access to services by developing an inclusive national strategy.
- Ensure that Geostat collects and publishes sex-disaggregated data on poverty (all of its aspects) at the individual level rather than at the household level, as well as sex-disaggregated data on the working poor.
- Collect and publish data on socially excluded and marginalized populations, such as PwD, the LGBTQI community, ethnic minorities, etc.
- Establish practically available social assistance for single mothers by removing the requirement of having the absent father documented on the child's birth certificate.

4. EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF WOMEN

4.1 Legislation and policy overview

Multiple international agreements and cooperative frameworks constitute the Georgian Government's commitment to ensuring gender equality in education. Pursuant to CEDAW,¹ Georgia is bound to provide equal access to educational opportunities for men and women at all levels of education (preschool, general, vocational and higher education), including access to grants, scholarships, career guidance, adult education and professional development. Additionally, CEDAW stipulates that a precondition for educational equality is the elimination of stereotyped preconceptions about men and women by revising textbooks, curricula, teaching methods and career guidance systems. Gender-sensitive education policy also implies ensuring access to information on sexual and reproductive health and well-being as well as reducing dropout rates among girls.

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action for Equality, Development and Peace (BPfA)² reiterates the same commitment to equality in access to and attainment of education but additionally stresses the inclusion of women in STEM fields, creation of adequate employment opportunities for women, engagement of women in postgraduate education and academia and gender-sensitive monitoring of educational policies and programmes.

As a signatory to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Georgia has committed to ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting

lifelong learning opportunities for all. In pursuance of this goal, Georgia has been striving to improve learning outcomes for girls and boys and to ensure that they are able to benefit equally from learning and developmental opportunities at all levels of education.

Georgia's national legislative and policy framework documents on education, including the Unified Strategy for Education and Science for the period 2017–2021,³ make very little reference to gender-specific issues. Although respective laws and strategy documents make commitments to ensure universal access to education at all levels and eliminate discrimination, they do not include specific stipulations or targeted goals in recognition of gender-based inequalities persisting in the field of education in Georgia. Similarly, the Law of Georgia on Gender Equality⁴ guarantees freedom in the choice of profession for both sexes as well as equal access to learning opportunities for men and women at all stages of education. The presence of a gender-blind approach reflected in government strategies on the issues of education can be considered as one of the important challenges hindering Georgia's advancement towards the SDGs.

4.2 National data

4.2.1 Early childhood development

Overall, Georgian children aged 3–4 are developmentally on track in three of the four child development dimensions but significantly underperform in literacy and numeracy.⁵

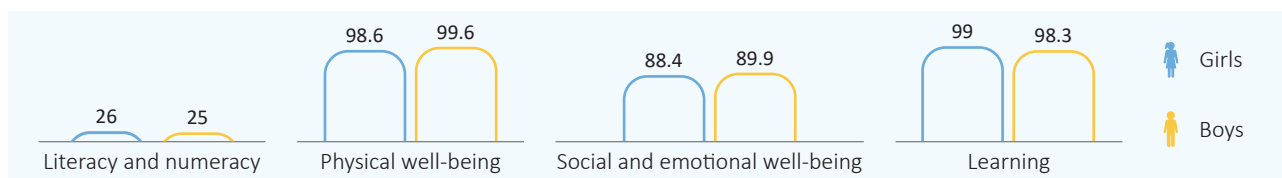


SDG indicator 4.2.1.

For children aged 3–4, 26 per cent of girls and 25 per cent of boys are developmentally on track in literacy and numeracy; 98.6 per cent of girls and 99.6 per cent of boys are developmentally on track in physical well-being; 88.4 per cent of girls and 89.9 per cent of boys are developmentally on track in social and emotional well-being; and 99 per cent of girls and 98.3 per cent of boys are developmentally on track in learning.⁶

FIGURE 4.1:

Proportion of children aged 3–4 who are developmentally on track, by dimension of child development (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

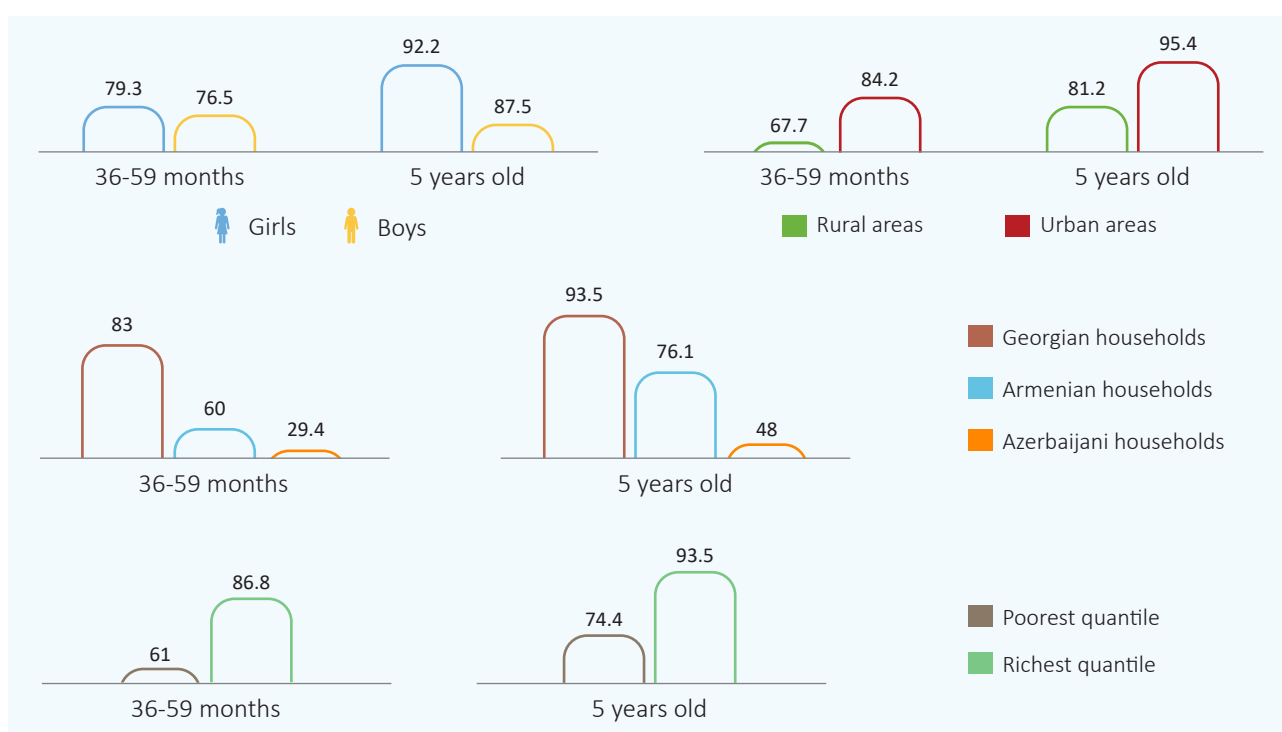
The most important factors explaining children’s underachievement in literacy and numeracy are related to parenting and preschool education. With regard to parenting, fathers’ involvement in child-rearing remains a problematic issue in the country. Although fathers’ engagement is strongly correlated with improved developmental outcomes in children, they are also the least engaged members of a household in Georgia when it comes to child development. Parenting practices also do not incorporate effective playtime; consequently, playing with children does not translate into the expected advances in child development.⁷

Along with parenting, preschool education is strongly associated with early childhood development. Notably, early childhood education coverage has markedly increased in Georgia over the past

decade, rising from 45 per cent in 2005 to 78 per cent in 2018. The most dramatic shifts have been observed in disadvantaged groups, such as children living in rural areas and children of low-educated mothers. Kindergarten participation in rural populations rose by 43 percentage points and reached 68 per cent, while the participation rate for children of mothers who had reached only primary or lower secondary education grew by 42 percentage points.⁸ In 2020, before the school closures were introduced in March, 80 per cent of children in Georgia aged 2–5 attended an early childhood development (ECD) programme.⁹ Notably, participation rates among girls are markedly higher as compared to boys; 87 per cent of girls and 72 per cent of boys aged 2–5 attended an ECD programme. In total, 158,062 children were enrolled in kindergartens in the 2020/21 academic year.¹⁰

FIGURE 4.2:

Participation in early childhood education (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

Still, significant disparities remain across settlement type, wealth and ethnic divides. In Azerbaijani households, 29 per cent of 3-to-4-year-olds go to kindergarten, while in Armenian households, the share is 60 per cent. In the richest quantile of the population, 87 per cent of 36-to-59-month-old children attend kindergarten, while in the poorest quantile, that share is 61 per cent.¹¹

Participation in early childhood education among 5-year-olds (one year prior to school entry) is above


90 per cent in urban areas, in the richest quantile of the country and in ethnically Georgian households. Although the inequality based on residence and household background is smaller among 5-year-old children, they are still apparent. In the poorest quantile of the population, children are almost 19 per cent less likely to receive formal education one year prior to school entry as compared to the richest quantile, while children from Azerbaijani households are 45.5 per cent less likely to be attending preschool as compared to Georgian households.



SDG indicator 4.2.2.

The participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age) is 92 per cent for girls and 88 per cent for boys.¹²

It is important to note that the quality of early childhood education remains low in Georgia, which limits the developmental benefits of preschool education. Based on the 2018 data, kindergarten attendance was not significantly associated with any dimension of child development.¹³ The quality of preschool infrastructure, availability of educational resources, low qualifications of kindergarten instructors and low rates of their professional training/retraining are some of the factors limiting the benefits of preschool education for early childhood development.¹⁴ The low quality of kindergartens is especially concerning in the areas compactly settled with ethnic minorities, where preschool educational institutions can serve the important purpose of integrating ethnic minority children into the Georgian education system. Kindergartens in ethnic minority areas lack qualified bilingual teachers, adequate educational resources and necessary attention from local authorities.¹⁵ Of further concern is the availability of early childhood education services for children with disabilities. The lack of adequate physical infrastructure and trained professionals limits the access to early childhood education for children with disabilities.¹⁶

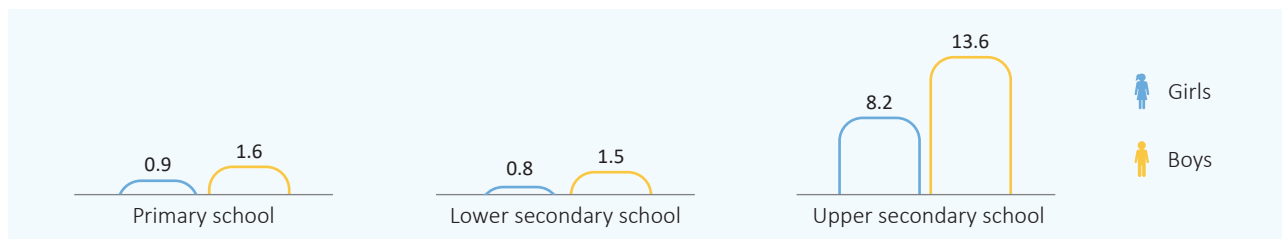
 The pandemic created additional challenges in the access to early childhood education. Most of the kindergartens did not have the infrastructure to satisfy state recommendations to halt the spread of the virus, which resulted in widespread closures of kindergartens among other lockdown measures.¹⁷ Predominantly, kindergartens were not able to shift to distance and online teaching; as a result, a large num-

ber of children were left without access to early childhood education. Distance teaching was mainly adopted by preschool institutions for children one year prior to school entry. Adequate and large-scale training of preschool teachers to adapt teaching to an online environment was a significant challenge that was only partially addressed by the State.¹⁸ Additionally, participation depended on children's access to computer equipment and the Internet, which further hindered their involvement in preschool education.¹⁹ Despite closures, 86 per cent of the families whose child was not able to attend kindergarten received food support from ECD institutions.²⁰ Of those families, 71 per cent received support for three months or more.²¹

4.2.2 General education

According to the Constitution of Georgia (Article 27), school attendance at the primary and lower secondary levels is mandatory in Georgia; therefore, schools are required to monitor attendance, prevent cases of premature dropout and follow up on the cases of concern. Enrolment at the primary school level is above 98 per cent in Georgia. There is parity in terms of school enrollment of boys and girls (both primary and secondary levels). Based on the 2018 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), 1.2 per cent of primary school-age children were not attending school. The indicator was slightly lower for girls (0.9 per cent) and higher for boys (1.6 per cent). School attendance rates remain constant at the lower secondary level but increase in later years as participation becomes optional for young people.

FIGURE 4.3:
Share of children and adolescents not attending school (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.



Country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.2.

Of the primary school-age children, 0.9 per cent of girls and 1.6 per cent of boys were not receiving formal education and training.²²

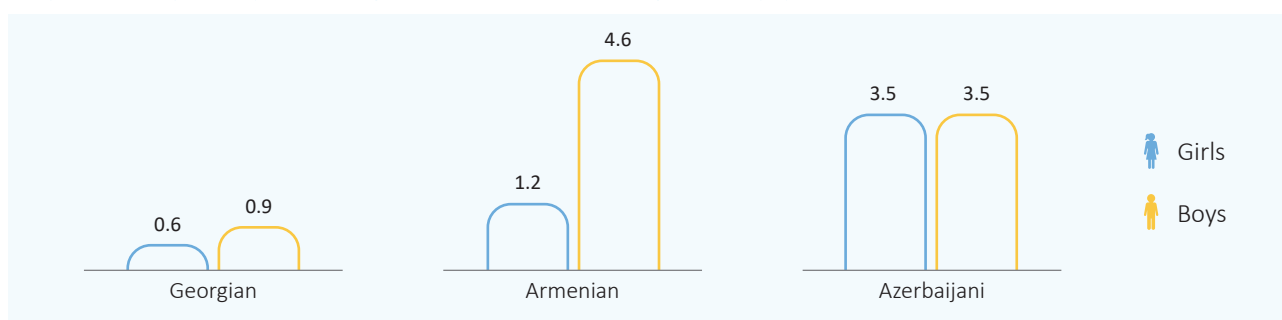
Of the lower secondary school-age children, 0.8 per cent of girls and 1.5 per cent of boys were not receiving formal education and training.²³

Of special note are the lower school attendance rates among ethnic minorities. At primary-school age, a higher share of Armenian and Azerbaijani children is not attending school. Furthermore, at each level of education, there is a higher share of over-age children from ethnic minority backgrounds—Armenian and Azerbaijani children tend to start school at a later age and advance at a

slower pace.

In 2020, the Ministry of Education and Science introduced a monitoring system designed to facilitate a smoother exchange of information and more effective follow-up on school-age children who drop out of school. As of June 2021, among children aged 6–16, 3,756 boys and 3,129 girls were not attending school.²⁴

FIGURE 4.4:
Proportion of primary school-age children not attending school (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

At the upper secondary level, the discrepancy between Georgian and ethnic minority youth becomes starker. Specifically, 39 per cent of young Azerbaijani girls leave school after completing the mandatory nine years, while 27.6 per cent of boys do the same,

with a gender gap of 11.4 percentage points. Children’s and adolescents’ disengagement from schooling is often related to work duties in or outside the household. In the case of young women, absence from school is often caused by early marriage.²⁵



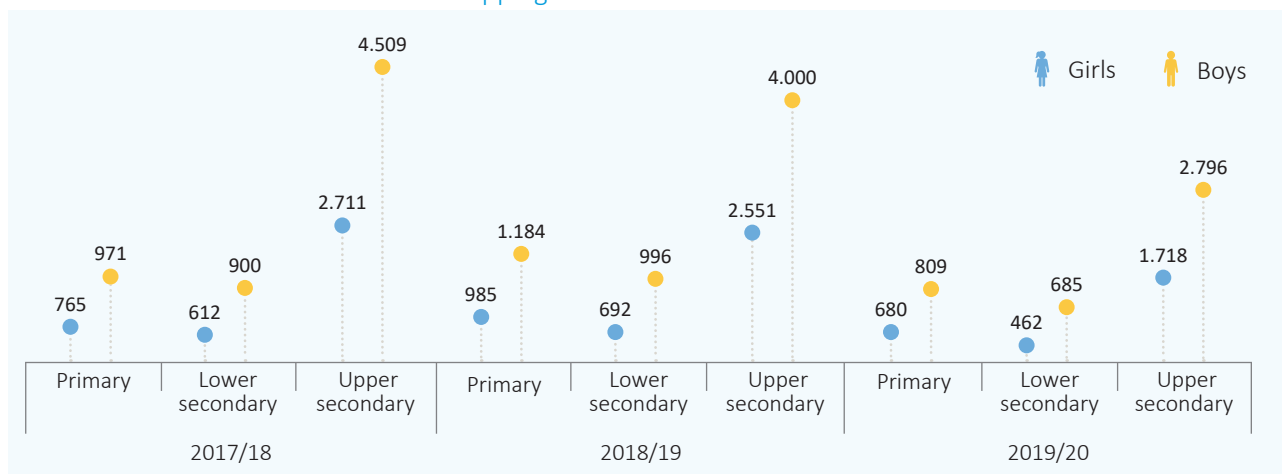
Country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.3.

Based on data from the 2019/20 academic year, a total of 2,636 students dropped out of school without completing the mandatory nine years of education; of them, 1,142 were girls and 1,494 were boys.

At every level of secondary education, dropout rates for boys were higher than for girls. Of particular concern is the identification and follow-up on the cases

of dropouts by boys as well as girls caused by early childhood marriages (see Chapter 5: Women and health).

FIGURE 4.5:
Number of children and adolescents dropping out of school



Source: EMIS (2017–2020).

Ethnic minorities’ access to quality education is limited compared to their Georgian peers. This unequal access is reflected in the lack of adequate educational resources, the lower quality of textbooks and their divergence from the national curricula, the low quality of teachers and the lack of professional development opportunities for school management and teachers.²⁶ Limited access to quality education at the levels of primary and secondary education leads to a low degree of integration of ethnic minorities and their limited access to tertiary education and the labour market.

Unequal access to education is a persisting issue among people with disabilities. While the completion rate for primary education is above 99 per cent in the general population, the rate is much lower among people with disabilities—83.8 per cent for girls and 82 per cent for boys—showing a gap of more than 15 per cent.²⁷ The gap increases in subsequent years of schooling, reaching 20 per cent at the lower secondary level and up to 30 per cent at the upper secondary level.

TABLE 4.1:
School completion rates among people with disabilities and in the general population (%)

	With disabilities		Total population	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Primary	83.8	82.0	99.3	99.2
Lower secondary	76.9	77.3	97.5	97.3
Upper secondary	55.8	60.3	86.7	86.6

Source: UN Women and UNICEF 2021. Based on data from the 2014 Population Census.

Although schools are required to track the disability status of their students, these data tend to be underreported by schools. While the official count (based on the data from the Social Service Agency) of school-age people with disabilities is close to

11,000, based on the data collected from schools, the number stood at 1,251 in the 2020/21 academic year. It is important to distinguish disability status from students with special education needs (SEN). SEN is a broader term that includes students with

disability but can also encompass such impediments as difficult behaviour and limited knowledge of the language that the curriculum is taught in. The number of school students with SEN totalled 10,030 in the 2020/21 academic year, with boys strongly outnumbering girls—6,573 boys versus 3,457 girls.

In 2020, a total of 814 SEN students abandoned school, with the largest share dropping out in the tenth grade (after the completion of mandatory schooling); almost half of all tenth-grade SEN students abandoned school.

Inadequate school infrastructure and learning environments, the lack of inclusive educational resources, and the poor preparation of teachers in inclusive

education methods and strategies are among the significant barriers impeding greater engagement of people with disabilities in general education. Although all schools have gained access to electricity, computers and the Internet, many face significant infrastructure-related problems, including the non-existence of ramps, adapted restrooms and elevators.


School infrastructure remains largely inadequate for children with disabilities. In 2019, only 6.7 per cent of schools were fully adapted to accommodate students with disabilities (up from 4.3 per cent in 2018).²⁹ The access to education for children with disabilities is further impeded by the lack of educational resources and duly qualified instructors.³⁰



SDG indicator 4.a.1.

100 per cent of schools have access to electricity, computers and the Internet for pedagogical purposes.²⁸

6.7 per cent of schools were fully adapted to provide access to students with disabilities.³¹

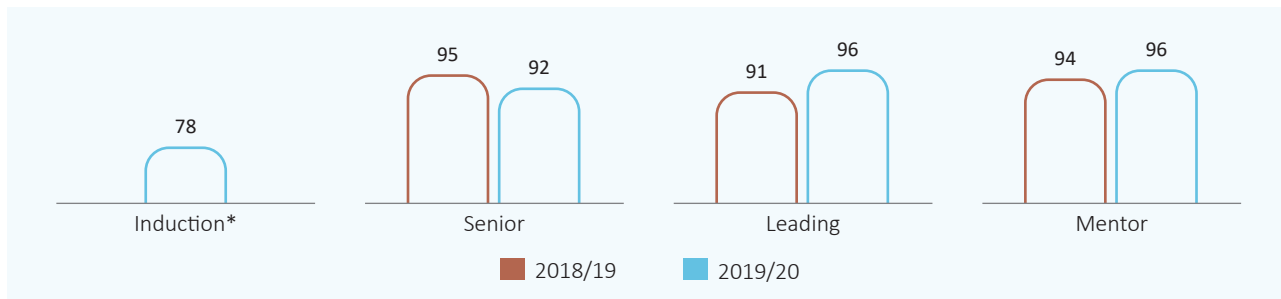
 The COVID-19 pandemic put a large strain on the Georgian education system. The schools shifted to distance learning using the Microsoft Teams platform and Teleskola—an educational TV channel that offered classes in all school subjects. Notably, Teleskola offered classes in minority languages as well.³²

As of December 2020, of school-age children (aged 6–17), 55 per cent of boys and 60 per cent of girls watched or listened to the TV lessons.³³ Although more girls reported attending these lessons, the average daily hours spent on TV lessons was slightly higher for boys (1.1 hours per day among boys as compared to 0.9 hours among girls). Participation in online classes was equal among boys and girls, with 97 per cent reporting having attended online classes. It is hard to determine exactly what percentage of students were not able to fully engage in online learning, but the study conducted by the National Assessment and Examination Center (NAEC) estimates that 10 per cent of school students did not engage in distance learning at all, while 27 per cent engaged only marginally.³⁴ Based on recent estimates, close to 21 per cent of households did not have access to the Internet at home, and the challenges related to Internet access and quality were much bigger for

rural households.³⁵ Of those who engaged in online learning, 25 per cent in Tbilisi had access to a personal computer, while in villages, that share stood at 11 per cent. In Azerbaijani households, of those who participated in online learning, 73 per cent had to use another family member's or someone else's smartphone, while in Georgian households, that number stands at 44 per cent.³⁶

Teachers' limited competency in using technology was one of the significant challenges in distance teaching.³⁷ The teaching competencies and subject knowledge of secondary school teachers have repeatedly come under question over the past decade. Based on the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), 75 per cent of teachers in secondary schools hold a higher education degree in the subject they teach at school, while less than 5 per cent hold only a vocational degree. Still, 66 per cent of principals consider the quality of teachers as a challenge for their school.³⁸ Georgia also has very low rates of young teachers. In the 2019/20 academic year, 47 per cent of teachers were over 50 years of age.³⁹ Women constitute more than 90 per cent of teachers at schools at all seniority levels except for the entry-level category (induction teachers), of which men constitute 22 per cent.

FIGURE 4.6:
Proportion of women among teachers (%)



* The category of induction teachers was introduced in the 2019/20 academic year.
Source: EMIS (2018–2020).

Women are also in the majority among school principals, but their share as principals is lower compared to teachers. In the 2018/19 as well as 2019/20 academic years, their share as principals amounted to 62 per cent. The high share of wom-

en among schoolteachers is expected to persist in the coming years given the predominantly female pool of students and graduates in education programmes at the tertiary level (see the next sub-chapter).



SDG indicator 4.7.1.

Gender equality concepts have only partially been mainstreamed into primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education.⁴⁰

The issue of mainstreaming gender in general education can be seen in two dimensions—on the one hand, the revision of the curriculum and textbook standards and, on the other hand, the retraining of teachers to ensure adequate implementation of the revised curriculum in the classroom. In recent years, there has been some progress in the direction of revising the curricula and textbooks of specific subjects to include gender-related topics, but conveying these ideas to students in the classroom is still a persisting challenge.

The introduction of the civic education subject into secondary education was a significant step towards the mainstreaming of gender concepts into general education. The curriculum for the subject includes topics such as the discrimination of minorities, tolerance, equal participation in social and political life, and early marriages, but it avoids mentioning gender explicitly.⁴¹ With regard to the issues of sexuality and reproductive health, these are thoroughly covered in the revised standard for biology textbooks.⁴² Beyond the subjects of biology and civic education, mainstreaming gender equality in general education remains marginal. A gender perspective is not purposefully integrated into the textbooks of literature, history and science. As mentioned above, ensuring

adequate teaching of gender-related issues in the classroom is a challenge that extends beyond the revision of textbooks. While civic education teachers receive targeted training on the issue of gender, the gender-sensitivity of teachers in other subjects is a persistent hurdle.

4.2.3 Learning outcomes and literacy

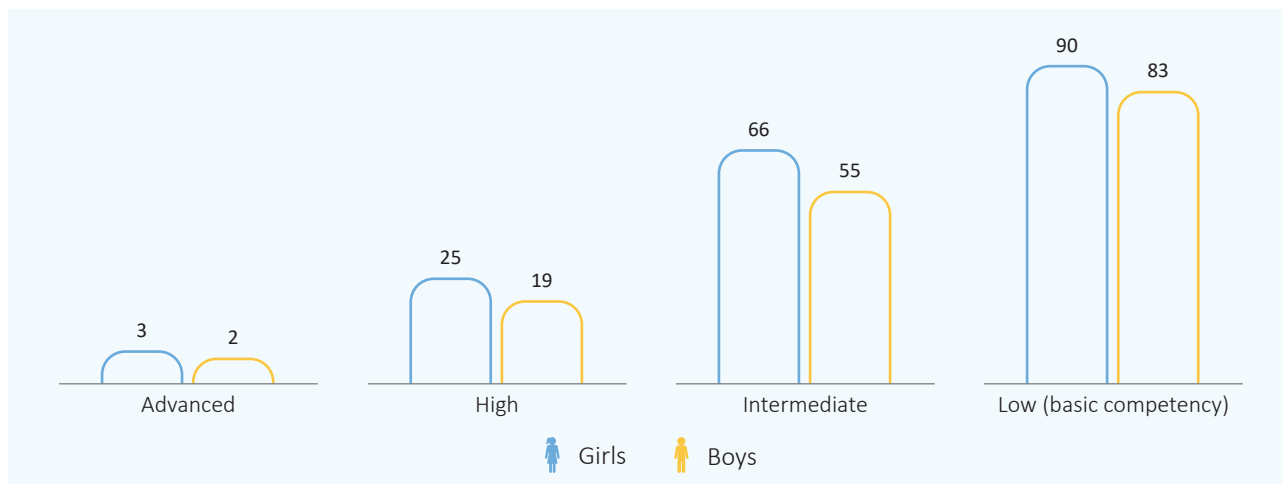
International assessments such as Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) represent crucial sources of data for understanding learning outcomes, as currently, Georgia does not conduct regular national assessments of students. Based on the latest available PIRLS data on student outcomes in reading, fourth-grade students’ average score in Georgia is well below the international average. Internationally, 96 per cent of participating students demonstrate at least basic competencies in reading (i.e. meeting the lowest international benchmark), while in Georgia, that indicator was 10 per cent lower (86 per cent).

When comparing reading competencies between

fourth-grade girls and boys, girls have consistently outperformed boys over the past four waves of PIRLS assessments.⁴³ In 2016, 90 per cent of girls demon-

strated at least minimum competencies in reading, while in the case of boys, only 83 per cent showed the same result.

FIGURE 4.7:
Percentage of fourth-grade students by their achieved level of competency in reading (%)

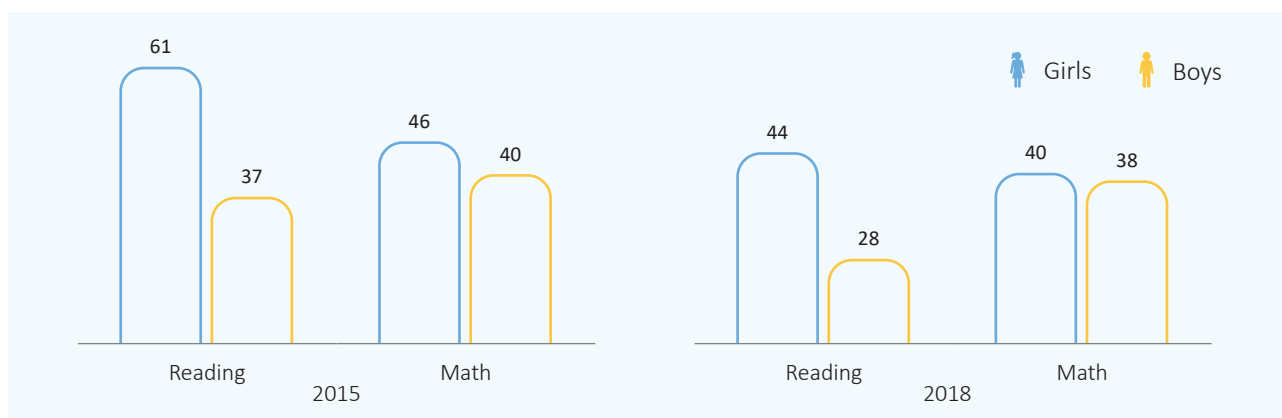


Source: NAEC 2016.

The other standardized assessment of reading competencies is PISA, which targets 15-year-old students (predominantly ninth-grade students in Georgia). PISA results also demonstrate Georgian students' significant underachievement and a downward trend from 2015 to 2018. In 2018, only 36 per cent of 15-year-old Georgian students showed basic competencies in reading

(level 2 or above), while the international average is 77 per cent. Similar to the PIRLS results, among 15-year-olds, girls significantly outperform boys in reading, with 44 per cent of girls reaching basic competency levels as compared to 28 per cent of boys.

FIGURE 4.8:
Percentage of 15-year-olds achieving basic competency, by subject (%)



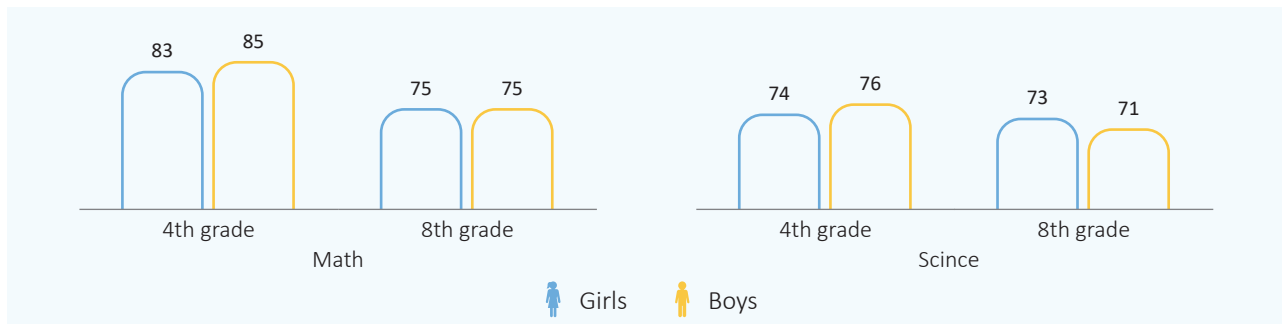
Source: NAEC 2018a.

In the case of math, 15-year-old girls performed markedly better than boys in 2015, but their scores were roughly equal in 2018, with 38–40 per cent reaching minimum competency levels. The same picture can be observed in the math and science competencies of fourth and eighth graders in 2019; boys and girls performed similarly, and no

statistically significant differences were observed among low or high achievers. Although math and science competencies are largely comparable between girls and boys during their school years, at the tertiary level, math- and science-related career tracks are largely dominated by boys (see the next subchapter).

FIGURE 4.9:

Percentage of fourth and eighth graders achieving basic competency, by subject (%)



Source: NAEC 2019.

SDG indicator 4.1.1.



- 90 per cent of girls and 83 per cent of boys in the fourth grade have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in reading.⁴⁴
- 44 per cent of girls and 28 per cent of boys in the ninth grade (15-year-olds) have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in reading⁴⁵
- 40 per cent of girls and 38 per cent of boys in the ninth grade (15-year-olds) have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in math.⁴⁶
- 83 per cent of girls and 85 per cent of boys in the fourth grade have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in math.⁴⁷

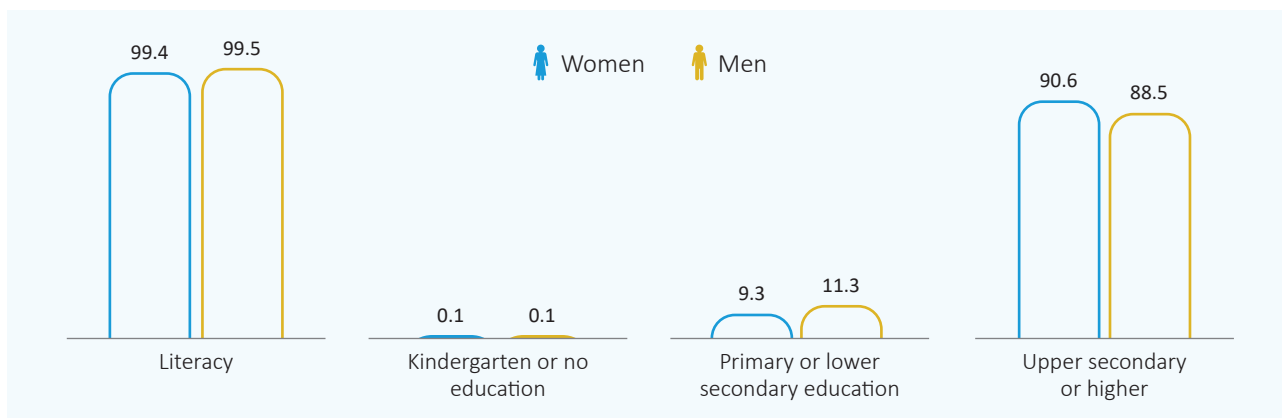
All assessments of students’ competencies show substantial spatial inequality based on the type of residence, inequality related to the family’s educational background, socioeconomic status and the type of school. Economically disadvantaged students from rural households studying at public schools perform significantly worse compared to their urban and wealthy peers studying at private schools, which points to the education system’s lim-

ited ability to counteract systemic social inequalities in Georgia.⁴⁸

In the adult population, overall, literacy rates among men as well as women are high in Georgia and consistently stand above 99 per cent. Only 0.1 per cent of the population has received no education, while 88.5 per cent of men and 90.6 per cent of women have an upper secondary education or above.

FIGURE 4.10:

Literacy and schooling in the 15–49 age group (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.



SDG indicator 4.6.1.

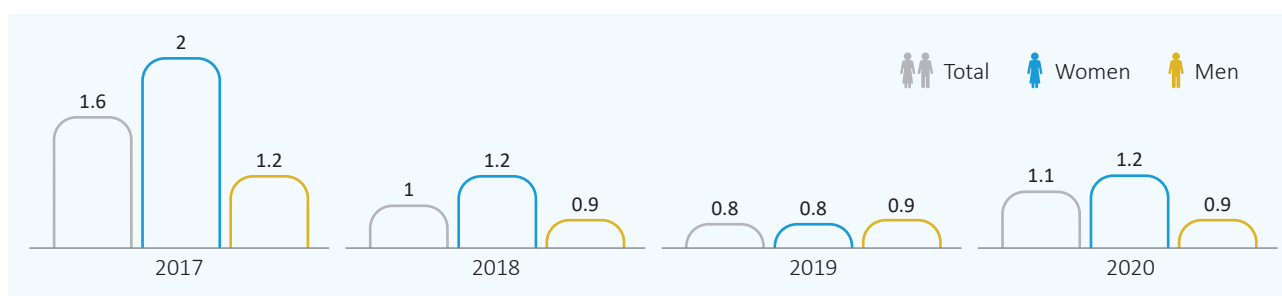
99.5 per cent of men and 99.4 per cent of women in the 15–49 age group achieve at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional literacy skills.⁴⁹

Literacy rates are markedly lower among people with disabilities; in the 15–24 age group, only 86 per cent of men and 87 per cent of women with functional disabilities are literate. As for educational attainment, 81 per cent of men and 79 per cent of women with functional disabilities achieve upper secondary education or above.⁵⁰

4.2.4 Vocational and higher education

One of the objectives of the Georgian education system is to encourage lifelong learning and skills development through formal and non-formal educational opportunities. Still, engagement of the adult population has remained low over the course of recent years and stands at 1.1 per cent in 2020, with women showing a slightly higher rate of participation.

FIGURE 4.11: Proportion of the population aged 25–64 who had been involved in formal or non-formal education and training over the course of the preceding four weeks (%)



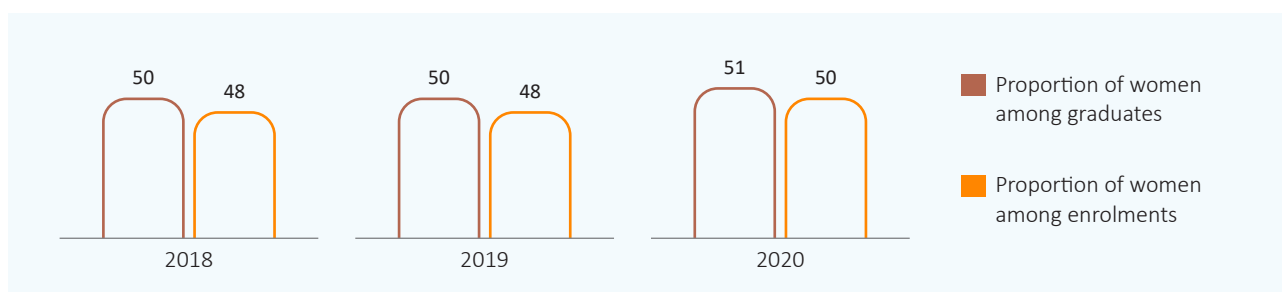
Source: Geostat, LFS (2017–2020).



Related to SDG indicators 4.3.1. 4.4.1. 4.5.1.

When looking specifically at the participation in vocational education, women’s engagement is on par with men and shows a small increase in 2020 in the number of graduates as well as enrolments.⁵¹

FIGURE 4.12: Women’s participation in vocational education (%)



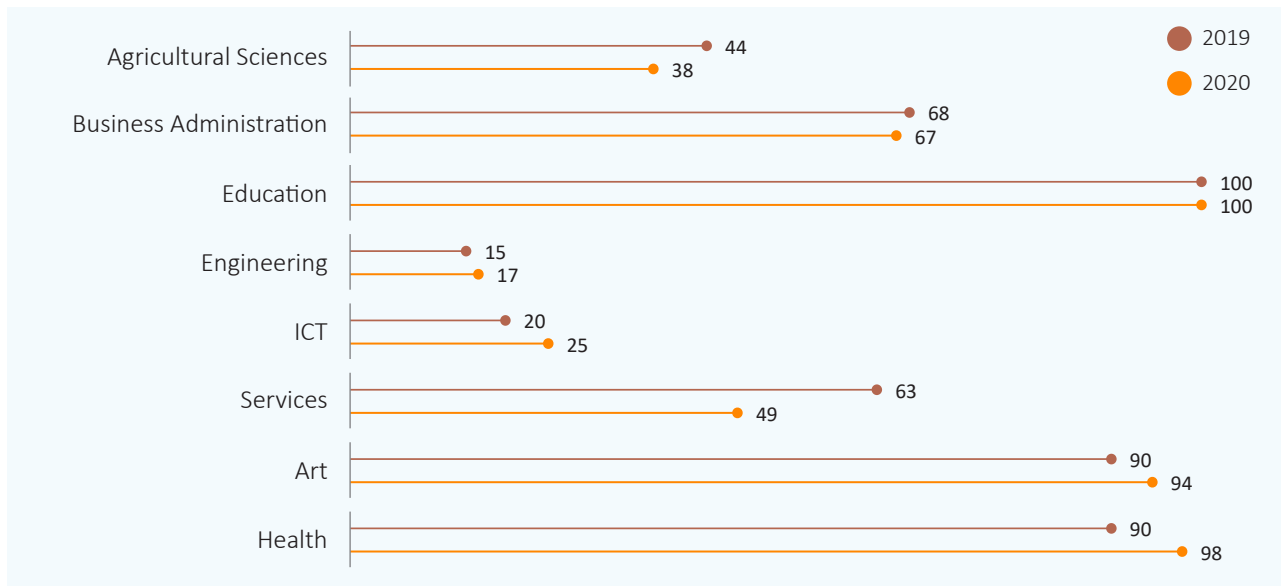
Source: Geostat 2021d.

Sex-based horizontal segregation in vocational education is explicit when looking at the data on graduates by study area. Gender stereotypes prevail in most vocational education and training (VET) programmes, with women predominantly

enrolling in traditionally female-dominated courses. Women are overrepresented in such fields of study as education, art, health and business administration, while men outnumber women in STEM fields.

FIGURE 4.13:

Proportion of female graduates of VET programmes, by field of study and year (%)



Source: Geostat 2021d.

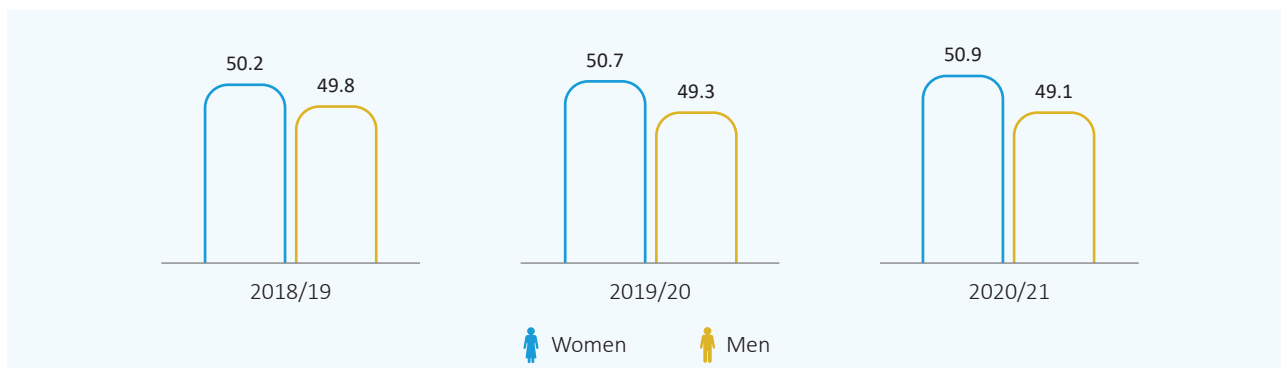


Related to SDG indicators 4.3.1. and 4.5.1.

Women’s and men’s participation in higher education is also largely equal, with women’s share being slightly larger. Notably, the proportion of women is higher at the graduate level (specifically for master’s degrees), reaching 54.8 per cent in the 2020/21 academic year.⁵²

FIGURE 4.14:

Distribution of bachelor’s and master’s degree students, by sex (%)



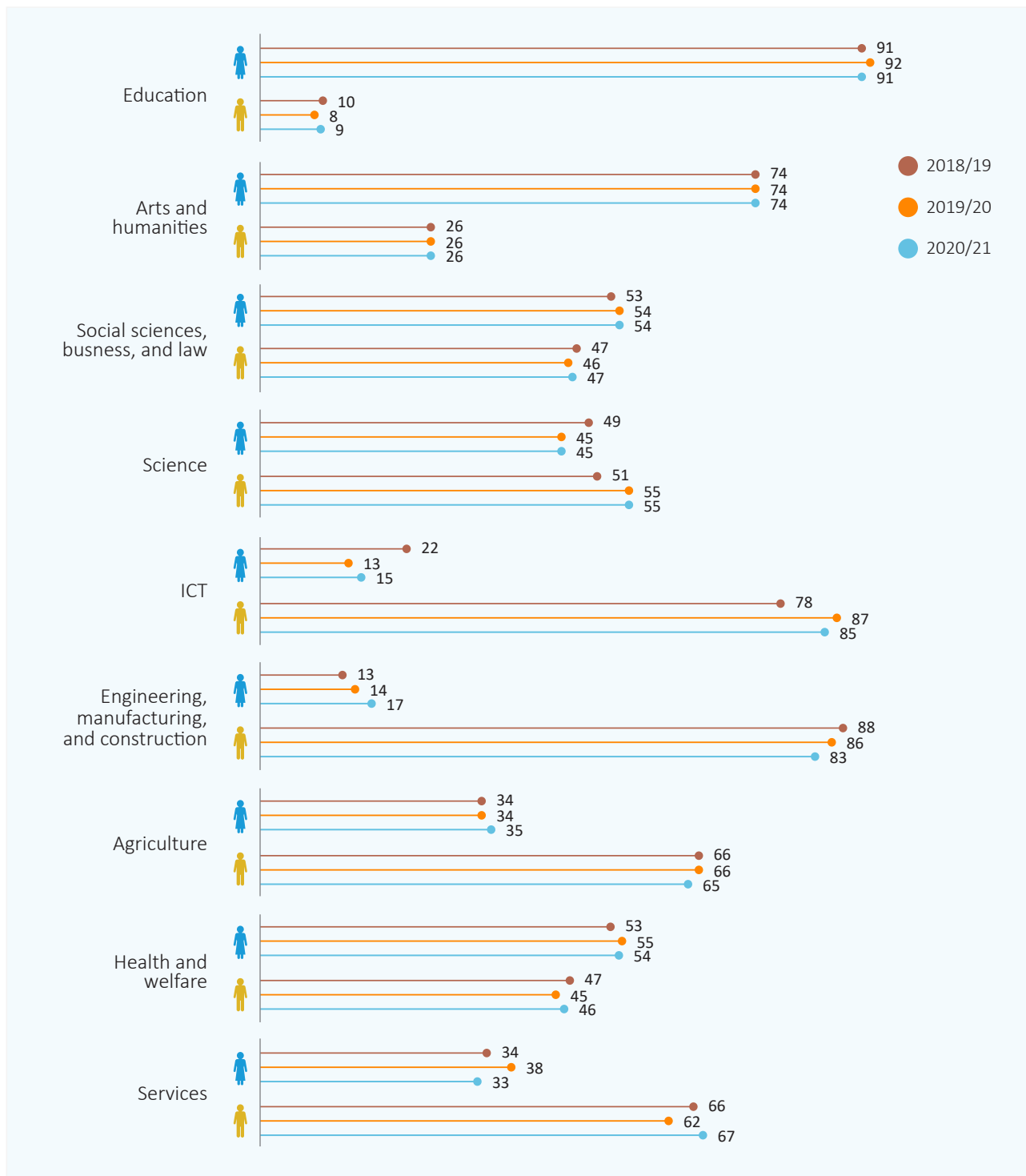
Source: Geostat 2021c.

The distribution of men and women across fields of study is similar in vocational and higher education. The challenges related to occupational stereotypes are also explicit at the higher education level. Women are underrepresented in STEM fields and dominate the fields of education, the arts, the humanities and social sciences. Looking specifically at ICT programmes

at the bachelor’s and master’s levels, in the 2020/21 academic year, women accounted for only 15 per cent of students. This is more than a 6-percentage-point decrease compared to the 2018/19 academic year. Conversely, in the field of engineering, women’s participation shows a slightly upward trend, growing from 13 per cent in 2018/19 to 17 per cent in 2020/21.

FIGURE 4.15:

Proportion of female and male students in bachelor's and master's programmes, by field of study (%)



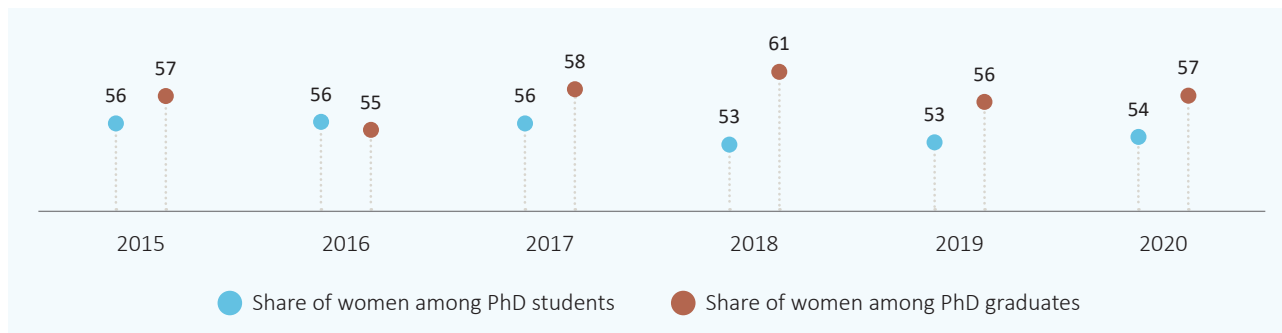
Source: Geostat 2021c.



Related to SDG indicator 4.5.1.

Women's participation is fairly high at the PhD level as well. Women outnumber men among students as well as graduates in all years between 2015 and 2020.⁵³

FIGURE 4.16:
Share of women among PhD students and graduates (%)



Source: Geostat 2021c.

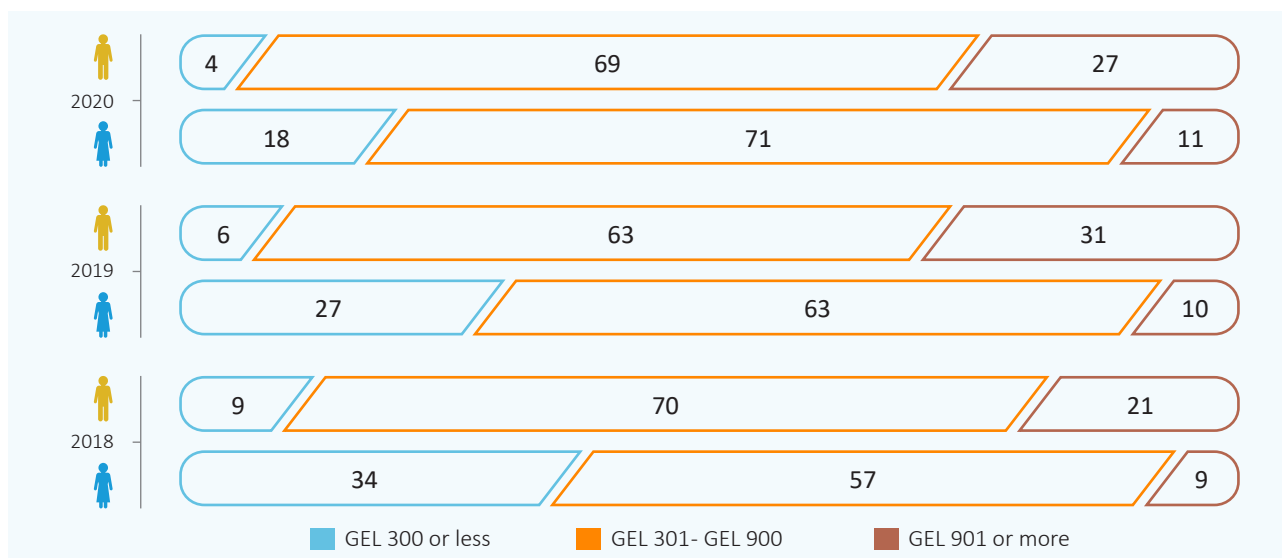
Once again, disparities emerge when looking at the fields of study. Women give preference to PhD programmes in education, the arts, the humanities, and health and welfare, while they are underrepresented in STEM fields.

Access to education is a powerful tool for the resocialization of inmates in penitentiary institutions, but in Georgia, this tool remains underutilized. Participation in post-secondary education among the inmates of penitentiary institutions remains fairly low overall, but it is much higher in the case of vocational training than higher education. Very few inmates gain a higher education degree while in prison (shares are well below 1 per cent for women as well as men), but as of December 2018, 38 per cent of female inmates were engaged in some type of vocational training. The indicator fell to 11 per cent in December 2019 and, as a result of the pandemic,

equalled zero in 2020. In absolute numbers, men's participation in vocational training is higher, but due to a much larger number of male inmates (there are nearly 30 times more male than female inmates), the share of their participation in vocational training is below 2 per cent.⁵⁴

Based on employment and remuneration data of VET graduates, women have lower salaries as compared to men.⁵⁵ In the surveys of VET graduates for the years 2018, 2019 and 2020, men were consistently overrepresented among the graduates with a salary of GEL 901 or more, while a larger share of women had salaries of GEL 300 or less. As noted above, female VET graduates are strongly overrepresented in the fields of education, art and health while being underrepresented in the fields of ICT and engineering. These disparities are likely to have contributed to the inequality in salaries after graduation.

FIGURE 4.17:
Salaries of VET graduates (%)



Source: Ministry of Education and Science 2020b.

In 2020, only 11 per cent of women had salaries of GEL 901 or higher as compared to 27 per cent among men,

and 18 per cent of women received GEL 300 or less as compared to only 4 per cent of male graduates.



SDG indicator 4.4.1.1.

47 per cent of female and 51 per cent of male VET graduates are employed or self-employed. (within a year after graduation) ⁵⁶

Employment rates among VET graduates within a year after graduation are fairly low overall, with roughly 45 per cent unemployed after graduation. The employment rate among women is slightly lower than that among men, and the difference is not statistically significant.

People with disabilities have been gaining greater access to VET education in recent years through adapted entrance examinations, designated enrolment quotas, infrastructural rehabilitation and the accessibility of buildings, the development of educational resources, and the introduction of vocational programmes targeted at PwD, among other improvements. In 2020, 190 applicants had special educational needs, 161 of whom enrolled in VET programmes. VET institutions provide SEN entrants with access to disability specialists and individual assistance, educational resources, computer equipment and IT support, but challenges remain in attracting people with disabilities into vocational programmes, ensuring their retention, successful graduation and subsequent employment.⁵⁷

School-to-work transition is an issue of particular concern in Georgia. Recent studies attest to high shares of people not in employment, education or training (NEET).⁵⁸ In 2019, 31 per cent of Georgia's youth in the age group 15–29 were neither employed nor involved in education or training.

Gender-disaggregated data show a marked disparity, with 37 per cent of women and 25 per cent of men being categorized as NEET. Despite high educational attainment among women in Georgia, their transition to and engagement in the labour market remains problematic. Women are hindered by gender stereotypes and family duties, which manifest at an early age and contribute to the widening of the NEET gender gap with age.



During the pandemic, shifting vocational education to an online environment was a particular challenge due to the hands-on nature of vocational programmes. Only a handful of programmes were successfully reframed into an online teaching format, and particular challenges emerged for people with disabilities. Access to higher education was also a challenge for people with disabilities. Support services from higher education institutions were sporadic in nature. Although some universities studied the challenges of their students with special needs and made special accommodations in terms of equipment and support, this was not done by all institutions.⁵⁹

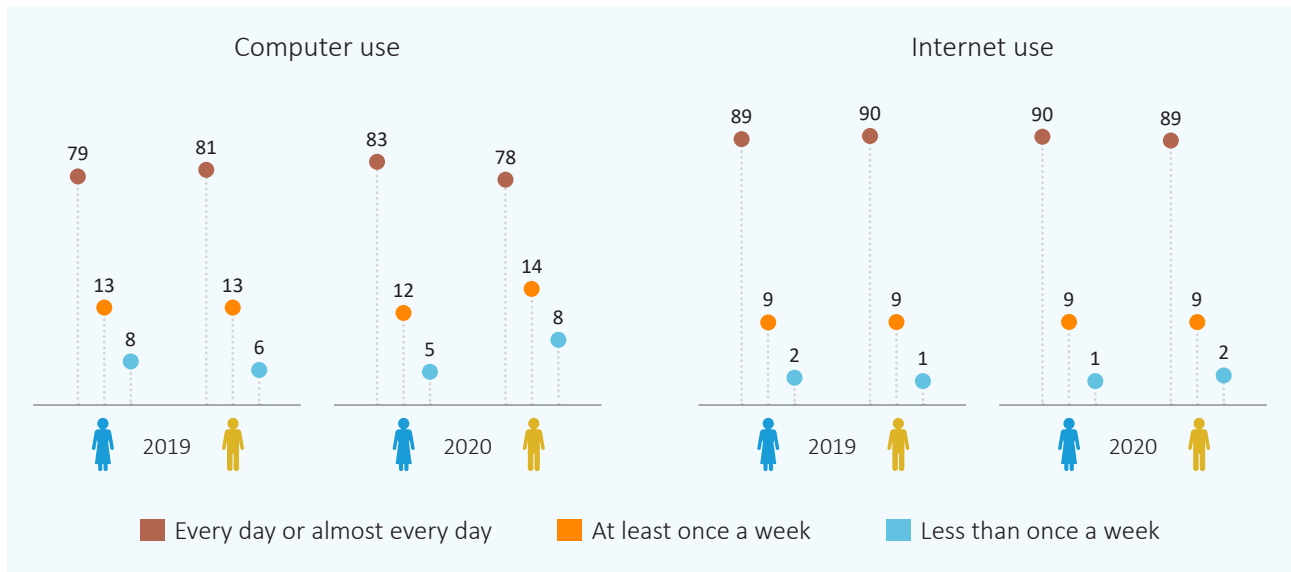
The pandemic accentuated the need for ICT skills for receiving education, participating in the labour market and benefiting from a wide variety of services that were restricted during the lockdown.



SDG indicator 4.4.1.

In Georgia, 79 per cent of women and 81 per cent of men use a computer every day or almost every day, while 89 per cent of women and 90 per cent of men use the Internet nearly on a daily basis.⁶⁰

FIGURE 4.18:
Computer and Internet use in the population aged 15 and above (%)



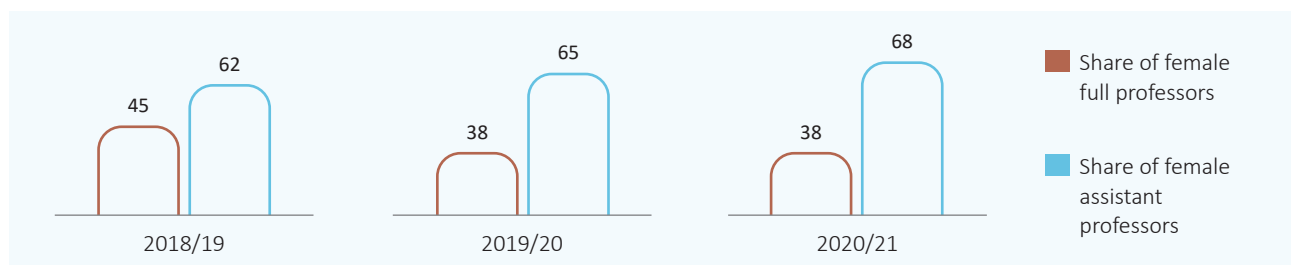
Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2020).

4.2.5 Research and academia

Women are actively involved in research and academia in Georgia. They are in the majority among professors and instructors in higher education institutions, totaling 58 per cent in the 2018/19 academic year and 60 per cent in the 2019/20 academic year. Interestingly,

a closer look at the distribution within different ranks of professors reveals women’s underrepresentation among full professors (38 per cent in the 2020/21 academic year) and overrepresentation among assistant professors (68 per cent in the 2020/21 academic year).

FIGURE 4.19:
Share of women among professors in each academic year (%)

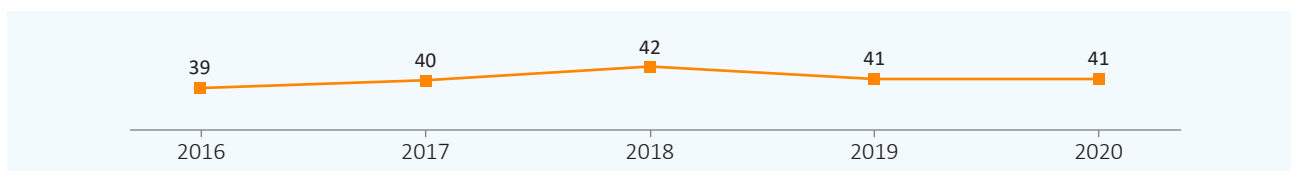


Source: Geostat 2021c.

The share of women is smaller than that of men among PhD supervisors as well. Men have consistently out-

numbered women over the past five years, with their share being, on average, 10 percentage points higher.⁶¹

FIGURE 4.20:
Share of women among PhD supervisors (%)

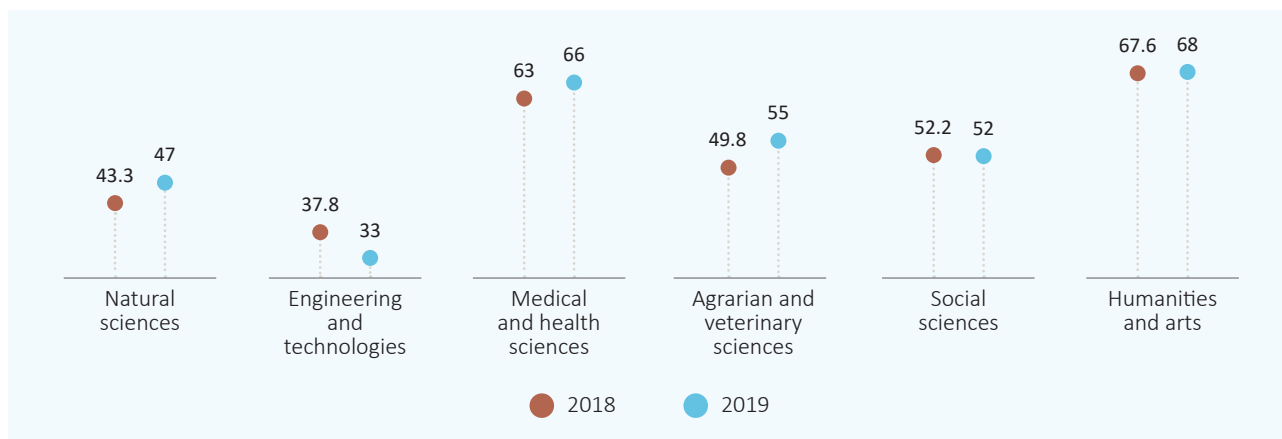


Source: Geostat 2021c.

Women are also in the majority among researchers, totalling 52 per cent in 2019. However, there is a notable disparity in sex distribution within fields of study.

Women are overrepresented in medical and health sciences, the humanities and the arts, while they are underrepresented in engineering and technology.

FIGURE 4.21:
Share of women researchers, by field (%)

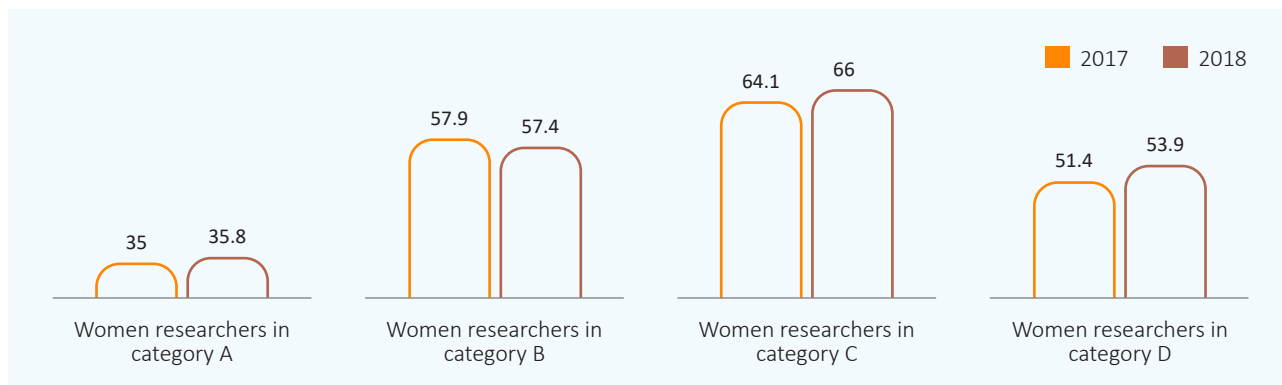


Source: Geostat, science statistics (2018–2019).

Hierarchical inequality is apparent when looking at the distribution of researchers based on their category (see the note to Figure 4.22). Women are underrepresented

in the highest category of researchers (corresponding to the positions of director of research or full professor) and overrepresented in the lower categories of researchers.⁶²

FIGURE 4.22:
Share of women researchers, by category (%)



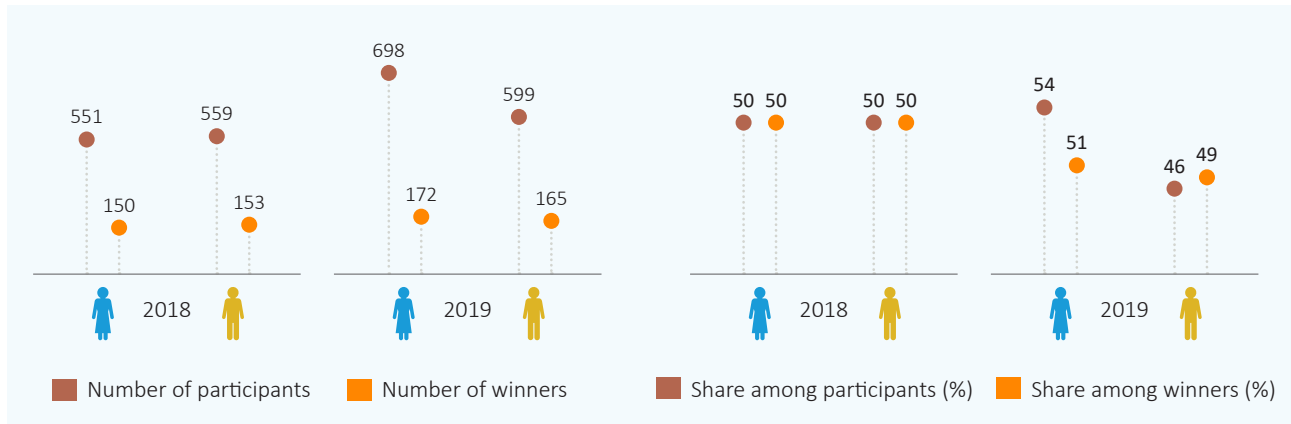
Source: UIS n.d.

Note: *Category A*: The single highest grade/post at which research is normally conducted, e.g. ‘Director of research’ or ‘Full professor’. *Category B*: Researchers working in positions not as senior as the top position (category A) but more senior than newly qualified doctoral graduates (ISCED level 8), e.g. ‘Senior researcher’ or ‘Principal investigator’ or ‘Associate professor’. *Category C*: The first grade/post into which a newly qualified doctoral graduate would normally be recruited, e.g. ‘Researcher’ or ‘Investigator’ or ‘Assistant professor’ or ‘Post-doctoral fellow’. *Category D*: Either doctoral students at the ISCED level 8 who are engaged as researchers, or researchers working in posts that do not normally require a doctorate degree, e.g. ‘PhD students’ or ‘Junior researchers’ (without a PhD). Master’s students who are counted as researchers would also fall under category D.

Women’s active participation in research activities is apparent from the data of the National Science Foundation of Georgia (NSFG). Women and men are al-

most equally represented among the participants as well as winners of national research grants.

FIGURE 4.23:
Women’s and men’s participation and success in competitions for national research grants

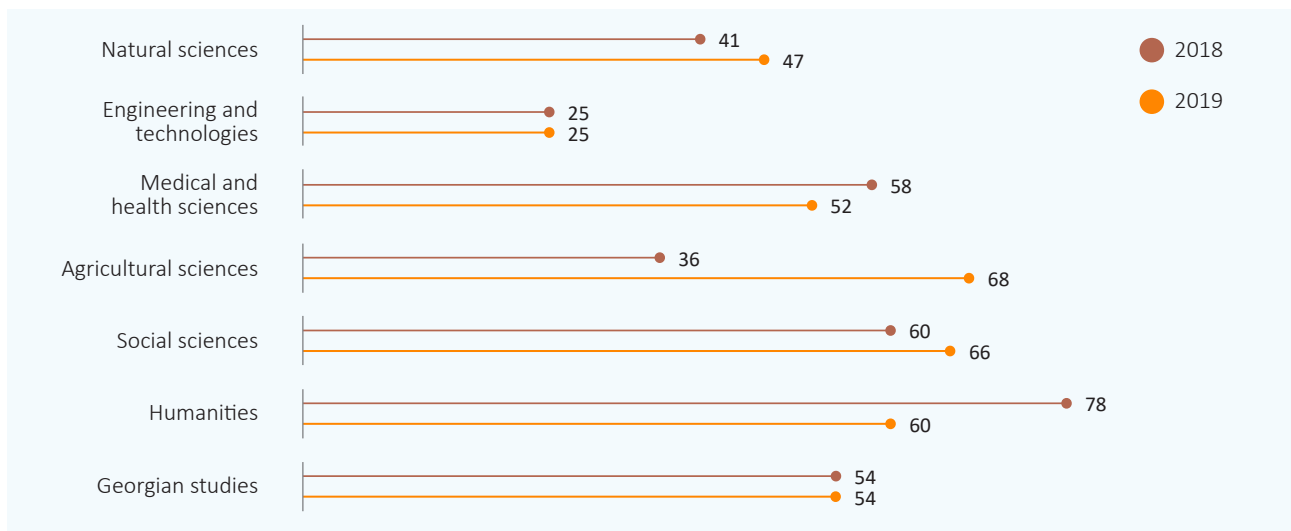


Source: NSFG (2018–2019).

Some horizontal segregation is revealed when looking at the distribution across fields of study, but notably, women grantees’ share is above 40

per cent in the natural sciences. A slight positive trend is also apparent towards achieving greater parity within individual fields of study.

FIGURE 4.24:
Share of women among NSFG research grant recipients, by field (%)



Source: NSFG (2018–2019).

4.3 Summary and recommendations

Georgian children are developmentally on track in their physical, social and emotional well-being and learning but significantly underperform in literacy and numeracy. Some of the reasons for this developmental loss can be found in the low quality of pre-school education and parenting practices.

ganizations, the non-governmental sector and state institutions, increase public awareness on good parenting practices that lead to beneficial developmental outcomes for children, including effective playtime practices, active engagement of fathers in the care of girls as well as boys, management of children’s interaction with electronic devices, etc.

- Through a concerted effort of international or-
- Through a concerted effort of international orga-

nizations, the non-governmental sector and local government authorities, improve the infrastructure, educational resources and qualifications of instructors in preschool institutions across Georgia, especially by ensuring greater access to early childhood education for ethnic minority children, training/retraining bilingual teachers and improving the availability of educational resources in order to utilize preschool education as a platform for the integration of ethnic minority children into the education system.

Access to quality secondary education remains a challenge for the country as a whole but especially so for rural areas and regions settled with ethnic minorities. Georgian adolescents underperform in all areas of knowledge and, in certain cases, show a downward trend in competencies. Students' low achievement is related to the low quality of teachers and ineffective implementation of the national curriculum in schools across the country. The pandemic put an additional strain on the overextended education system and created the danger of learning loss, which will have far-reaching ramifications for adolescents in their later years of education and work. The Government's increased attention towards the monitoring and follow-up of the cases of school dropout is an important step towards reducing the number of out-of-school children.

- Direct more effort at improving the qualification of the existing pool of teachers and attracting a new workforce into schools. It is important to ensure high-quality pre-service training for teachers and professional development opportunities throughout their service. Teacher training and retraining programmes should pay particular attention to the issues of gender equality, the integration of ethnic minorities, the inclusion of people with disabilities and civic education to ensure that teachers contribute to the building of a more equal and inclusive society.
- Improve gender-sensitive career guidance mechanisms within secondary education to ensure that equal competencies of girls and boys translate into their preferred careers and that they are not influenced by harmful stereotypes and faulty preconceptions. Teachers' training should include aspects of career guidance and gender sensitivity to ensure that boys and girls are supported in developing their skills and pursuing their interests.

- Duly engage teachers and principals in the early identification of children at risk of dropping out, the timely assessment of challenges faced by children and the provision of necessary services to ensure students' continued engagement in formal schooling. Particular attention should be paid to the high dropout rates among ethnic minority children. More work needs to be done with the teachers and principals of ethnic minority schools to ensure their collaboration in preventing and addressing cases of dropout. The active engagement of ethnic minority children in education is an important prerequisite for the effective integration of ethnic minorities into society.
- Ensure increased ICT skills and access to technology, as they are indispensable requisites of a quality education and effective participation in the labour market. Therefore, a large-scale effort needs to be directed towards increasing ICT skills and access to technology to students as well as teachers across the country, especially in rural areas and among economically disadvantaged households. It is important to ensure wider access to computers (especially in rural areas and among ethnic minority households) to ensure that they are able to fully benefit from online learning opportunities.

Engagement of the adult population in lifelong learning remains low in Georgia, although the rates of literacy and pre-existing educational training as well as recently initiated training/retraining programmes create a fertile ground for continued skills development. Engagement in higher education is high among girls and boys, but the popularity of vocational education remains limited. Vocational education is also underutilized as a tool for the resocialization of inmates in penitentiary institutions. The distribution of men and women across different fields of study at the tertiary level is heavily skewed, with women underrepresented in STEM fields and overrepresented in education, the arts and the humanities. Additionally, the employment rates and salaries of female graduates are lower compared to men.

- Increase the availability and popularity of vocational education throughout the population as a means of encouraging lifelong learning and re-skilling. Vocational education should also be better utilized for the resocialization of inmates and their integration into the labour market. Voca-

tional education can also become an important tool for reintegrating stay-at-home mothers and housewives into the labour market and providing a means of quick entry into the workforce. Effective mechanisms of career guidance should be integrated into the vocational education system to ensure that gender stereotypes are not blindly replicated in the choice of profession and that women as well as men explore a wider spectrum of career choices.

- Ensure that the governmental and non-governmental community make a concerted effort to increase women's engagement in STEM fields through positive discrimination policies, targeted programmes and information campaigns. Ed-

ucators and career guidance specialists should be sensitized to the gender-based social and cultural barriers hindering women's involvement in STEM professions. They should be trained to counteract existing gender barriers and stereotypes, as well as to provide necessary supportive mechanisms for greater engagement of men and women in underrepresented fields.

- Direct more effort towards the integration of people with disabilities at all levels of education. This demands more extensive information campaigns, development of relevant learning materials, preparation of qualified specialists and targeted support for educational institutions.

5. WOMEN AND HEALTH

5.1 Legislation and policy overview

The international commitments under CEDAW, the 2030 Agenda, the BPfA and other frameworks oblige Georgia to ensure that women and girls have full access to quality and affordable healthcare services by developing respective laws, policies, programmes and practices. Nowadays, the following documents create the national legal framework for health care in the country:

- Law of Georgia on Health Care (1997)
- Law of Georgia on Patient Rights (2000)
- Human Rights National Action Plan (2018–2020)
- National Maternal and Newborn Health Strategy (2017–2030) and Action Plan (2017–2019)
- Georgian National HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan (2019–2022)

In 2013, the Government of Georgia (GoG) introduced the Universal Healthcare Programme (UHP), which aimed to make basic healthcare services available for everyone and, thus, to “leave no one behind.” As indicated in the Voluntary National Review (VNR) on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, “the state took the responsibility to cover primary health care services, planned and urgent outpatient services, emergency inpatient services, planned surgical operations, delivery, and treatment of oncological diseases.”¹ Since the introduction of the UHP, the financial coverage of healthcare services has increased. In addition, the programme ensured better access to the services for a larger population.

Despite the progress made in the past decade, there are still gaps in Georgian health care. As indicated in the previous Country Gender Equality Profile of Georgia (2020), the financial coverage of the healthcare system lacks consistency and a multidimensional approach. Specifically, funds are allocated mainly for the hospital sectors under the UHP, while monitoring and quality assurance measures have not been introduced, nor have the costs and quality of medicines been regulated.²

When it comes to public attitudes, almost half of the population (49 per cent) is satisfied with the healthcare system in Georgia.³ Comparing the results to those of previous studies shows that overall satisfaction has increased since 2013, when 37 per cent of the population was satisfied. However, compared to the 2015 and 2017 data when satisfaction constituted 64 per cent and 62 per cent respectively, the trend is negative. With regard to universal insurance, 73 per cent of the respondents use it; of them, 88 per cent are satisfied with the service, and 68 per cent trust it.⁴ Other studies show that 54 per cent of men and 45 per cent of women believe their health to be good or very good.⁵



During the COVID-19 pandemic, the overall healthcare system as well as medical personnel had to face additional challenges. While analysing the difficulties that the healthcare system faced on the municipal level in Georgia, EECMD’s policy paper argues that the key challenges were as follows: the lack of human resources; the dependence of the crisis management process on the epidemiologists’ and healthcare professionals’ efforts at the local level; and the lack of the municipalities’ efforts to provide the local population with the COVID-19-related information.⁶ The challenges faced by the healthcare workers during the pandemic are discussed in a 2020 publication by UN Women and UNFPA. The report focuses on female first responders and stresses that the pandemic had a significant impact on worsening the working conditions of women healthcare workers, increasing the threats to their physical and psychological well-being; the pandemic affected their household’s economic condition negatively and increased women’s burden of paid and non-paid work.⁷

5.2 National data

5.2.1 Reproductive health

Maternal mortality ratio

One of the key indicators for gender equality is the state of female sexual and reproductive health (SRH). Data show that Georgia has taken steps in improving maternal health care in the country and

that the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) has been decreasing in recent years. Under the SDGs, Georgia

aims to reduce the country's MMR to at least 12 per 100,000 live births.⁸



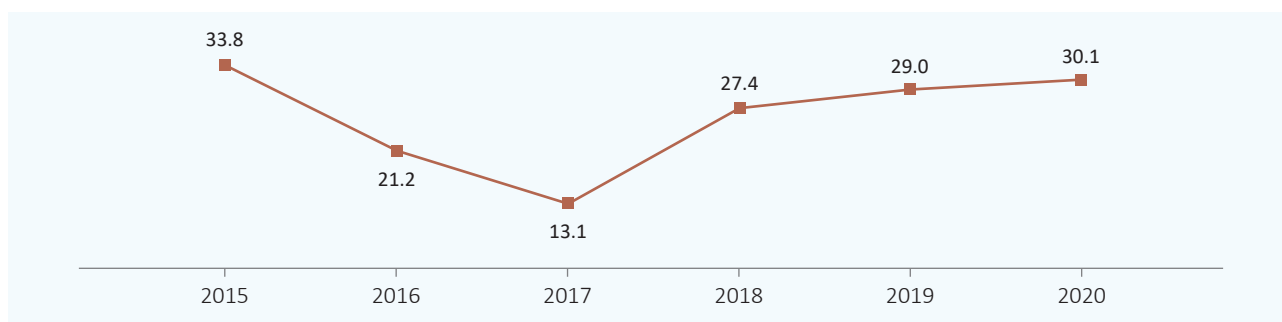
SDG indicator 3.1.1.

In 2020, the MMR was estimated as 30.1.⁹

Despite the progress, according to UN inter-agency estimates, Georgia's MMR is still above the regional average of the Eastern Europe and Central Asia countries.¹⁰ According to a 2020 report by the Public Defender's Office (PDO), despite some progress regarding maternal health care, there are still a number of existing challenges. Specifically, the state programme for maternal health care covers only aspects of physical care and leaves out mental health, with no programme to cover psychological services. The

State offers prenatal services but has no systemic approach to postnatal care.¹¹ Georgia's national report to the BPfA identifies the following reasons for higher maternal mortality: (i) the low quality of antenatal and perinatal care; (ii) a weak transport system; (iii) a weak regulatory and monitoring system; (iv) the lack of referral mechanisms in maternal healthcare services, such as emergency obstetric care; and (v) the shortage of trained professionals in maternity clinics and consultation centres, especially in the regions.¹²

FIGURE 5.1:
Maternal mortality ratio (%)

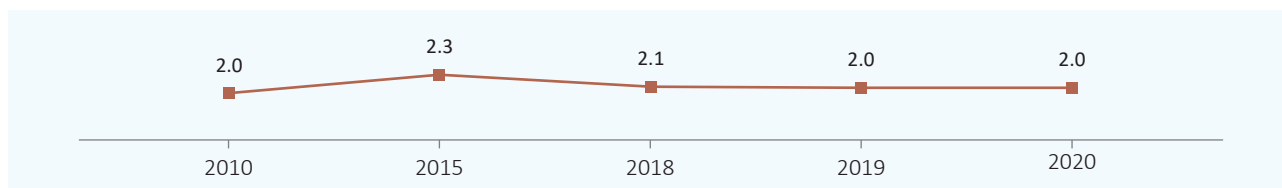


Source: Geostat 2020g.

Another indicator under the topic of reproductive health is the total fertility rate (TFR), which was 2.0 in Georgia in 2020. It is important that fertility has

remained almost the same in recent years. As a comparison, the TFR was 2.0 in 2010 and 2.3 in 2015.¹³

FIGURE 5.2:
Total fertility rate in Georgia



Source: Geostat 2020a.

Family planning and the use of contraceptives

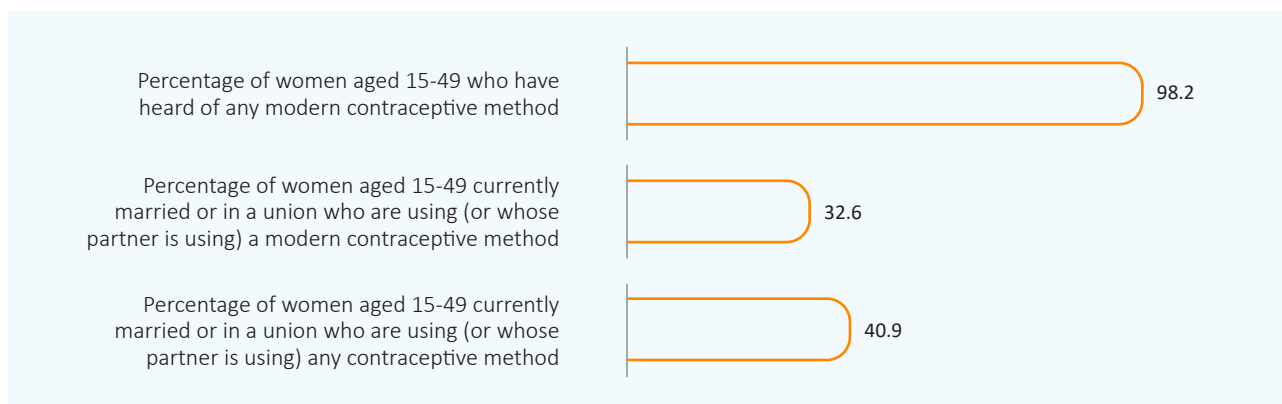
Issues related to family planning and the use of contraceptives is still challenging in Georgia.¹⁴ Studies show that the use of contraceptives has significantly increased in recent decades.¹⁵ Despite this fact, the

use of contraceptives is rather low in Georgia. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) that was conducted in Georgia in 2018 revealed that the vast majority (98.2 per cent) of women have heard of modern contraceptives, but the actual use of contraceptives is low. Specifically, 32.6 per cent of women

aged 15–49 currently married or in a union are using (or whose partner is using) a modern contraceptive method, and 40.9 per cent are using any contracep-

tive method.¹⁶ Compared to the global average of contraception usage, which is 62 per cent, the use prevalence in Georgia is rather low.¹⁷

FIGURE 5.3:
Knowledge and use of modern contraceptives (%)

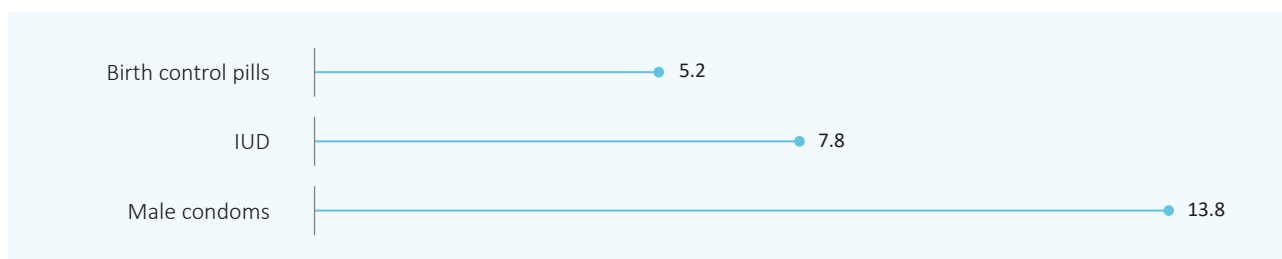


Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

The above data are indicative of the existing gap “between the awareness of the method and the knowledge of its effectiveness.”¹⁸ As indicated above, only about one third (32.6 per cent) of women aged

15–49 currently married or in a union are using (or whose partner is using) a modern contraceptive. The use of different types of modern contraceptives is presented in Figure 5.4 below.

FIGURE 5.4:
Percentage of women (or their partner) aged 15–49 currently married or in a union using modern contraceptives (%)



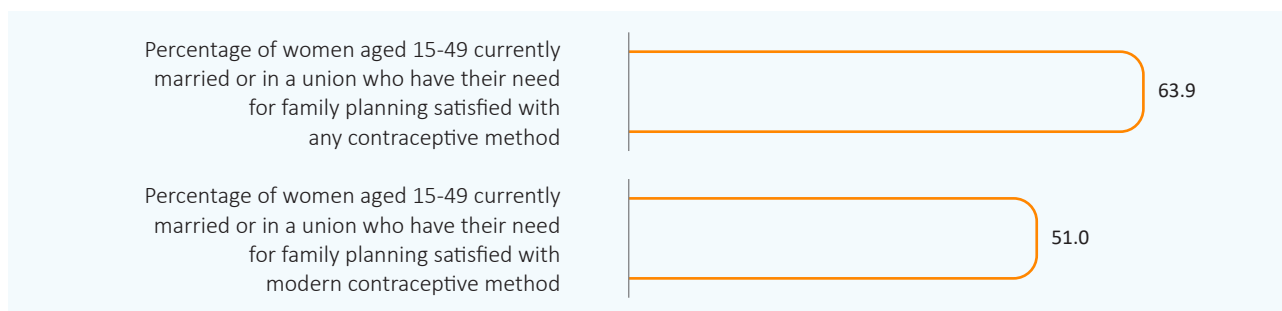
Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

The use of modern methods is substantially higher in urban areas than in rural areas, at 38 per cent and 25 per cent respectively. The use of modern contraception (particularly condoms) also varies strongly with age and is highest in the 25–29 age group (44.6 per cent). Usage declines as age increases and is lowest (12.1 per cent) in the 45–49 age group. Socioeconomic status also correlates with the use of modern methods, with 19.9 per cent usage among the poorest people and 41.4 per cent among the wealthiest.¹⁹

UNFPA’s analysis of SRH revealed that the prevalence of contraceptive use has decreased from 53.4 per

cent in 2010 to 45.4 per cent in 2018 among women aged 15–44.²⁰ According to the report, the difference was mainly due to the fact that the use of traditional methods declined from 18.5 per cent in 2010 to only 8.5 per cent in 2018, but the use of modern methods did not increase,²¹ and the unmet need for modern contraceptives is extremely high, at 31 per cent. The low level of use of modern contraceptives can be attributed to several facts: contraceptives are not being covered by the UHP and the service is not included in the Primary Healthcare level; the prices in private pharmacies are high; there is a lack of information about their usage; and the Orthodox Church has a conservative influence over society.²²

FIGURE 5.5:
Percentage of women who have their needs for family planning satisfied (%)

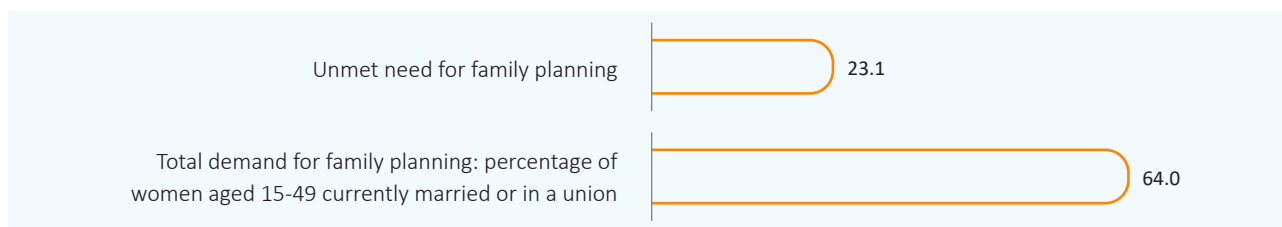


Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

According to the MICS, the total demand for family planning constitutes 64 per cent, and the unmet need for family planning is 23.1 per cent, which is a

very high number compared to European standards. This leads to a greater risk of unwanted pregnancies.²³

FIGURE 5.6:
Demand and need for family planning (women aged 15–49) (%)

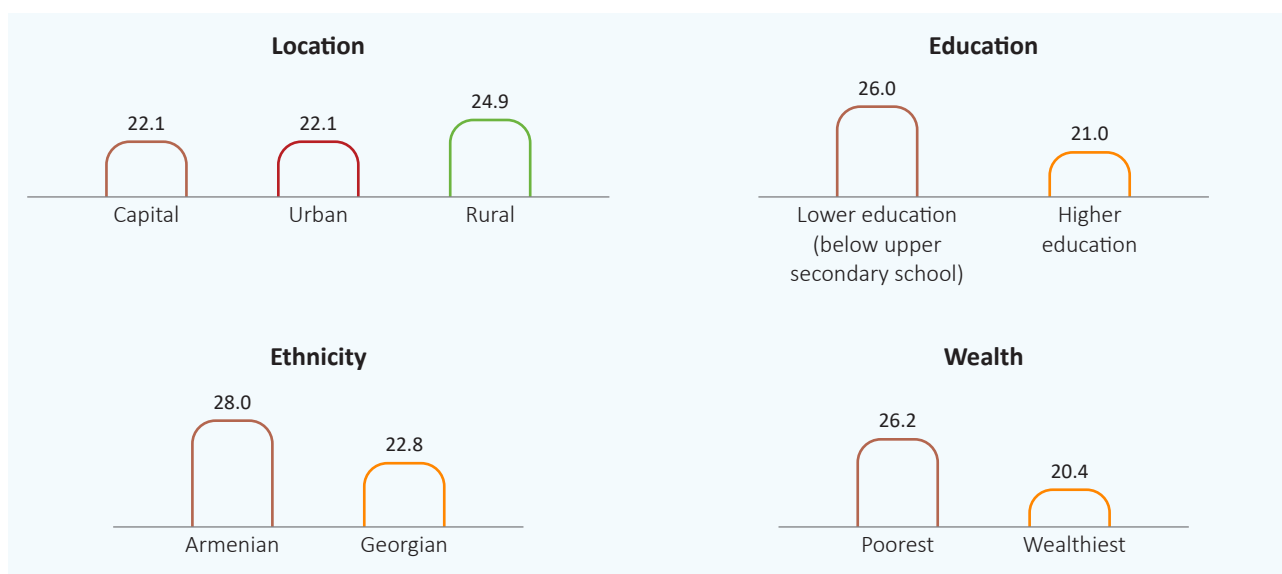


Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

The unmet need for family planning slightly differs among social groups. Figure 5.7 below shows

the existing differences.

FIGURE 5.7:
Unmet need for family planning (%)



Source: UNFPA 2019a.

Analysing the need and demand for family planning among women currently married or in union, by functional disability status, shows that the total demand for family planning among women with dis-

abilities constituted 58.3 per cent. The share of the demand for family planning satisfied with any method is 31.3 per cent and 26.4 per cent with modern methods among women with disabilities.²⁴

TABLE 5.1:
Demand for family planning among women with disabilities (%)

	Total demand for family planning	Percentage of demand for family planning satisfied with the following	
		Any method	Modern methods (SDG 3.7.1; MSGI 32)
Women with disabilities	58.3	31.3	26.4
Women without disabilities	64.6	41.9	33.4

Source: UN Women and UNICEF 2021. Based on MICS 2018 data.



SDG indicator 5.6.1.

79.2 per cent of women aged 15–49 say that they make their own decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care.

It should be stressed that making their own decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive usage and reproductive health care empowers women and enables them to exercise their reproductive rights. Based on the MICS data, one fifth (20.8 per cent) of women aged 15–49 in Georgia are still deprived of this right.²⁵



COVID-19-related restrictions and the state of emergency have further decreased access to and utilization of family planning services.²⁶ However, a 2021 study by UNFPA argues that the “observed lack of family planning counselling during a pandemic is not the direct result of the pandemic; instead, it’s more of a consequence of weak family planning practices.”²⁷



SDG indicator 3.7.1.

The MICS results illustrate that 51 per cent of women aged 15–49 currently married or in a union have their need for family planning satisfied with modern contraceptive methods and 63.9 per cent with any contraceptive method.

The data provided by the NCDC suggest that there has been a slight increase in the number of attended antenatal care visits. Specifically, attendance of at least four antenatal visits has increased from 81 per cent in 2018 to 85.2 per cent in 2020. A simi-

lar trend is observed in the share of timely initiated antenatal care, 80 per cent in 2018 and 86.7 per cent in 2020. Thus, overall the COVID-19 outbreak has not affected the access to basic antenatal care services.



SDG indicator 3.1.2.

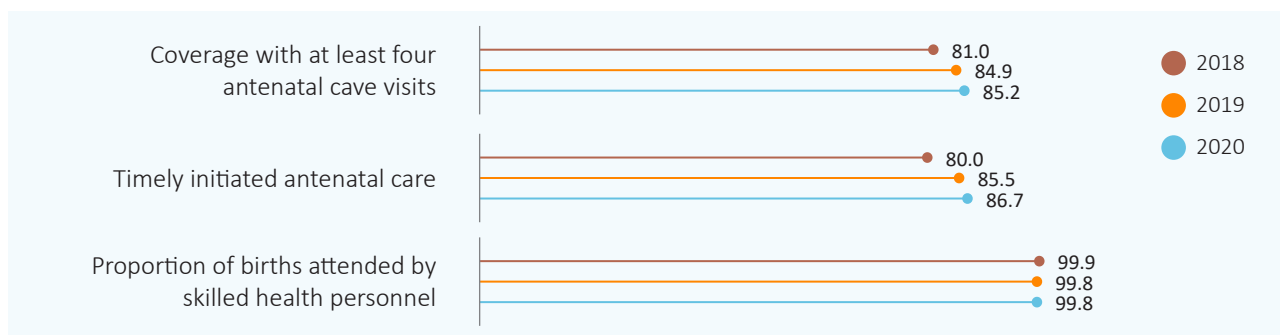
As for the proportion of births attended by skilled personnel, virtually all births are attended by skilled health staff and constitute 99.8 per cent.

UNFPA’s 2021 study revealed that COVID-19 did not have a significant impact on the provision of antenatal care services, delivery services and post-partum

care and that these services continued during the state of emergency and lockdown.²⁸

FIGURE 5.8:

Share of women who benefit from antenatal care (%)



Source: NCDC (2018–2020).

It should be noted that the PDO found a low level of awareness about state-funded programmes among women and argues that their respondents did not have information about the eight antenatal visits that are free of charge.²⁹

Abortion

Based on the MICS, the total induced abortion rate (TIAR) per woman is 0.9 in the country. The TIAR per

1,000 women in the past five years is 130.3, the lifetime TIAR is 909.4, and the TIAR per woman in the past five years is 0.1. Comparing the MICS results to the Georgia Reproductive Health Survey (GERHS 10),³⁰ according to which the lifetime TIAR per woman was 3.7 in 1999, 3.1 in 2005 and 1.6 in 2010, there has been a decrease in the TIAR. Studies suggest that such rapid change is very unlikely to occur and argue that it can only be explained by increased underreporting rather than a decline in abortions.³¹

TABLE 5.2:

Total induced abortion rate (TIAR), per 1,000 women

TIAR in the past five years	130.3
Lifetime TIAR	909.4
TIAR per woman in the past five years	0.1
Lifetime TIAR per woman	0.9

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

Recent studies identify barriers to accessing safe abortion. The key hindering factors are (i) geographic location and (ii) the lack of financial means, both of which are barriers to accessing abortion services.³² In addition, the five mandatory days to consider/reconsider abortion is an additional barrier for women.³³ Similar barriers were identified by women residing in rural areas and by internally displaced women.³⁴ The Georgian Young Lawyers' Association (GYLA) stresses the issue of the rights of women with regard to forced abortions. According to article 39 of the Istanbul Convention, forced abortion is one of the serious forms of violence against women. Despite the obligations that Georgia accepted after the ratification of the Istanbul Convention, the issue of forced abortions is

still not regulated by law.³⁵



COVID-19 had a significant impact on obtaining services related to sexual and reproductive health. A recent study conducted by UNFPA argues that the pandemic-related restrictions increased the risks of unsafe abortions.³⁶ According to the study results: "the Government recommended temporary discontinuation of non-urgent and planned health appointments. Consequently, health clinics categorized non-emergency abortion as 'elective' or 'non-essential', which further constrained access to abortion care during the emergency state and lockdown."³⁷ Notably, some of the hospitals switched to telemedicine services and provided pre- and post-abortion

counselling and post-abortion follow-up over the phone.³⁸

Education on sexual and reproductive health

The lack of knowledge and information about sexual and reproductive health is still a challenge. Several components on sexual and reproductive health are integrated in the National Education Curriculum and Biology and Civic Education subject standards, according to the WHO and UNESCO technical Guidelines. However, according to the PDO, comprehensive sexuality education is not fully integrated into the formal education system, which means that young people do not receive sufficient information about such topics as gender and power inequalities, sexual orientation and safe sexual relations, among others.³⁹ The lack of education on human sexuality leads to the fact that young women cannot protect themselves against early marriage, teenage pregnancy and other discriminatory practices.⁴⁰

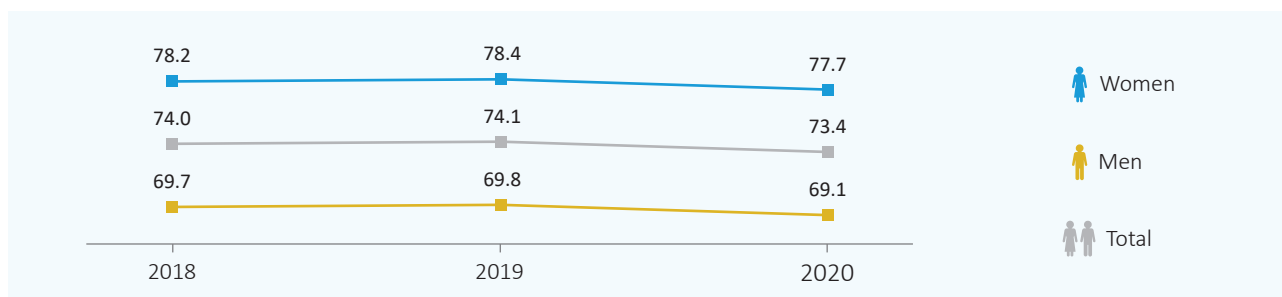
Access to information and sexual and reproductive health services is especially problematic for vulnerable groups such as people with disabilities.⁴¹ Some key barriers that are specific to this group are as follows:

- There is a lack of sexual and reproductive health services designed specifically for women with disabilities.
- Medical personnel lack knowledge and competencies that are needed to provide services for women with disabilities.
- The infrastructure and physical environment are not adapted to the needs of people with disabilities.
- The sexuality of women with disabilities is taboo in society.⁴²

5.2.2 Average life expectancy and disease incidence

The average life expectancy at birth has slightly increased in the past decade and constitutes 73.4 years. Based on the 2020 data, female life expectancy was 77.7, while male life expectancy was 69.1, with a gender gap of 8.6 years (see Figure 5.9). Based on Geostat’s 2020 data, life expectancy at 65 was 16.8 for women and 12.7 for men.⁴³ Notably, there was a slight increase in life expectancy at 65 in the past decade, with 16.1 years for women and 12.7 years for men in 2010.⁴⁴

FIGURE 5.9:
Average life expectancy



Source: Geostat 2020g.



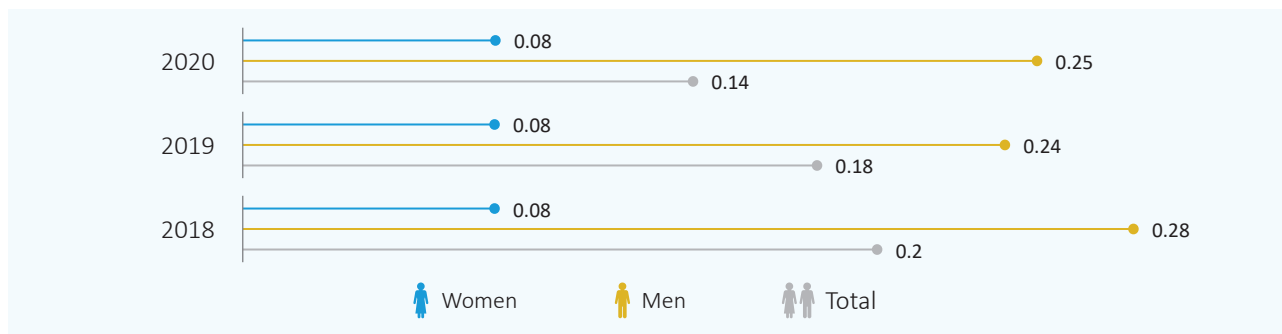
SDG indicator 3.3.1.

According to the Georgian AIDS Center, the incidence of HIV per 1,000 population in 2020 was 0.14, which indicates a slight decrease in incidence of HIV compared to the 2018–2019 period, when the incidence of HIV per 1,000 population was 0.2.

The new cases registered in 2018 were 672, compared to 668 and 530 registered cases in 2019 and 2020, respectively. The decrease of HIV incidence might be due to the decline in referrals during the

pandemic. Figure 5.10 below presents the incidence of HIV per 1,000 population disaggregated by sex during the past three years.

FIGURE 5.10:
Incidence of HIV per 1,000 population, by sex (%)

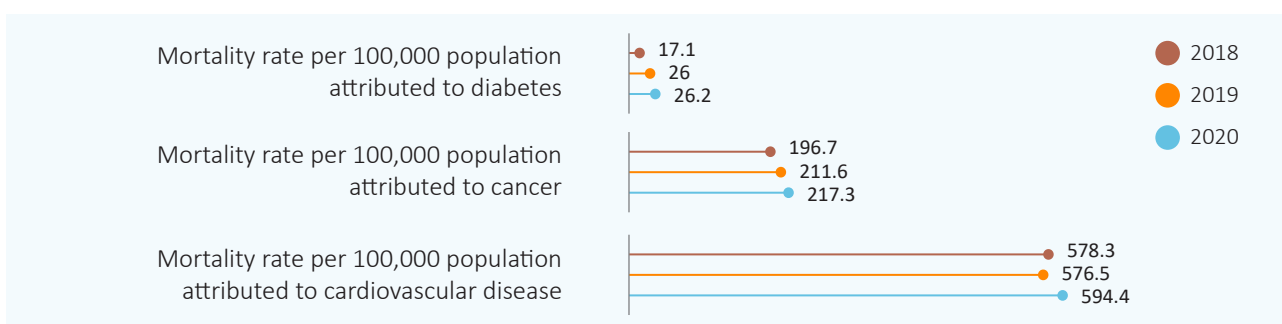


Source: Authors' own calculations based on NCDC data (2020).

As the data suggest, the prevalence of HIV is higher among men than women. The lack of comprehensive information and the stigma against HIV-positive people are identified as hindering factors to better preventing the transmission and spread of the infection.⁴⁵

The mortality rate per 100,000 population constituted 13.6 in 2020.⁴⁶ The mortality rate is higher among males than females for all cohorts, except for those over the age of 75.⁴⁷ Mortality rates attributed to different types of diseases are presented in Figure 5.11.

FIGURE 5.11:
SDG indicator 3.4.1. Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer and diabetes per 100,000 population



Source: Geostat, healthcare statistics (2018–2019).



SDG indicator 3.4.2.

As for suicide, the mortality rate constituted 6.7 in 2018, 7.0 in 2019 and 5.5 in 2020 based on Geostat data.

Among other aspects, the outbreak of COVID-19 has influenced the physical and psychological well-being of people as well as their access to essential services. In 2020, UN Women conducted a rapid gender assessment (RGA) that aimed to assess the impact of COVID-19 on the lives of women and men residing in Georgia. The study was implemented in two waves and thus gives an opportunity for data comparison.⁴⁸ The research results suggest that 49 per cent of the Georgian population have

experienced a deterioration in their mental health because of the pandemic, with more women (57 per cent) than men (40 per cent) likely to report so.⁴⁹ The study also found that “respondents living with disabled household members had a significantly higher probability (63 per cent) of experiencing stress and anxiety than those in households with no disabled members (49 per cent).”⁵⁰

The impact of the pandemic on physical and psy-

chological health was especially evident among vulnerable groups, such as elderly people⁵¹ and women working in the healthcare sector; they include doctors, nurses, sanitation staff and emergency staff, who were first responders to the pandemic.⁵²

The RGA also asked whether people encountered difficulties accessing health-related services during the

pandemic. The study results suggest that with regard to access to (i) hygiene and sanitary products (soap, water treatment tabs, menstrual products) and (ii) medical supplies for personal protection (masks, gloves, etc.), fewer people report having problems accessing them.⁵³ As for the health services/assistance (for oneself or for their family members), slightly more people had faced difficulties accessing such services.⁵⁴

FIGURE 5.12:
Some or major difficulties experienced with accessing health services and supplies, 2020 (%)



Source: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.

When studying the accessibility of medical treatment for people with disabilities, the RGA argues that the pandemic—and specifically the switch to telemedicine services—brought significant changes for people with disabilities. In particular, their access to psychological, physical or social therapy was hindered due to the lack of Internet access and the challenges related to facilitating sessions in a domestic environment.⁵⁵

5.3 Summary and recommendations

Despite tangible progress towards improving the healthcare system in Georgia in recent years, a number of challenges still need to be addressed to improve women’s access to quality healthcare services. The Government of Georgia needs to ensure that the international obligations regarding women’s health are implemented successfully.

Access to maternal health care has improved in general in recent years. However, women still do not have access to high-quality pre- and postnatal services, especially women living in rural areas. The availabil-

ity and quality of antenatal and maternal healthcare services needs to be improved, particularly in rural areas. It is recommended that the GoG:

- Develop a systematic approach to postnatal care that will ensure the provision of postnatal services, including psychological counselling through state programmes, as well as implementing awareness-raising activities about existing services.
- Ensure universal access to quality SRH services for women and youth by integrating these services into the UHP Basic Benefit Package.
- Further strengthen efforts to improve the quality of health care, including through further development of the system of Continuous Medical Education for healthcare service providers.
- Ensure formal and informal education on healthy lifestyles and comprehensive sexuality education for women and youth, including women and youth with disabilities, to improve their health outcomes.

Vulnerable groups such as women with disabilities,

ethnic minority women and women living in rural areas have additional barriers to accessing healthcare services. The GoG should:

- Ensure the availability and affordability of healthcare services for the aforementioned vulnerable groups.
- Align the health legislation with the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), and ensure better access to health care for women with disabilities through the integration of non-discriminatory language and approaches, reasonable accommodation, informed consent and patients' participation in decision-making.
- Adapt the existing social and healthcare programmes (including the UHP) to better meet the needs of women with disabilities.
- Conduct awareness-raising campaigns among vulnerable groups to provide them with information about existing healthcare services. To increase the access to information for ethnic minority representatives, conduct campaigns in their respective languages.

The use of modern contraceptives is low in Georgia, and the unmet need for family planning is rather high. Women still have a number of barriers to accessing safe abortion.

- Include family planning counselling and contraceptives in the Basic Benefit Package of the UHP of Georgia, especially for the socially vulnerable population, and implement awareness-raising programmes on the importance of family planning and modern methods of contraception and their use.
- Have the Government ensure that safe abortion is affordable and available for women, especially for those living in rural areas, ethnic minorities and women with disabilities, and implement awareness-raising campaigns to provide women with information on reproductive rights, family

planning and abortion. Accessibility to the information should be ensured for ethnic minority women and women with disabilities.

- Reconsider the mandatory five-day waiting period before an abortion can be performed, given that according to international guidelines and existing studies, waiting time does not influence a woman's decision; it is an additional barrier and further increases the risks of unsafe abortions.
- Consider funding abortion under the UHP in the event that pregnancy occurred as a result of rape.

The lack of comprehensive sexuality education is one of the hindering factors for women to have information on sexual and reproductive health. Information about HIV/AIDS is still not accessible for many. HIV-positive people are stigmatized in society. The lack of information and the existing stereotypes hinder the effective prevention of transmission and spread of the infection.

- Include components on human sexuality in the formal education system.
- Introduce out-of-school comprehensive sexuality education for vulnerable groups, including for women and youth with disabilities.
- Implement effective awareness-raising campaigns on HIV/AIDS, stigma and discrimination, and risky behaviour to increase motivation and uptake of available HIV preventive services.



COVID-19 had a major influence on healthcare service provision. It is recommended that healthcare policies, technical guidelines and protocols for service delivery, including services related to sexual and reproductive health and HIV, be adapted to the COVID-19 situation and that the timely provision of services continue. The specific characteristics and needs of different vulnerable groups should be considered during the adaptation of policy/services.

6. VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

6.1 Legislation and policy overview

The CEDAW Committee's concluding observations on Georgia highlighted the importance of fighting violence against women (VAW) and domestic violence.¹ Additionally, under the 2030 Agenda, Georgia took on the obligation to end all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere (Target 5.1) and to eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation (Target 5.2). Some of the recommendations from both instruments have been implemented, and overall, Georgia has taken important steps against VAW in recent years.² In the frameworks of the global Generation Equality movement, Georgia undertook further commitments under the Gender-Based Violence Action Coalition.

The first step in introducing a legal framework for the prevention of and response to VAW was a national law on domestic violence adopted in 2006.³ Since then, Georgia has made significant progress in developing a legislative response and social protection mechanisms towards violence against women and domestic violence. In 2010, a hotline and the first shelter for domestic violence survivors were established. In 2012, amendments were made to the Criminal Code of Georgia criminalizing domestic violence.⁴ In 2017, the Government of Georgia ratified the Istanbul Convention.⁵ In 2018, the Department of Human Rights Protection and Quality Monitoring was established at the Ministry of Internal Affairs⁶ (MIA) and monitors the implementation of the legal response for each case of VAW/DV registered with the MIA. In 2019, the bill on sexual harassment was adopted, and respective amendments were developed for the Labour Code of Georgia⁷ and the Code of Administrative Offences of Georgia.⁸

The 2014–2020 National Strategy of Human Rights Protection identifies the elimination of violence against women as one of the strategic directions and aims to ensure gender equality, protect women's rights, combat domestic violence and eliminate its results. To achieve this goal, the strategy includes several objectives, including harmonizing legislative

mechanisms on VAW/DV to international standards, raising awareness on VAW/DV among civil servants and general society, and ensuring access to legal protection, psychosocial services and shelters for the victims of violence.⁹

The National Action Plan on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence and Measures to be Implemented for the Protection of Victims (Survivors) for 2018–2020 also identifies the elimination of VAW/DV as a state priority. The goals, objectives and activities of the NAP respond to the requirements of SDG 5, CEDAW and the Istanbul Convention and aim to improve the VAW/DV-related legislative framework, respective service provision and awareness-raising in society. The Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues coordinates and monitors the implementation process of the NAP.¹⁰

Currently, the following mechanisms and services are available and functioning in Georgia in response to violence against women and domestic violence:

- Legal response
 - Existing legal framework on violence against women and/or the elimination of domestic violence and protection and support of victims of violence
 - Restraining orders issued by police based on a risk assessment mechanism
 - Protective orders issued by the court
 - GPS electronic monitoring of high-risk perpetrators
 - Witness and Victim Coordinator Service at the Prosecutor's Office
 - Human Rights Protection Department at the MIA, monitoring the quality of investigations on VAW/DV
 - Perpetrator behavioural correction programmes
 - Femicide Watch by the PDO
 - Key normative acts of the healthcare system

(e.g. documentation for ambulatory care (MoLHSA Ministerial Decree No. 01-41/n) and regulations for documentation for stationary hospital care (MoLHSA Ministerial Decree No. 108/n)) that enable healthcare professionals to appropriately document VAW/DV cases

- Standard operating procedures for primary health system workers to respond, document and refer cases of gender-based violence (GBV) and VAW

• Services

- ‘112’ unified emergency number, available 24/7
- ‘112’ mobile app, with integrated chat function and SOS button
- ‘116 006’ consultancy hotline, providing information in eight different languages
- Ten shelters in different regions of Georgia, providing free 24/7 accommodation as well as legal, psychological and medical assistance

- Five crisis centres in different regions of Georgia, providing legal, psychological and medical assistance
- State funding available for the services required for the victims of sexual violence.

6.2 National data

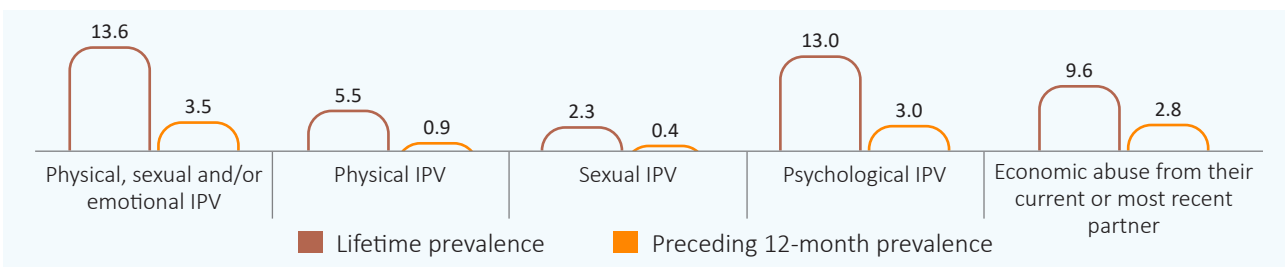
6.2.1 Prevalence of violence against women

Despite the significant steps taken at the policy level, violence against women and domestic violence remains a critical problem for Georgia. The provided data indicate that women experience various forms of physical, psychological and sexual violence from intimate or non-intimate partners. However, the data are underreported due to prevailing traditional gender norms and other factors, such as the lack of social and legislative support. The figures below represent proxy measures for SDG indicators 5.2.1 and 5.2.2.



FIGURE 6.1:

SDG indicator 5.2.1. Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15–64 subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, by form of violence (%)

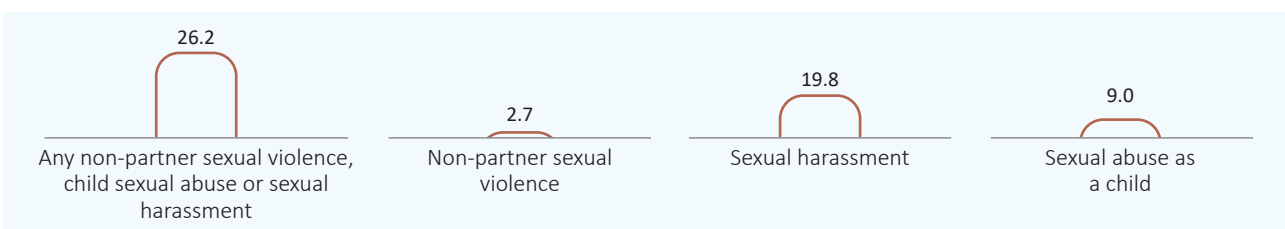


Source: UN Women and Geostat 2017.



FIGURE 6.2:

SDG indicator 5.2.2. Proportion of women and girls aged 15-64 subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner. Lifetime prevalence (%)

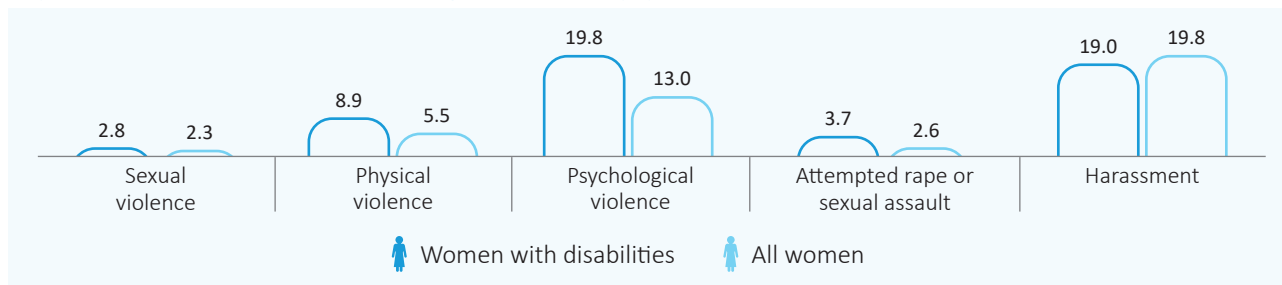


Source: UN Women and Geostat 2017.

For SDG indicator 16.2.3 (proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 who experienced sexual violence by age 18), the Sustainable Development Goals National Document of Georgia reports that 6.7 per cent of women have experienced childhood sexual abuse.¹¹

A UN Women and UNICEF analysis based on the 2017 nationwide survey on VAW showed that the incidence of different forms of violence is relatively higher among women with functional disabilities compared to all women.

FIGURE 6.3:
Key incidence indicators of violence against women (%)



Source: UN Women and UNICEF 2021. Based on data from 2017.

Studies on VAW/GBV conducted in Georgia since 2017 provide evidence that different socioeconomic factors increase the risks of violence against women. For example, women living in urban areas, living in worse housing conditions, and those who married before the age of 18 are more likely to experience violence and abuse. The lack of stable employment and the alcohol consumption of partners also increase the risks of violence against women.¹²

A recent research study commissioned by UN Women regarding sexual harassment in the civil service provides evidence that workplace sexual harassment is quite prevalent in Georgia's civil service. Specifically, according to the study, every third civil servant and every two in five female civil servants have experienced sexual harassment in the workplace. The data show that women and younger civil servants (under the age of 35) are more likely to experience workplace sexual harassment, while perpetrators are mainly male colleague, in most cases older than their victims.¹³ Women tend to experience more than one form of sexual harassment. Verbal and non-verbal cues are more prevalent forms of sexual harassment in the civil service, and it is more likely that incidents of harassment happen in less formal situations, such as business trips and team-building activities.¹⁴

A study conducted by NDI and CRRC examined the nature, extent and sources of the harassment of women majoritarian candidates via Facebook during the 2020 parliamentary elections. The study showed that online violence directed at women was more gendered in nature than that directed at their male counterparts, meaning that women candidates receiving substantially more comments relating to their personal and sexual lives, appearance and sexuality, as well as comments referring to women's traditional roles at home. The study

also showed that women were receiving abuse at around three times the rate of their male counterparts. Interestingly, the extent of the online violence towards women majoritarian candidates did not decrease after the election.¹⁵



At the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, the leading international organizations voiced warnings over the increased risks of violence against women and domestic violence. The data from different countries prove that violence against women and domestic violence has intensified since the outbreak of COVID-19 and that such violence is further exacerbated by factors such as insecurity, health and money worries, and worsened living conditions.¹⁶

23% of women and 17% of men have felt or heard of the increase in domestic violence cases since the spread of COVID-19

Source: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.

Gender inequality has intensified as a result of the COVID-19 crisis. This has amplified specific factors that, in turn, have increased the risks of VAW/DV. Drivers of violence happened to be presented more intensively in the everyday lives of women,¹⁷ including the following:

- Worsened economic situation in families
- Increased domestic work and multiplied responsibilities for women
- Limited personal space
- Limited opportunity to escape from an abuser
- Worsened mental health

Some groups of women turned out to be in riskier situations than others due to COVID-19:

LBT women: The directive to “stay at home” was not safe for them insofar as many of them are not accepted by family members, and renting an apartment was related to their financial problems.

Elderly women: Due to the worsened socioeconomic conditions of families, these women became an additional burden for family members and were at increased risk of experiencing economic violence.¹⁸

Women with disabilities: Women with disabilities turned out to face especially severe risks in the COVID-19 environment. Vulnerabilities, such as economic dependence, discrimination and the risk

of sexual and physical violence, were doubly compounded.¹⁹

Women working at retail outlets and open markets: During the lockdown, most of them were left without income, which led to increased aggression from abusive family members.²⁰

6.2.2 Femicide

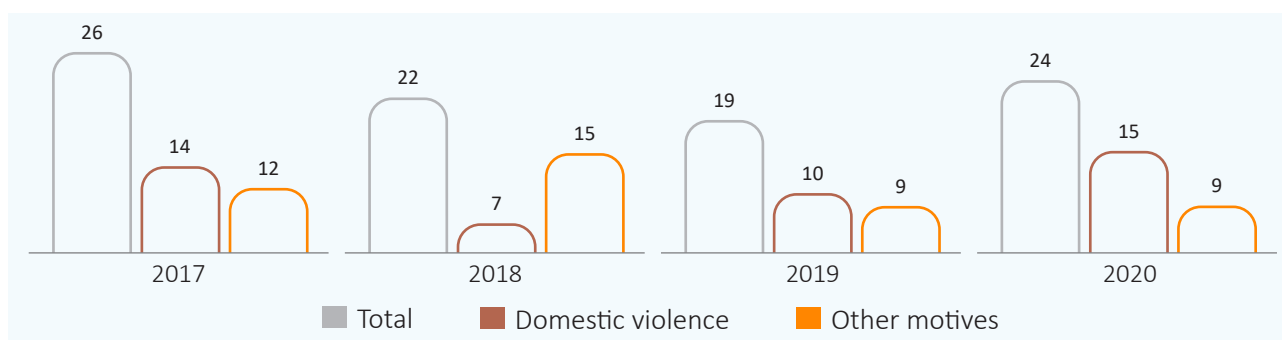
Victims of GBV as well as women being stalked constitute a high-risk group for femicide.²¹ In 2020, 24 women were killed, of whom 15 were domestic violence cases and 9 were because of other motives.²²



Related to SDG indicator 16.1.1.

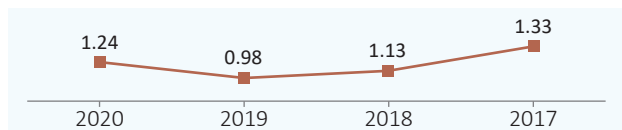
The rate of women killed per 100,000 female population was 1.24, which shows an increase since 2018.²³

FIGURE 6.4:
Number of women killed



Source: PDO 2020b.

FIGURE 6.5:
Rate of women killed per 100,000 female population



Source: Authors' own calculation based on data from PDO reports (2017–2020).
Note: Proxy measurement for SDG indicator 16.1.1.

The majority of femicide cases were committed on the motive of jealousy, behaviour control or demand for obedience. According to the PDO's analysis, the majority of the murderers were male partners or former partners, and the biggest share of the murders were domestic violence cases.²⁴ The prevailing patriarchal and traditional gender attitudes are at the root of violence against women and femicide.

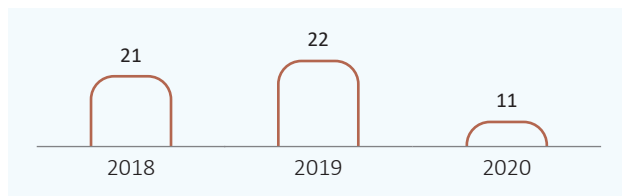
6.2.3 Trafficking



SDG indicator 16.2.2.

The number of persons who were identified as victims of trafficking per 100,000 population was 0.6 in 2018. The value remained 0.6 in 2019 and decreased to 0.3 in 2020.²⁵

FIGURE 6.6:
Number of victims of trafficking



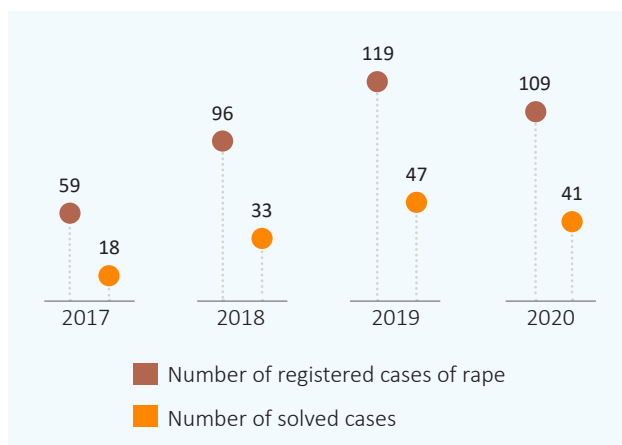
Source: MIA (2018–2020).

The decrease in the value in 2020 could be related to the border closures and travel restrictions due to the COVID-19 pandemic. According to a 2020 report by the United States Department of State, the GoG meets the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking. The report also states that traffickers recruit victims with false promises of well-paying jobs in tea processing plants, hospitals, salons, restaurants and hotels. Cases of sex trafficking are also widespread throughout Georgia; furthermore, Georgia is also a transit country for sex trafficking.²⁶ According to a parliamentary report by the PDO, the level of identification in trafficking victims is low, and defining victims’ status is related to difficulties; thus, the Government needs to strengthen the identification mechanism further.²⁷

6.2.4 Rape

Sexual violence remains one of the biggest challenges due to the lack of adequate measures to address the problem. In 2020, the registered number of crimes committed against sexual freedom was 342, out of which 109 were rape and only 41 of the cases were solved.²⁸

FIGURE 6.7:
Registered and solved rape cases



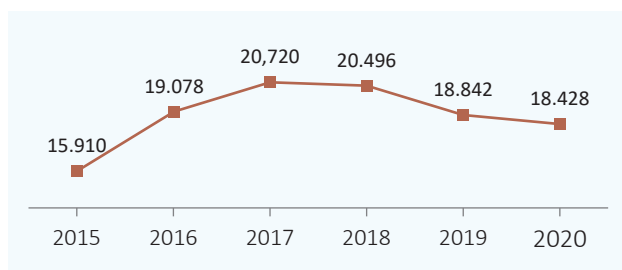
Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs 2020.

According to a report by Equality Now, the legislation related to sexual crime and rape in Eurasia countries, including Georgia, “effectively deny access to justice for survivors of sexual violence.”²⁹ In its annual report, the PDO also emphasizes the gaps in the legislation related to sexual crime. The legislation does not correspond with the international standards insofar as the definition of sexual violence is not based on free consent of the victim.³⁰ In the report ‘Administration of Justice on Sexual Violence Crimes against Women in Georgia’, the PDO identifies multiple challenges in the legislation. Specifically, according to the analysis, a gender perspective is not incorporated in the administration of justice on sexual violence. Moreover, harmful stereotypical approaches are often used during the investigation, prosecution and adjudication; for example, a forensic medical examination, which is an extremely traumatizing process for the victim, is considered a mandatory step for the investigation.³¹ In addition to this, women from marginalized groups, such as LGBTQI+, PwDs, ethnic minorities and others, often face additional barriers in accessing justice in cases of sexual violence due to the existing stigma, lack of reasonable accommodation for women with disabilities, language barriers for ethnic minorities and so on.³²

6.2.5 Response mechanism to address VAW

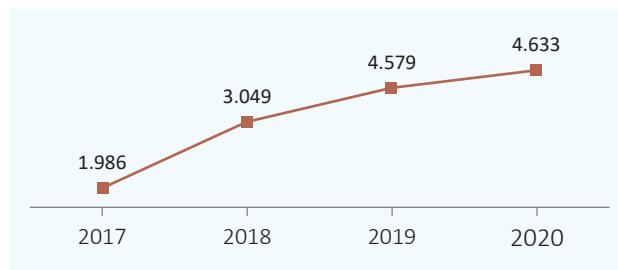
Under the BpFA strategic objective D.1, Georgia has committed to taking integrated measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women. As mentioned above, significant progress has been made in this regard. The available data show that public awareness regarding the existing legal and social services on VAW/DV is quite high among Georgians. More than 70 per cent of men and women know that there is a law against VAW/DV, and almost the same share is aware about the hotline. Furthermore, more than 50 per cent of men and women are aware about the shelters, and more than 30 per cent of men and women are aware about the crisis centres.³³ According to a 2017 study, 18 per cent of women who ever experienced intimate partner violence (IPV) appealed to police for support, as compared to only 1.5 per cent in 2009.³⁴ Although the data have not been updated since 2017, the administrative data from 112, 116 006, crisis centres and shelters, as well as the number of issued restraining and protective orders, show that the information and awareness regarding VAW support services in Georgia has been increasing.

FIGURE 6.8:
Number of reports to 112 defined as ‘domestic conflict/violence’



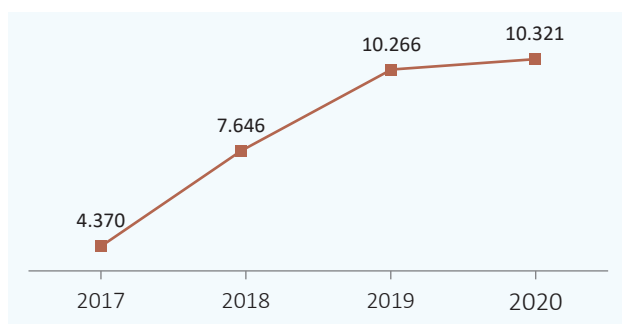
Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs 2021a.

FIGURE 6.12:
Number of criminal prosecutions on domestic violence cases



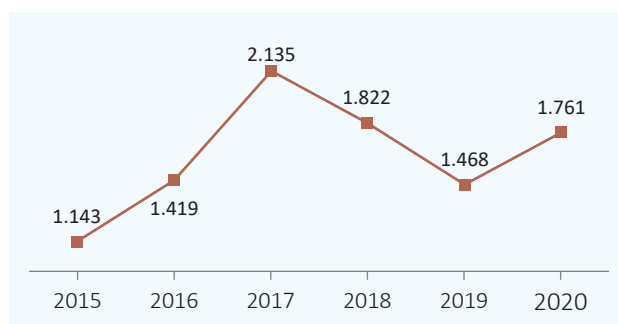
Source: Prosecutor’s Office of Georgia 2021.

FIGURE 6.9:
Number of restraining orders issued on domestic violence



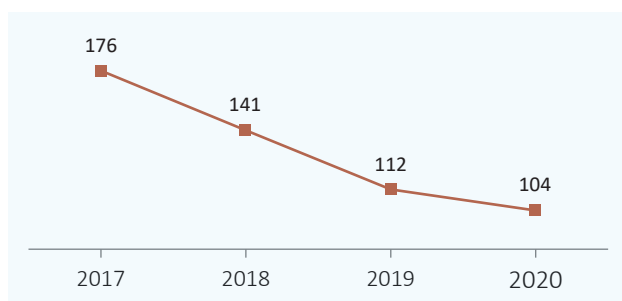
Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs 2021b.

FIGURE 6.13:
Number of calls to 116 006 on VAW/DV issues



Source: ATIPFUND (2021).

FIGURE 6.10:
Number of protective orders issued on domestic violence



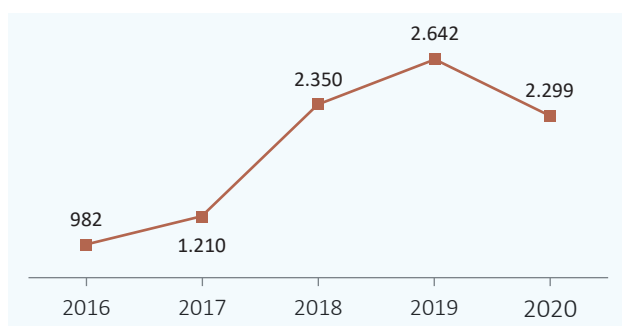
Source: Supreme Court of Georgia 2020.

FIGURE 6.14:
Number of beneficiaries of VAW/DV crisis centres



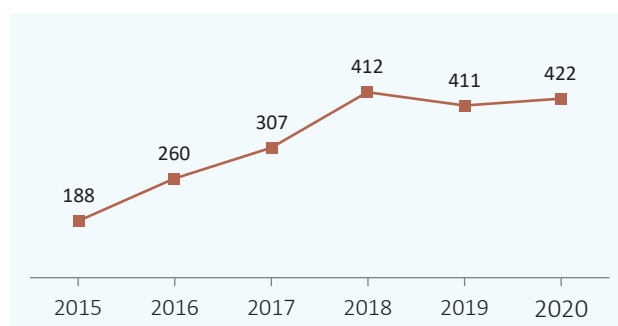
Source: ATIPFUND (2021).

FIGURE 6.11:
Number of court decisions on domestic violence cases



Source: Supreme Court of Georgia 2021a.

FIGURE 6.15:
Number of beneficiaries of VAW/DV shelters



Source: ATIPFUND (2021).

According to a report by the PDO, although the identification of gendered motives in criminal cases is increasing, it remains a challenge in the majority of prosecution processes. The same report identifies major gaps in VAW service provision for people with disabilities (shelters) and people living in rural areas (crisis centres). In addition, providing services for people with mental health problems remains a challenge.³⁵



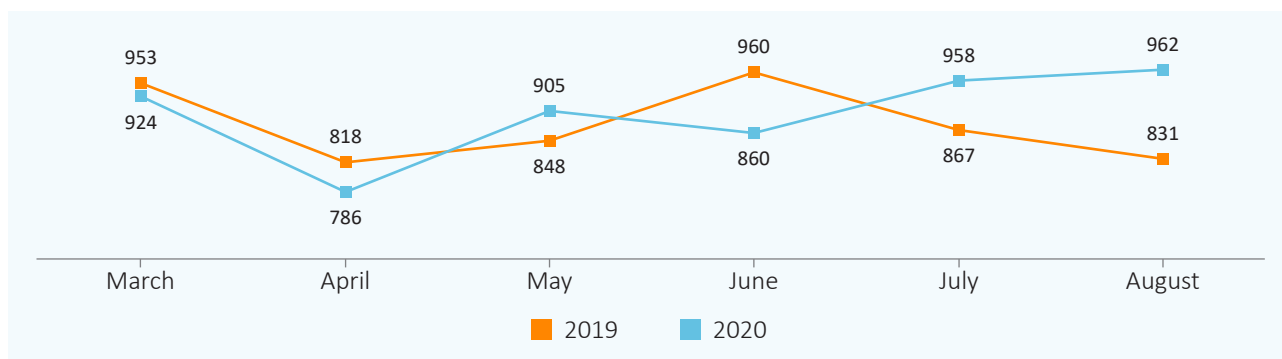
COVID-19-related restrictions posed by the GoG created potential barriers for victims to disclose acts of violence and access the legal and social protection mechanisms. These barriers included the following:

- Inaccessible transportation

- Eliminated opportunities to escape from an abuser
- Less affordable means of communication for secured disclosure
- Lack of clear understanding of how the police would respond to DV cases due to the increased load³⁶
- Overloading of the 112 service³⁷

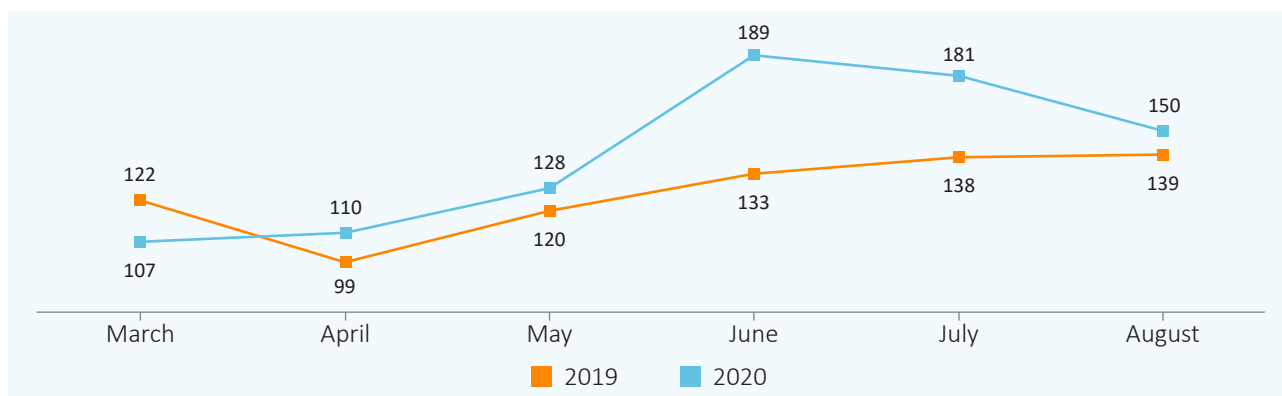
Comparing the same March–August period in 2019 and in 2020, the administrative data from the MIA and hotlines do not capture any patterns indicating the increased prevalence of VAW/DV. A similar, generally increasing trend was maintained throughout this period.³⁸

FIGURE 6.16:
Number of restraining orders issued on domestic violence, March–August 2019 and March–August 2020



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs 2020.

FIGURE 6.17:
Number of registered calls to the 116 006 hotline, March–August 2019 and March–August 2020



Source: ATIPFUND (2020).

While international data prove the increase in domestic violence, the presence of the same tendencies in Georgian administrative data might be an indication that the response mechanism to cases of violence might not work effectively in a crisis situation.³⁹

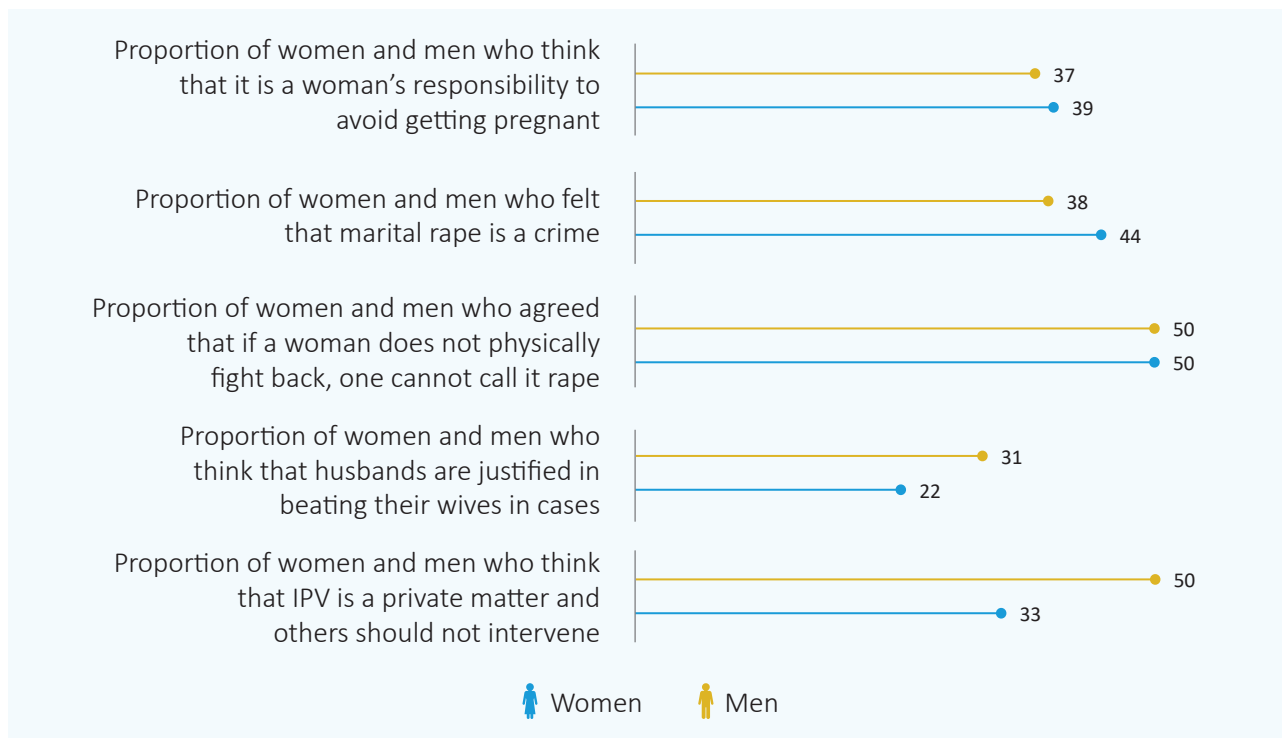
The Government’s approach to VAW/DV response amid COVID-19 was assessed as missing the perspective of the increased risks of domestic violence and violence against women.⁴⁰

6.2.6 Attitudes towards VAW

Recent studies conducted in Georgia show that traditional perceptions of gender roles and attitudes still

widely predominate among Georgians. Home has been continuously perceived as women's domain over the years, while men are believed to be better at policymaking and the professional domain in general.⁴¹

FIGURE 6.18:
Perceptions of violence against women (%)



Source: UN Women and Geostat 2017.

Data from various studies indicate that although traditional gender attitudes are still predominant among men and women, men and people in rural areas are more likely to have conservative and violence-condoning attitudes.⁴² For instance, one in two men and one in three women think that IPV is a private matter and that others should not intervene; furthermore, 31 per cent of men and 22 per cent of women believe that husbands are justified in beating their wives in certain cases (see Figure 6.18). Moreover, data from teachers, who are directly responsible for reporting incidents of violence, showed that teachers in rural areas are twice as likely to be aware of a case of violence in their community as teachers in urban areas, but they are less likely to report cases of DV.⁴³ In addition, recent studies indicate that traditional gender norms are shifting among the youth.⁴⁴

The recent study about sexual harassment in the civil service shows that civil servants are less likely to identify sexual harassment cases in practice. Fur-

thermore, only 44 per cent of male civil servants perceive sexual harassment as a serious social problem, while 93 per cent of women perceive it seriously.⁴⁵ The same study shows that, although the majority of civil servants think that they have the right to report incidents of sexual harassment, this attitude is not translated into practice, and in most cases, sexual harassment in the civil service goes unreported. Moreover, the majority of civil servants believe that reporting sexual harassment will have a negative impact on their career.⁴⁶

6.3 Summary and recommendations

The data show that VAW and DV remain a prevalent problem in Georgia. Although public attitudes are changing, and the legal framework along with respective social support services are becoming progressively more functional, many things still need to be improved. The gaps in legislation and service provision became especially visible during the pandemic,

which made gender inequality even deeper and extremely increased the risks of VAW and DV.

Statistical data are not available to assess the VAW/DV situation within different groups from an intersectional perspective, such as the LGBTQI community, women with disabilities, elderly women and ethnic minorities. Only non-standardized qualitative data are available, as well as annual assessments of PDO reports.

As stated in the 2020 PDO report, members of the LGBTQI community remain under extreme threat from not only radical groups but also their own family members. Due to homophobic attitudes from the authorities and the police, in many cases LGBTQI persons avoid referring to the police in cases of violence. Furthermore, support mechanisms established for VAW/DV are not sufficient for the cases of violence towards LGBTQI persons.⁴⁷

- Ensure that the Government of Georgia keeps the elimination of VAW and DV among its other strategic priorities and continues working on improving the legal as well as social mechanisms to respond to VAW adequately.
- Fully harmonize the VAW-related national legislation with the provisions of the Istanbul Convention, especially aligning to the provision on

rape with the relevant international standards by introducing the concept of free consent and removing the 'victim' status requirement to access shelters.

- Ensure that the legislation and policy is inclusive for all marginalized groups.
- Ensure regular monitoring of the implementation of VAW policy, and identify and address needs and gaps on a regular basis.
- Strengthen the referral mechanism, and emphasize the role of front-line workers, such as healthcare emergency workers and teachers.
- Continue awareness-raising and capacity-building trainings and activities on VAW for the police, healthcare professionals, social workers and other service providers.
- Continue awareness-raising on VAW and available services among society through effective awareness-raising campaigns.
- Routinely and systematically collect and analyse data on violence towards different groups, such as the LGBTQI community, women with disabilities, elderly women and ethnic minority women.

7. WOMEN AND ARMED CONFLICT, PEACE AND SECURITY

7.1 Legislation and policy overview

The BPfA obliges Georgia to commit “to increase participation of women in conflict resolution at all decision-making levels and protect women living in situations of armed and other conflicts or under foreign occupation.”¹ The CEDAW Committee’s general recommendation No. 30 on women in conflict prevention, conflict and post-conflict situations provides guidance to ensure protection of women’s human rights during and after conflicts.² UN Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security and its subsequent resolutions (1820 (2009); 1888 (2009); 1889 (2010); 1960 (2011); 2106 (2013); 2122 (2013); 2242 (2015), 2467 (2019) and 2493 (2019)) created a Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda that is binding on all UN Member States.³

In 2011, the Gender Equality Council of the Parliament created a working group to develop a National Action Plan (NAP) on WPS.⁴ Since then, Georgia has implemented NAPs for the periods 2012–2015, 2016–2017 and 2018–2020, with the next iteration currently in development.

The Government of Georgia provides free services to the population living adjacent to or on the other side of the administrative boundary lines (ABLs).

These include:

- Providing free healthcare services
- Supporting teachers’ professional development
- Providing full funding for the studies of IDP students as well as students from ABL villages and from Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia at higher education institutions⁵

It should be noted that due to the COVID-19 pandemic, access to health care was restricted, especially for those living on the other side of the ABLs.

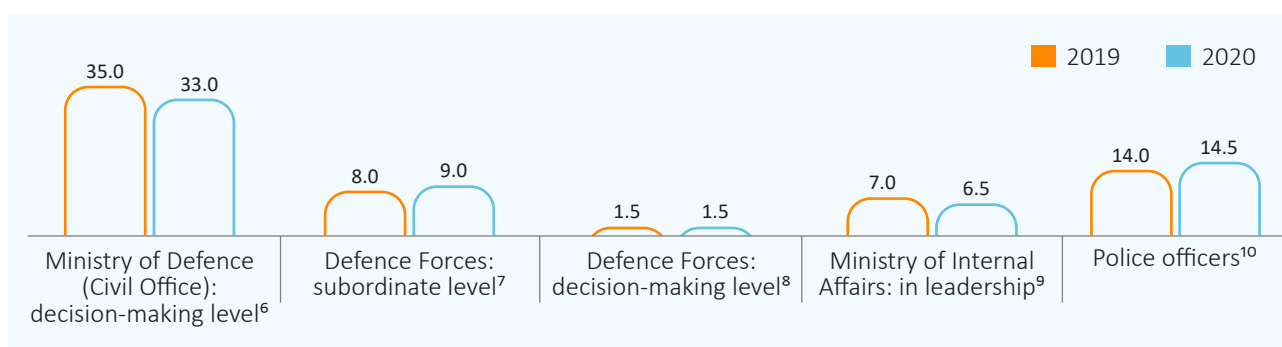
7.2 National data

7.2.1 Women in decision-making and peace processes in the security sector

Similar to other sectors (discussed under Chapter 9: Women in decision-making), women are underrepresented in the security sector. The share of women is low at decision-making levels as well as in general.

Based on the recent administrative data, the share of women across the security sector in Georgia is presented in Figure 7.1.

FIGURE 7.1:
Share of women across the security sector (%)



It should be stressed that the Ministry of Defence has approved a gender equality strategy and de-

veloped a system for collecting and analysing gender-segregated data.¹¹ Unfortunately, a similar sys-

tem has not yet been developed by the Ministry of Internal Affairs, nor has a document on gender equality been approved.

In addition, women's participation in conflict resolution efforts and peace dialogues is extremely low, excluding the experiences and contributions of women in peace processes. Recent data shows that in the Geneva International Discussions (GID), women constituted 14 per cent of the total number of delegation members.¹² As for the Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism (IPRM), the share of women was 15 per cent in 2019, and no women were involved in the 2020 negotiations. The reasoning behind this was that during the pandemic, the number of meeting participants was strictly limited; therefore, women did not participate at all.¹³ Notably, there are no women participating in negotiations from Abkhazia or the South Ossetia/Tskhinvali region, Georgia.¹⁴ It should be stressed that the principles of WPS were discussed during the 2021 GID, where the participants of the meeting highlighted the importance of the WPS agenda and the improved inclusion of a gender perspective.¹⁵ Further, Georgian participants of the GID and IPRM continued the positive practice of regular consultations with the civil society representatives, as IDP and conflict-affected women at the grass-roots level aimed at sharing the information on the outcomes of the official negotiations, as well as listening to the concerns, needs and priorities of the IDP and conflict-affected women and youth. Lastly, the GID Co-Chairs continued their efforts to mainstream the WPS agenda and explored ways to intensify engagement within the GID framework to address the different ways that conflict affects women and men, as well as to promote inclusive processes. Indeed, the inclusion of a greater number of women in negotiations and their meaningful participation is critically important, as otherwise their participation will not have sufficient impact.

Women are also underrepresented in people-to-people diplomacy initiatives. The number of people-to-people diplomacy initiatives implemented by women's civil society organizations or addressing women's issues was 4 out of 31 projects (13 per cent) in 2020.¹⁶ The data marked a slight decrease compared to 2019 and 2018, when the share of projects was 17 per cent and 27 per cent respectively.¹⁷

Women's inclusion is also exceptionally low in municipality meetings—that is, local decision-making processes. The IDP and conflict-affected women lack information on the meetings and therefore do not attend them. As a result, their special needs and problems are not revealed and, consequently, not addressed.¹⁸

The security sector offers capacity-building activities for preventing and responding to sexual and gender-based violence. The following trainings were conducted in 2020:

- More than 900 MIA employees were trained on preventing and responding to GBV, and another 500+ were trained on domestic violence.¹⁹
- All civil employees of the Ministry of Defence and all officers and corporal-sergeants in command positions took a mandatory course on preventing sexual harassment in the workplace.
- All 1,712 personnel of missions to Afghanistan and the Central African Republic attended a seminar on domestic violence.²⁰

As mentioned above, the share of women in peace negotiations was low even before the pandemic. COVID-19 became an additional barrier to women's participation in the decision-making and formal peace processes.

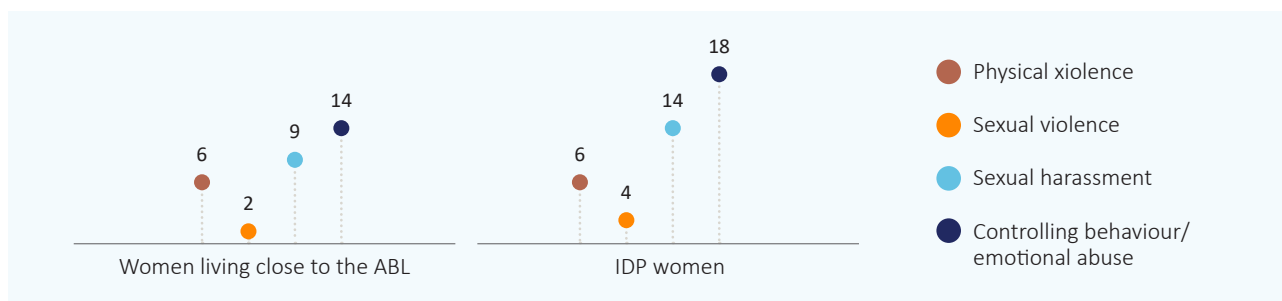
7.2.2 IDP and conflict-affected women living adjacent to the ABLs

IDPs are one of the most vulnerable groups in Georgia. Based on the administrative data, the total number of IDPs is 288,520, of whom 53 per cent are women.²¹ In addition, 23,455 women lived along the ABLs with Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia in 2014.²²

IDP women and women living close to the ABL and in Abkhazia or the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia face a variety of socioeconomic problems and are at risk from GBV.²³ According to the 2016 survey 'Population's Life Experiences in Georgia', IDP and conflict-affected women experience different forms of sexual and gender-based violence.²⁴

FIGURE 7.2:

Share of IDP women and women living close to the ABL reporting lifetime experience of specific forms of violence (%)



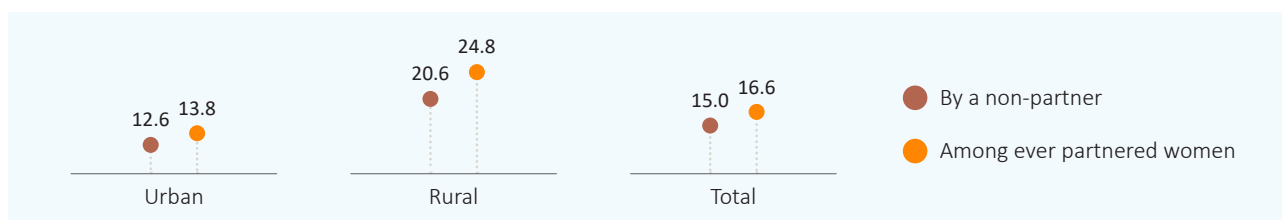
Source: World Bank, Population's Life Experiences in Georgia Survey (2016).

According to a UN Women study on violence against women in Abkhazia, the share of ever-partnered women aged 18–49 who have experienced at least one act of physical, sexual and/or emotional violence

by an intimate partner in their lifetime was 32.7 per cent.²⁵ Figure 7.3 below presents the share of women in Abkhazia who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence in their lifetime.

FIGURE 7.3:

Share of women aged 18–49 in Abkhazia who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence (%)



Source: UN Women 2019b.

Similar data are not available for the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia.

To increase the awareness of the population residing adjacent to the ABLs on GBV and the available healthcare and social services, three consultations were conducted in 2020. The consultation meetings were attended by 56 people, 71 per cent of whom were women.

In 2020, the referral healthcare system was used by 892 people, 52 per cent of whom were women.²⁶ It should be noted that COVID-19 hindered access to basic medical services and supplies, especially for people living along the ABL.²⁷



To assess the impact of COVID-19 on conflict-affected women and girls, the PDO with the support of UNFPA conducted a study in 2020.²⁸ According to the study, women discussed COVID-19-related stigma and psychological abuse, including from family members, that forced women not to reveal wheth-

er they were infected and prevented them from visiting and consulting with a doctor.²⁹ According to the administrative data, in 2020, a total of 892 COVID-19 patients were transported to Georgia proper, 256 of whom were from Abkhazia and 24 from the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia.³⁰

7.3 Summary and recommendations

Since its adoption in 2000, UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security has become an important tool for conceptualization as well as policymaking with regard to the role of women in conflict transformation and the achievement of sustainable peace. Georgia has been developing and implementing NAPs on WPS since 2011. In 2019, in the lead-up to the twentieth anniversary of UN Security Council resolution 1325, the Government of Georgia pledged to implement 10 commitments between April 2019 and October 2020 to advance the WPS agenda in the country.³¹

Despite significant progress made to this end, the data reveal that women's representation in the security sector as well as in peace negotiations remains quite low. It is recommended to:

- Take extra measures to increase women's representation in the security sector, especially with regard to decision-making processes and peace-keeping missions.
- Ensure that women become informed and meaningfully participate in the GID and IPRM, with special emphasis made for the inclusion of IDP and conflict-affected women in the aforementioned processes.
- Develop a system and methodology for the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data in the security sector.
- Continue providing training for security sector employees on GBV/DV, sexual harassment and the WPS agenda broadly.
- Take measures for the fulfilment of all commit-

ments undertaken during the Women, Peace and Security High-Level Commitments event held on 23 April 2019 dedicated to the twentieth anniversary of UN Security Council resolution 1325.

IDP and conflict-affected women residing along the ABLs face a variety of social and economic problems. The specific needs of women and girls are still concealed and not addressed properly.

- Conduct meetings with IDP and conflict-affected women and girls living along the ABL on a regular basis to identify their needs and priorities.
- Continue conducting meetings with the local population to provide them with information on GBV/DV, including available services.
- Assess the conditions of the medical facilities and medical needs of the people living across the ABLs, including the special needs of women and girls, and ensure that they have access to essential services.

8. WOMEN AND THE ECONOMY

8.1 Legislation and policy overview

Labour rights are acknowledged and protected by the Constitution of Georgia, the Labour Code of Georgia and the Law on Public Service, as well as by multiple international acts. In 2020, significant amendments were made to the Labour Code of Georgia, including referring to the definition of discrimination, obliging employers to pay equal pay for equal work, and outlining details regarding leave, shifts and internships.¹

Georgia has ratified the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and the ILO Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111). Furthermore, under the Association Agreement between the European Union and Georgia, signed on 27 June 2014, Georgia is required to harmonize the country's labour regulations with the relevant EC directives, specifically the following: decent work, the

regulation of labour standards in accordance with the ILO conventions, the protection of employees' rights through labour laws, the prohibition of discrimination and gender equality, and labour safety.²

The National Action Plan on the Protection of Human Rights (2018–2020) mentions labour rights and gender equality, specifically equal employment opportunities, equal pay and prevention of sexual harassment in the workplace.³ Furthermore, the 2021 internal Action Plan of the GEC includes prioritized activities on improving maternity leave practices and the development of women's economic empowerment.⁴

The Law on Occupational Safety and Health (2018) regulates the occupational safety and health minimum standards. In 2020, the standard for assessing harmful and hazardous work for pregnant women, postnatal women and nursing mothers was developed.⁵



Related to SDG indicator 8.8.1.

In 2020, the incidence of fatal occupational injuries was 40 (all of whom were men), and the incidence of non-fatal occupational injuries was 129 (121 men and 8 women).⁶

Other ILO conventions, such as the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156), and the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), are not yet ratified. The ratification and implementation of the standards of these conventions are critical for achieving gender equality in labour relations.

In 2019, the Parliament of Georgia conducted the Thematic Inquiry on Women's Participation in State Economic Programmes and identified that state economic programmes do not consider structural gendered barriers that women might face; as a result, women are less likely to benefit from these programmes. The inquiry provides specific recommendations for relevant agencies on improving women's involvement in the economic programmes.⁷ The Government of Georgia developed a new 2021–2025 SME Development Strategy of Georgia, which recognizes the

gender gap in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in terms of equal rights, knowledge and perspectives, as well as business opportunities, including unequal access to finances for women and men. The strategy provides a situational analysis proving a gender gap in SME. For instance, in 2018, women represented 45.1 per cent of the beneficiaries of Enterprise Georgia,⁸ while in agriculture programmes, such as the Preferential Agrocredit Programme,⁹ the share of women beneficiaries was only 7.6 per cent in the 2014–2019 period. Accordingly, the sixth main priority of the strategy is "promoting the development of women entrepreneurship." This aim is intended to be achieved by popularizing the Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs), improving gender statistics in state programmes, promoting women's participation in state programmes, strengthening women's digital skills and supporting capacity-building of state agencies to mainstream gender in their programmes.¹⁰

8.2 National data

8.2.1 Participation in the labour market



SDG indicator 8.5.2.

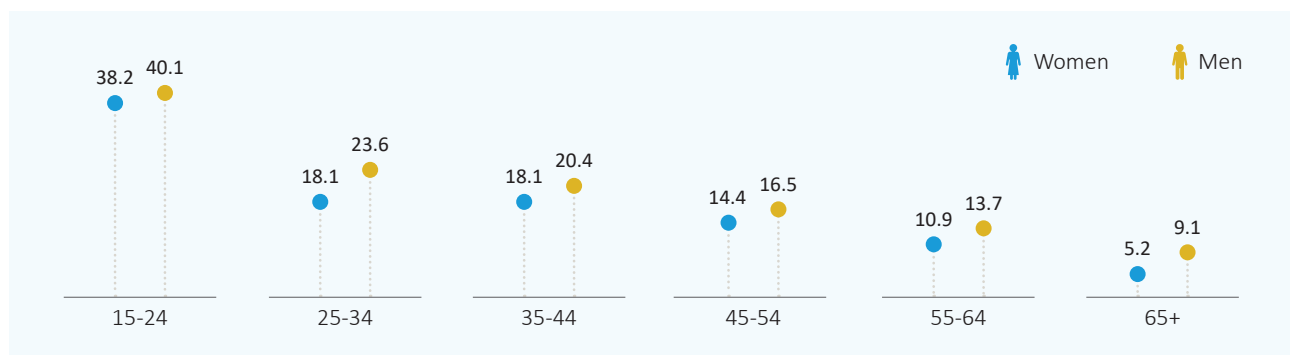
The total unemployment rate in 2020 was 18.5 per cent: 16.2 per cent for women and 20.2 per cent for men.¹¹

The unemployment trend was also similar in 2018 (17.6 per cent for women, 20.6 per cent for men) and 2019 (16 per cent for women, 18.9 per cent for men).¹² The unemployment rate was higher for men at all ages in 2020; however, the biggest difference

(5.5 per cent) was seen between women and men aged 25–34. Furthermore, the highest unemployment rate was for women and men aged 15–24 (38.2 per cent and 40.1 per cent respectively).¹³

FIGURE 8.1:

SDG indicator 8.5.2. Unemployment rate, by sex and age (%)



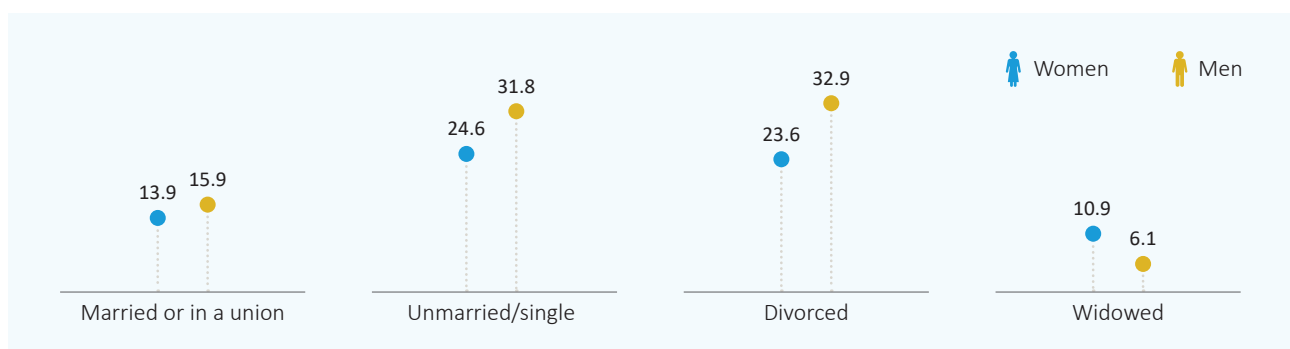
Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

The unemployment rate is higher among the single/unmarried and divorced population, with the latter seeing the biggest gender gap. Notably, in all categories

of marital status, the unemployment rate is higher among men, except among the widowed population, where the unemployment rate is higher for women.¹⁴

FIGURE 8.2:

SDG indicator 8.5.2. Unemployment rate, by sex and marital status (%)

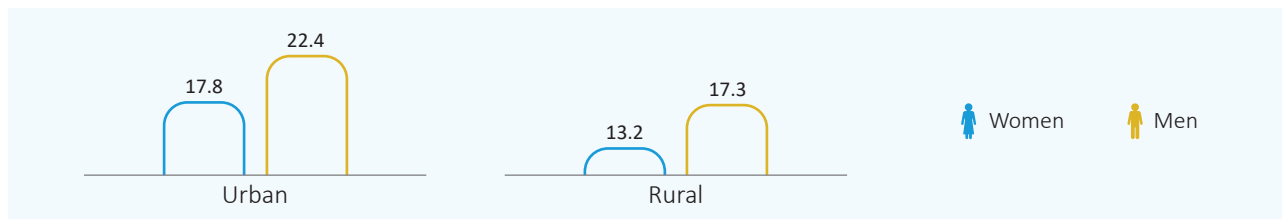


Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

If we look at the data by settlement type, the data show that the unemployment rate is slightly higher among the urban population. In both the urban and

the rural population, the unemployment rate is higher for men.¹⁵

FIGURE 8.3:
SDG indicator 8.5.2. Unemployment rate, by sex and settlement type (%)

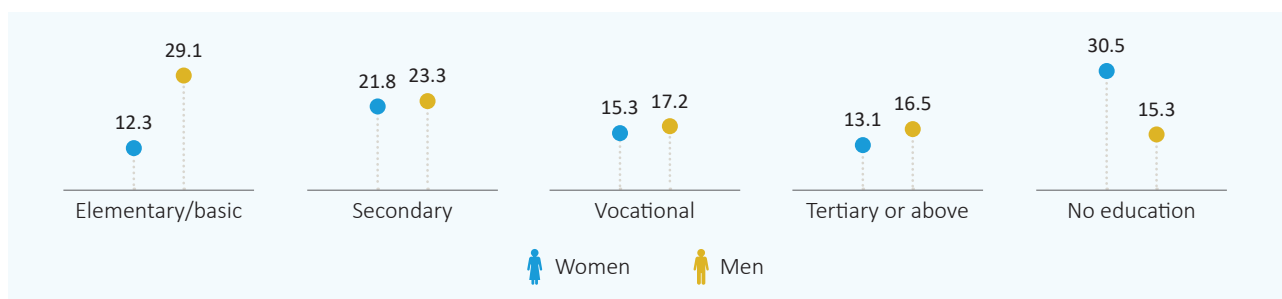


Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

While the unemployment rate is higher among men in general, as well as in different age, settlement type and marital status categories, interestingly, the picture is different when it comes to the level of education. The

unemployment rate is higher for men in all categories of education level; however, when it comes to the population with no education, the unemployment rate is twice as high for women as it is for men (see Figure 8.4).¹⁶

FIGURE 8.4:
SDG indicator 8.5.2. Unemployment rate, by sex and education level

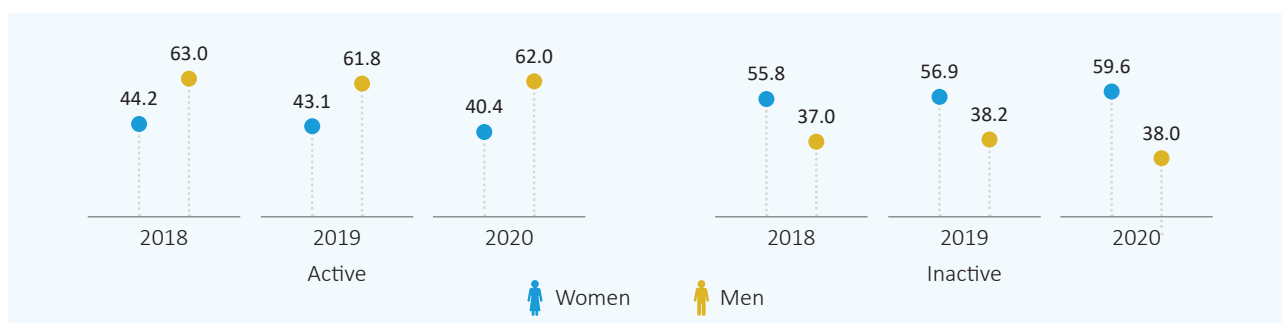


Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

In 2020, the economic activity rate was 50.5 per cent (40.4 per cent for women, 62 per cent for men); accordingly, the inactivity rate was 49.5 per cent (59.6 per cent for women, 38 per cent for men). The trend was similar during the past three years; however, a slight decrease in the economic activity rate can be observed, while the economic inactivity rate is increasing. Specifically, in 2019, the total economic activity rate was 51.8 per cent (43.1 per cent for women, 61.8 per cent for men) and the inactivity rate was 48.2 per cent (56.9 per cent

for women, 38.2 per cent for men), while in 2018, the economic activity rate was 52.9 per cent (44.2 per cent for women, 63 per cent for men) and the inactivity rate was 47.1 per cent (55.8 per cent for women, 37 per cent for men)¹⁷ (see Figure 8.5). While the unemployment rate is higher for men than for women, women’s economic inactivity rate is approximately 1.5 times greater than men’s. This indicates that although there are more women outside of employment, more men than women are seeking employment opportunities.

FIGURE 8.5:
Economic activity and inactivity rate, by sex (%)

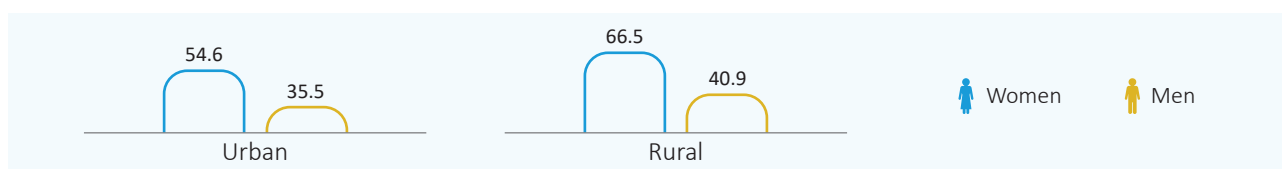


Source: Geostat, LFS (2018–2020).

It is important to mention that the gender gap in labour-force participation is higher in the rural population. Specifically, in 2020, the economic inactivity rate for urban women and men was 54.6 per cent and 35.5 per cent respectively (a difference of 19.1 points), while for rural women and men, the economic inactivity rate was 66.5 per cent and 40.9 per cent respectively (a difference of 25.5 points).¹⁸ Moreover, the gender gap in la-

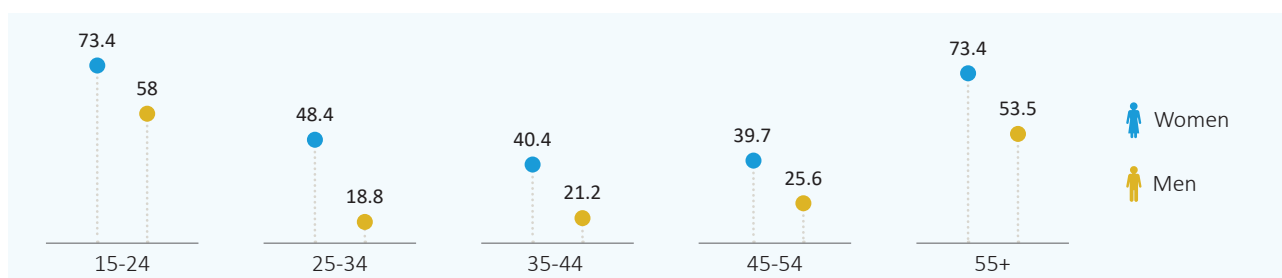
bour-force participation becomes more obvious if we look at the data by age. The data show that the economic inactivity rate is higher among women at all ages, but the difference between women's and men's economic inactivity rates is bigger at reproductive age for women. This once again indicates that women's economic participation is strongly linked with family and care responsibilities (see Figures 8.6. and 8.7.).

FIGURE 8.6:
Economic inactivity rate, by sex and settlement type, 2020



Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

FIGURE 8.7:
Economic inactivity rate, by sex and age, 2020

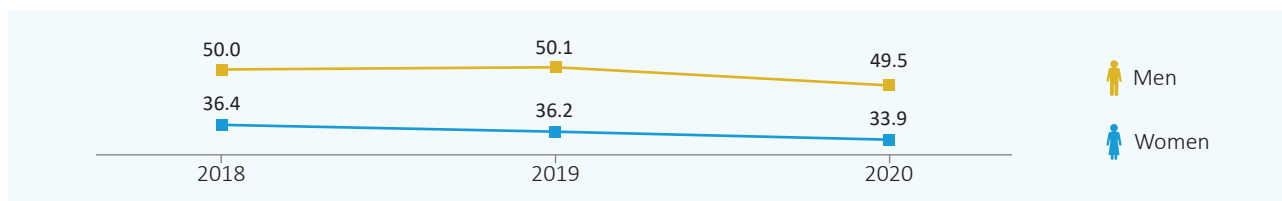


Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

The gender gap is also obvious in the employment rate. The total employment rate in 2020 was 41.1 per cent, a value that is slightly smaller compared to 2018 and 2019 (42.7 per cent for both).¹⁹ The employment rate is higher among men, while the gender gap in the employment rate has increased over the past three years. Specifically, the gap in the employment

rate was 13.6 per cent in 2018, 13.8 per cent in 2019 and 15.6 per cent in 2020.²⁰ The decrease in the employment rate in 2020 is especially visible for women, as it decreased by 2.3 percentage points, while for men, it decreased by only 0.6 percentage points. This can be explained by the impact of COVID-19, which will be discussed below.

FIGURE 8.8:
Employment rate, by sex (%)



Source: Geostat, LFS (2018–2020).

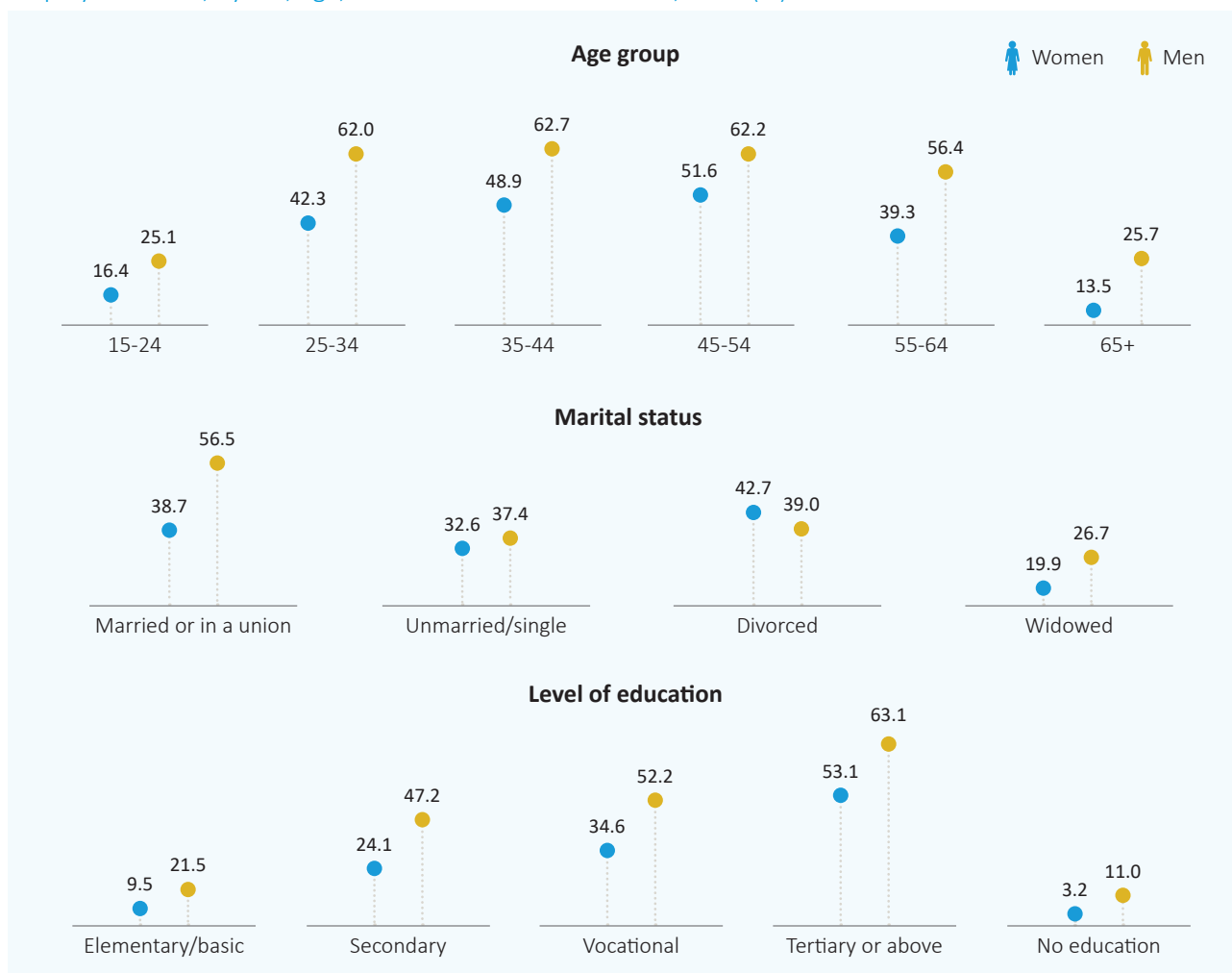
The employment rate is higher for men in all different categories such as age, marital status and education level. The biggest gaps can be observed among women and men aged 25–34, where the difference between women's and men's employment

rate is 19.7 per cent; the next biggest difference is among women and men who are married or in a union (17.8 per cent) and women and men with a secondary education (23.1 per cent). The situation is different when it comes to the employment

rate for people with tertiary education or above. Among this group of the population, the employment rate is higher for women (49.4 per cent) than for men (35.5 per cent).²¹ The age-related pattern

of the gender gap in employment could be derived from the reproductive function of women under the age of 45 and the accompanied unpaid care and domestic work.²²

FIGURE 8.9:
Employment rate, by sex, age, marital status and education, 2020 (%)



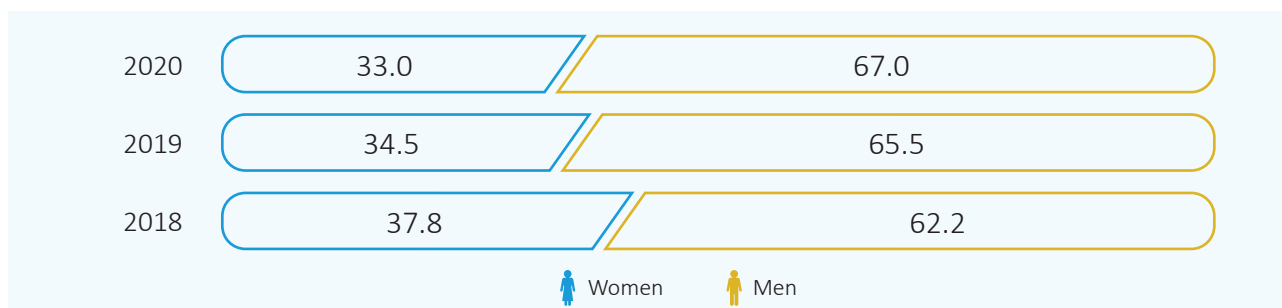
Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

The share of women among Georgia’s newly established enterprise owners has remained the same during the past three years, while men’s share has notably increased. Specifically, in 2018, women’s share among the newly established enterprise owners was 29.1 per cent in 2018, 29.2 per cent in 2019 and 29.7 per cent in 2020. While the share of men among the newly established enterprise owners in 2018 was 51.6 per cent, the value increased to 55.5 per cent in 2019 and to 59.1 per cent in 2020.²³ A survey of women entrepreneurs conducted in 2020 shows that the major challenges that women face when embarking on entrepreneurship are related to

the lack of access to financial and other types of resources. As discussed in other chapters of this CGEP, women own fewer assets compared to men; in addition, their responsibilities related to unpaid domestic and care work, as well as prevalent gender stereotypes, create additional barriers for women to start their own business. The survey also emphasized the lack of young women’s engagement and the disproportional distribution of resources among rural and urban women entrepreneurs.²⁴ The share of women among the self-employed population slightly decreased during the past three years, while the proportion of men among the self-employed increased.

FIGURE 8.10:

Proportion of women and men among the self-employed population (%)



Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

The overall picture of women’s participation in employment has not changed since 2019. In most aspects of employment, women tend to have lower participation. Furthermore, the latest data show that women work fewer hours in almost every sector compared to men. Specifically, in 2020, women on average actually worked 37.7 hours weekly, while men actually worked 42.6 hours, which is 13.1 per cent higher compared to women’s actual worked hours.²⁵ The lower participation of women in the labour market is explained by the prevalent perception that domestic and care work is women’s domain of responsibility. As noted in the World Bank’s Country Gender Assessment (2021), “female workers seem often forced to take only part-time jobs, to balance other housekeeping, childcare, or family care responsibilities.”²⁶ In addition to this, the absence of childcare opportunities and flexible employment agreements, as well as gender-sensitive labour regulations, significantly slows down women’s participation in the labour market.

According to the World Bank’s assessment, labour markets in Georgia can be characterized by industrial and occupational segregation and by gender. Specifically, such sectors as construction, public administration, transport and manufacturing are mainly dominated by male employees (22 per cent of men, 6 per cent of women), while sectors like education and health are dominated by women (23 per cent of women, 4 per cent of men).²⁷ This is in line with the trends discussed in Chapter 4 (Education and training of women), showing that women are underrepresented in STEM fields and dominate the fields of education, the humanities and social sciences.



The data, as well as different assessments discussed in the paragraphs below, show that restrictions related to COVID-19 had a significant negative impact on participation in employment. Many

businesses had to stop their work, and many people had to either leave work or work with limited hours. These restrictions significantly contributed to widening the gender gap in the labour market.

The World Bank’s gender assessment (2021) referring to the Enterprise Survey Follow-up shows that women were overrepresented among the laid-off or furloughed workers since the outbreak of the pandemic. In particular, 66 per cent of workers who were laid off by June 2020 and 75 per cent of workers who have been laid off since June 2020 were women.²⁸

The RGA survey reported that 32 per cent of Georgians’ working hours were reduced, although they still managed to keep their jobs.²⁹ Another 15 per cent of men and 20 per cent of women said that they had lost their jobs, while 26 per cent of employed women and 36 per cent of employed men reported reduced working hours.³⁰ Furthermore, the same study suggests that 10 per cent of Georgians (16 per cent of women, 10 per cent of men) took leave from work and received full or partial benefits, while 8 per cent of working men and 6 per cent of working women took unpaid leave due to the COVID-19 pandemic.³¹ The pandemic changed the working routine for some employed people. Specifically, according to the RGA, 70 per cent of the employed have not stopped going to their workplaces, 11 per cent stopped going to work during the first outbreak but then returned to their workplaces full-time, 5 per cent were going to workplaces part-time, and 9 per cent had switched to teleworking. The RGA shows that slightly more women (11 per cent) continue working from home than men (8 per cent).³² According to the women entrepreneurs’ survey, 30 per cent of the respondents mentioned that they had to stop their business due to decreased sales. In addition, 42 per cent mentioned that their income from business dropped by 50–100 per cent.

8.2.2 Informal employment



SDG indicator 8.3.1.

The proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment was 31.7 per cent in 2020. Women's informal employment made up 26.2 per cent of the women in the non-agriculture sector, while men's informal employment made up 36.4 per cent of the men in the non-agricultural sector.³³

Georgian legislation regulating the labour market and labour relations does not regulate the informal employment sector; thus, it does not guarantee the rights of people involved in informal employment. Women employed in the non-agricultural informal sector are primarily domestic workers. According to the 2019 data, about 99 per cent of domestic workers are female.³⁴

A recent study provided a detailed profile of domestic workers in Georgia. According to the study, domestic workers in Georgia mostly are middle- and older-aged married women with a general or vocational education (75 per cent) or a tertiary education (20 per cent).³⁵

According to the study, domestic workers work more than 40 hours per week, compared to other workers; furthermore, domestic work practices entail working on weekends and during evenings in frequent cases.³⁶ More than half of domestic workers are remunerated inadequately, and there is a statistically significant difference in the earnings between 'typically female' (e.g. cleaner) and 'typically male' (e.g. driver) domestic work professions.³⁷

The research emphasizes the increased risk to the health and well-being of domestic workers due to indecent working environments, insufficient legal protection, and low awareness of civil and labour rights among the domestic workers. They face increased risks and incidence of abuse and exploitation, unfair payment, unpaid overtime work, unsafe job conditions, and uncertainty in their contract terms or the

absence of a contract altogether.³⁸



Informal workers turned out to be one of the most vulnerable groups because of the pandemic-related restrictions and crisis. As stated in recent qualitative research on COVID-19's impact on domestic workers (2020), the crisis further worsened the precarious nature of domestic work due to its unstable and underappreciated status. The ongoing pandemic and protective measures applied by the GoG had an especially negative impact on domestic workers' working conditions. Many of them lost employment, either due to the decision of their employer or due to the absence of public transport. As a result, domestic workers lost income, and in some cases, they had to take out bank loans or were forced to settle for less favourable job conditions than before, which even further increased the risks to their health and well-being.³⁹

Informal employment posed additional challenges for domestic workers when trying to obtain government compensation as part of the anti-crisis plan. Domestic workers had difficulties in accessing most of the government assistance programmes due to their informal employment status.⁴⁰

In addition to all of these issues, the pandemic increased unpaid labour for domestic workers even further. Their workload has drastically increased, as most domestic workers have had to perform a second shift of housework at home, especially those who have school-age children and have to supervise their online studying process.⁴¹

8.2.3 Earnings and the pay gap

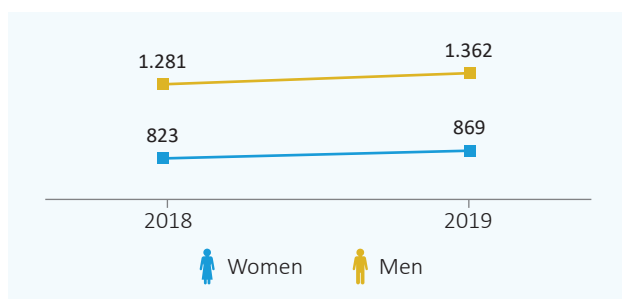


SDG indicator 8.5.1.

In 2019,⁴² average hourly earnings were GEL 5.40 for women and GEL 8.50 for men.⁴³

These pay values have been increasing since 2018; specifically, women’s average hourly earnings have increased by GEL 0.30, while men’s average hourly earnings have increased by GEL 0.50. An increase is also observed in nominal monthly earnings: an additional GEL 81 (6.3 per cent) for men’s monthly earnings and GEL 46 (5.6 per cent) for women’s monthly earnings on average.

FIGURE 8.11:
Average monthly nominal earnings (GEL), by sex



Source: Geostat, Establishment Survey (2018–2019).

Although there is observed growth in average earnings for both women and men, the increase is not equal, which is also reflected in the widening pay gap. Specifically, in 2018, the pay gap stood at 35.8 per cent and increased to 36.2 per cent in 2019.⁴⁴ Women’s average monthly earnings ratio with respect to men’s average monthly earnings decreased from 64.2 per cent in 2018 to 63.8 per cent in 2019.⁴⁵ Data for 2020 were not available as of this publication.

The data provided above are based on the Establishment Survey and do not include the disaggregation of hourly salaries in Georgia and the informal sector. In 2020, UN Women carried out the study *Analysis of the Gender Pay Gap and Gender Inequality in the Labour Market in Georgia*⁴⁶ and issued an update⁴⁷ of the analysis in 2021. This analysis is based on the Labour Force Survey (LFS) and incorporates the informal sector and the data on hours worked in the pay gap calculation. Based on this analysis, the monthly pay gap is even wider than previously understood.

TABLE 8.1:
Monthly and hourly raw gender pay gap and gender gap in hours (%)

	2017	2018	2019	2020
Gender pay gap - Monthly	32.2	37.3	39.7	34.2
Gender pay gap - Hourly	17.7	11.3	14.6	13.4
Gender gap in hours worked	17.9	22.6	22.1	14.7

Source: UN Women 2020a; 2021a.

As mentioned above, due to domestic and care work responsibilities, women work fewer hours per week than men. This is the main reason for the difference between monthly and hourly gender gaps—due to unpaid domestic work, women experience time poverty and therefore cannot participate in productive employment. It is important to mention that these variations in the gender pay gap value should not be explained by systematic changes; rather, they are due to random sampling variations.⁴⁸

Furthermore, the analysis introduced the adjusted gender pay gap, which includes educational attainments, professional experiences and other personal characteristics, as well as the sectoral and occupational factors between men and women. Incorporating these attributions into the calculation increased the hourly pay gap to 24.8 per cent in 2017,⁴⁹ 14.4 per cent in 2018, 15.9 per cent in 2019 and 14.4 per cent in 2020.⁵⁰ This indicates that even though wom-

en might have better labour-market characteristics, they still earn less per hour than men. The analysis also suggests that the sectoral segregation of women in lower-paid sectors explains about a fourth of the gap.⁵¹ Notably, most of the gap cannot be explained by observable factors and therefore may be derived by discriminatory practices in the labour market.⁵²



The COVID-19-related crisis reflected on earnings too. The RGA results suggest that the income from productive activities, such as salaried jobs, entrepreneurship and the sale of agricultural products, had been affected the most. Indeed, 49 per cent of men and 39 per cent of women reported declined income from productive activities.⁵³ Further analysis suggests that ethnic minorities, those with jobs, those with no higher education and those with no children have experienced a sharper decline in revenues from salaried jobs and agricultural and entrepreneurial activities.⁵⁴

8.2.4 Unpaid domestic work

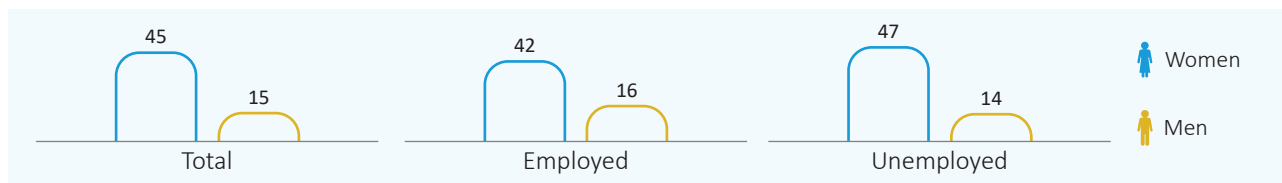


SDG indicator 5.4.1.

A time use survey has never been conducted in Georgia; accordingly, data for SDG indicator 5.4.1 (the proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location) are not available. However, data from a UN Women study conducted in 2018 can be used as a proxy measure for this indicator. According to the 2018 data, women spend three times more hours on domestic and care work than men.⁵⁵

FIGURE 8.12:

Reported data on the average number of hours per week spent on domestic and care work, by sex and employment status



Source: UN Women 2018.

Although there are no relatively recent data available, in 2020, UNDP and UNFPA commissioned a nationwide research study that also explored the unpaid domestic and care work distribution among women and men. The data show that the pattern of an unequal division of domestic and care work has been maintained over the years. Cooking and cleaning are overwhelmingly performed by women, while buying food is somewhat more equally shared.⁵⁶ Childcare tasks remain the primary responsibility of women, with more than two in three women reporting being always or usually responsible for childcare.⁵⁷ About half of fathers have never changed their child's diaper or clothes, one in four fathers have never helped the child with their homework, and about one in five fathers have never talked to their children about their personal issues.⁵⁸

Notably, women and men acknowledge the unequal distribution of domestic and care work, but the majority of women and men are satisfied with such an unequal division. Specifically, 3 in 10 men and 4 in 10 women confirm that the female partner does many more domestic and care tasks than men, while 2 in 3 women and men are satisfied with the current unequal distribution of domestic and care work.⁵⁹ The data provide evidence that the traditional perception—that home and housework tasks are in the female domain—remained predominant in 2020. Interestingly, 21 per cent of women and 14 per cent of men disagreed with the opinion that men should be as equally involved as women in housework.⁶⁰

As mentioned above, the unequal division of tasks related to unpaid and care work reduces women's opportunities to participate in paid labour. As stated in the World Bank assessment (2021): "This effect is so large, that it reverses the positive effects of higher female educational attainment. Controlling for socio-demographic covariates, a probabilistic econometric analysis suggests that women are 14 percentage points less likely to participate in labor markets than men."⁶¹



Unsurprisingly, the pandemic influenced the time division of domestic and care tasks, and this influence was different for women and men. Online schooling required parents, especially women, to allocate more time to children's management. The RGA analysis showed that women and men reported spending more time on household chores compared to the pre-pandemic situation. Specifically, men reported spending more time on one household task, while women reported more time on 1.19 household tasks. Interestingly, along with women, younger people, people from urban settlements and people with children were more likely to report spending more time on household tasks.⁶²

Such an unequal distribution of domestic and care work deepened the gender gap in economic participation and equal payment. In the context of reduced salaries, women lost the opportunity to work longer hours and earn more, due to their increased responsibility for household and care work. The RGA data

show that more women than men reported domestic and childcare as their most time-consuming activities. Specifically, 21 per cent of women and 3 per cent of men named cleaning and 12 per cent of women and 4 per cent of men named instructing children as the most time-consuming activities.⁶³

8.3 Summary and recommendations

The available data show that gender disparities in the economy and the labour market are still observable in Georgia. Women's participation in the labour market remains low compared to men's participation, and they face challenges in earning equally due to various factors, such as the additional responsibilities of unpaid domestic and care work, which is still believed to be women's domain and which significantly limits opportunities for women to equally participate in the labour force. Furthermore, women tend to be concentrated in economic activities with lower salaries (such as the humanities, education and health care), and they are excluded from higher-salaried industries (such as STEM).⁶⁴ The picture has not changed significantly in recent years. The COVID-19 pandemic and related crisis further exacerbated this gap and put women in an even more unfavourable position in terms of participation in the labour market and the economy. Although significant progress has been made towards improving the labour legislation in Georgia, much work still needs to be done to make it more gender-sensitive and inclusive. At this moment, the Labour Code of Georgia does not include domestic workers, while this group turns out to be one of the most vulnerable groups among other workers.⁶⁵

Another critical issue that is not sufficiently regulated by the existing legislation is maternity leave and maternity protection. As mentioned above, Georgia has not ratified the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183), which fosters "equality of all women in the workforce and the health and safety of the mother and child." As stated in the recent RIA commissioned by UN Women Georgia (2021), even the latest amendments to the Georgian labour legislation still come short of the standards set by the Convention.⁶⁶ The RIA identifies multiple challenges in the existing labour legislation: (i) the legislation does not guarantee sufficient compensation for mother and child during the paid maternity leave pe-

riod (183 days); (ii) different groups of workers can benefit from the unequal take-up of maternity leave, with civil servants specifically in a better position in this regard, compared to other workers; and (iii) maternity leave take-up is also unequal between men and women. Although the legislation does not bind maternity leave solely to women, in reality, it is very difficult (for civil servants) or impossible (for other workers) for men to take paid paternity leave.⁶⁷ Obviously, forcing women to take maternity leave overwhelmingly contributes to the widening gender gap in women's participation in the labour market.

- Ratify and comply with ILO Conventions No. 183 (Maternity Protection), No. 156 (Workers with Family Responsibilities) and No. 189 (Domestic Workers).
- Improve the labour legislation (the Labour Code and the Law on Public Service) by making it in full compliance with the ILO Conventions to ensure more inclusive, equal and non-discriminatory regulations.
- Ensure actual implementation of the equal pay for equal work principle, as well as implementation of the equal pay GIA in compliance with Convention No. 100, including the recognition and implantation of the principle on equal pay for work of equal value and associated sectoral and occupational minimum wage.
- Ensure the wide application of GIAs for the economic development programmes, grant and credit giving, access to credit, access to property and enabling social infrastructure (RIA of ILO Convention No. 156).
- Ensure that the MoESD improves gender mainstreaming in economic development policies at the micro and macro level, and monitor the implementation of the recommendation of the Parliamentary Thematic Inquiry on establishing a conducive environment for female entrepreneurship.
- Improve administrative routine data-collection systems to ensure that individual-level data disaggregated by different vulnerability factors (disability, ethnicity, etc.) are available.

9. WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING

9.1 Legislation and policy overview

The underrepresentation of women in decision-making positions is vivid across all spheres in Georgia; according to the PDO, the existing political context does not ensure women’s equal participation.¹ Women are underrepresented in the legislative and executive branches of the government, in both central and local governments, in the judiciary system and in managerial positions, among others.² Furthermore, structural and systemic barriers—including the disproportionate burden of family and caregiving roles coupled with long and inflexible hours in both public and political work—as well as the violence against women in politics and elections prevent women from participating fully in decision-making at all levels.

The existing inequality is reflected in the international rankings. According to the 2021 Global Gender Gap Index, Georgia ranks 49th out of 153 countries.³ In terms of political empowerment, Georgia moved from 59th to 60th position in the past 15 years,⁴ while in terms of the number of women in the Parliament, based on 2021 data, Georgia occupies 113th position among 188 countries.⁵

Despite the progress made, women’s participation in decision-making is still quite low in the country. According to the PDO, besides the gender quotas intro-

duced in 2020, no other measures were undertaken in support of women’s political participation.⁶ Based on its concluding observations on Georgia, the CEDAW Committee stresses the importance of the problem and recommends that the State take action towards increasing women’s inclusion in decision-making processes, especially at senior position levels.⁷

The national documents creating a policy framework for supporting the representation of women in decision-making positions and thus supporting gender equality are as follows:

- Constitution of Georgia (1995)
- Election Code (2020 amendments)
- Human Rights Strategy and National Action Plan (2018–2020)
- State Concept on Gender Equality (2006)
- Law on Gender Equality (2010)

9.2 National data

9.2.1 Parliament and the executive government

Women in Georgia are underrepresented in Parliament as well as in local governments.

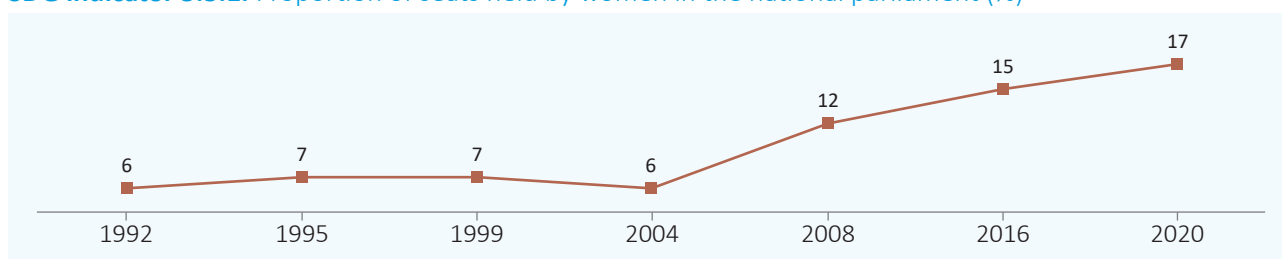


SDG indicator 5.5.1.

The proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament is 17 per cent.⁸

FIGURE 9.1:

SDG indicator 5.5.1. Proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament (%)



Source: Geostat n.d.-b.

As Figure 9.1 shows, the highest share of women occupying seats in Parliament occurred in 2020. The reason behind this was the electoral reform in 2020 that introduced mandatory quotas. In July 2020, the Parliament of Georgia passed a gender quota and made respective changes to the Election Code of Georgia.⁹ The changes oblige the political parties to have at least one in every four candidates in the proportional party lists be a different gender. It is planned to increase the gender quota to one in three candidates in 2028. As a result of the electoral changes, 31 women were elected to the Parliament in 2020; however, only 16 of them entered. The 2020 amendments also instituted a 50/50 gender quota for proportional lists to local councils, to take effect during local elections in October 2021. However, the latter provision was revised prior to the October 2021 elections (before being tested) to requiring one in three council members to be of a different sex. Despite the progress made in the past couple of years, the proportion of women in the Parliament remains well below the ‘critical mass’, especially considering that Georgia’s SDG target for 2030 is 30 per cent.

Violence against women in politics is another serious problem that needs to be considered. It is one of the most significant barriers for women to realize their

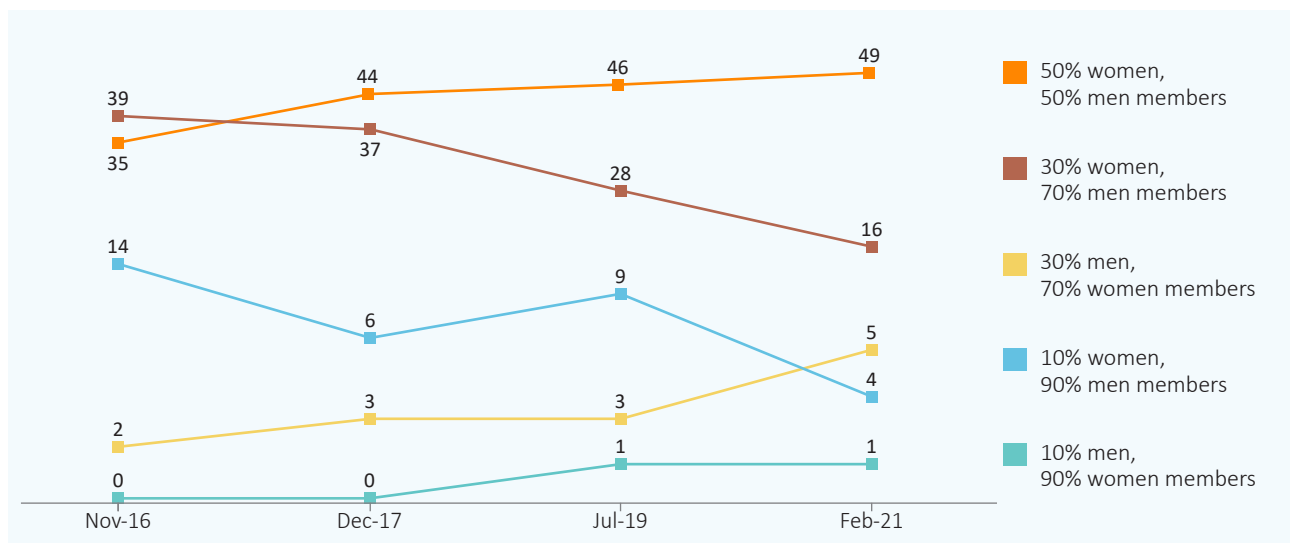
political rights and deprives women in elections.¹⁰ However, this problem has been neglected until recently.

A study by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) on violence against women parliamentarians was based on voluntary one-to-one conversations with 123 women from 45 European countries (including Georgia) and found that psychological violence was the most widespread form of violence, with 85.2 per cent of MPs who took part in the study reporting having suffered from it.¹¹ Moreover, 46.9 per cent of respondents have received threats of death, rape and beatings during their parliamentary term.¹² A recent study by NDI and CRRC revealed that women parliamentary candidates are disproportionately targeted with violence and harassment in Georgia.¹³ The study aimed to monitor online violence against the candidates. With this purpose, CRRC reviewed comments on the Facebook pages of 491 majoritarian candidates and revealed that women comprised 22 per cent of the candidates but received 40 per cent of the abusive posts.¹⁴

Despite such abuse, recent data show that there is a significant increase among the people who believe that the representation of women and men in the Parliament should be equal.¹⁵

FIGURE 9.2:

Respondents’ opinions of what would be the best proportion of men and women members in Parliament (%)



Source: CRRC n.d.



























































A similar change was observed in the study Men, Women, and Gender Relations in Georgia: Public Perceptions and Attitudes, conducted by UNDP and UNFPA in 2020. According to the study results, the number of supporters of the idea to engage more

women in Georgian politics has increased from 50 per cent in 2013 to 60 per cent in 2019. However, the study argues that 62 per cent of the population still believes that men make better politicians than women.

The president of Georgia, who is the head of state, is a woman, while the prime minister, who is the head of government, is a man. The vice prime ministers and 8 out of 12 ministers are also male. Only one fourth

(25 per cent) of deputy ministers are women.¹⁶ Table 9.1 below illustrates the sex of ministers and deputy ministers per ministry.

TABLE 9.1:
Distribution of ministers and deputy ministers, by sex

	Minister	Deputy Ministers	
State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia			
Ministry of Regional Development and Infrastructure		 	
Ministry of Justice		  	0
Ministry of Internal Affairs		   	0
Ministry of Defence		  	
Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development		   	 
Ministry of Foreign Affairs		   	
Ministry of Finance		    	0
Ministry of Education and Science			 
Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs			 
Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture		   	
Ministry of Culture and Sport		  	0

Source: UN Women 2021c.



SDG indicator 5.5.1 and Country specific SDG indicator 5.5.1.1

The proportion of seats held by women in local governments is 24 per cent.¹⁷
The proportion of elected women mayors is 3.

Women constituted 14 per cent (3 women, 18 men) of the Supreme Council of the Autonomous Republic of Adjara.¹⁸ The mayors of the four self-governing cities—Batumi, Kutaisi, Poti, and Tbilisi—are men and

of one self-governing city – Rustavi – is a woman.¹⁹ Among the 44 mayors of self-governing communities, only two (4.55 per cent) are women.²⁰ Finally, none of the nine governors are women.²¹

TABLE 9.2:
Country specific SDG indicators 5.5.1.1. and 5.5.1.2.
Proportion of elected women mayors and appointed women governors (%)

Self-governing cities (5)	1
Self-governing communities (44)	4.55
Governors (9)	0

Source: Ministry of Regional Development and Infrastructure 2021.

9.2.2 The civil service

The share of women among civil servants is about one third (30.4 per cent), which practically has not changed since 2018, when the share of women was 32.8 per cent.²² Notably, the highest gender imbalance is in the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is dominated by men.²³ When it comes to the representation of people with disabilities among civil servants, the number is extremely low. This is the case for both women and men with disabilities.

ance is in the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is dominated by men.²³ When it comes to the representation of people with disabilities among civil servants, the number is extremely low. This is the case for both women and men with disabilities.



SDG indicator 16.7.1.

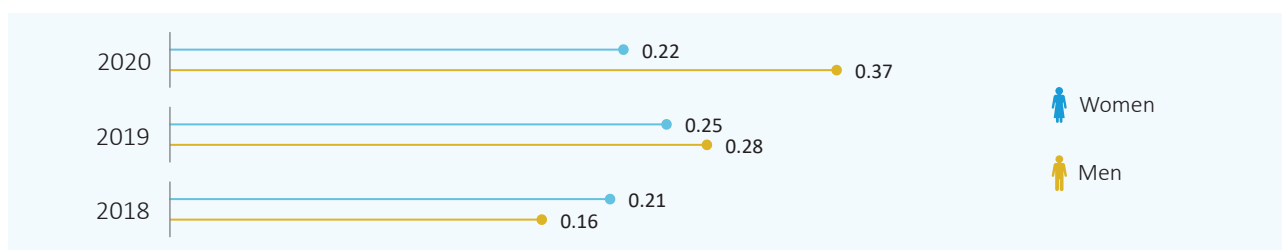
The proportion of positions held by women/men with disabilities in public institutions (in this case, the Civil Service Bureau) is 0.22 per cent of women and 0.37 per cent of men.²⁴

No major changes are observed with regard to the share of people with disabilities in public institutions in the past three years.

tutions in the past three years.

FIGURE 9.3:

Proportion of women and men with disabilities among all women civil servants (%)



Source: Civil Service Bureau 2020.

Finally, 36.4 per cent of rank I and II managerial positions are held by women.²⁵

the judges of the Supreme Court constituted 45 per cent,³⁰ the share of women among the judges of the Kutaisi Court of Appeals reached 71 per cent, and the proportion of women among the judges of the Tbilisi Court of Appeals reached 51 per cent in 2020.³¹

Sexual harassment, which is prevalent in Georgia's civil services, might be identified as a hindering factor for women's full participation and presence in higher ranks. As previously discussed under Chapter 6 (Violence against women), every two in five female civil servants have experienced sexual harassment in the workplace, with younger staff being more prone to being harassed.²⁶

The overview of the data of the past three years reveals that the share of women has slightly increased at all instances except for the Constitutional Court, where the number of women decreased by one person in the past year. Notably, the increase in the share of women in the Kutaisi Court of Appeals was not due to the increase of female judges but due to the decrease in the overall number of judges.

9.2.3 The judiciary system

Three out of the nine judges of the Constitutional Court are women.²⁹ The proportion of women among



Country-specific SDG indicator 16.7.1.3.

The judiciary system is the only sphere in which women are rather well represented. The proportion of women in the judiciary constituted 54 per cent.²⁷

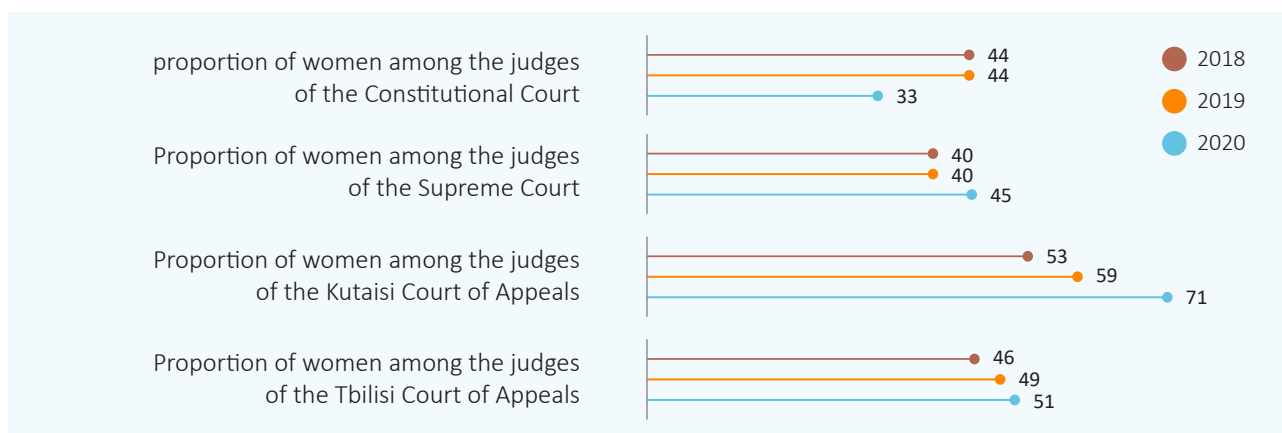


Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.2.

However, the proportion of women decision-makers in the judiciary system is 10.7 per cent.²⁸

FIGURE 9.4:

Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.2. Proportion of women decision makers in the judiciary (%)



Source: High Council of Justice 2020.

9.2.4 Women in managerial positions and the public’s opinion



SDG indicator 5.5.2.

Based on the Labour Force Survey data, the proportion of women in managerial positions constituted 36.1 per cent compared to 63.9 per cent for men.³²


A recent study conducted by the Civil Service Bureau in 2021 aimed to reveal the barriers and supportive factors for female and male civil servants in managerial positions. The study revealed that more civil servant wom-

en than men have more invisible barriers due to existing stereotypes—for example, that women’s main responsibility is to their family and children and that there are professions that suit men better than women.³³



Related to SDG indicator 16.7.2.

When it comes to the population’s attitudes towards women in decision-making, there is no direct measure for SDG indicator 16.7.2 (proportion of the population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive). A 2016 study by NDI and CRRC revealed that the Georgian population still holds traditional attitudes towards women’s participation in politics; specifically, 58 per cent of Georgians (61 per cent of men and 57 per cent of women) think that women do not have enough time for politics because of household responsibilities.³⁴ Furthermore, the same study suggests that men are less likely to support women’s engagement in decision-making, with 20 per cent of men and 11 per cent of women thinking that women are not as capable in decision-making as men.³⁵

 Women’s representation was low in combating COVID-19. According to OHCHR, the representation of women’s unions and women’s rights defenders was not sufficient during the development of COVID-19-related policies.³⁶ According to the COVID-19 Global Gender Response Tracker, the proportion of women on COVID-19 tasks forces³⁷ constituted 29 per cent in Georgia.³⁸ The World Bank stressed the importance of the inclusion of women in decision-making processes to ensure the integration

of a gender perspective into Georgia’s policy responses to the pandemic.³⁹

9.3 Summary and recommendations

Georgia has taken significant steps forward to increase women’s participation in decision-making processes in recent years. Mandatory quotas are one of the most important changes introduced. However, the data illustrate that the representation of wom-

en in the legislative as well as executive government, at both the local and central levels, in the judiciary system, in managerial positions and in higher ranks, remains low. Therefore, it is recommended that the Government take the following actions:

- Introduce additional measures along with mandatory quotas to further increase the number of women in political decision-making Parliament.
- Ensure sex-disaggregated data collection, especially in terms of intersectionality, including other vulnerable groups (e.g. people with disabilities, etc.).
- Take measures to increase the proportion of people with disabilities (both men and women) among civil servants.
- Increase women's participation in decision-making position in the judicial branch.
- Ensure the inclusion, representation and leadership of women in decision-making processes during the development of COVID-19 policies.
- Ensure that the issues of gender equality and women's empowerment are not deprioritized and are still addressed during the pandemic.

10. WOMEN'S ACCESS TO ICT, AND WOMEN AND THE MEDIA

10.1 Legislation and policy overview

Access to information is one of the core constitutional rights according to the Constitution of Georgia. The international agreements and obligations that Georgia has ratified acknowledge the importance of accessing information and technologies as a central part for women's empowerment. SDG Target 5.b compels States to enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology (ICT), to promote the empowerment of women. The BPfA also includes several objectives that enhance women's access and participation in media. Specifically, strategic objective J.1 requires States to increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision-making in and through the media and new technologies of communication. According to strategic objective J.2 of the BPfA, governments are obliged to promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

Under the EU-Georgia Association Agreement, Georgia took on the obligation to implement the requirement of the EU directive on Audiovisual Media Services.¹ According to this directive, EU Member States shall ensure that audiovisual commercial communications provided by media service providers under their jurisdiction comply with requirements, inter alia, to not include or promote any discrimination based on sex, racial or ethnic origin, nationality, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation.

The Government's 2018–2020 HR NAP includes objectives to enhance the access to new technologies and communication for women living in rural areas, as well as to strengthen access to the media and information for ethnic minority groups in Georgia.

The legal framework for the media is covered by the Georgian Law on Broadcasting (2004) and the Code of Conduct for Broadcasters adopted by the Georgian

National Communications Commission. The Georgian Law on Broadcasting obliges Georgian Public Broadcasting "to reflect ethnic, cultural, linguistic, religious, age, and gender diversity in programs."² Furthermore, the Georgian Charter of Journalist Ethics has developed diverse resources for journalists, such as guidelines on the coverage of gender issues³ and recommendations for journalists on the coverage of femicide.⁴

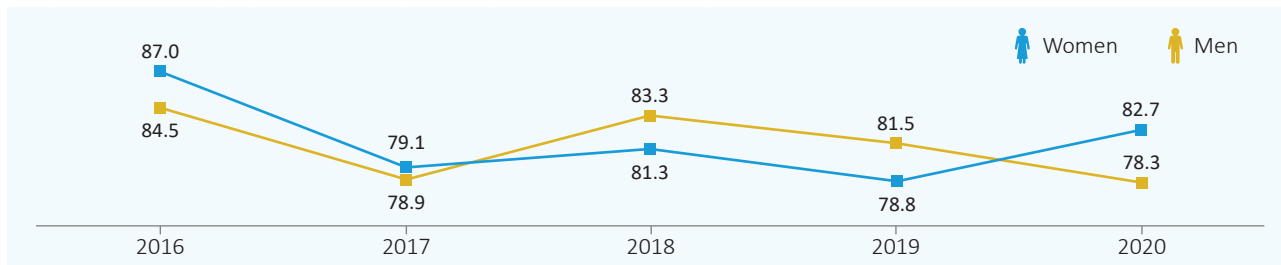
10.2 National data

10.2.1 Access to ICT

As mentioned in Chapter 3 (Women, poverty and social exclusion), the absolute majority of Georgians own a mobile phone; specifically, in 2020, 85.8 per cent of women and 87.4 per cent of men owned a mobile telephone. There are slight disparities between men and women in possessing a mobile phone; however, a time-series analysis shows that significant progress has been made in this regard. Furthermore, the discrepancies are greater when comparing urban and rural populations. Although these discrepancies have been getting milder over the years, in 2020, the proportion of the urban population who owns a mobile phone was approximately 12 points higher compared to that of the rural population.

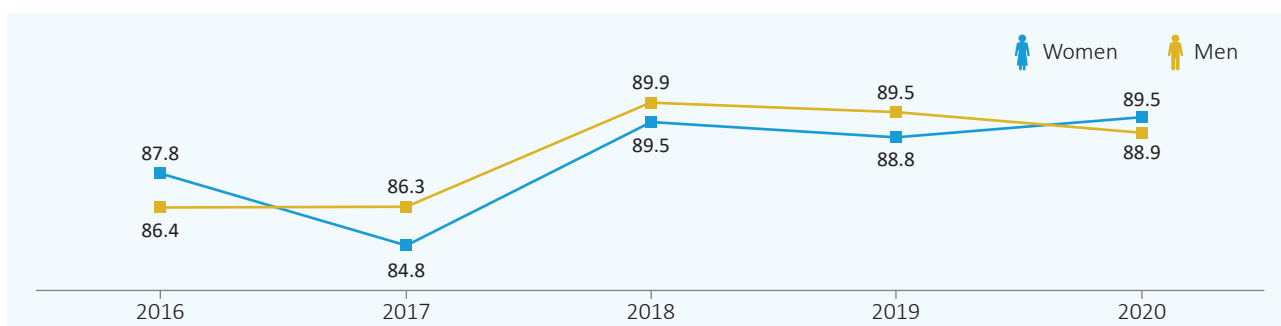
In 2020, 64 per cent of male-headed households and 65 per cent of female-headed households had a computer,⁵ and 80.6 per cent of respondents used a computer every day.⁶ Internet access was available in 82 per cent of female-headed households and 86 per cent of male-headed households in 2020, and 89.2 per cent of respondents used the Internet every day.⁷ The trend over time shows that in general, everyday Internet usage has slightly increased for both women and men since 2016. In 2018, 29.8 per cent of the poorest households had access to the Internet, while 98 per cent of the richest households had Internet access.⁸ No updated data are available on this indicator yet.

FIGURE 10.1:
Proportion of the population using a computer every day, by sex (%)



Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2016–2020).

FIGURE 10.2:
Proportion of the population using the Internet every day, by sex (%)

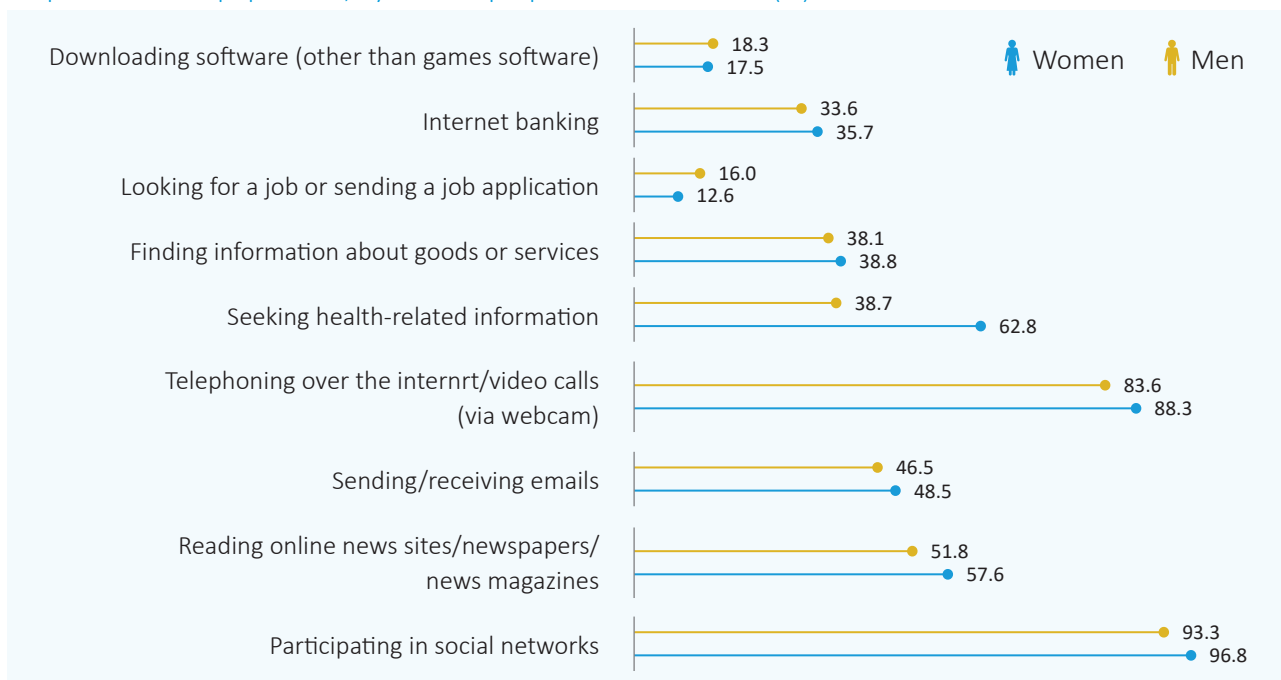


Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2016–2020).

In 2020, the primary purpose of using the Internet was for participating in social networks and for telephoning or video calling online, for both women and


men. Furthermore, the data show that women tend to search for health-related information on the Internet almost twice as much compared to men.⁹

FIGURE 10.3:
Proportion of the population, by sex and purpose of Internet use (%)



Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2020).

10.2.2 Access to COVID-19 information

 Since the start of the pandemic, disinformation about COVID-19 has been spreading actively. In the era of fake information, it is vital to have access to trusted sources of information, especially during a pandemic.

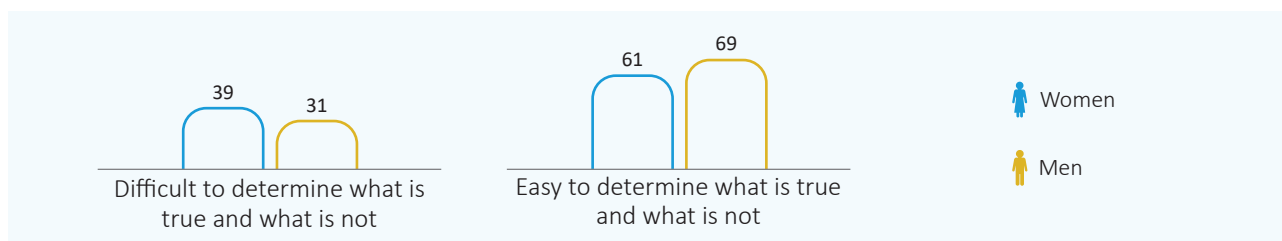
According to the assessments conducted during the pandemic, the vast majority of Georgians received information about COVID-19. Both women's and men's primary information source is television (67 per cent men, 66 per cent women), about a quarter of whom (25 per cent of men, 26 per cent of women) prefer social media. The younger the person, the more likely he/she is to prefer social media as a primary source of information about COVID-19.¹⁰

The majority of both women and men have received information on the epidemiological situation, preventive measures, health facilities, risk groups, education programmes and/or the State's Anti-Crisis Economic Plan. It is worth mentioning that more women (84 per cent) reported receiving information regarding distance learning programmes for school-children than men (79 per cent).¹¹ This is once again an indication that caring for children's education is considered women's responsibility. The majority of the respondents assessed the received information as clear and precise.¹²

More women (39 per cent) than men (31 per cent) find it difficult to determine what information is true on COVID-19 and what is false.

FIGURE 10.4:

Difficulty/ease in determining what is true or not when getting information on the coronavirus, 2020 (%)



Source: NDI and CRRC, *Public attitudes in Georgia (2020)*.

10.2.3 Gender and the media

Adequate and responsible coverage in the media of gender-related issues is crucial for women's empowerment. However, only very limited research is available on this issue in Georgia.

A media monitoring analysis from 2018 suggests that coverage of gender-related topics makes up to 7 per cent of all topics covered by different types of media. The same study indicates that the highest share of gender-related coverage was by online media.¹³ Furthermore, the coverage of gender-related issues is mostly artificial, lacking a gender perspective and mainly focusing on scandalous facts and incorporating gender stereotypes.¹⁴ Feminist actors are less likely to use media platforms and create media content themselves.¹⁵

Particular focus is needed on the coverage of femicide. According to a recent study, in most cases, femicide is covered as an individual case and not a social phenomenon that reoccurs in Georgian society.¹⁶

Such an approach strengthens gender stereotypes and, in some instances, romanticizes the femicide case insofar as instead of emphasizing gendered motives, emotions are provoked.¹⁷ Although there are professional standards in place about covering gender issues, it is believed by media experts that professional and legal standards need to be strengthened, along with improved qualifications for journalists.¹⁸

Social media provides unlimited opportunities for people to express their opinion and contribute to defining narratives towards a variety of issues, including gender equality and the empowerment of women. As stated in the 'Mid-term Report of Pre-election Monitoring: Sexism and Gender Stereotypes in Social Media', "social media provides a forum for numerous people to engage in sharing misogynic posts, rumors, fake news or manipulated photos and videos while the speed the information travels on social media, deepens hate against a target and enhances its influence on society."¹⁹ The monitoring, which covered three months (August–November 2020), identified a total of 213 cases of sexist hate speech and ste-

reotyping on social media from Facebook accounts discrediting opponents of the Government and from Facebook accounts linked to anti-liberal groups. The analysis showed that women politicians were attacked on the grounds of moral criteria, criticized as per gender stereotypes and ridiculed on the grounds of appearance and intellectual abilities.²⁰

Although there are no documented data available, there is an opinion among media experts that media is perceived as a more feminine sector; thus, women dominate in journalism schools, and more women are employed within all types of media.²¹

10.3 Summary and recommendations

Access to information, technologies and media is becoming a vital component for gender equality. Mobile phone ownership is a basic component for gauging gender equality, and owning a personal device provides women with some degree of autonomy. Furthermore, possessing a mobile phone is essential for security reasons insofar as independent access to the device ensures access to emergency services and hotlines for victims.²² The data show that although there is almost equal access to mobile phones and the Internet for women and men in Georgia, significant discrepancies can be observed at the urban/rural level.

- Increase access to the Internet, computers and mobile phones, especially in rural areas, which will allow more people to have better access to information.

In the era of fake news, it is extremely important that people have adequate digital and media literacy. Currently, no research is available providing an analysis on the gendered aspects of disinformation, nor is there available data on the media literacy level among women and men.

- Carry out assessments on media literacy, and launch relevant programmes aimed at increasing the media literacy level among women and men.
- Study the gendered aspects of disinformation, and develop relevant strategies.

Different research suggests that despite existing regulations and standards, gender issues are covered in the media in a stereotypical manner, indicating the weaknesses of normative and professional standards of the media, as well as the lack of competence among media professionals in covering gender issues.

- Ensure that the professional and ethical standards of the media are revised and strengthened, making them more gender-sensitive, efficient and results-oriented and aimed against the propagation of discrimination and prejudices.
- Build media professionals' capacity and competence in regard to covering gender-related topics.
- Encourage feminist actors to create media content, and provide them with relevant media platforms.

11. WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE AND THE ENVIRONMENT

11.1 Legislation and policy overview

According to the tenth chapter of the EU-Georgia Association Agreement (“Agriculture and rural development”), Georgia made a commitment to ensure the development of agriculture and rural development according to EU policy best practices and to improve the Georgian legislation to align with the EU.¹ The Deep and Comprehensive Free Trade Area (DCFTA) agreement is part of the Association Agreement. Apart from this, Georgia has free trade agreements with the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries, China, Turkey and Ukraine. These agreements give agricultural exports access to a significant number of consumers.²

A number of laws and normative documents are in place to regulate agriculture and rural development in Georgia. Existing laws and normative documents do not address gender issues at all. The 2018–2021 Regional Development Programme of Georgia is based on the EU-Georgia Association Agreement, which includes gender equality and social inclusion as one of its objectives. All regional development strategies include identical mentions regarding gender equality.³

In 2020, the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture of Georgia developed a new Agriculture and Rural Development Strategy for the period 2021–2027 and Action Plan for the period 2021–2023. The strategy document includes a subchapter

on gender analysis that emphasizes the importance of women’s involvement in rural development, as well as acknowledges such disempowering factors as the prevalent traditional understanding of women’s role and existing gender wage gap.⁴ The document also provides a SWOT analysis, which identified women’s limited access to information, technologies and agricultural resources, as well as women’s limited access to agricultural lands, finances and other assets, as weaknesses.⁵

The Government of Georgia adopted the 2017–2020 National Disaster Risk Reduction Strategy and its Action Plan. The document includes a paragraph on gender equality in the disaster risk reduction policy and emphasizes the special needs of women in an emergency and engaging women in preparedness work.⁶ An updated strategy on disaster risk reduction was not available at the time of preparing the CGEP.

11.2 National data

11.2.1 Agriculture

About 43.4 per cent of Georgia’s territory consists of agricultural lands,⁷ and 41 per cent of the Georgian population lived in rural areas in 2020.⁸ According to the UN World Urbanization Prospects forecast, by 2050, the proportion of the rural population in Georgia will have decreased to 27 per cent.⁹ At present, 75 per cent of the rural population is self-employed in agriculture.¹⁰ The agriculture sector’s share of GDP was 8.4 per cent in 2020.¹¹



Country-specific SDG indicator 2.3.2.1.

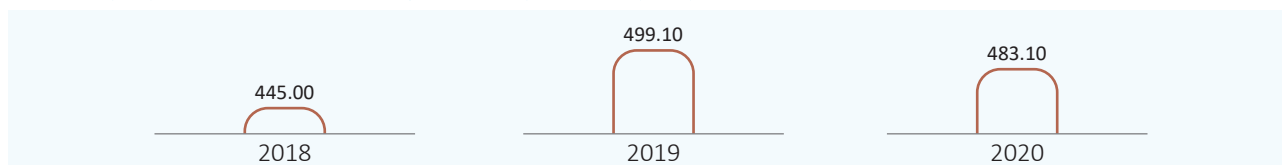
The average monthly income of the agricultural population by household from employment or the sale of agriculture products was GEL 483.10 in 2020.¹²

In 2020, 38.1 per cent of the agricultural population produced goods for sale, while in 2019, the share was

39.4 per cent in 2019 and 43 per cent in 2018.¹³

FIGURE 11.1:

Country-specific SDG indicator 2.3.2.1. Average monthly income of agricultural population by household from employment or the sale of agriculture products (GEL)



Source: Geostat, HIES (2018–2020).



Related to SDG indicator 5.a.1.

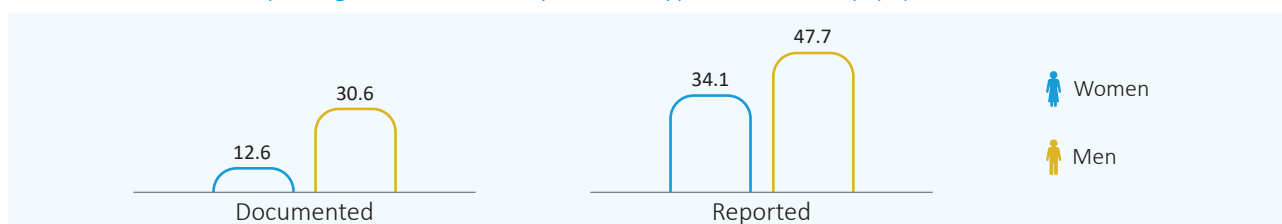
The only data responding to the indicator are reported in the Geostat publication *Women and Men in Georgia 2018*, according to which in 2015, 37.7 per cent of landowners were women and 62.3 per cent were men.¹⁴

Furthermore, if looking at disaggregation by reported ownership and documented ownership, the gender gap becomes most evident in that men are more

than twice as likely to be documented as owners than women.¹⁵ This is important because documented ownership guarantees the legal rights to ownership.

FIGURE 11.2:

Incidence of ownership of agricultural land, by sex and type of ownership (%)



Source: Geostat 2018a.

Further exploration of the data shows that the status of ownership, especially in documented ownership, is still unequal and inequitable between men and women with the same level of education.¹⁶ The studies show that due to the lack of registered lands, women have limited access to credit, grant schemes and governmental subsidies.¹⁷

Men and women receive asset ownership through different ways that emphasize the gender gap. The studies show that men mostly acquire ownership through inheritance and allocation or gifts, while women acquire ownership mainly through marital laws.¹⁸ According to the studies, the reasons for unequal access to land rights might be as follows:

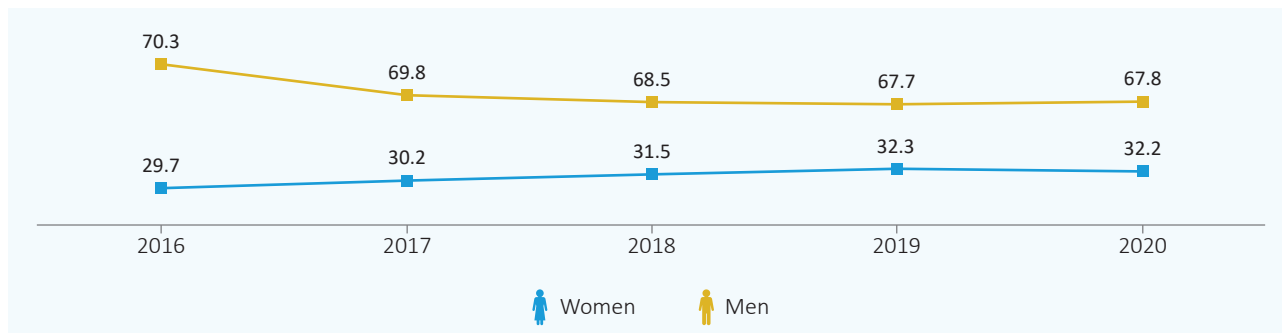
- Traditional inheritance practices when sons have favour over daughters
- Women's limited access to economic resources

to buy land

- Traditional understanding of women's role in household
- Women leaving households when getting married without claiming their share of land/assets
- Lack of knowledge and understanding about their ownership rights and the law¹⁹

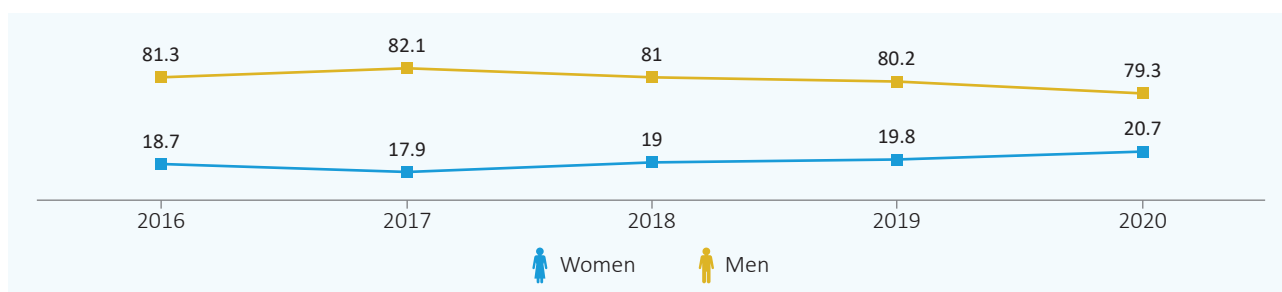
Data show significant gender disparities in terms of the distribution of agricultural holdings by women and men, as well as the distribution of the land area operated by agricultural holdings. In 2020, 32.2 per cent of agricultural holdings were managed by women, while 67.8 per cent were managed by men; and 20.7 per cent of lands operated under agricultural holdings were held by women, while men held 79.3 per cent of them.²⁰ The gender gap has been maintained over the years.

FIGURE 11.3:
Distribution of agricultural holdings, by gender of the holder (%)



Source: Geostat 2020b.

FIGURE 11.4:
Distribution of land area operated by agricultural holdings, by gender of the holder (%)



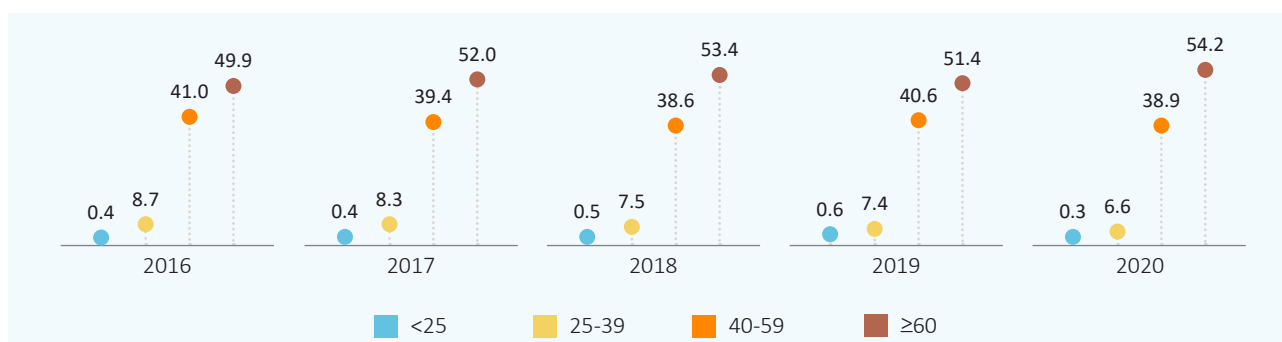
Source: Geostat n.d.-b.

Furthermore, according to the 2018 data, women represent only 25 per cent of agricultural cooperative members, and only 4.7 per cent of cooperatives (100 cooperatives out of 2,106) are managed by women.²¹

The available data also reveal the gaps in youth par-

ticipation in agriculture. In 2020, only 0.3 per cent of agricultural holdings were managed by a person under the age of 25, and 6.6 per cent of holdings were managed by a holder aged 25–39. More than half of agricultural holdings are managed by holders aged 60 and above.²² This distribution has been similar throughout the years since 2016.

FIGURE 11.5:
Distribution of agricultural holdings, by age (%)



Source: Geostat n.d.-b.

According to a variety of studies, different marketing is associated with women and men. Specifically, retail and small marketing is considered mainly for women

because they have less access to transportation and only the ability to carry small amounts of products to local markets. On the other hand, wholesale market-

ing is mainly associated with men.²³ Women usually sell milk, fruits and vegetables collected themselves, while men are associated with selling mostly meat. Furthermore, women are perceived as better sellers because of the stereotypical beliefs about females having better communication skills.²⁴



There are not many assessments carried out on the impact of COVID-19 on agriculture with a gender lens. As a response to the pandemic-related crisis, the GoG developed the Agricultural Anti-Crisis Plan, which included direct support to solve short-term challenges, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, sectoral support as a longer-term strategy.²⁵

According to an ISET-PI assessment, women producers of agricultural products reported a significant fall in sales due to the lockdown and absence of public transportation. Female producers used public transportation to reach municipal markets, which was not possible during the lockdown because of the ban on public transportation, while male producers could manage to distribute their products using private cars and minibuses.²⁶

11.2.2 Environment

Environmental challenges remain a critical problem worldwide, one that disproportionately affects women. According to the 2018 data, 14.3 per cent of the Georgian rural population does not have access to drinking water on their premises,²⁷ while a piped sewer system is available in 15.8 per cent of rural households.²⁸ Collection of drinking water is almost equally divided between men and women (aged 15 and above), with 50.6 per cent of men and 45 per cent of women responsible for collecting water for their household.²⁹ About 77.6 per cent of the rural population is satisfied with the water quality.³⁰

Recent studies claim that due to the prevailing traditional discourse in Georgia, housework is considered women's responsibility. Natural gas, firewood and electricity are used mainly for housework-related activities such as heating water, heating homes and preparing meals. In 2018, the absolute majority of the Georgian population has access to electricity (99 per cent), and about two thirds of the population (68 per cent) has access to natural gas.³¹ In the total usage of energy in households, the share of electricity is 16.4 per cent; natural gas, 51.8 per cent; and firewood, 29.9 per cent.³² Using firewood

as a source of energy is very common in rural areas (82 per cent) and is considered a significant factor in energy poverty due to the limited access to cleaner sources of energy. For instance, firewood is used as the primary means of heating for 17 per cent of urban households and 78.3 per cent of rural households (in total, 45.8 per cent of all households in Georgia).³³ Energy poverty has a disproportionately negative effect on women since women spend more time at home doing housework with unclean sources of energy, meaning that they are exposed to larger amounts of smoke and particulates that are a direct cause of respiratory diseases. In addition, due to the lack of economic and decision-making opportunities, women are less likely to be able to either improve or escape the situation.³⁴

Natural disasters such as floods, landslides and fires are another significant aspect that disproportionately affects women and men. According to recent studies, due to the prevailing attitudes and perceptions on women's role, women are mainly less ready to react quickly to natural disasters.³⁵ The most vulnerable groups towards natural disasters are people living in high mountainous regions and rural areas, as well as poor people and those living below the poverty line and people living alone. Furthermore, studies show that women and children are 14 times at greater risk of dying during disasters than men.³⁶

According to WHO data, the average death rate attributed to natural disasters between 2012 and 2016 was 0.1 per cent.³⁷

11.3 Summary and recommendations

To sum up, women's participation in the agriculture sector remains a challenge. Despite the fact that the new national strategy (2021–2027) involves a situational analysis on gender aspects, neither the objectives of the strategy nor the activities and indicators in the action plan correspond to the gender gaps, and women's empowerment and inclusion components are not incorporated into the document. Gender mainstreaming is missing from other related normative documents and laws, including the Law on Agricultural Cooperatives. Although there are some programmes aimed at women's inclusion, they are considered insufficient.³⁸ In addition, data show that youth participation is also a significant gap in agriculture and rural development.

- Ensure that the Government of Georgia continue putting effort into improving national legislative frameworks and policies on gender equality; and ensure that gender and youth inclusion is better mainstreamed in sectoral laws and policies, on one hand, and monitor its quality enforcement, on the other hand.
- Collect disaggregated data, including data on vulnerable groups (e.g. people with disabilities, ethnic minorities, etc.).

The data show that women are excluded from many aspects of rural and agricultural development due to their limited access to finances and other important resources that are essential for agricultural business. In turn, the lack of access to resources and finances excludes women from decision-making. Furthermore, data show that in family farming practices, women mainly are involved in manual work; they do not have access to available technologies and machinery, which are considered men's prerogative. Due to the prevalent stereotypical attitudes, building women's technical and professional expertise in this regard is not considered—neither at the family level nor at the wider/national level. This is connected to the barriers to women's representation in higher managerial positions.³⁹ According to research conducted by FAO (2018): “given the social existing patrilocal form of marriage, rural households have less interest in investing in girls because the potential economic returns are perceived to be significantly lower than that of boys. This has long-term implications for the status of young women and their life opportunities, limiting their abilities to have access to well-paid jobs and other various resources. It also has an impact on overall agricultural productivity and rural development.”⁴⁰

- Ensure that government agencies launch programmes focusing and supporting landowners

among women to encourage women to register their lands and own the respective documents of land ownership, which in turn will increase their access to finances and other resources.

- Contribute to women's economic empowerment by providing alternative ways to access credit for women who do not have documented ownership of land.
- Invest more in women's technical and professional capacity by providing training and professional programmes, as well as awareness-raising campaigns to overcome prevalent traditional attitudes regarding women's role and participation in the agricultural sector.
- Ensure that the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture supports women-initiated and realized rural projects.

Research shows that women are disproportionately affected by environmental challenges and energy poverty. Combating energy poverty with consideration of gender aspects should be among the primary objectives of energy and environmental policies. Furthermore, there is a lack of awareness among the general population on the effects of environmental change.

- Ensure that gender aspects are incorporated into the environmental policies and strategies.
- Ensure that the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture and the GEC provide trainings for the mountainous population on disaster risk reduction and its gender aspects.
- Provide awareness-raising activities on energy efficiency and safe energy use, as well as its effects on health and well-being.

12. THE GIRL CHILD

12.1 Legislation and policy overview

CEDAW, the Istanbul Convention, the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) create international obligations for Georgia to ensure that discriminatory practices, early and forced marriages and violence against the girl child are eliminated.

The following documents create the national legal framework for protecting the rights of the girl child:

- Law on Gender Equality (2010)
- Law on Domestic Violence (2006)
- Law of Georgia on Patient Rights (2000)
- The Anti-Discrimination Law (2014)
- Human Rights National Action Plan (2018–2020)
- The Protocol of Safe Termination of Pregnancy (2014)
- Criminal Code of Georgia (1999)
- Code on the Rights of the Child (2019)
- Civil Code of Georgia (1997)

According to the PDO, the Government still faces a

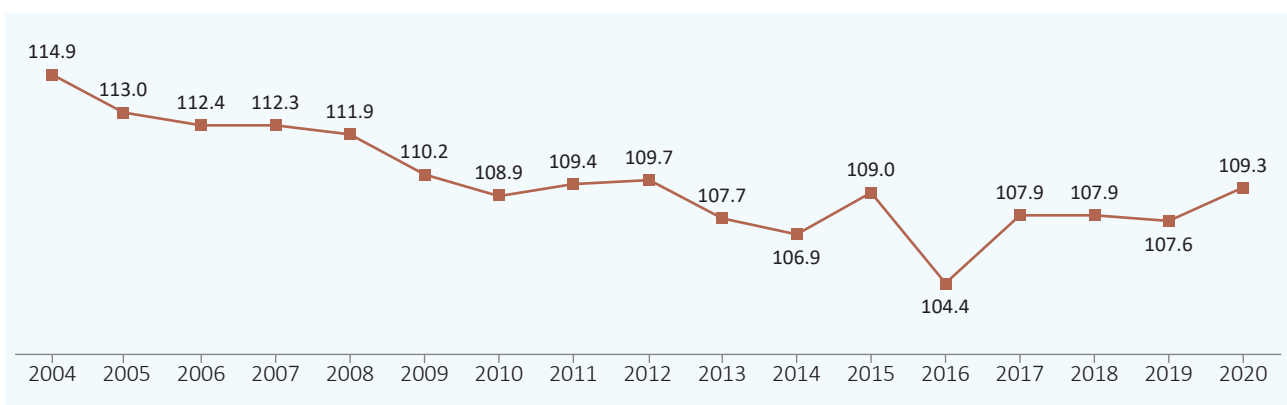
number of challenges regarding the protection of the rights of children.¹ Furthermore, the existing gender inequalities make girls more vulnerable than boys to discriminatory practices.

12.2 National data

12.2.1 Sex ratio at birth

Georgian society is a patriarchal society that shows a strong preference to sons rather than daughters. Statistical data suggest that there is a sex imbalance at birth in Georgia. In the 1990s, there was an increasing trend in the sex ratio at birth (SRB), reaching its highest point of 115.0 in 2004 (the biological norm is 105–106 male births per 100 female births).² According to recent studies, the trend was attributed to deteriorating economic conditions, strong son preference, low total fertility rates and access to affordable reproductive technologies.³ From 2004, the SRB started to decrease and reached the biological norm in 2016; since then, it has fluctuating at the level 107–109. The improved economic conditions, reduced poverty, higher female employment, increased male educational attainment and changes in sociocultural and gender value systems are identified as contributing factors to the decline.⁴ However, the downward trend in the SRB is still prevalent in Georgian society. Figure 12.1 illustrates the SRB from 2004 to 2020.

FIGURE 12.1:
Sex ratio at birth (male births per 100 female births)

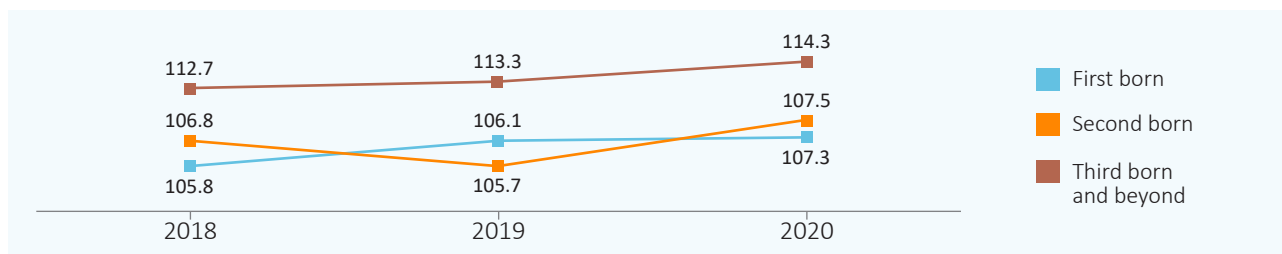


Source: Geostat 2020g.

The SRB is usually more evident when analysing the data according to birth order; it depends on the gender composition of children and usually in-

creases with birth order. As Figure 12.2 below illustrates, the SRB is highest for the third-born child and beyond.

FIGURE 12.2:
Sex ratio at birth (male births per 100 female births, by birth order)



Source: Geostat 2020g.

12.2.2 Early marriage

Early or child marriage is defined as a union, whether official or not, of two persons, at least one of whom is under 18 years of age.⁵ After harmonizing the national legal framework to the Istanbul Convention, the Government of Georgia (GoG) took significant steps towards eliminating early and child marriage. Nowadays, it is illegal to marry before the age of 18; therefore, there are no marriages registered officially involving girls under 18. However, the harmful practice of early/child marriage continues unofficially, and a variety of studies point to the severity of the problem.⁶ Georgia is among the countries with the highest rates of early marriage in Europe. The prevalence of early marriages in Georgia was 17.2 per cent in 2005, 14 per cent in 2010 and 13.9 per cent in 2018.⁷

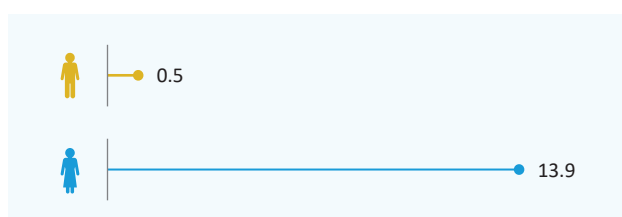
Early/child marriage affects both girls and boys; however, it is a gendered phenomenon and affects the lives of girls disproportionately. Girls are more vulnerable in terms of domestic violence and child abuse, dropping out of education, having health problems and lacking social connections.⁸ In fact, one of the key reasons for dropping out of school is early marriage, and the vast majority of those who quit school because of early marriage are girls.⁹ Based on the administrative data, in 2020, 60 pupils left school because of marriage, 56 of whom were girls.¹⁰ The reasoning behind leaving school for purposes of marriage is that people see education as incompatible with the roles of a wife.¹¹ In addition, there is pressure on girls to become pregnant immediately, which leads them from early marriage to early motherhood too.¹²



SDG indicator 5.3.1.

The MICS results illustrate that the proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before the age of 18 constituted 13.9 per cent, while the share of men was 0.5 per cent.¹³

FIGURE 12.3:
Proportion of men and women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before age 18 (%)

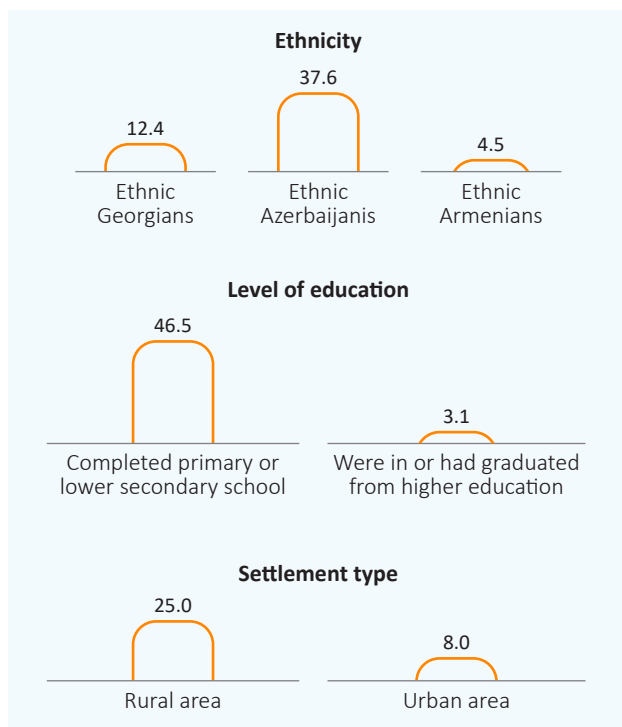


Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

Child marriage is a common problem in Georgian society, with cases revealed in almost every ma-

ior ethnic group residing in Georgia. The share of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before the age of 18 is highest among ethnic Azerbaijanis (37.6 per cent), followed by ethnic Georgians (12.4 per cent) and ethnic Armenians (4.5 per cent).¹⁴ A difference is also observed among rural (25 per cent) and urban (8 per cent) populations, with rural women being more likely to get married under the age of 18. The level of education is another factor, with women who graduated from university (3.1 per cent) being less likely to get married at an early age than those who have completed primary or lower secondary school (46.5 per cent).¹⁵

FIGURE 12.4:
SDG indicator 5.3.1. Proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before age 18, by ethnicity, education and settlement type (%)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

Further analysis of the MICS data revealed that economic background also significantly affects the likelihood of early marriage. “For instance, 24.9 per cent of girls aged 15–19 from the lowest wealth quintile reported that they were married or living in a union, compared to 0.5 per cent of girls in the same age group from the richest wealth quintile.”¹⁶ In addition to economic background, parents’—and specifically a father’s—education also appears to be an important factor in defining the likelihood of a woman’s early marriage. If a woman’s father had undergone several years of higher education, she is less likely to marry before the age of 18.¹⁷

A PDO report stresses that the prevention of early marriage as well as the management of particular cases are problematic, and the factors that hinder problem-solving are as follows:

- Lack of effectiveness of the coordination among the Ministry of Internal Affairs, educational entities and social affairs
- Lack of willingness of the schools to report on

the cases of early marriage, even though they are obliged to do so¹⁸

- Lack of information among young girls to whom to refer in case they are being forced into early marriage¹⁹

COVID-19 made the problem more severe. Due to the pandemic, schools had to switch to online studies, which made it more difficult to identify the case of early marriage and to react to them in a timely manner.²⁰

12.2.3 Violence against children

Violence against children (VAC) is another severe problem violating children’s rights. The studies show that despite Georgian society having a good understanding of what violence is, there is a high cultural acceptance of VAC.²¹

The PDO stresses that the risks of VAC have increased during the pandemic and that the physical and mental well-being of children became under threat.²² According to their report, the protection of minors against violence is ineffective due to the following factors:

- Delays in revealing violence
- Ineffectiveness and inefficiency in responding to violence
- Lack of rehabilitation measures
- Lack of prevention measures
- Lack coordination among the responsible parties
- Lack of qualifications of the professionals working with minors²³

Sexual violence against girls should also be stressed here. According to the administrative data of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia, there were 405 registered crimes “against sexual freedom” committed in 2018, of which 287 concerned minors. According to the previous CGEP, “sexual violence against girls can cause mental health problems, as well as serious damage to the reproductive and sexual health of a victim.”²⁴ The survey ‘Health Behaviour in School-aged Children’, carried out by the NCDC in 2017 and 2018, provides the evidence that girls aged 11–15 are

significantly more likely to experience poorer mental well-being (i.e. feeling down or feeling lonely) than boys of the same age.²⁵

UNICEF’s study identifies several hindering issues in overcoming VAC, including the following:

- Society considers acts of domestic violence against children a family matter and therefore is against direct involvement.
- In the event a citizen decides to intervene, he/she often does not know which agency to appeal to.
- The majority of professionals (60 per cent) working with children and who are obligated by law to respond to VAC cases are not aware of their responsibilities, deeply believe that involvement in family affairs is a sensitive issue and prefer not becoming involved.²⁶

12.2.4 Child labour

Child labour is a significant problem worldwide. The International Labour Organization (ILO) defines child labour as “work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development.”²⁷ The examples from a variety of countries show that children might be working in formal as well as non-formal sectors and that they might work in households including their own or other people’s households.

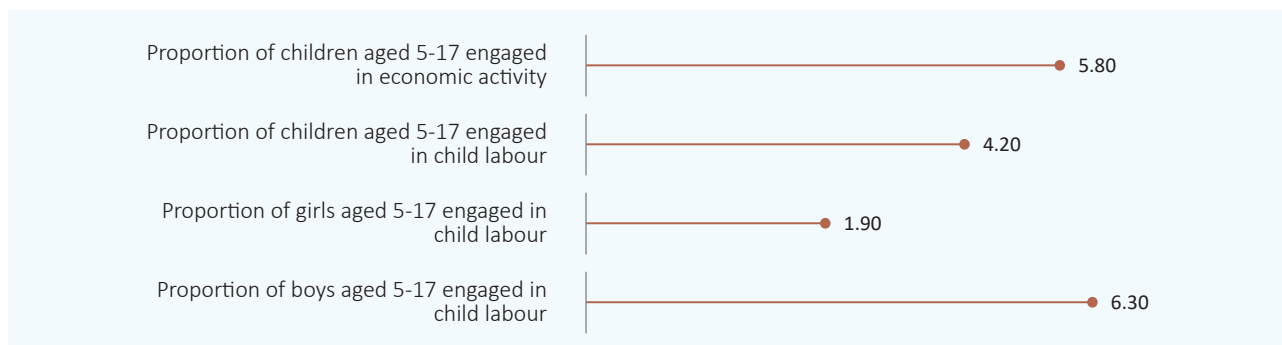
There are no recent quantitative data on child labour in Georgia. The latest data are from 2015, according to which 5.8 per cent of children aged 5–17 were economically active (employed). Of the employed children, 76.5 per cent are boys.²⁸ Children engaged in economic activities constitute 1.6 per cent in urban areas and 11.4 per cent in rural areas.



SDG indicator 8.7.1.

The proportion of children aged 5–17 engaged in child labour constitutes 4.2 per cent. The share of girls aged 5–17 engaged in child labour is 1.9 per cent, while the share of boys is 6.3 per cent.²⁹

FIGURE 12.5:
SDG indicator 8.7.1. Proportion of children aged 5–17 engaged in child labour (%)



Source: ILO and Geostat 2016.

About 63.9 per cent of children in child labour are involved in hazardous work,³⁰ with 67.4 per cent of boys and 51.4 per cent of girls.³¹

In addition, 56.8 per cent of children (61.3 per cent of girls, 52.8 per cent of boys) aged 5–17 are involved in household chores.³² On average, children spend 2.9 hours per week on household chores. If analysing the data in terms of gender and place of residence, “girls spend an average of 1.3 hours more per week doing

household chores compared to boys; the analogous difference is 1.8 hours in rural areas.”³³



It should be stressed that COVID-19 made the issue of child labour more problematic. During the pandemic, people’s economic conditions worsened, and poverty increased. This led to the increased risk of involvement in child labour. According to a recent PDO report, child labour during the pandemic and beyond has important gender aspects, as

“a large percentage of girls have to work at home, at the expense of their education, rest and leisure; in some cases, parents believe that the above is girls’ ‘debt’ and obligation; attitudes of the community are often tolerant in this regard, it has become a rule for girls to get used to doing chores.”³⁴

12.3 Summary and recommendations

In a patriarchal society like Georgia, son preference is still quite strong. This translates into a sex imbalance, with the SRB (109.3 male births per 100 female births) higher than the biological norm (104–106). Therefore, it is recommended to:

- Strengthen awareness on gender equality and sustainable development for policymakers and planners.
- Conduct awareness-raising campaigns for society at large, and tackle the cultural stereotypes and existing practices such as identifying daughters as less valuable than sons and traditional inheritance practices (in favour of sons).
- Continue working with medical personnel to provide them with recommendations on the ethical use of sex-detection technologies.
- Conduct further research that will reveal the reasoning behind son preference in contemporary Georgia, and monitor the dynamics of changes by systematic evaluation.

Even though Georgia took significant steps towards the elimination of child marriage, the phenomenon continues to disproportionately affect the lives of girls in the country. Women residing in rural areas, Azerbaijani women, women with less education and women belonging to the poorest quintile are more likely to get married at an early age. Furthermore, VAC is accepted by a large part of Georgian society. Despite having information on what violence is, there are occurrences of violence against children, including sexual violence. It is recommended to:

- Mobilize administrative resources to strengthen a multi-sectoral approach for the elimination of the harmful practice of child marriage, which, inter alia, will include education, health and law enforcement sectors.
- Establish appropriate mechanisms, including a referral system, to prevent early/child marriage and VAC.
- Strengthen young people’s agency by providing evidence-based information on SRHR within the framework of comprehensive sexuality education.
- Develop programmes to support married adolescents and ensure that they have access to different services, including education, public childcare, etc.
- Raise public awareness on early marriage and VAC, including on the rights of children and to whom to refer in the event of forced marriage and/or violence. The awareness activities should be carried out with youth, teachers, parents and law enforcement bodies.
- Ensure that the professionals working with children, including teachers, social workers, psychologists and representatives of law enforcement bodies, take on more responsibilities in the prevention of the above-mentioned harmful practices.

Child labour and the involvement of children in hazardous work has been a problem in Georgia since before the pandemic. However, COVID-19 further increased the risks of child labour due to the worsened economic conditions. It is recommended to:

- Ensure that social protection systems and strategies are developed to effectively prevent child labour.
- Ensure the systematic collection of gender-disaggregated data on child labour.

13. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Georgia has been committed to gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE) since regaining its independence almost three decades ago, and significant progress has been made towards these issues. However, the thorough overview of the gender data in this profile shows that there are still significant gaps in most aspects of GEWE. These gaps can usually be explained by the existing patriarchal structure and prevalent traditional attitudes towards gender equality and women's empowerment.

The overview of the gender equality situation in this profile demonstrates the need for further improvements in national legislation and frameworks in terms of gender equality and women's empowerment. The Government of Georgia needs to continue working on ratifying fundamental international conventions (such as ILO conventions) and improving mechanisms for the effective implementation of existing obligations. In addition, it is essential that adopted SDG indicators be regularly revised to ensure that selected indicators are relevant for the Georgian context.

The pandemic amplified the existing inequalities in society even more. The reviewed data in this profile confirm that women were hit harder by the pandemic in most aspects of life compared to men. The pandemic results will last even after the end of the pandemic, and the Government will need to work continuously on eliminating the negative impact of the crisis. Accordingly, it is critical that the Government take a gender perspective in this process and elaborate the anti-crisis plans to incorporate the needs of women and other underrepresented groups.

Producing gender statistics has been significantly improved in recent years. With the support of UN Women, the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) successfully launched the Gender Statistics Portal,¹

which brings together gender-disaggregated data administered by Geostat through regular surveys, as well as administrative data from different state agencies. The data on the portal are closely aligned with the SDG indicators. In addition, Geostat produces an annual gender publication titled *Women and Men in Georgia*.²


Despite the progress in generating gender statistics, there is still room for improvement. The national gender data are missing an intersectional perspective. Data disaggregation by different underrepresented groups, such as LGBTQI+, IDPs, PwDs, and ethnic and religious minorities, is not available in most aspects. Accordingly, it was impossible to provide a comprehensive picture of the gender equality situation for women with different backgrounds and identities. This profile still incorporates some data describing the challenges these groups face; however, these data are not systematically generated. Instead, they are collected sporadically by different NGOs or research organizations; thus, they do not provide an opportunity to observe progress in a timely or systematized manner.

Finally, it is critical that all stakeholders, including state agencies and NGOs, have the proper capacity in SDG methodology, starting from identifying data needs, planning data collection, collecting, reporting and publishing the data. More coordinated efforts are needed to establish a system of standardized data collection disaggregated by gender and other underrepresented groups across different administrative bodies. Such an approach will minimize the risks of incorrectly calculated and misleadingly interpreted indicators and will contribute to the creation of a more comprehensive data ecosystem in Georgia, providing the possibility of in-depth cross-sectional and longitudinal analysis.

ANNEX


This annex provides a snapshot of the data on the selected indicators covered in the profile and serves as a tool to easily find and track data provided in the profile. Each table corresponds to either figures or tables provided within the chapters.

WOMEN, POVERTY AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

 **SDG indicator 1.2.1.** Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (absolute poverty line in Georgia), by sex


	2018	2019	2020
Women	20.2	19.4	20.9
Men	20.0	19.6	21.7
Total	20.1	19.5	21.3

Source: Geostat, HIES (2010–2020).

 **SDG indicator 1.1.1.** Proportion of population below the international poverty line (US\$1.90/day, 2011 PPP;), by sex (%)


	2018	2019	2020
Women	4.50	4.00	4.30
Men	4.40	3.50	4.20
Total	4.50	3.80	4.20

Source: Geostat, HIES (2018–2020).

 **SDG indicator 10.2.1.** Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income (or consumption), by age and sex (%)


	2018	2019	2020
Women	14.70	14.60	13.10
Men	15.30	14.70	13.70
Aged 0–17	17.40	17.00	15.00
Aged 18–65	15.4	15.20	14.80
Aged 65+	9.70	9.70	6.50
Total	15.00	14.70	13.40

Source: Geostat, HIES (2018–2020).

 **SDG indicator 5.b.1.** Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex

	2018	2019	2020
Women	80.2	84.1	85.8
Men	85.0	85.6	87.4
Total	82.5	84.8	86.5

Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2016–2020).

 **SDG indicator 1.3.1.** Proportion of the population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable

	Subsistence allowance			Social package			Old-age pension		
	2018	2019	2020	2018	2019	2020	2018	2019	2020
Women	12.3	12.1	14.9	3.2	3.1	3.1	27.3	28.0	29.0
Men	10.9	10.8	13.3	5.8	6.2	6.3	12.0	12.3	12.5
Total	11.7	11.5	14.1	4.4	4.6	4.7	19.9	20.5	21.1

Source: Author's own calculation based on Geostat data.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF WOMEN



Country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.2.

Children and adolescents of primary and lower secondary school age who are not receiving formal education and training

	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
Girls	0.9	0.8	8.2
Boys	1.6	1.5	13.6
Total	1.2	1.2	11.3

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.



Related to SDG indicator 4.3.1.

Proportion of the population aged 25–64 who had been involved in formal or non-formal education and trainings over the course of the past four weeks

	2018	2019	2020
Women	1.2	0.8	1.2
Men	0.9	0.9	0.9
Total	1.0	0.8	1.1

Source: Geostat, LFS (2018–2020).



Country specific SDG indicator 4.1.3.

Dropout rates for primary and secondary levels of education, by sex

	2018		2019		2020	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Primary	765	971	985	1,184	680	809
Lower secondary	612	900	692	996	462	684
Upper secondary	2,711	4,509	2,551	4,000	1,718	2,796

Source: EMIS (2018 refers to the academic year 2018/19).



Related to SDG indicators 4.3.1. and 4.5.1.

Participation in higher education, by sex

	2018		2019		2020	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Bachelor's and master's students	50.2	49.8	50.7	49.3	50.9	49.1
PhD students	53.0	47.0	53.0	47.0	54.0	46.0
PhD graduates	61.0	39.0	56.0	44.0	57.0	43.0

Source: Geostat 2021c.



SDG indicator 4.a.1.

Proportion of schools with access to (a) electricity, (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes, (c) computers for pedagogical purposes, (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities, (e) basic drinking water, (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities and (g) basic handwashing facilities (%)


	2019	2020
Proportion of schools with access to electricity	100.00	100.00
Proportion of schools with access to the Internet for pedagogical purposes	100.00	100.00
Proportion of schools with access to laptops for pedagogical purposes	100.00	100.00
Proportion of public schools fully adapted for students with disabilities	4.30	6.70
Proportion of public schools partially adapted for students with disabilities	39.00	54.00
Proportion of schools with access to water	100.00	100.00

Sources: Ministry of Education and Science; Voluntary National Review.


WOMEN AND HEALTH

Average life expectancy in Georgia			
	2018	2019	2020
Women	78.2	78.4	77.7
Men	69.7	69.8	69.1
Total	74.0	74.1	73.4


Source: Geostat, health statistics.

 SDG indicator 3.1.1. Maternal mortality ratio (MMR)			
	2018	2019	2020
	27.4	29.0	30.1

Source: Geostat, health statistics

 SDG indicator 3.7.1. Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	
Percentage of women aged 15–49 currently married or in a union who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern contraceptive methods	51.0
Percentage of women aged 15–49 currently married or in a union who have their need for family planning satisfied with any contraceptive method	63.9
Total demand for family planning: Percentage of women aged 15–49 currently married or in a union	64.0
Unmet need for family planning	23.1
Unmet need for a modern contraceptive method	31.0

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

 SDG indicator 3.3.1. HIV prevalence and the number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations			
	2018	2019	2020
Women	0.08	0.08	0.08
Men	0.28	0.24	0.25
Total	0.20	0.18	0.14

Source: Geostat, health statistics.

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN



SDG indicator 5.2.1.

Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15–64 subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, by form of violence (%)

	Lifetime prevalence	Preceding 12-month prevalence
Those reporting ever having experienced physical, sexual and/or emotional IPV	13.6	3.5
Those reporting having experienced physical IPV	5.5	0.9
Those reporting having experienced sexual IPV	2.3	0.4
Those reporting having experienced psychological IPV	13.0	3.0
Those reporting having experienced economic abuse from their current or most recent partner	9.6	2.8

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2017.



SDG indicator 5.2.2.

Proportion of women and girls aged 15–64 subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner (%)

	Lifetime prevalence
Those who reported experiencing any non-partner sexual violence, child sexual abuse or sexual harassment	26.2
Those who reported experiencing non-partner sexual violence	2.7
Those who reported experiencing sexual harassment	19.8
Those who reported experiencing sexual abuse as a child	9.0

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2017.



Related to SDG indicator 16.1.1.

Rate of women killed per 100,000 female population

2018	2019	2020
1.13	0.98	1.24

Source: Author's own calculation based on data from PDO reports (2018–2020)



SDG indicator 16.2.2.

Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation

2018	2019	2020
0.6	0.6	0.3

Source: Author's own calculation based on Geostat data.

Extent to which institutional mechanisms have been created or strengthened so that women and girls can report acts of violence against them in a safe and confidential environment, free from the fear of penalties or retaliation, and file charges (BPfA strategic objective D.1: Take integrated measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women)

Year	Calls to 116 006 on VAW/DV issues	Beneficiaries of VAW/DV crisis centres	Beneficiaries of VAW/DV shelters	Reports to 112 defined as 'domestic conflict/violence'	Restraining orders issued on DV	Protective orders issued on DV	Criminal prosecutions on DV cases
2018	1,822	224	412	20,496	7,646	141	3,049
2019	1,468	242	411	18,842	10,266	112	4,579
2020	1,761	778	422	18,482	10,321	104	4,633

Sources: ATIPFUND; 112; MIA; Supreme Court of Georgia; Prosecutor's Office.

WOMEN AND ARMED CONFLICT, PEACE AND SECURITY

Proportion of women at the decision-making level in the security sector			
	2018	2019	2020
Ministry of Defence	23.0	35.0	33.0
Armed forces	2.0	1.5	1.5
Ministry of Internal Affairs	-	7.0	6.5
Police officers	13.7	14.0	14.5

Sources: MIA; Ministry of Defence.


Number of women present in peace negotiations			
	2018	2019	2020
Geneva International Discussions	40	17	14
Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism	-	15	0

Source: Ministry of Georgia for Reconciliation and Civic Equality.

Number of women and men IDPs			
	2018	2019	2020
Women	150,134	151,974	153,293
Men	133,137	134,003	135,227
Total	283,271	285,977	288,520

Source: MoIDPOTLHSA.


WOMEN AND THE ECONOMY

 SDG indicator 8.5.2. Unemployment rate, by sex, age and marital status			
	2018	2019	2020
Women	17.6	16.0	16.2
Men	20.6	18.9	20.2
Total	19.2	17.6	18.5


Source: Geostat, LFS (2018–2020).

Economic activity and inactivity rates, by sex						
	Active			Inactive		
	2018	2019	2020	2018	2019	2020
Women	44.2	43.1	40.4	55.8	56.9	59.6
Men	63.0	61.8	62.0	37.0	38.2	38.0
Total	52.9	51.8	50.5	47.1	48.2	49.5

Source: Geostat, LFS (2018–2020).

 SDG indicator 8.3.1. Proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment, by sex	
	2020
Women	26.2
Men	36.4
Total	31.7

Source: Geostat, LFS (2020).

 SDG indicator 8.5.1. Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by sex		
	2018	2019
Women	GEL 5.10	GEL 5.40
Men	GEL 8.00	GEL 8.50

Source: Geostat, Establishment Survey (2018–2019).

Monthly and hourly raw gender pay gap and gender gap in hours (%)				
	2017	2018	2019	2020
Gender pay gap				
Monthly	32.2	37.3	39.7	34.2
Hourly	17.7	11.3	14.6	13.4
Gender gap in hours worked	17.9	22.6	22.1	14.7

Source: UN Women 2020a; 2021a.

WOMEN IN DECISION-MAKING



SDG indicator 16.7.1.

Proportions of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service and the judiciary) compared to national distributions

	2018	2019	2020
Proportion of women among civil servants	32.8	30.4	-
Proportion of women with disabilities among all women civil servants	0.21	0.25	0.22
Proportion of men with disabilities among all men civil servants	0.16	0.28	0.37

Source: Civil Service Bureau.



Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.1.

Proportion of women in rank I and II positions

	2018	2019
Women	39.0	36.4
Men	61.0	64.0

Source: Civil Service Bureau.



Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.2.

Proportion of women decision-makers in the judiciary

	2018	2019	2020
Proportion of women among the judges of the Constitutional Court	44.4	44.4	33.3
Proportion of women among the judges of the Supreme Court	40.0	40.0	45.0
Proportion of women among the judges of the Kutaisi Court of Appeals	53.0	58.8	71.4
Proportion of women among the judges of the Tbilisi Court of Appeals	46.0	49.3	51.4

Sources: Constitutional Court; Supreme Court; Kutaisi Court of Appeals; Tbilisi Court of Appeals.



SDG indicator 5.5.1.

Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments

	2016	2019	2020
	15.0	14.8	17.0

Source: Geostat.



Related to SDG indicator 5.5.1.

Proportion of female ministers

	2018	2019	2020
	45	45	55

Source: Geostat n.d.-b.

WOMEN'S ACCESS TO ICT, AND WOMEN AND THE MEDIA

Proportion of population using computer every day, by sex

	2018	2019	2020
Women	81.3	78.8	82.7
Men	83.3	81.5	78.3

Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2018–2020).

Proportion of population using Internet every day, by sex

	2018	2019	2020
Women	89.5	88.8	89.5
Men	89.9	89.5	88.9

Source: Geostat, Survey on ICT Usage in Households (2018–2020).

WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE AND THE ENVIRONMENT

Distribution of agricultural holdings, by gender of holder

	2018	2019	2020
Women	31.5	32.3	32.2
Men	68.5	67.7	67.8

Source: Geostat n.d.-b.

Distribution of land area operated by agricultural holdings, by gender of holder

	2018	2019	2020
Women	19.0	19.8	20.7
Men	81.0	80.2	79.3

Source: Geostat n.d.-b.



Country-specific SDG indicator 2.3.2.1.

Average monthly income of agricultural population by household from employment or the sale of agriculture products

	2018	2019	2020
	GEL 445.00	GEL 499.10	GEL 483.10

Source: Geostat, HIES (2020).

THE GIRL CHILD

Sex ratio at birth (Male births per 100 female births, by birth order)

	2018	2019	2020
Total	107.9	107.6	109.3
First born	105.8	106.1	107.3
Second born	106.8	105.7	107.5
Third born and beyond	112.7	113.3	114.3

Source: Geostat 2020g.

ENDNOTES

Chapter 1

- ¹Parliament of Georgia 2006.
- ²Parliament of Georgia 2010b.
- ³Government of Georgia 2011.
- ⁴Parliament of Georgia 2012a.
- ⁵Parliament of Georgia 2014b.
- ⁶Government of Georgia 2014a.
- ⁷Government of Georgia 2014b.
- ⁸Government of Georgia 2017c.
- ⁹Government of Georgia 2017a.
- ¹⁰Parliament of Georgia 2019b.
- ¹¹Parliament of Georgia 2019a.
- ¹²Parliament of Georgia 2020a.
- ¹³Government of Georgia 1995, art. 11.
- ¹⁴UN Women 2019a.
- ¹⁵World Economic Forum 2021, p. 197.
- ¹⁶World Economic Forum 2020b, p. 167.
- ¹⁷UN CEDAW 2014.
- ¹⁸UN Women 2020b.
- ¹⁹United Nations 2017.
- ²⁰Parliament of Georgia 2014b.
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Chapter 2

- ¹United Nations 1995, para. 201.
- ²*Ibid.*, para. 202.
- ³Parliament of Georgia n.d.
- ⁴UN Women 2020c.
- ⁵PDO 2021c.
- ⁶Joint Shadow Report 2021.
- ⁷*Ibid.*
- ⁸Government of Georgia 2017a.
- ⁹UN Women 2020c.
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- ¹³Women's Information Center n.d.
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- ¹⁶*Ibid.*
- ¹⁷PDO n.d.-a.
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- ²Government of Georgia 2020a.
- ³Government of Georgia 2020b.
- ⁴World Bank 2019b.
- ⁵World Bank n.d.-a.
- ⁶Geostat, Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (2020).
- ⁷World Bank 2021a, p. 21.
- ⁸*Ibid.*, p. 24.
- ⁹*Ibid.*
- ¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 21.
- ¹¹*Ibid.*, p. 25.
- ¹²*Ibid.*
- ¹³Geostat, Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (2018, 2019 and 2020).
- ¹⁴Geostat, Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (2020).
- ¹⁵World Bank 2021b.
- ¹⁶World Bank 2020.
- ¹⁷World Bank 2019b.
- ¹⁸Data for 2018, 2019 and 2020 are not available. World Bank n.d.-b.
- ¹⁹Geostat 2018a.
- ²⁰EMC 2020a, pp. 177–179.
- ²¹*Ibid.*
- ²²UN Women and UNICEF 2021.
- ²³Geostat, Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (2018, 2019 and 2020).
- ²⁴World Bank 2021a, p. 68.
- ²⁵*Ibid.*
- ²⁶*Ibid.*
- ²⁷UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.
- ²⁸ILO and UN Women 2020, p. 102.
- ²⁹Social security programmes include a government's primary mechanisms for supporting poor families, which provides cash transfers and some in-kind benefits—for example, a social package or subsistence allowance. Social security programmes also include old-age pensions and other types of compensations.
- ³⁰Authors' own calculations using Geostat data, accessed 10 August 2021, <http://gender.geostat.ge/gender/index.php?action=Social%20Protection>.

³¹Ibid.
³²Ibid.
³³ILO and UN Women 2020, p. 103.
³⁴Authors' own calculations using Geostat data, accessed 10 August 2021, <http://gender.geostat.ge/gender/index.php?action=Social%20Protection>.
³⁵UN Women and UNICEF 2021.
³⁶UN Women and ISET-PI 2021b.
³⁷UN Women and ISET-PI 2021a.
³⁸Ibid.
³⁹Ministry of Justice 2015; Parliament of Georgia 2014a, art. 11911.
⁴⁰UN Women 2020b.
⁴¹UNICEF and Geostat 2020.
⁴²IDFI 2020.
⁴³Ibid.
⁴⁴PDO 2020c.
⁴⁵UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
⁴⁶Ibid.
⁴⁷UN Women and CRRC 2020.
⁴⁸UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.
⁴⁹Ibid.
⁵⁰World Bank 2021a.
⁵¹UN Women 2020b.
⁵²ILO and UN Women 2020, p. 34.
⁵³Ibid., p. 103.

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¹UN General Assembly 1979.
²UN Women n.d.
³Ministry of Education and Science 2017.
⁴Parliament of Georgia 2010b.
⁵UNICEF and Geostat 2018. Children are considered on track if they can do at least two of the following: identify/name at least 10 letters of the alphabet; read at least four simple, common words; and/or know the name and recognize the symbols of all numbers from 1 to 10.
⁶Ibid.
⁷Andguladze, Gagoshidze and Kotaladze 2020.
⁸Ibid.
⁹UNICEF and Geostat 2020.
¹⁰Geostat 2020c.
¹¹UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
¹²Ibid.
¹³Andguladze, Gagoshidze and Kotaladze 2020.
¹⁴PDO 2020c.
¹⁵PDO 2019c.
¹⁶Ibid.
¹⁷Andguladze, Gagoshidze and Kotaladze 2020.
¹⁸Ministry of Education and Science 2020a.
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²⁰Geostat 2020c.
²¹UNICEF and Geostat 2020.
²²UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
²³Ibid.
²⁴Public information requested from the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia.
²⁵EMC 2020b.
²⁶Ibid.
²⁷UN Women and UNICEF 2021.
²⁸Public information from the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2021.
²⁹Ibid.
³⁰PDO 2020c.
³¹Ibid.
³²Ministry of Education and Science 2020a.
³³UNICEF and Geostat 2020.
³⁴NAEC 2020.
³⁵UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021; UNICEF and Geostat 2020.
³⁶NAEC 2020.
³⁷UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.
³⁸NAEC 2018b.
³⁹Public information requested from the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia.
⁴⁰UN Women 2020b.
⁴¹The portal of the National Curriculum can be found at <http://ncp.ge/en/curriculum?subject=38&subchild=78>.
⁴²UN Women 2020b.
⁴³NAEC n.d.
⁴⁴NAEC 2016.
⁴⁵NAEC 2018a.
⁴⁶Ibid.
⁴⁷NAEC 2019.
⁴⁸NAEC 2018a; NAEC 2019.
⁴⁹UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
⁵⁰UN Women and UNICEF 2021.
⁵¹Geostat 2021d.
⁵²Geostat 2021c.
⁵³Ibid.
⁵⁴Public information requested from the Ministry of Justice of Georgia.
⁵⁵Public information requested from the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia.
⁵⁶Ministry of Education and Science 2020b.
⁵⁷PDO 2020c.
⁵⁸World Bank 2019a.
⁵⁹PDO 2020c.
⁶⁰Geostat 2020e.
⁶¹Geostat 2021c.
⁶²UIS n.d.

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- ¹Administration of the Government of Georgia 2020a, p. 10.
- ²UN Women 2020b, p. 33.
- ³UNDP 2019.
- ⁴Ibid.
- ⁵UNFPA 2020b.
- ⁶EECMD and EPRC 2020.
- ⁷UN Women, UNFPA and WeResearch 2020.
- ⁸Administration of the Government of Georgia 2020b.
- ⁹Geostat 2020g.
- ¹⁰Administration of the Government of Georgia 2020a, p. 24.
- ¹¹PDO 2020c.
- ¹²Government of Georgia 2019, p. 28.
- ¹³UN Women 2020b, p. 33.
- ¹⁴Administration of the Government of Georgia 2020a.
- ¹⁵UNFPA 2014.
- ¹⁶UNFPA 2019a.
- ¹⁷Ibid.
- ¹⁸UN Women 2020b, p. 35.
- ¹⁹UNFPA 2019a.
- ²⁰Ibid.
- ²¹Ibid.
- ²²Ibid.
- ²³PDO 2020c.
- ²⁴UN Women and UNICEF 2021.
- ²⁵UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- ²⁶UNFPA 2020a, p. 10.
- ²⁷Ibid.
- ²⁸UNFPA 2020a.
- ²⁹PDO 2019c.
- ³⁰NCDC 2010.
- ³¹UNFPA 2019a, p. 34.
- ³²Association HERA XXI 2019a.
- ³³PDO 2019b.
- ³⁴Tanadgoma 2020.
- ³⁵GYLA 2021.
- ³⁶UNFPA 2020a.
- ³⁷Ibid.
- ³⁸Ibid.
- ³⁹PDO 2019b.
- ⁴⁰Ibid.
- ⁴¹Association HERA XXI 2019b; WeResearch 2020.
- ⁴²Association HERA XXI 2019b; Jalagania and Mirzikashvili 2020.
- ⁴³Geostat 2019.
- ⁴⁴Geostat 2020g.
- ⁴⁵UN Women 2020b, p. 33.
- ⁴⁶Geostat 2020g.
- ⁴⁷Ibid.
- ⁴⁸UN Women and CRRC 2020; UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.

⁴⁹Ibid.

⁵⁰Ibid.

⁵¹Makharadze and Kitiashvili 2021.

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⁵³UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵UN Women and CRRC 2020.

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¹UN CEDAW 2014.

²UN Women 2020b.

³Parliament of Georgia 2006.

⁴Parliament of Georgia 2012a.

⁵Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2011.

⁶Information available at <https://police.ge/ge/shinagan-saqmeta-saministrom-sistemuri-reformirebis-protse-si-daitsko-sheiqmna-adamianis-ufleбата-datsvis-departamenti/11410>.

⁷Parliament of Georgia 2019b.

⁸Parliament of Georgia 2019a.

⁹Government of Georgia 2014c, strategic direction No. 14.

¹⁰Government of Georgia 2018a.

¹¹Sustainable Development Goals National Document of Georgia 2019.

¹²World Bank 2021a, p. 56.

¹³UN Women and CRRC 2021.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵NDI and CRRC 2020.

¹⁶UN Women 2021b.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Ibid.

¹⁹UN Women and CRRC 2020.

²⁰Sapari and UNDP 2021.

²¹Sapari 2016.

²²PDO 2020b.

²³Authors' calculation based on numbers provided in the PDO's 2020 report.

²⁴PDO 2019a, p. 12.

²⁵Geostat n.d.-a.

²⁶United States Department of State 2020, p. 219.

²⁷PDO 2020b, p. 196.

²⁸Ministry of Internal Affairs 2020.

²⁹Equality Now 2019.

³⁰PDO 2020b.

³¹PDO and Council of Europe 2020.

³²Ibid.

³³UN Women and Geostat 2017, pp. 63–65.

³⁴UNFPA and ACT 2009.

³⁵PDO 2020c.

³⁶UN Women 2020d.

³⁷Sapari and UNDP 2021.

- ³⁸UN Women 2020d.
³⁹Ibid.
⁴⁰Ibid.
⁴¹UNFPA 2020b.
⁴²UN Women and Geostat 2017, pp. 63–65.
⁴³UN Women 2019c.
⁴⁴World Bank 2021a, p. 56.
⁴⁵UN Women and CRRC 2021.
⁴⁶Ibid.
⁴⁷PDO 2020c.

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- ¹UN Women 2020b, p. 52.
²UN CEDAW 2013.
³UN Women 2020b, p. 52.
⁴PDO 2020a.
⁵UN Women 2020b, p. 52.
⁶Ministry of Defence 2021a.
⁷Ministry of Defence 2021c.
⁸Ibid.
⁹Authors' own calculation based on the statistics of employees at the MIA. Calculations are made for the fourth quarter of each year. See <https://info.police.ge/page?id=20>.
¹⁰Geostat 2020a.
¹¹PDO 2021b.
¹²Minister of Georgia for Reconciliation and Civic Equality 2020.
¹³Ibid.
¹⁴UN Women 2020b.
¹⁵For more information, see <https://www.osce.org/chairmanship/482499> and [https://mfa.gov.ge/News/sagareo-saqmeta-saministros-ganckhadeba-jenev-\(10\).aspx?CatID=5](https://mfa.gov.ge/News/sagareo-saqmeta-saministros-ganckhadeba-jenev-(10).aspx?CatID=5).
¹⁶Minister of Georgia for Reconciliation and Civic Equality 2020.
¹⁷Ibid.
¹⁸PDO 2021b.
¹⁹Ministry of Internal Affairs 2021d.
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²¹Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs 2021.
²²UN Women 2021d.
²³UN Women 2020b.
²⁴IBRD and World Bank 2017, p. 61.
²⁵UN Women 2019b, cited in UN Women 2020b, p. 49.
²⁶Minister of Georgia for Reconciliation and Civic Equality 2020.
²⁷PDO 2020c.
²⁸PDO and UNFPA, Impact of COVID-19 on conflict-affected women and girls, cited in PDO 2020c, p. 191.
²⁹Ibid.

- ³⁰Ibid.
³¹UN Women 2019a.

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- ¹PDO 2020c.
²UN Women 2020b.
³Government of Georgia 2018b.
⁴Gender Equality Council 2021, sects. 2.2, 2.3.
⁵Ibid.
⁶Ministry of Internal Affairs 2021c.
⁷Parliament of Georgia 2019c.
⁸Government programme: <http://www.enterprisegeorgia.gov.ge/en/home/about>.
⁹Government programme: <https://mepa.gov.ge/En/Projects/Details/14>.
¹⁰Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development 2021.
¹¹Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
¹²Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2018 and 2019).
¹³Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
¹⁴Ibid.
¹⁵Ibid.
¹⁶Ibid.
¹⁷Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2018, 2019 and 2020).
¹⁸Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
¹⁹Ibid.
²⁰Ibid.
²¹Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
²²UN Women 2020b.
²³Geostat n.d.-b.
²⁴Margvelashvili et al. 2021.
²⁵Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
²⁶World Bank 2021a, p. 45.
²⁷Ibid., p. 43.
²⁸Ibid., p. 66.
²⁹UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021, p. 27.
³⁰Ibid.
³¹Ibid., p. 30.
³²Ibid.
³³Geostat, Labour Force Survey (2020).
³⁴UN Women and ISET-PI 2021b, p. 23.
³⁵Ibid., p. 25.
³⁶Ibid., p. 32.
³⁷Ibid.
³⁸Ibid., p. 6.
³⁹UN Women and WeResearch 2020.
⁴⁰Ibid.
⁴¹Ibid.
⁴²Data for 2020 are not yet available.
⁴³Geostat, Establishment Survey (2019).
⁴⁴Ibid.
⁴⁵Ibid.

- ⁴⁶UN Women 2020a.
⁴⁷UN Women 2021a.
⁴⁸Ibid.
⁴⁹UN Women 2020a, p. 32.
⁵⁰UN Women 2021a.
⁵¹Ibid.
⁵²World Bank 2021a, p. 47.
⁵³UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021, p. 36.
⁵⁴Ibid.
⁵⁵UN Women 2018.
⁵⁶UNFPA 2020b, p. 32.
⁵⁷Ibid., p. 34.
⁵⁸Ibid., p. 51.
⁵⁹Ibid., p. 35.
⁶⁰Ibid.
⁶¹World Bank 2021a, p. 42.
⁶²UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021, p. 47.
⁶³Ibid., p. 50.
⁶⁴World Bank 2021a, p. 40.
⁶⁵UN Women and ISET-PI 2021b.
⁶⁶UN Women and ISET-PI 2021a.
⁶⁷Ibid.

Chapter 9

- ¹PDO 2020c.
²UN Women 2020b.
³World Economic Forum 2020a.
⁴Ibid.
⁵IPU 2020.
⁶PDO 2020c.
⁷UN CEDAW 2014.
⁸Administration of the Government of Georgia, cited in UN Women 2021c. Note: As a result of the 2020 elections, 31 women were elected to the Parliament; however, only 16 of them entered. The presented percentage is calculated according to the number of women who entered the Parliament.
⁹Parliament of Georgia 2020b.
¹⁰UN Women and UNDP 2017.
¹¹IPU and Council of Europe 2018.
¹²Ibid.
¹³NDI and CRRC 2020.
¹⁴Ibid.
¹⁵CRRC n.d.
¹⁶UN Women 2021c.
¹⁷Central Election Commission: <https://genderstatistics.cec.gov.ge/>
¹⁸Adjara Supreme Council 2021.
¹⁹Central Election Commission: <https://genderstatistics.cec.gov.ge/>
²⁰Ibid.
²¹Government of Georgia 2021.

- ²²Civil Service Bureau, cited in UN Women 2021c.
²³Ibid.
²⁴Civil Service Bureau 2020.
²⁵Civil Service Bureau, cited in UN Women 2021c.
²⁶UN Women and CRRC 2021.
²⁷Geostat 2020h.
²⁸Administration of the Government of Georgia, cited in UN Women 2021c.
²⁹Constitutional Court of Georgia 2021.
³⁰Supreme Court of Georgia 2021b.
³¹High Council of Justice 2020.
³²Geostat 2020f.
³³Civil Service Bureau 2021.
³⁴CRRC 2016b.
³⁵CRRC 2016a.
³⁶OHCHR 2020.
³⁷COVID-19 task forces are defined as follows: “A COVID-19 task force is any institution (temporary or permanent) that was created by the national government to lead the response to the pandemic across any sector of public life (e.g. public health, economic recovery, enforcement)” (UNDP n.d.).
³⁸UNDP n.d.
³⁹World Bank 2021a.

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- ¹European Commission 2021.
²Government of Georgia 2004, art. 16.1(თ).
³Georgian Charter of Journalist Ethics 2017.
⁴MediaChecker 2020.
⁵Geostat 2020d.
⁶Ibid.
⁷Ibid.
⁸UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
⁹Geostat n.d.-b.
¹⁰UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and CRRC 2021, p. 17.
¹¹Ibid., p. 19.
¹²Ibid.
¹³WeResearch 2018.
¹⁴Ibid.
¹⁵Ibid.
¹⁶Javakhishvili 2020.
¹⁷Ibid.
¹⁸Ibid.
¹⁹Mskhiladze 2020.
²⁰Ibid.
²¹UN Women 2020b, p. 70.
²²WeResearch 2019a.

Chapter 11

- ¹Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture 2019.

²FAO 2018, p. 9.
³UN Women 2020b, p. 75.
⁴Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture 2019, p. 13.
⁵Ibid., p. 21.
⁶Government of Georgia 2017b, para. 3.12.
⁷Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture 2019, p. 5.
⁸Geostat 2021b.
⁹Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture 2019, p. 5.
¹⁰Ibid.
¹¹Geostat 2021a.
¹²Geostat, Household Incomes and Expenditures Survey (2020).
¹³Ibid.
¹⁴Geostat 2018b, p. 49.
¹⁵Geostat 2018a, p. 48.
¹⁶Ibid.
¹⁷FAO 2018, p. 31.
¹⁸Geostat 2018a, p. 58.
¹⁹WeResearch 2017, p. 20.
²⁰Geostat 2020b.
²¹FAO 2018, p. 41.
²²Geostat 2020b.
²³FAO 2018, p. 42.
²⁴Ibid.
²⁵ISET-PI 2021.
²⁶CARE and ISET-PI 2020, p. 9.
²⁷UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
²⁸Ibid.
²⁹Ibid.
³⁰Ibid.
³¹Kvaratskelia, Margvelashvili and Shatirishvili 2018, p. 19.
³²Ibid.
³³Ibid.
³⁴FAO 2018.
³⁵WeResearch 2019b.
³⁶Women's Fund in Georgia 2017.
³⁷WHO 2018.
³⁸FAO 2018.
³⁹Ibid.
⁴⁰Ibid.

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¹PDO 2020c.

²UNFPA 2015; 2019b.
³Ibid.
⁴UNFPA 2019b.
⁵UNFPA and UNICEF 2018.
⁶UNICEF and Geostat 2018; PDO 2020c.
⁷UNFPA and UNICEF 2018; UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
⁸Hoare 2020.
⁹Administration of the Government of Georgia 2020a.
¹⁰EMIS 2021.
¹¹WeResearch 2019a.
¹²World Bank 2021a.
¹³UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
¹⁴Ibid.
¹⁵Ibid.
¹⁶UNICEF and Geostat 2018, p. 248, cited in UN Women 2020b, p. 78.
¹⁷Gilbreath 2019.
¹⁸PDO 2020c.
¹⁹PDO 2014.
²⁰PDO 2020c.
²¹UNICEF 2013.
²²PDO 2020c.
²³Ibid.
²⁴UN Women 2020b, p. 79.
²⁵NCDC 2018.
²⁶UNICEF 2013.
²⁷ILO n.d.
²⁸ILO and Geostat 2016.
²⁹Ibid.
³⁰The ILO defines hazardous child labour as “work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions that could result in a child being killed, or injured or made ill as a consequence of poor safety and health standards and working arrangements.” See <https://www.ilo.org/ipec/facts/WorstFormsof-ChildLabour/Hazardouschildlabour/lang--en/index.htm>.
³¹ILO and Geostat 2016.
³²Ibid.
³³Ibid.
³⁴PDO 2021a, p. 19.

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¹Geostat n.d.-b.
²For all editions of the publication Women and Men in Georgia, see <http://gender.geostat.ge/gender/index.php#publications>.

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