

**Country
Gender
Equality
Profile**

GEORGIA 2023



Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft
Confédération suisse
Confederazione Svizzera
Confederaziun svizra

**Swiss Agency for Development
and Cooperation SDC**



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Abbreviations and acronyms

ABL	Administrative Boundary Line
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 Discrimination against Women
CGEP	Country Gender Equality Profile
CPR	Contraceptive Prevalence Rate
CRRC	Caucasus Research Resource Center
CSE	Comprehensive Sexuality Education
CWS	Child Welfare Survey
DV	Domestic Violence
EU	European Union
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
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
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPRM	Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
ISET-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
LGBTQI+	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Questioning/Queer, Intersex
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 Examinations Center
NAP	National Action Plan
NCDC	National Center for Disease Control and Public Health
NDC	Nationally Determined Contribution
NDI	National Democratic Institute
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
p.p.	Percentage Points
PDO	Public Defender's Office of Georgia
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SOPs	Standard Operating Procedures
SRB	Sex Ratio at Birth
SRHR	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TIAR	Total Induced Abortion Rate
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TUS	Time Use Survey
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	UN Refugee Agency
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VAC	Violence against Children
VAWG	Violence against Women and Girls
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WHO	World Health Organization
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

Executive summary

Gender equality, an indispensable human right and a catalyst for robust social and economic development, is central in global commitments to empowerment. Embodying this commitment, the Country Gender Equality Profile (CGEP) of Georgia, developed by UN Women in alignment with the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA), the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and other international frameworks, aims to depict the current state of gender equality in the country.

The CGEP offers a nuanced understanding of the current gender equality landscape through thematic sections enriched with statistical data, qualitative insights and policy analysis. Critical areas covered in the report include poverty alleviation; women's economic empowerment; health; education; violence against women; women, peace and security; women in politics; and gender considerations in humanitarian response and disaster risk reduction. The analysis further delves into the circumstances of those groups of citizens that may face intersectional discrimination aggravated by their gender identities, embracing the principle of 'leave no one behind' and adopting a human rights-based approach. Each thematic section dissects the progress made, reveals evolving trends, outlines persistent challenges and underscores key priorities in Georgia's pursuit of gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE). The CGEP is accompanied by an annex presenting all gender equality-related SDG indicators and highlighting relevant progress (see Annex D).

Developing the CGEP of Georgia entailed a comprehensive mixed-methods strategy. Quantitative analysis drew from official statistics and administrative data, offering a quantitative lens on crucial areas. The qualitative dimension involved consultation meetings with stakeholders, providing rich insights into the nuanced aspects of GEWE in Georgia. This dual approach aimed to holistically capture the complexities and subtleties of the gender landscape, ensuring a robust and insightful profile.

Key findings

Women, poverty and social protection

- While **poverty rates** in Georgia have shown a recent decline, women, especially those living in rural areas, face heightened vulnerabilities and limited access to resources, making them more susceptible to falling into poverty and/or remaining trapped in it.
- Women are the primary beneficiaries of **social protection programmes**. Their distinct life trajectories and roles in the labour market result in a greater reliance on social protection systems throughout the life cycle.
- Gender imbalances in **landownership** are stark, with 82 per cent of land owned by men and only 18 per cent by women. This finding illuminates persistent gender inequities influencing economic agency and access to resources.

Women's economic empowerment

- ▶ Men consistently outpace women in **employment rates**, indicating persistent gender disparities in the labour market. As of 2022, the gender gap in employment in Georgia had reached its highest point in recent years, at 16.2 per cent across all working-age groups. Moreover, the adjusted monthly **gender pay gap** had peaked at 23 per cent, reaching its highest level in the previous three years.
- ▶ Women bear a disproportionate burden of **unpaid domestic and care work**, spending five times more time on this work than men. The unequal distribution of this responsibility, coupled with a lack of accessible care services and entrenched social norms, poses substantial barriers to women's economic empowerment.
- ▶ Women exhibit a significantly lower **economic activity rate** (41.5 per cent) than men (64 per cent). Alarming, nearly half (46.4 per cent) of women aged 25–34 are economically inactive, which can be explained by women's reproductive age and the increased care responsibilities of women in this age group.
- ▶ The underrepresentation of women among **enterprise owners** and top managers is evident, with only 24.7 per cent of newly established enterprises having women owners in 2022.

Women and education

- ▶ Access to **quality preschool education** remains a challenge in Georgia, especially affecting girls, children with disabilities and rural and ethnic minority populations.
- ▶ **Ethnic minorities and children with disabilities** face additional and different problems in accessing quality education, including a lack of qualified teachers and adequate educational resources. Moreover, 39 per cent of ethnic Azerbaijani girls leave school after the mandatory nine years of basic education, which is potentially linked to the challenges related to child marriage and unpaid domestic and care work.
- ▶ Current **textbooks and learning materials** require meticulous scrutiny and adaptation to foster gender sensitivity. The imperative is to eliminate derogatory language, challenge gender stereotypes and ensure the representation and recognition of all individuals and communities.
- ▶ The data show **sex-based horizontal segregation** in vocational and higher education, with women predominantly enrolling in traditionally female-dominated fields of study such as education, health and the arts and being less represented in STEM and other male-dominated sectors that generally offer higher earnings.
- ▶ Despite their lower numbers, **female students in ICT** demonstrate better academic performance than male students, but they exhibit lower self-confidence in the labour market.
- ▶ The incorporation of **comprehensive sexuality education** in Georgia's education system is still limited, as critical information on emotions, bodily autonomy, sexual identity, gender-based violence, healthy relationships and related topics is missing from the curriculum.

Women and health

- ▶ **Maternal mortality** represents one of the most important public health challenges in the country. The high lifetime risk of maternal death puts Georgia among the few countries in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region with rates above the regional average.
- ▶ **Sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services** for women, including family planning, are not fully included at the primary healthcare level—whether in the State’s benefits package or in private insurance schemes. Women in rural areas, youths, ethnic minority women and women with disabilities face significant barriers to accessing quality and affordable essential SRH services.
- ▶ The number of **registered abortions** has declined. However, geographical and financial access to safe abortion services remains a challenge in Georgia, especially for survivors of sexual violence.
- ▶ The prevalence of **breast and cervical cancer screening** has slightly increased but still remains low enough to positively impact cancer morbidity and mortality rates; nearly 40 per cent of cases are diagnosed at later stages.
- ▶ **LGBTQI+ individuals** in Georgia face barriers when seeking specific medical services. The absence of gender-affirming interventions or guidelines for transgender individuals and the lack of specialized programmes designed to meet the unique needs of transgender people are crucial aspects of this issue.

Violence against women and girls and harmful practices

- ▶ Over the past decade, the Georgian Government has undertaken substantial efforts to enhance **laws and policies addressing violence against women (VAW)**.
- ▶ Every second woman (50.1 per cent) aged 15–69 has **experienced violence** in her lifetime, with 18.2 per cent reporting such experiences within the preceding 12 months; and every fourth woman (26.5 per cent) has experienced intimate partner violence (IPV), with psychological violence being the most prevalent type of IPV.
- ▶ **Sexual harassment** is prevalent, with almost every fourth woman (24.5 per cent) in the country having experienced sexual harassment at some point in her lifetime. Moreover, two in five (41 per cent) female civil servants have reported instances of sexual harassment in the workplace.
- ▶ While perceptions of gender norms largely remain traditional, there has been a significant positive change in **public attitudes towards IPV** since 2017. Namely, the share of women (22.0 per cent) and men (31.1 per cent) who believed in 2017 that there are justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife dramatically decreased in 2022 (1.8 per cent of women and 3.8 per cent of men).
- ▶ **Child marriages** persist as a concern, especially among certain ethnic minority communities. There is a gap in implementing a multisectoral and coordinated approach by the state institutions to effectively prevent and rapidly address the cases of child marriage.

Women in power and decision-making

- ▶ **Gender quotas** have positively influenced women's political participation, elevating both the ratio of women candidates and the share of elected women. The share of women MPs stands at 19 per cent as of 2023, a notable increase from 14 per cent in 2019. Despite the progress, however, this figure still falls below global (27 per cent) and regional (31 per cent) averages for women in national parliaments.
- ▶ Public backing for gender quotas has increased. Nonetheless, women in politics grapple with enduring **stereotypes** and challenges related to political party mechanisms supporting their empowerment and promotion, as well as instances of **violence** from the general public.
- ▶ Women hold only 16.7 per cent of the **minister positions** and 23.5 per cent of deputy minister positions, indicating a slight decline since 2021.
- ▶ Women constitute 31 per cent of the total **public service workforce** and 43 per cent within rank I and II managerial positions. However, the gender gap widens significantly in top managerial positions, where women comprise only 9 per cent of heads of public entities and 15 per cent of deputy heads of public entities.

Women, peace and security

- ▶ Despite Georgia's active engagement in formulating and executing National Action Plans (NAPs) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) since 2011, women continue to be **underrepresented in the security sector institutions** and especially in the leadership positions. For example, the representation of female soldiers in the Georgian Defence Forces is still critically low (7 per cent).
- ▶ The **representation of women in the Geneva International Discussions** (GID) witnessed a decline, with women comprising only 20 per cent of the total Georgian participants in 2022.
- ▶ Women's involvement in **people-to-people diplomacy initiatives** is limited, with only 16 per cent of such initiatives being implemented by women's civil society organizations or other entities focusing on women's issues in 2021–2022.
- ▶ **Internally displaced persons** (IDPs) in Georgia, particularly women, have emerged as one of the most vulnerable groups. They grapple with issues related to housing, unemployment, health and domestic violence, highlighting the urgent need for targeted interventions and support mechanisms.

Women, climate change and natural disasters

- ▶ The population of Georgia, especially women and individuals aged 65 and above, exhibits a commendable **level of awareness** regarding climate change, recognizing it as a significant global challenge.
- ▶ While women are **represented in climate change decision-making bodies** in Georgia, comprehensive studies are necessary to ensure an accurate assessment of their leadership and meaningful participation.
- ▶ Existing **climate change and disaster risk reduction frameworks** and initiatives lack comprehensive consideration of the specific needs of women and girls.
- ▶ The **lack of data** and robust analysis and reporting of the gendered nature of climate and disaster risks poses a challenge to developing and implementing progressive and inclusive climate and disaster risk reduction policies, plans and interventions.

Key recommendations

- Address gender disparities in poverty by creating a more inclusive social safety net through the strengthening of existing social protection programmes.
- Recognize, value and redistribute unpaid care work that is disproportionately women's responsibility through policies that promote shared caregiving responsibilities between men and women, as well as initiatives to provide affordable and accessible childcare services.
- Bridge the gender gap in employment by implementing targeted policies and initiatives, including promoting equal opportunities for women in the labour market and encouraging employers to adopt gender-sensitive hiring practices and family-friendly work policies.
- Ensure the accessibility of quality early childhood education and care, including for children under the age of 2 and especially for children in rural areas, ethnic minorities and children with disabilities.
- Address gender norms and stereotypes perpetuated by textbooks by undertaking comprehensive textbook review and revision processes.
- Enhance age-appropriate comprehensive sexuality education in Georgia's schools.
- Ensure gender mainstreaming in academic and research institutions through the development of gender equality plans within the institutions.
- Promote the roll-out of the routine use of the 'near-miss case reviews' practice throughout the country, with an overall aim targeted at reducing maternal mortality and morbidity.
- Ensure the seamless integration of family planning services into primary health care, and improve access to family planning services and information about contraceptives, particularly in rural areas.
- Prioritize mental health in policy and resource allocation, and strengthen the implementation of the mental health strategy considering the gender differences and need for accessible and quality mental healthcare services for all.
- Amend legislation to fully comply with the Istanbul Convention, by incorporating a consent component into the definition of sexual violence and revising the provision for free legal assistance to include victims of violence against women, thereby ensuring equal access to justice and comprehensive protection for all survivors.
- Develop clear guidelines and training programmes for law enforcement and judicial authorities with a special focus on interacting with victims of VAW, especially with women with disabilities and LGBTQI+ individuals, to increase their sensitivity towards VAW issues and prevent secondary victimization.
- Develop and implement internal prevention and response mechanisms on sexual harassment within the civil service, school system and academia, and raise awareness about the prevention of sexual harassment.
- Strengthen support for survivors by providing long-term assistance, empowerment programmes and access to economic opportunities.

- ▶ Launch targeted public awareness-raising campaigns to inform citizens, especially those in rural areas and conflict-affected regions, ethnic minorities, asylum seekers, refugees and individuals with disabilities, about existing protection mechanisms and regulations.
- ▶ Combat child marriages by implementing a multisectoral approach and introducing legislative amendments to cover any possible aspect of this harmful practice.
- ▶ Ensure that political parties develop well-defined internal gender-related policies to support and empower women in politics, explicitly addressing issues such as violence and sexual harassment, setting targets for women's representation in leadership positions, creating mechanisms to ensure their promotion and advancement within the party, and establishing mechanisms to monitor and evaluate the implementation of such gender-related policies.
- ▶ Increase efforts to improve women's representation in decision-making positions in public service and especially within the security sector.
- ▶ Strengthen efforts to include women's voices and experiences in conflict resolution and peace dialogues.
- ▶ Integrate gender considerations into national climate change and disaster risk reduction laws, policies, strategies and plans, and ensure regional and local implementation.

1

Introduction



Gender equality is a fundamental human right and a crucial driver of social and economic development. In line with global commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment, the Country Gender Equality Profile (CGEP) of Georgia, developed by UN Women, serves as a comprehensive national-level analysis of the status of gender equality in the country. This profile is based on a wealth of quantitative and qualitative data, providing strategic analysis of progress, trends, challenges and priorities around gender equality in Georgia.

The primary purpose of the CGEP of Georgia is to offer a comprehensive and data-driven assessment of the status of gender equality and the empowerment of women in the country. By highlighting areas of progress and identifying persistent challenges, the CGEP provides valuable insights for policymakers, development partners and stakeholders. It serves as a blueprint for targeted interventions, policy reforms and institutional improvements to advance gender equality and women's rights in the country.

The CGEP is divided into thematic sections that delve into various aspects of gender equality in Georgia. The analysis within these sections is enriched with a combination of statistical data, qualitative insights and policy implications, providing a well-rounded understanding of the current situation and potential pathways for progress. The detailed methodology, including the list of stakeholders with whom consultation meetings were conducted, can be found in Annex A.

Aligned with the corporate guidelines on developing a CGEP and the critical areas of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA), the CGEP covers such subjects as poverty alleviation and social protection; women's economic empowerment; health; education; violence against women; women, peace and security; women in power and decision-making; and gender aspects of humanitarian response and disaster risk reduction. It also examines the situation of various vulnerable groups, including rural women, people with disabilities, LGBTQI+ people, internally displaced persons (IDPs) and those residing in conflict-affected regions. Hence, the CGEP embraces the 'leave no one behind' principle and adopts a human rights-based approach to ensure intersectionality and an equitable analysis that incorporates the perspectives of various disadvantaged groups. The analysis presented in the CGEP is complemented with the timeline of Georgia's commitments to gender equality and the empowerment of women (Annex B), detailed tables of statistical data analysed throughout the report (Annex C) and time series analyses of gender-specific SDG indicators (Annex D).

In conclusion, the CGEP of Georgia serves as a vital resource to analyse gender equality and women's empowerment in the country. By providing evidence-driven insights, the CGEP facilitates informed decision-making and fosters collaborative efforts among national stakeholders, international development partners and the UN system. As Georgia endeavours to achieve gender equality, the CGEP becomes a strategic road map for building an inclusive and equitable society for all.

2

Legislative framework, institutional mechanisms and partnerships around gender equality in Georgia



Georgia possesses a well-developed legal framework for safeguarding human rights. Key components of this framework include the Labour Code of Georgia,¹ the Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination,² the Law on Gender Equality,³ the Law on Domestic Violence and VAW,⁴ the Law on the Rights of People with Disabilities⁵ and the Code on the Rights of the Child⁶ (which covers the protection of girls). The anti-discrimination legislation in Georgia covers a wide range of aspects, encompassing sex, gender, ethnicity, religious beliefs, socioeconomic status, disability, political opinions, and sexual orientation, gender identity and expression. In 2019, Georgia enacted a bill on sexual harassment that then led to corresponding amendments to the Labour Code and the Code of Administrative Offences, creating safer working environments and holding perpetrators of sexual harassment accountable.

Moreover, Georgia has a commitment to upholding human rights and gender equality as it is a party to major international treaties and processes, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, ratified in 1994),⁷ the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA, adopted in 1995),⁸ the Istanbul Convention (ratified in 2017)⁹ and the Generation Equality Forum (launched in 2021). The country has made significant strides to implement UN Security Council resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security and its subsequent resolutions as well as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs, adopted in 2015). A detailed timeline of Georgia's commitment to GEWE is provided in Annex B. This advanced legal framework and commitment requires vigorous implementation that remains a challenge in Georgia, as there is a need to give stronger priority to human rights and gender equality issues in the political agenda of the country.

Institutional mechanisms for gender equality in Georgia are established at various levels, including in the Georgian Government, the Parliament and local self-governments.¹⁰ Additionally, several state agencies have created internal structures and/or appointed individuals specifically responsible for addressing gender issues. Notably, the Office of the Public Defender took a pioneering step by establishing a Gender Equality Department in 2013, making it the first state institution to do so.¹¹

The **Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence**¹² is a key institutional mechanism that ensures national coordination of gender equality policymaking and implementation in the executive branch of the Government of Georgia. The Commission's Chairperson is the Adviser to the Prime Minister on Human Rights, and the Co-chair is the Deputy Minister of Justice. The composition of the Commission is intersectoral and includes representatives from various government institutions at the level of deputy minister.¹³ The Inter-Agency Commission has several primary objectives, including promoting gender mainstreaming within government institutions and supporting the implementation of international obligations on gender equality, violence against women and domestic violence (VAW/DV). Additionally, it serves as a coordination agency responsible for policy implementation, monitoring, assessment and the collection of sex-disaggregated data to prevent and eliminate all forms of violence. The Commission also plays a key role in leading reporting against international commitments and representing Georgia in intergovernmental processes.¹⁴

While there is no specific national action plan on gender equality in the country, the issues of gender equality are integrated into the thematic action plans focused on women's rights. Notable among them are the following:

- 2022–2024 National Action Plan on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence and Measures to be Implemented for the Protection of Victims/Survivors¹⁵ (NAP on VAW/DV)
- 2022–2024 National Action Plan of Georgia for Implementation of the UN Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security¹⁶ (NAP on WPS)

The prolonged absence of the next iteration of the National Human Rights Action Plan since 2020 has created a gap in the comprehensive policy-level approach towards addressing gender equality issues. Despite the fact that the Government of Georgia has shown its commitment to the protection of human rights by developing and adopting the National Strategy on Human Rights for the years 2022–2030 that takes into account gender issues, the absence of a corresponding National Action Plan hinders the implementation process of the Strategy.¹⁷ The Human Rights Strategy has a few notable and progressive elements but fails to explicitly embrace the rights of LGBTIQI+ individuals. This exclusion weakens the State's unified vision of equality issues.¹⁸

One of the key objectives of the Inter-Agency Commission is to establish a methodology for sex-disaggregated data collection.¹⁹ However, in practice, the implementation of this objective poses challenges and remains a persisting issue. According to the CEDAW Committee, as highlighted in the Concluding Observations on the sixth periodic report of Georgia, a notable obstacle to comprehensive assessment is the lack of thorough data collection. As a result, the CEDAW Committee urges Georgia to systematically gather data on various issues, including but not limited to the impact of temporary special measures and data to prevent harmful practices.²⁰



The **state of gender mainstreaming in governance processes** is still at an early stage in Georgia; gender-responsive budgeting and the Gender Impact Assessment (GIA) methodology are being introduced and piloted primarily with the help of international development partners. In 2022, the Parliament of Georgia adopted legislative amendments to the Organic Law of Georgia on Normative Acts introducing GIA as part of the lawmaking cycle. This was the first time that the GIA methodology was introduced to the Georgian normative framework, representing a significant step forward in terms of mainstreaming gender in policymaking processes in Georgia and realizing commitments under the BPfA. It is noteworthy, however, that while the amendments to the Law of Georgia on Normative Acts introduce GIA as part of the lawmaking cycle, they do not make GIA mandatory. To further align Georgia's legislation with the EU standards and best practices and to ensure the consistent application of GIA across legislative processes, the next logical step would be to gradually expand the legal reform and make GIA mandatory for all laws, as well as for all policies produced by the legislative and executive branches of government.

The new 2023–2026 Public Administration Reform (PAR) Strategy and 2023–2024 Action Plan,²¹ which were put in place by the Government of Georgia in early 2023, integrate several important gender equality commitments under the BPfA on promoting women's leadership in public service and integrating gender analysis into the policy planning process.

In 2022, the Ministry of Finance of Georgia, in cooperation with the World Bank and UN Women, carried out the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability (PEFA) Gender Responsive Public Finance Management (GRPFM) assessment. The 2023–2026 Public Finance Management Strategy,²² developed and adopted by the Government of Georgia in 2023, integrates some key principles of gender-responsive budgeting (GRB), contributing towards the institutionalization of GRB in Georgia and progress towards SDG indicator 5.c.1. These developments constitute an important policy shift in terms of mainstreaming gender in governance systems in Georgia, as the previous reform cycles on public administration and public finance management made no reference to gender equality goals and objectives. Comprehensive efforts are required to ensure that these commitments translate into actions that will eventually lead to the application of gender mainstreaming across governance systems and processes.²³

The **permanent Gender Equality Council (GEC) of the Parliament**²⁴ is tasked with overseeing and safeguarding gender equality in Georgia. It plays a pivotal role in defining the State’s gender equality policies, creating and developing legislative frameworks, and monitoring gender equality issues within parliamentary bodies. Chaired by the Speaker of the Parliament or a designated GEC member, the entity is composed of Members of the Parliament (Table 2.1). The GEC’s work may also involve participation from cabinet members, agency heads, local CSOs and other development partner organizations.²⁵

TABLE 2.1: Composition of the GEC, as of October 2023

Political party	 Women	 Men
Georgian Dream	11	4
United National Movement	1	1
Girchi	0	1
European Socialists	0	1
Citizens	1	0
Reforms Group	2	0
For Georgia	1	0
Lelo for Georgia	1	0
EuroOptimists	1	0
Dzala Ertobashia	1	0
Total	19	7

Source: Parliament of Georgia website.

The GEC’s mandate, defined by the Rules of Procedure of the Parliament and by the GEC’s by-laws, includes analysing legislation to propose solutions for addressing gender inequality. Additionally, the GEC is mandated to evaluate legislative drafts from a gender equality perspective, plan activities to advance gender equality, establish a monitoring and evaluation system for gender equality initiatives and provide relevant recommendations. The GEC also monitors the executive branch’s actions related to gender equality and holds hearings on the reports produced by the Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence.²⁶

The creation of the State Concept on Gender Equality (adopted by the Parliament in 2022)²⁷ and the State Concept on Women's Economic Empowerment (adopted by the Parliament in 2023)²⁸ is a highly progressive development, laying the groundwork for important commitments and gains for the rights of women and girls and their empowerment in Georgia. However, in these two documents, gender is defined solely through a heteronormative prism as equality between women and men, without due consideration of their diversity, completely omitting sexual orientation and gender identity aspects. This exclusion highlights the need for a more inclusive and comprehensive approach to gender equality, encompassing all gender identities and ensuring that the rights and needs of all individuals are respected and protected.²⁹

Local governments play a crucial role in promoting gender equality and gender mainstreaming in Georgia. This significance is emphasized in the Law of Georgia on Gender Equality, which mandates municipal bodies to develop and implement measures to detect and eliminate discrimination at the local level.³⁰

Local governments have specific gender mechanisms in place to address gender-related issues within their jurisdictions. According to the Local Self-Government Code, municipalities are authorized to take initiatives to promote gender equality, prevent violence against women and domestic violence, and protect and support victims of such violence.³¹ To facilitate a systematic approach towards addressing gender issues, municipal councils (*sakrebulo*) in Georgia are obligated to establish municipal gender equality councils. To enhance the effectiveness of these efforts, the mayor of the municipality designates a person responsible for overseeing gender equality issues within the local jurisdiction. This ensures a dedicated focus on promoting gender equality and streamlining efforts to create a more inclusive and equitable community.³²

As of 2022, all 64 municipalities in Georgia have established a municipal gender equality council. These councils work collaboratively to study gender-related matters within the municipality and develop municipal gender equality action plans to coordinate and implement relevant actions. By the end of 2022, 49 municipalities had adopted a municipal gender equality action plan, and 21 had acceded to the European Charter for the Equality of Women and Men in Local Life through the overall coordination of the National Association of Local Authorities of Georgia (NALAG), an entity serving as a non-governmental, non-profit and non-political umbrella organization uniting all 64 municipalities across Georgia.

The research conducted by the Public Defender of Georgia reveals that despite the fact that the majority of municipalities have developed gender equality action plans, a significant number of municipalities have not carried out monitoring of the implementation of these plans. Moreover, insufficient knowledge and sensitivity on GEWE issues among decision makers and executives coupled with limited financial and human resources greatly hinder the effective functioning of gender equality councils and have a detrimental impact on ensuring gender equality and gender mainstreaming at the local level.³³

The **Office of the Public Defender of Georgia (PDO)** has had a dedicated Gender Equality Department since 2013. The department's tasks include monitoring the implementation of national and international acts on gender equality, ensuring state guarantees for human rights protection, addressing violations of rights based on gender, gender identity and sexual orientation, examining and responding to complaints related to gender equality violations, and preparing relevant reports, recommendations and proposals.³⁴ Under the department, the PDO has also integrated the monitoring of sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) into the national human rights monitoring

mechanism; this has been recognized as an important achievement by various international forums, including the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW). Furthermore, the department conducts research and awareness-raising activities to advance gender equality in the country. A critical mandate, the Femicide Watch was created in 2016. This mechanism empowers the Public Defender of Georgia to conduct annual analyses of gender-related killings, attempted murders and suicides of women. Its primary objective is to identify gaps in victim protection mechanisms and provide relevant agencies with recommendations.

Georgia has a very diverse and dynamic **civil society**, including women’s and feminist CSOs that gained momentum and evolved rapidly after the country gained independence following the break-up of the Soviet Union. Throughout the years, women’s CSOs and feminist movements and activists have been in the vanguard of progress towards gender equality and women’s empowerment, also having well-established dialogue mechanisms and participation platforms with state partners at national and local levels, in the executive as well as legislative branches of the Government.³⁵ Unfortunately, the events of February and March 2023, related to the unsuccessful attempt by some political actors backed by the ruling Georgian Dream Party to pass a bill on “agents of foreign influence”, or the so-called “Foreign Agents’ Law”,³⁶ has had an immensely negative effect on participation processes, resulting in estrangement and a breach of communication between the women’s movement and CSOs and the national machinery in the legislative branch—the GEC.³⁷

3

Women, poverty and social protection





Key takeaways:

- ▶ Women, especially those living in rural areas and marginalized communities, face heightened vulnerabilities and limited access to resources, making them more susceptible to falling into poverty and/or remaining trapped in it.
- ▶ There is a notable gender disparity in land ownership among agricultural holdings managed by women and men in Georgia: 82 per cent of agricultural holdings owned by men and only 18 per cent of agricultural holdings owned by women.
- ▶ Women, especially those who are married and have children, experience time poverty at significantly higher rates than men; they are more prone to feeling constantly rushed and less likely to be able to maintain a work-leisure balance.
- ▶ Women represent the highest share of social protection programme beneficiaries. The unique challenges women face due to their distinct life trajectory and their position in the labour market make them more reliant on the social protection system at different stages of their life.
- ▶ Existing social protection programmes may not fully cover the needs of targeted groups, including individuals residing in rural areas, people with disabilities, internally displaced persons (IDPs), those living in conflict-affected regions, single mothers and domestic violence survivors.
- ▶ Although recently increased, the maternity benefit still falls short of ILO standards. Moreover, the lack of non-transferable paternity leave and the absence of a maternity benefit scheme for those outside of formal employment remain primary challenges.
- ▶ Women account for the majority (62 per cent) of the Georgian emigrant population in OECD Member countries, which makes the Georgian diaspora the second most feminized diaspora among Caucasian and Central Asian countries. The main push factors for the feminization of the Georgian diaspora are economic factors, while the pull factor, on the other hand, is the growing demand for female labour in the domestic and eldercare markets, which has increased the work opportunities available to women.

3.1 Poverty and inequality

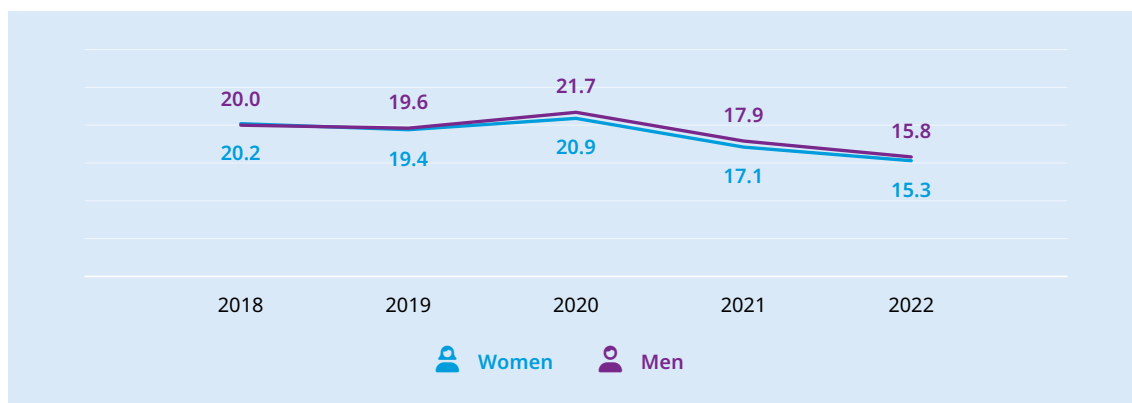
Georgia has experienced significant socioeconomic changes in recent years; however, gender disparities in poverty persist. Women, particularly those living in rural areas and marginalized communities, often face heightened vulnerabilities and limited access to resources, placing them at a higher risk of falling into poverty or remaining trapped in it. Various factors contribute to the higher incidence of poverty among women in Georgia, including gender discrimination in the labour market, limited access to quality education and health care, and traditional societal norms that perpetuate unequal gender roles.

In the past few years, poverty in Georgia has shown a downward trend. However, data from the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) reveal that a significant portion of the population still faces economic hardship.

TARGET 1-2

SDG indicator 1.2.1: In 2022, approximately every sixth person (15.6 per cent) in Georgia lived below the national poverty line (Figure 3.1), and every fifth person (19.9 per cent) lived below 60 per cent of the median consumption level.¹

FIGURE 3.1: SDG indicator 1.2.1. Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (absolute poverty line in Georgia), by sex (percentage)



Source: Geostat 2022c.


Note: See Table C.1.

While the difference in poverty rates between women and men is not significant, there is a notable disparity between urban and rural populations, with the rural population showing higher poverty rates (Table C.1).² Data from the Georgia Welfare Monitoring Survey support the association between women's education levels and poverty rates. Poverty levels tend to decrease as the education level of women in households rises. For instance, households where women have a higher education exhibit poverty rates that are approximately half that of other types of households.³

When examining the gender dimensions of poverty, it is crucial to consider **access to essential services**. Geostat's data highlight disparities between households headed by women and by men in terms of their access to computers or the Internet. According to the data, male-headed households are more likely to have Internet access (90 per cent) and computer access (62 per cent) than female-headed households, where Internet access is at 86 per cent and computer ownership at 57 per cent (Table C.2).⁴

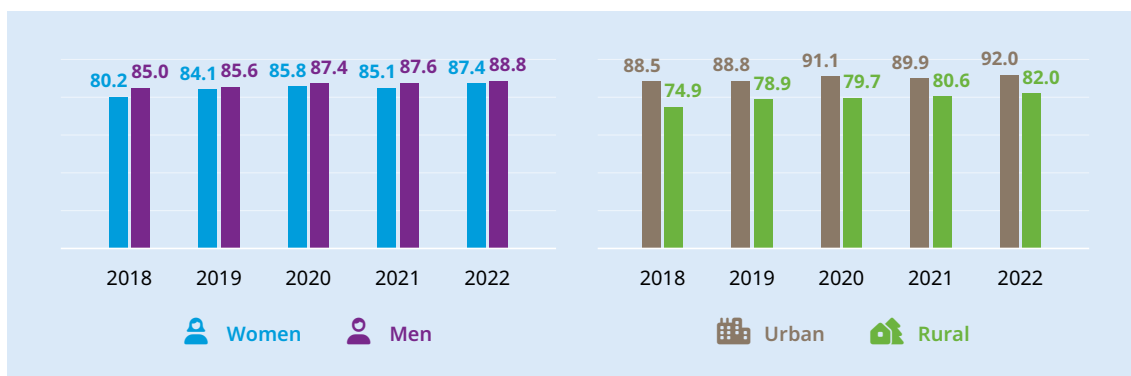
TARGET

5•B



SDG indicator 5.b.1: Slightly more men than women owned mobile phones in 2022 (88.8 per cent versus 87.4 per cent). A significant difference exists between rural and urban populations in this regard (82.0 per cent versus 92.0 per cent, respectively, in 2022) (Figure 3.2).⁵

FIGURE 3.2: SDG indicator 5.b.1. Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex and settlement type (percentage)

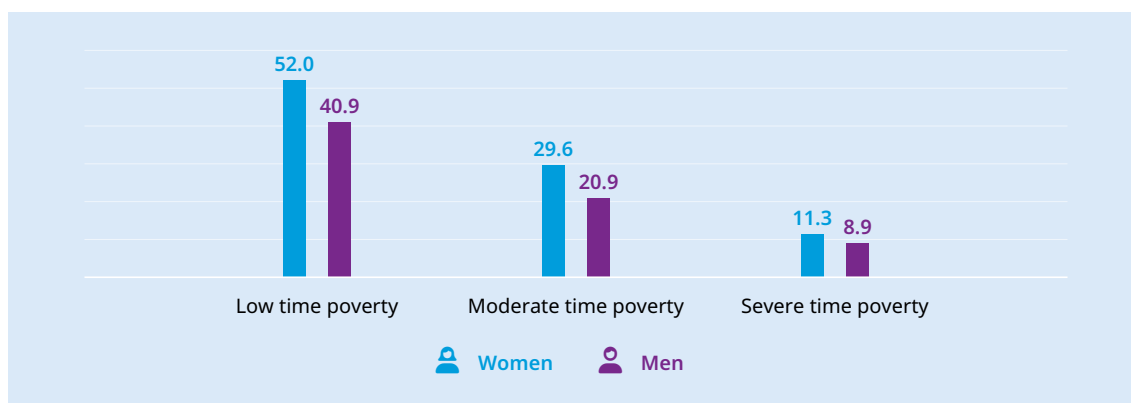


Source: Geostat 2022e.

Furthermore, there is a notable gender disparity in landownership in Georgia. The data reveal that agricultural holdings managed by men own more land (82 per cent) than holdings managed by women (18 per cent).⁶ This trend has held throughout the past decade. Additionally, women face significant obstacles to owning and making decisions regarding the sale of real estate and other major assets, such as cars. These gaps in asset ownership and decision-making are particularly pronounced in rural settlements.⁷ Interestingly, there is still a prevailing gender divide in public opinion concerning real estate ownership. In 2019, nearly half (49 per cent) of the Georgian population believed that the family apartment should be inherited equally between a daughter and a son. Conversely, 45 per cent of the population believed that the son should solely inherit the apartment, with only a mere 1 per cent believing that the daughter should be the sole inheritor.⁸

Another important gendered dimension of poverty is time. **Time poverty** refers to the lack of time for adequate rest and leisure, resulting from extended working hours, whether they are paid or unpaid. UN Women's analysis of time use among the Georgian population aged 25–62 living in multi-person households suggests that women experience significantly higher rates of time poverty than men (Figure 3.3). The data indicate that women are more prone to feeling constantly rushed (32.6 per cent, compared to 25.1 per cent of men),⁹ and they have a 22–24.6 per cent greater likelihood of being time-poor than men, depending on different measures of time poverty.¹⁰ Marriage, the presence of children under the age of 10 and higher education levels increase the probability of being time-poor among women.

FIGURE 3.3: Time poverty rates among women and men (percentage)



Source: UN Women 2022b.

3.1.1 Vulnerable groups and poverty

The social-economic problems in Georgia present greater challenges, particularly for vulnerable groups such as individuals residing in rural areas, people with disabilities, internally displaced persons (IDPs), LGBTQI+ and those living in conflict-affected regions. These challenges have a profound impact on women, as evidenced by research conducted by the Public Defender. The findings reveal that a significant number of women within these groups are compelled to juggle both paid labour and unpaid domestic work, even on non-working days, leading to an inequitable burden of responsibilities. Moreover, the alarming data highlight the limited mobility of women across all regions, restricting their access to education and reinforcing the barriers to their economic empowerment.¹¹ An analysis by UN Women and UNICEF highlights that households with **persons with disabilities** are particularly susceptible to poverty. For example, in 2020, 25.8 per cent of households with at least one person officially recognized as disabled were living below the national poverty line, which is higher than the overall national poverty rate for all households (21.3 per cent in 2020).¹² Regarding the **LGBTQI+** population in Georgia, the availability of standardized data is limited. However, an analysis conducted by the Public Defender of Georgia in 2021 revealed significant challenges and limited state support in addressing poverty among the LGBTQI+ community. Studies indicate that employment opportunities for LGBTQI+ individuals are constrained, leading to low wages that often fail to meet basic needs. Additionally, a high share of LGBTQI+ people experience homelessness, which might be attributed to their identity and/or to the violence they face from family members.¹³

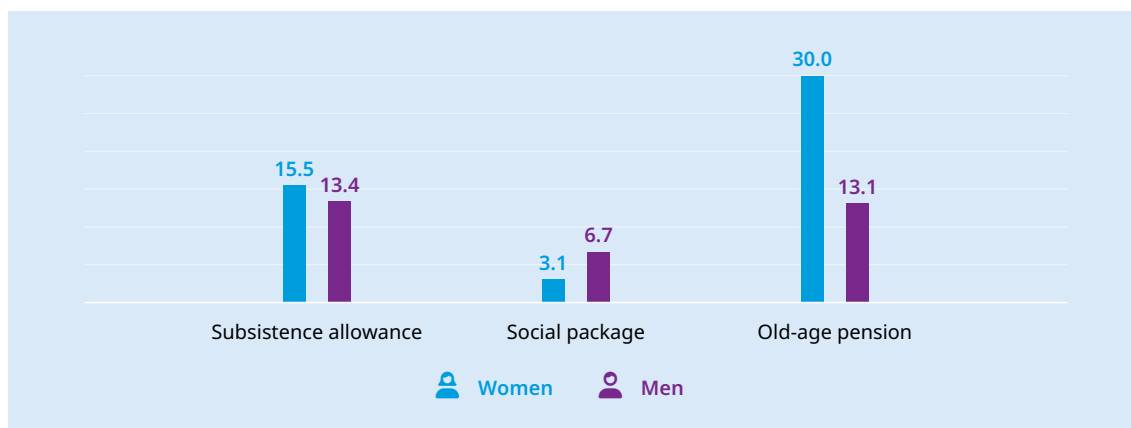
3.2 Social protection

In Georgia, less than half of the population is covered by at least one social protection benefit. Women represent the highest share of social protection programme beneficiaries (Figure 3.4).

TARGET 1-3

SDG indicator 1.3.1: According to the Geostat data in 2022, 14.5 per cent of the population (535,343 individuals) were covered by a subsistence allowance; 4.8 per cent (178,426 individuals), by a social package; and 21.9 per cent (808,326 individuals), by an old-age pension (Table C.3).¹⁴

FIGURE 3.4: SDG indicator 1.3.1. Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/ systems, by sex, 2022 (percentage)



Source: Author's calculations based on Geostat, n.d.-a.

Note: See Table C.3.

The analysis conducted by UN Women and the ILO in 2020 underscores the unique challenges women face due to their distinct life trajectory and their position in the labour market, which makes them more reliant on the social protection system at different stages of their life. This reliance on the social protection system, if not designed with gender sensitivities in mind, can further amplify existing gender disparities. The research illuminates key findings across various age groups: for children, girls in Georgia face societal challenges, like child marriages and a preference for sons, while also being more susceptible to poverty. In working age, women grapple with a combination of the demands of domestic responsibilities and work, leading to lower rates of participation in the formal labour market and, consequently, receiving fewer benefits from the social protection system. For older individuals, although they are generally less impoverished due to the universal pension system, the lack of a survivors' benefit disproportionately affects older women.¹⁵

The largest category in terms of the number of beneficiaries within the social security system is the recipients of the old-age pension, covering approximately 22 per cent of the entire population. Due to women's longer life expectancy and earlier retirement age, female recipients of the old-age pension outnumber male recipients by approximately 2.5 times. Conversely, in categories such as persons with disabilities, veterans and state compensation recipients, where men are more prevalent, they are almost twice as likely as women to receive social benefits.¹⁶ It is important to mention that there is still a lack of progress in transitioning to a fair system for granting disability status in Georgia. The current model primarily relies on medical factors and overlooks the crucial psychological and social aspects of the individual. Consequently, the amount provided by the social package is not personalized to meet the unique needs of persons with disabilities, leaving them with inadequate support.¹⁷

The **maternity, paternity and parental benefit** should be highlighted as a significant concern. As of 2021, the state-provided maternity benefit was available for 183 days, with an additional 547 days of unpaid maternity leave for most workers covered by the Labour Code. Civil servants, who make up 3 per cent of female workers, are governed instead by the Law on Public Service.¹⁸ However, in either case, state-provided compensation was restricted to women in formal employment. This benefit amounted to GEL 1,000 over six months until 2023, when the benefit was increased to a maximum of GEL 2,000. Despite this increase, the benefit is still below the two-thirds rule of the salary standard established by the ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183).¹⁹ Changes to the Labour

Code in 2021 reallocated the 183 days of maternity leave: 126 days are reserved exclusively for mothers (although Article 37, paragraph 4, states that fathers are permitted to take those days if the mother has not used them), while the remaining remunerated 57 days serve as parental leave that can be taken by either parent. Still, challenges persist, including the lack of non-transferable and remunerated paternity leave and the absence of a maternity benefit scheme for those outside of formal employment. Implementing a social insurance scheme could effectively cover formally employed individuals and allocate tax-funded resources towards a universal maternity benefit for those outside of formal employment.

At present, there is no direct social benefit in Georgia available to **domestic violence survivors**. While the State provides temporary sheltering opportunities and access to medical, psychological and legal assistance for domestic violence survivors, their prospects for employment are severely limited. Research conducted by the Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking (ATIPfund) has illuminated the challenge that survivors face in integrating into the labour market, with the primary obstacle being the difficulty in securing full-time jobs, as many survivors are the sole caregivers for their dependant. Additionally, low wages often leave them incapable of meeting their fundamental needs and adequately providing for their children. Moreover, while shelter options are available for a maximum of 12 months, securing stable longer-term housing remains a significant concern for domestic violence survivors. This circumstance could force some survivors to return to the volatile environment from which they escaped.²⁰

Single mothers are another beneficiary category that has a greater need for social protection measures. In 2022, the Civil Code of Georgia underwent amendments that expanded the status of single parents. The revisions included the addition of opportunities for mothers to enhance their access to state services, covering situations where a minor child's second parent (mother or father) is deceased or missing or has been stripped of all parental rights and duties.

Overall, the UN Women and ILO report's findings emphasize the need for a social protection system that is gender-responsive to address the gender disparities effectively. The dynamics between gender and social protection are intricate and are influenced by different stages of life, where risks vary from childhood to adulthood to old age. It is evident that, in Georgia, women stand to benefit more from the social protection system over their lifetime, barring their working-age years. However, the actual benefits they receive can be inconsistent due to inadequacies in the system's design and gender biases in society. To truly address these gaps, a holistic and gender-aware approach is necessary, not only within the social protection system but also in addressing broader structural inequalities that originate from societal norms and practices. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for Georgia to adopt and implement the ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102), and implement a comprehensive life-cycle approach that takes into consideration the different needs of and risks to the population at every stage of life and in special circumstances.²¹

3.3 Migration

The lack of migration policies and documents that incorporate gender mainstreaming and a gender-based approach poses a significant challenge in understanding the real picture of migration trends and its consequences for a variety of groups in society. While the 2021–2030 Migration Strategy briefly mentions addressing the unique needs of migrant women and girls, as well as other vulnerable groups, it falls short of providing a comprehensive reflection of gender equality matters. As a result, there is a limited understanding of the specific impacts of migration on different groups, hindering the development of effective and inclusive policies to address the diverse needs of migrants and ensure their protection.²²

The migration dynamics in Georgia have witnessed an overall increase in recent years, except for the year 2020, which saw a decline due to the impact of COVID-19 restrictions. In 2022, the total number of immigrants to Georgia reached 179,778, while the total number of emigrants from Georgia was 125,269. Despite fluctuations, net migration in 2022 remained positive. When considering the gender perspective, the distribution of women and men among Georgian immigrants remained relatively stable, ranging from 39 to 43 per cent for women and from 57 to 61 per cent for men. Notably, the majority of emigrants from Georgia were men, with their percentage ranging from 57 to 62 per cent (Table C.4).²³

However, according to the OECD, women account for the majority (62 per cent) of the Georgian emigrant population in the OECD area, which makes the Georgian diaspora the second most feminized diaspora among Caucasian and Central Asian countries. Italy and Türkiye exhibit the greatest gender gaps, with women accounting for 80 per cent and 84 per cent of the Italian and Turkish diaspora, respectively, followed by the diaspora from Greece and Israel (61 per cent and 58 per cent, respectively). The main push factors for the feminization of the Georgian diaspora are economic factors, while the pull factor, on the other hand, is the growing demand for female labour in the domestic and eldercare markets, which has increased the work opportunities available to women.²⁴ This is further confirmed by qualitative studies that show that in Greece, Spain and Türkiye, Georgian women migrants are in high demand as domestic workers, caregivers, babysitters and cleaners.²⁵ Notably, among the Georgian emigrants living in OECD countries, the women have a higher educational attainment than the men.²⁶

The introduction of visa-free travel led to an increase in asylum claims by Georgian citizens in the EU and Schengen Area (except in the year 2020). France and Germany emerged as preferred destinations for asylum. Data from 2016 to 2020 show that 68 per cent of asylum seekers were male, while the majority of Georgian citizens who were granted international protection status were female (60 per cent).²⁷ The invasion of Ukraine has been a significant factor driving the rise in Georgians seeking international protection in the EU. During the first quarter of 2022, 42 per cent of asylum applications were submitted by female applicants, representing a slight increase compared to previous years. Skilled professionals were identified as one of the main groups leaving Georgia, with their decision-making influenced by the deterioration of their rights and freedoms in the country.²⁸

Recommendations:

- Address gender disparities in poverty by creating a more inclusive social safety net through the strengthening of existing social protection programmes. Allocating sufficient funding and implementing targeted interventions are essential to cater to the unique needs of different groups, guaranteeing their access to crucial resources and support systems.
- Recognize, value and redistribute the burden of unpaid care work that falls disproportionately on women. This can be achieved through policies that promote shared caregiving responsibilities between men and women, as well as initiatives to provide affordable and accessible childcare services.
- Incorporate gender mainstreaming into migration policies and documents in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of migration trends and their impacts on different genders. This entails considering the specific vulnerabilities and needs of both male and female migrants in all stages of policy development, implementation and evaluation.
- Ensure that gender equality and inclusivity are core principles in all policymaking processes, addressing social and economic disparities faced by women and other marginalized groups. Emphasizing gender mainstreaming and inclusivity in policymaking across all sectors will promote a more just and equitable society, where all individuals have equal access to resources, opportunities and social protection measures.
- Conduct comprehensive data collection and analysis that specifically examines gender disparities and the impact of policies on different groups in society in order to design targeted and evidence-based policies. Regular evaluations and research should be conducted to identify gaps and assess the effectiveness of policies in promoting gender equality and mitigating the vulnerabilities faced by women and other marginalized groups.

4

Women's economic empowerment





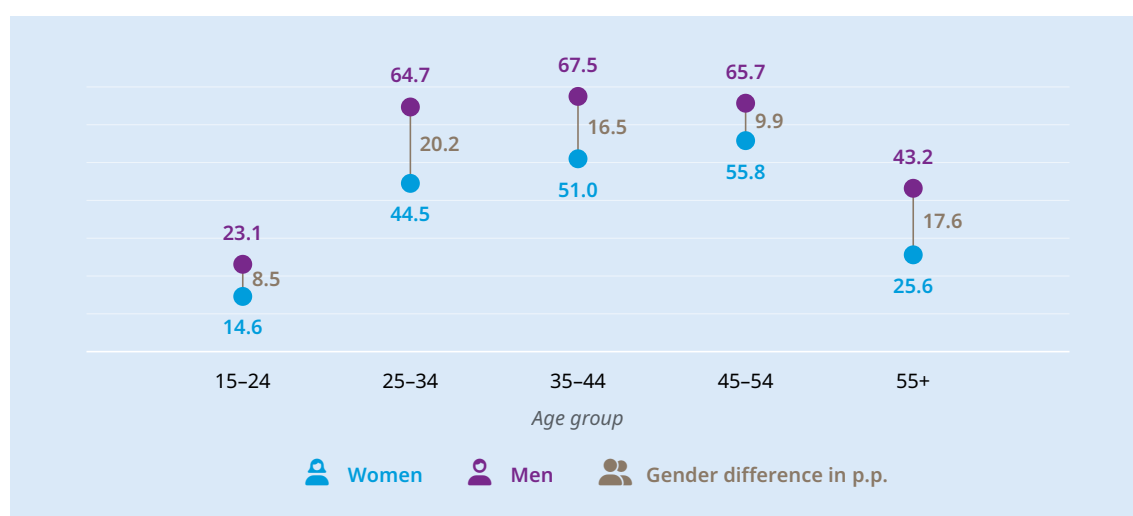
Key takeaways:

- ▶ Women's economic activity rate is significantly lower (41.5 per cent) than men's rate (64 per cent). Importantly, almost half (46.4 per cent) of women in the 25–34 age group are economically inactive.
- ▶ Men continue to have higher employment rates than women, indicating persistent gender disparities in the labour market. As of 2022, the gender gap in employment in Georgia had reached its highest point in recent years, standing at 16.2 per cent in all working-age groups.
- ▶ Women in informal employment, such as domestic workers, face unfavourable working environments, limited legal protection and low awareness of their civil and labour rights and are exposed to abuse, exploitation and unfair remuneration.
- ▶ Limited free movement and transportation barriers significantly impede women's access to education, employment and essential services, especially in rural areas. This hindrance directly impacts their economic independence and overall empowerment.
- ▶ Women are underrepresented among owners and top managers of enterprises. Only 24.7 per cent of newly established enterprises had a woman owner in 2022.
- ▶ The adjusted monthly gender pay gap stands at 23 per cent, reaching its maximum during the past three years.
- ▶ Women spend five times more time on unpaid domestic and care work than men in Georgia. The unequal distribution of unpaid care work between women and men and the lack of accessible and quality care services coupled with existing social norms are major factors that hinder women's economic activity in Georgia.

4.1 Economic activity and employment

There is a noticeable gap in the employment rates in Georgia between men and women. As of 2022, the gender gap in employment had reached its highest point in recent years and stands at 16.2 percentage points (p.p.), with 51.7 per cent of men and 35.4 per cent of women employed (Table C.5). Within the 25–34 age group, which coincides with the key reproductive years for women in Georgia (considering that their mean age at first birth is 26.4 years old¹) and is marked by substantial childcare and family responsibilities, the disparity in employment rates between women and men becomes even more pronounced, reaching a notable margin of 20.2 p.p. (Figure 4.1 and Table C.6).

FIGURE 4.1: Employment rate, by sex and age group, 2022 (percentage)



Source: Geostat 2022d.

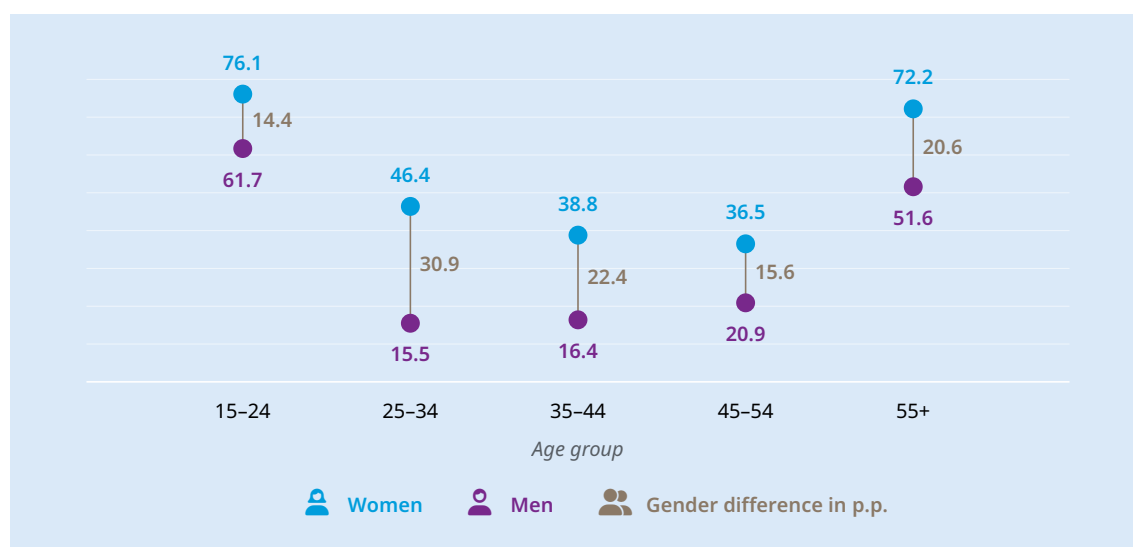
Note: See Table C.6.

In 2022, women’s labour force participation (economic activity) rate stood at just 41.5 per cent, marking a significant 22.5 p.p. gap compared to men’s participation rate (64 per cent) (Table C.7). The data underscore that a substantial majority of women, totalling 58.5 per cent, were classified as economically inactive, implying that they were neither engaged in employment nor actively seeking job opportunities.² While the majority of women are economically inactive, men do have slightly higher unemployment³ rates than women (a 4.7 p.p. difference), meaning that more men than women are seeking employment (Table C.8).

The disparity in economic inactivity between women and men is at its lowest in the 15–24 age group, amounting to 14.4 p.p. However, in the 25–34 age group, which is a critical phase of career development, this difference rises significantly to 30.9 p.p. In the year 2022, a noteworthy 46.4 per cent of women in this age group were not engaged in economic activities, whereas for men in the same age range, the figure was 15 per cent. This trend has remained consistent over the years, and data from the past three years (Table C.9) show a consistent difference of 29–31 p.p. in economic inactivity. This trend may be influenced by the gender division of care work, which is particularly prevalent during women’s reproductive years (the gender gap in economic inactivity steeply decreases after the age of 44). Factors such as the unequal distribution of domestic responsibilities, limited access to public childcare, insufficient social protection and significant wage disparities contribute to the lower female participation rate. Notably, in the subsequent age groups, the gap in economic

inactivity narrows, which can be explained by a reduction in caregiving responsibilities as children grow older, leading to women's reintegration into the labour force. The gap surges again in the 55+ age group, a change that can be ascribed to women's comparatively lower retirement age and the onset of new caregiving duties, including the care of grandchildren and/or elderly family members (Figure 4.2).⁴

FIGURE 4.2: Economic inactivity rate, by sex and age group, 2022 (percentage of the inactive population)



Source: Geostat 2022d.
Note: See Table C.9.

4.2 Informal employment

TARGET 8-3



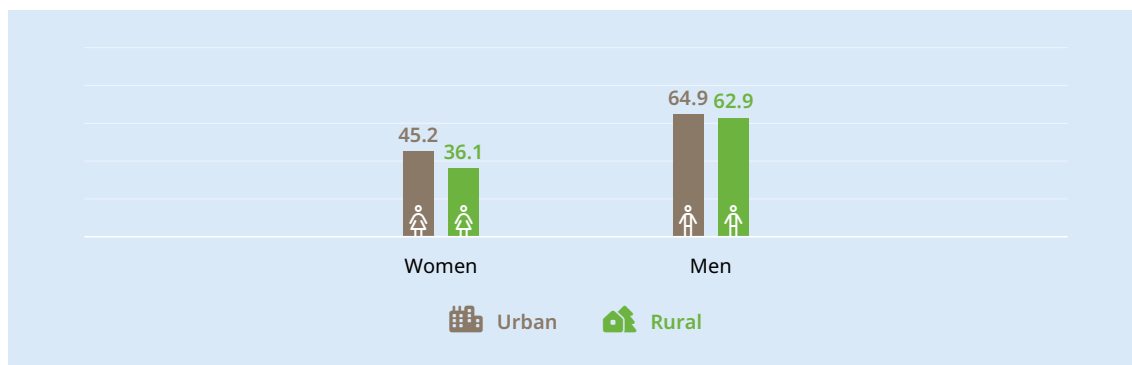
SDG indicator 8.3.1: The proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment was 28.4 per cent in 2022. Women's informal employment made up 22.5 per cent of the women in the non-agriculture sector, while men's informal employment made up 33.4 per cent of the men in the non-agricultural sector.⁵

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. One of the most vulnerable groups of women employed in the informal sector is domestic workers. Many of these workers frequently surpass 40 working hours each week, including weekends and evenings. More than half of all domestic workers receive inadequate compensation, and there is a substantial income gap between professions traditionally associated with women and those typically linked to men in the domestic work sector. Domestic workers face unfavourable working environments, limited legal protection and low awareness of their civil and labour rights. They are exposed to abuse, exploitation, unfair remuneration, unpaid overtime, unsafe conditions and uncertainty in their employment terms.⁶

4.3 Rural economy

In 2022, the labour force participation rate among women in rural Georgia reached 36.1 per cent, which marks an increase from the rates of 33.5 per cent in 2020 and 33.1 per cent in 2021 (Figure 4.3 and Table C.10).⁷ The majority (51.1 per cent) of rural women in the labour force in 2022 were hired employees, showcasing a slight increase compared to previous years. Conversely, the proportion of self-employed rural women slightly decreased in 2022, accounting for 35.7 per cent (Table C.11).⁸

FIGURE 4.3: Labour force participation (economic activity) rate, by sex and settlement type, 2022 (percentage)



Source: Geostat 2022d.

Note: See Table C.10.

Non-agricultural employment for rural women is primarily concentrated in public service sectors, specifically education and health, which often offer low wages. Self-employed rural women can fall into either the category of contributing family workers or own-account workers.⁹

The data highlight significant gender disparities in the distribution of agricultural holdings and land area operated by women and men. In 2022, women managed 31.7 per cent of agricultural holdings, while men managed 68.3 per cent. Regarding land area, as mentioned in Chapter 3, women held only 18 per cent of agricultural holdings, while men held 82 per cent.¹⁰ These gender gaps have persisted over time, indicating ongoing disparities in agricultural landownership and management.

The existing resources allocated for women's economic empowerment often fall short of meeting individual needs, rendering the concept of empowerment challenging to realize fully. Women's economic empowerment in Georgia is significantly influenced by the issue of free movement and its gender aspects. The challenge of the proper functioning—or even the absence—of municipal transport across all regions, including the capital, exacerbates the difficulties faced by women in accessing education, employment and other essential services, particularly in rural areas. This transportation barrier not only limits women's opportunities but also hinders the development of their skills and habits necessary for professional growth, ultimately affecting their economic independence and legal status in the country. Additionally, the mobility of women is directly linked to their income levels, making it even more critical to address these transportation challenges.¹¹

4.4 Women’s access to assets

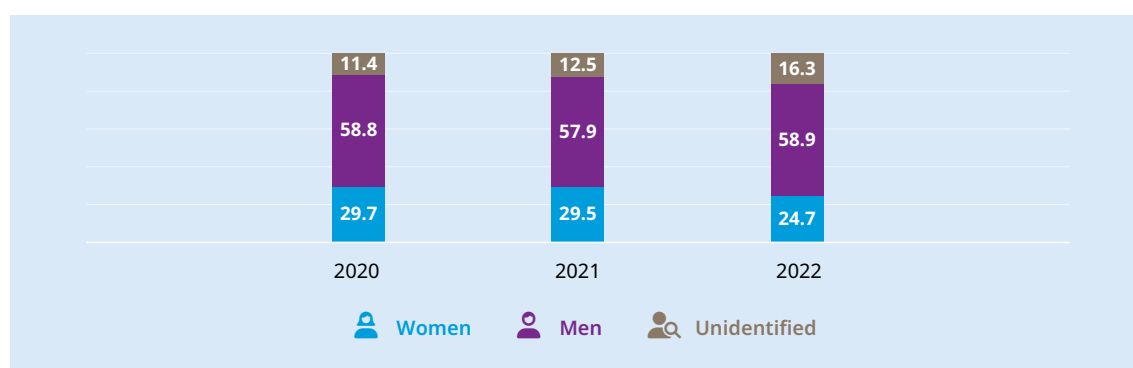
The 2022 thematic study conducted by the GEC delves into the primary obstacles confronting women and girls in their quest to access financial resources. The report underscores the fact that women encounter more restricted pathways to economic assets than men. This limitation stems from various factors, including an unsupportive environment and ecosystem for women’s engagement in entrepreneurship, which is influenced by familial and communal dynamics shaping women’s decisions and achievements.

Furthermore, the study identifies barriers to accessing financial resources, such as the uneven distribution of family responsibilities and caregiving duties, insufficient availability and quality of care services, subpar public infrastructure and constrained mobility. Survey data from diverse regions indicate that 70–80 per cent of women reside in homes owned by someone else. While women predominantly assume the role of head of household in single-member households, this representation drops significantly to only 5–7 per cent in cases where women reside with their spouses and children on farms. These factors collectively impede women’s ability to substantiate their financial income to attract additional resources from financial institutions. Moreover, women are less likely to secure landownership through tenure arrangements. The limited involvement of women in the labour market, in formal economic pursuits and in managerial positions, coupled with the existence of a gender wage gap, compounds the challenges they face in accessing financial resources.¹²

4.5 Entrepreneurship

The share of men-founded businesses in Georgia is more than twice as high as the share of women-owned businesses. In 2022, the share of women owners among newly established enterprises was 24.7 per cent (Figure 4.4 and Table C.12).¹³

FIGURE 4.4: Distribution of Georgia’s newly established enterprise owners, by sex, 2020–2022 (percentage)



Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

Note: See Table C.12.

The Women Entrepreneurs Survey (WES), conducted by UN Women and the ILO in 2023, revealed that women own only one third (33 per cent) of economically active enterprises in the country. Only 11.5 per cent of Georgian companies employ a predominantly female workforce, and just 16.5 per cent have women in top management positions. Given that women in Georgia generally have higher levels of education than men, this underrepresentation of women in ownership and top management roles underscores gender inequality and the challenges that women face in entrepreneurship.¹⁴

Women are more likely to own and manage small businesses, with fewer than one fifth of enterprises having a female top manager, including a mere 10 per cent among medium and large firms. Additionally, fewer than 1 per cent of large firms in Georgia have a predominately female workforce, and women represent only a fifth of the total number of enterprise owners.¹⁵

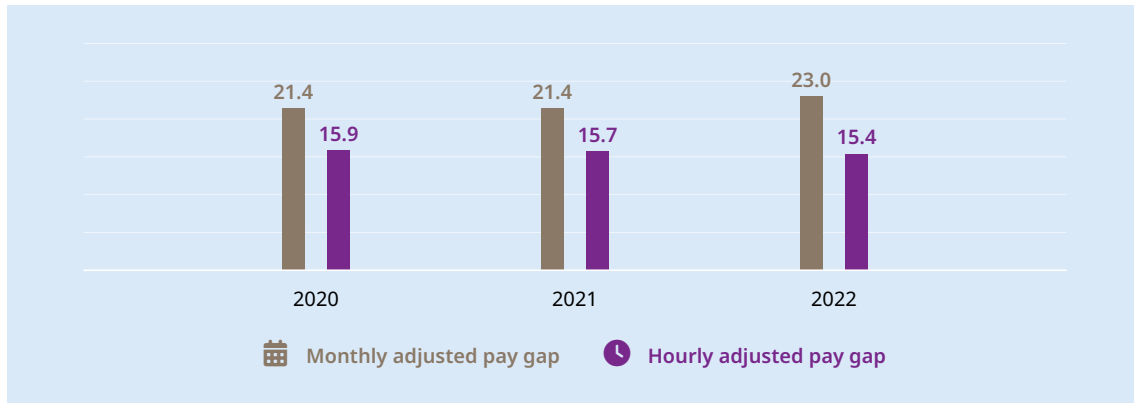
Moreover, women's entrepreneurship in Georgia is sectorized, with a majority of businesses operating in the trade sector (59 per cent), indicating their small size. Most women-led businesses are independently started (89 per cent) and often operate as sole proprietorships, employing other women in some cases. In addition, 22 per cent of women entrepreneurs take care of children, elderly family members or sick household members, thus facing the challenge of balancing domestic care work with managing their businesses. In addition to this, women entrepreneurs experience a variety of challenges related to societal norms and beliefs, as women's involvement in business is viewed negatively and restricts access to their inheritance.¹⁶

UN Women and the ILO assessed the conditions for women's entrepreneurship development in Georgia. None of the conditions scored high (4 or 5), indicating multiple areas needing improvement. Legal protection for women's economic rights (3.25) exists but lacks enforcement. Informal barriers persist, especially in the cultural domain. Gender policy (3.50) lacks a unified approach and often overlooks gender perspectives and data collection. Access to financing (2.50) is challenging due to high interest rates and biases from creditors. Few funding opportunities target women entrepreneurs, and business development services (3.00) are underutilized due to barriers like registration requirements. Targeted programmes for accessing new markets (2.50) are lacking, and digitalization is limited. Women's participation in business associations (3.33) also remains low.¹⁷

4.6 Gender pay gap

The gender pay gap, representing the difference between the average wages of men and women expressed as a percentage of men's average wage, remains a significant issue in Georgia. The unadjusted monthly gender pay gap, which does not consider individuals' demographic and job-specific attributes, stands at 31.7 per cent based on the 2022 data.¹⁸ These estimates are based on the Establishment Survey and are the best standard for calculating the gender pay gap, although they do not provide opportunities for disaggregation. On the other hand, the adjusted gender pay gap, based on the Labour Force Survey, considers factors like educational achievements, professional backgrounds and other personal characteristics,¹⁹ along with differences across industries and occupations between men and women and was calculated to be 23 per cent monthly and 15.4 per cent per cent hourly in the year 2022.²⁰ Compared to the previous year, the hourly gender pay gap decreased by 0.4 percentage points, while the monthly gender pay gap increased by 1.6 percentage points (Figure 4.5).

FIGURE 4.5: Adjusted gender pay gap, 2020–2022 (percentage)



Source: Geostat 2022d.

4.7 Unpaid domestic and care work

The unequal distribution of unpaid care work between women and men is a major infringement of women’s economic empowerment in Georgia. The recent Time Use Survey (TUS) in Georgia shows that women spend five times more time on unpaid domestic and care work than men (Figure 4.6).²¹

TARGET 5.4

SDG indicator 5.4.1: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location.

FIGURE 4.6: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex (percentage)

FIGURE 4.7: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex and location (percentage)

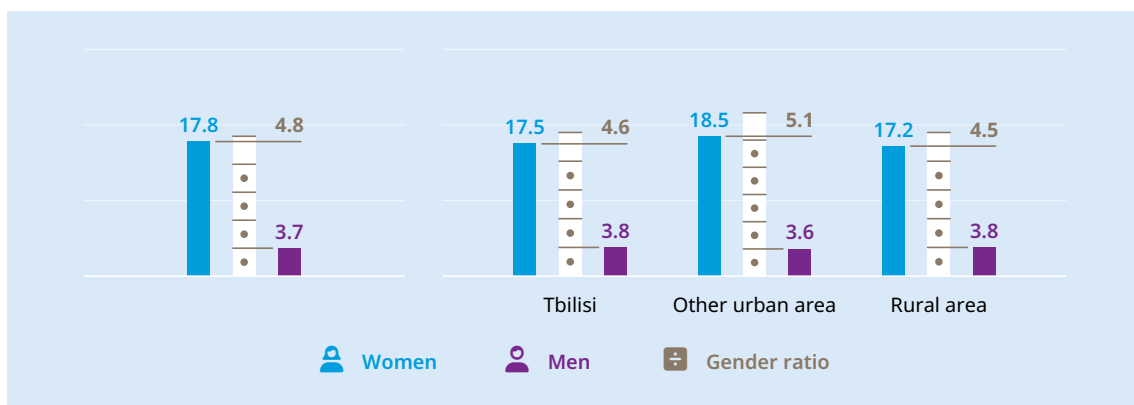
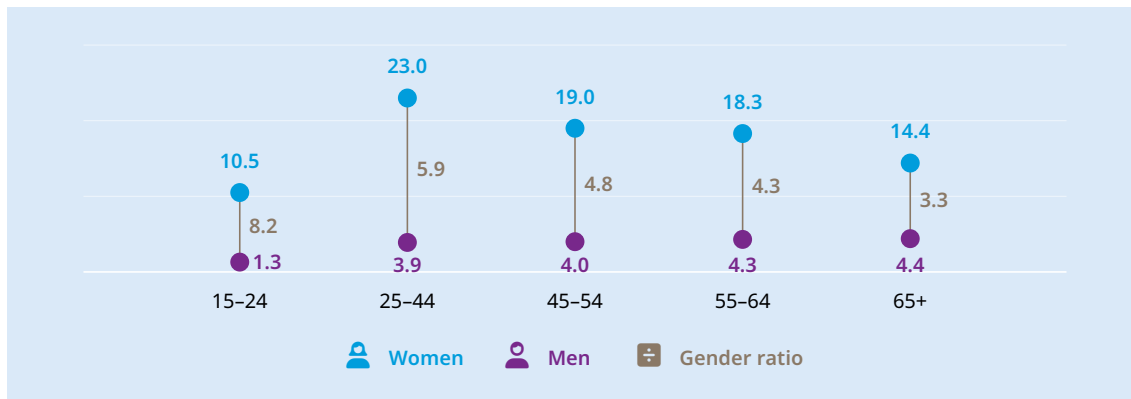


FIGURE 4.8: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex and age group (percentage)



Source: UN Women and Geostat 2022.

The gender ratio is highest in other urban areas at 5.1, compared to 4.6 in Tbilisi and 4.5 in rural areas (Figure 4.7). At any age group, the proportion of time spent by women on unpaid domestic and caregiving services is much higher than that of men across all areas of residence. The highest share of such responsibilities falls on women in the 25–44 age group (Figure 4.8).²²

A deeper analysis of the TUS results reveals a strong connection between sex, caregiving responsibilities and employment opportunities. Namely, the analysis shows that holding all other factors constant, women are 33.3 per cent less likely to be in the labour force than men. Moreover, women who are caregivers are even less likely to be in the labour force—about 58.4 per cent below that of non-caregiver women and men. Living with young children (those under the age of 10) significantly reduces women’s weekly labour market work time (by 9.3 hours on average) and increases unpaid care work time (by 11.2 hours per week on average).²³ This phenomenon is in line with the notion of the ‘motherhood penalty’, which implies the disadvantages that mothers typically face in the labour market, such as lower pay as well as hiring and promotion discrimination. The lack of quality and accessible childcare and other services further amplifies the problem, especially for parents with children under the age of 2, and especially for women, who tend to be primary caregivers, as demonstrated by the TUS data (please see Chapter 5 on education).

The data on women’s and men’s unequal participation in paid and unpaid work align with public opinion in Georgia regarding gender roles, wherein women are still predominantly viewed as primarily responsible for family and childcare, while men are seen as breadwinners. For instance, according to a UNDP survey conducted in 2020, 56.3 per cent of women and 74.8 per cent of men believe that a woman’s value lies more in her family role than in her career success. Additionally, 38 per cent of women and 59.5 per cent of men believe that a woman’s main responsibility is to take care of her family.²⁴

Recommendations:

- Implement targeted policies and initiatives to bridge the gender gap in employment. This includes promoting equal opportunities for women in the labour market, providing access to vocational training and skills development programmes and encouraging companies to adopt gender-sensitive hiring practices and family-friendly work policies.
- Ensure actual implementation of the equal pay for equal work principle, as well as implementation of the equal pay GIA in compliance with the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), including the recognition and inclusion of the principle on equal pay for work of equal value and associated sectoral and occupational minimum wage.
- Invest in improving transportation infrastructure, particularly in rural areas, to enhance women's access to education, employment opportunities and essential services.
- Promote financial literacy and access to financial services for women, particularly those in vulnerable communities. Facilitate their participation in formal financial systems, such as savings accounts, credit and entrepreneurship support, to enhance their economic independence and empowerment.
- Recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care work in order to allow women who are caregivers to balance their caregiving responsibilities with their professional aspirations and promote their reintegration and/or engagement in the labour force.

5

Women and education



Key takeaways:


- ▶ Access to quality preschool education remains as a challenge in Georgia, especially affecting girls, children with disabilities, and rural and ethnic minority populations.
- ▶ Officially registered child marriage dropout cases decreased significantly in 2021, with girls constituting the absolute majority of these cases. However, 39 per cent of ethnic Azerbaijani girls leave school after completing only the mandatory basic level of education, which is potentially linked to the challenges related to child marriage and unpaid care work.
- ▶ Ethnic minorities and children with disabilities face additional, different problems in accessing quality education, including the lack of qualified specialized teachers and adequate educational resources.
- ▶ Fourth-grade students in Georgia score well below the international average in reading according to the PIRLS assessment, with only 87 per cent demonstrating basic competencies, and girls consistently outperform boys in reading.
- ▶ Current textbooks and learning resources require scrutiny and adaptation to make them gender sensitive and to eliminate derogatory language, challenge gender stereotypes and ensure representation and recognition of all individuals and communities.
- ▶ The incorporation of comprehensive sexuality education into Georgia's education system is still limited, as critical information on emotions, bodily autonomy, sexual identity, gender-based violence, healthy relationships and other topics is missing from the curriculum. Moreover, significant gaps exist in the teacher pre- and in-service training programmes, in the monitoring and evaluation system, and in links to sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services.¹
- ▶ The identification and reporting of gender-based and domestic violence cases, as well as the (alleged) cases of child marriage, remains a challenge in schools. Teachers often hesitate and are reluctant to report incidents due to existing social norms, confidentiality concerns and a lack of adequate training and recognition skills.
- ▶ The accessibility of vocational education for women is constrained by limited geographical coverage, particularly in rural areas. Additionally, the lack of care services and transportation options presents challenges for women pursuing vocational education and training (VET).
- ▶ NEET status (those not in employment, education or training) is more prevalent among women, individuals aged 25–29 and those residing outside of Tbilisi.

- ▶ Data on women’s participation in both vocational and higher education, as well as in academia and research, illustrate sex-based horizontal segregation, with women predominantly participating in traditionally female-dominated courses and programmes.
- ▶ Despite their lower numbers, female students in ICT demonstrate better academic performance than male students.
- ▶ Women are underrepresented among full professors and PhD supervisors and are overrepresented among assistant professors and researchers.

5.1 Early childhood education and care

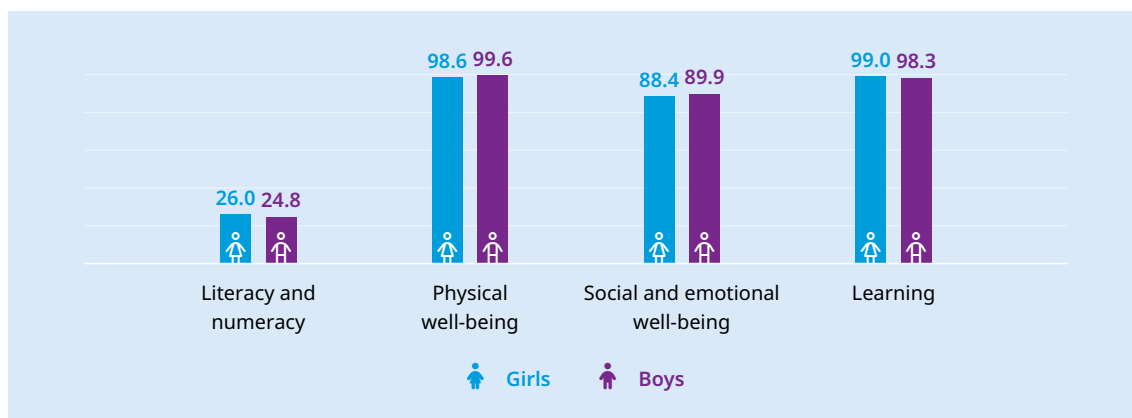
The latest data available regarding early childhood education and care in Georgia were collected in 2018 through the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) by Geostat and UNICEF.

TARGET 4-2



SDG indicator 4.2.1: The MICS revealed an overall early child development index score of 89.6 for children aged 3–4 (88.5 for girls and 90.8 for boys). While they are on track in three of the four developmental dimensions, literacy and numeracy remain a challenge. Specifically, 26.0 per cent of girls and 24.8 per cent of boys aged 3–4 are on track in literacy and numeracy, while the share of children developmentally on track in other dimensions (physical, social and emotional, and learning) ranges from 88.4 to 99.6 per cent (Figure 5.1).²

FIGURE 5.1: Percentage of children aged 3–4 years who are developmentally on track in the indicated domains



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

The data showed that factors like parenting and preschool education explain the underachievement. Fathers’ involvement in child-rearing remains an issue, and parenting practices lack effective playtime. TUS data showed that mothers in Georgia spend 20.4 hours per week on childcare, which is five times more than the 3.9 hours spent on childcare by fathers. Moreover, for mothers, half of these hours are spent on the physical and emotional care of their children (10.5 hours), while for fathers, a little more than half of the time (2.2 hours) is spent playing, reading or talking with their children.³

TARGET 4.2

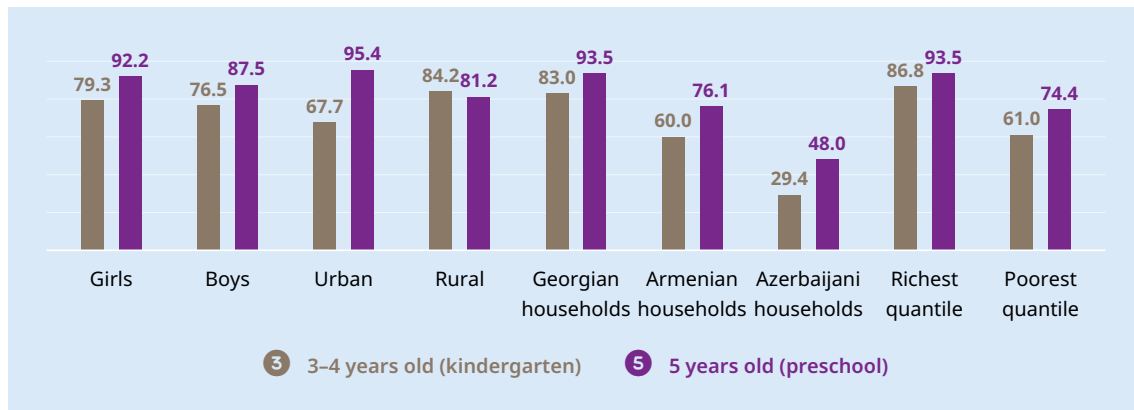


Related to SDG indicator 4.2.2: When it comes to kindergarten attendance, the MICS data showed that in 2018, 77.9 per cent of Georgian children (79.3 per cent of girls and 76.5 per cent of boys) attended kindergarten. However, this number decreased to 72.4 per cent in 2021/22 according to the Child Welfare Survey (CWS) in Georgia probably due to the COVID-19 pandemic, as many parents hesitated to send their children to kindergarten after restrictions lifted in 2021, to avoid potential infection.⁴

The CWS showed that while the absolute majority of children aged 3–6 (98.5 per cent of girls and 92.7 per cent of boys) attend public kindergartens, boys (7.3 per cent) are more likely to attend private kindergartens than girls (1.5 per cent) (Table C.13).⁵ When it comes to parents’ satisfaction with the quality of kindergarten services, the majority of respondents are satisfied with the service; however, respondents from the households with girls showed a lower level of satisfaction (89.9 per cent) than the respondents from the households with boys (95.1 per cent).⁶

The CWS also observes significant urban-rural disparities in preschool education. Rural children are over seven times more likely to lack preschool access than their urban counterparts. Barriers to preschool education affect 1.5 per cent of urban children and 12.4 per cent of rural children, with a smaller difference between the genders—8.5 per cent of girls and 4.3 per cent of boys.⁷ Disparities exist across settlement types (urban versus rural) and wealth (socioeconomic status). There is a scarcity of preschool institutions in the areas settled with ethnic minorities, according to the MICS. The average rate of enrolment in preschool in Georgia is 65 per cent. However, the difference in terms of enrolment is striking: in Azerbaijani households, only 29 per cent of 3–4-year-olds attend kindergarten, while in Armenian households, the rate is 60 per cent (Figure 5.2).⁸

FIGURE 5.2: Participation in early childhood education (percentage)



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

Note: Data on early childhood education and care for children aged 2 years and younger are limited and therefore missing from this data set.

In Georgia, early childhood education faces challenges in quality and territorial accessibility, leading to limited developmental benefits. The existing number of kindergartens falls short of meeting the demand, causing overloaded facilities and a shortage of staff.⁹ The recent data from the 2023 CWS in Georgia showed that 44 per cent of parents whose child did not attend preschool named the unavailability of a kindergarten in their neighbourhood as a barrier.¹⁰

As a career field, the early childhood education profession also suffers from low attractiveness due to low pay and the lack of professional training opportunities. The salary of employees in the education sector has been one of the lowest since the 1990s. According to the Ministry of Education and Science, in 2020 the average monthly nominal salary of employees in the education sector was GEL 709 in the public sector and GEL 921.30 in the private sector, which was below the average monthly nominal salary of all employees in Georgia (GEL 1,119). Moreover, the basic nominal salary of educators and pedagogues of public preschool institutions and teachers in general education was even lower (by 2–3 times).¹¹ Additionally, a significant proportion of preschool staff lack appropriate qualifications, lacking access to continuous professional development opportunities.¹²

Ethnic minority areas experience particular difficulty, lacking access to kindergartens and qualified teachers, exacerbating the issue.¹³ Similarly, children with disabilities encounter barriers due to inadequate infrastructure and a shortage of trained inclusion specialists for early childhood education.¹⁴

The lack of accessible childcare facilities can be linked to the increased burden of caregiving responsibilities for women. As discussed in the preceding chapter, women are often perceived as the primary caregivers. Thus, the unavailability of childcare facilities forces women to take on unpaid care work, leading to women’s worsened socioeconomic and psychological well-being.

5.2 General education

In Georgia, during the 2021/22 academic year, general education enrolment was above 98 per cent, with equal enrolment rates for boys and girls, while 1.6 per cent were not attending school due to a variety of barriers.¹⁵ However, spatial disparity and the urban-rural divide in terms of access to quality general education persist as a major challenge for the general education system.¹⁶ The TUS showed that in urban areas, young women in the same age group allocate more time to learning than their male counterparts, whereas the situation is reversed in rural areas (Table C.14).¹⁷

According to the 2018 MICS data, educational inequities are particularly visible when it comes to ethnic minorities’ access to quality general education; there are concerns regarding lower school attendance rates among ethnic minorities, particularly Armenian and Azerbaijani children. These minority groups tend to start school later and progress at a slower pace. At the upper secondary level, the disparity between Georgian and ethnic minority youths is more significant. For instance, 39 per cent of young Azerbaijani girls and 27.6 per cent of boys leave school after the mandatory nine years of basic education—an 11.4 p.p. gender gap. Disengagement from schooling is often linked to work responsibilities or child marriage, especially among young women.¹⁸



Related to country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.3: The 2022/23 dropout rate saw an increase compared to the previous two years, with **6,409 girls** and **8,502 boys** leaving school.¹⁹ The increase is especially evident at the primary and lower secondary levels. Boys had higher dropout rates than girls at all levels of secondary education (Figure 5.3).

FIGURE 5.3: Number of children and adolescents dropping out of school, by sex and education level

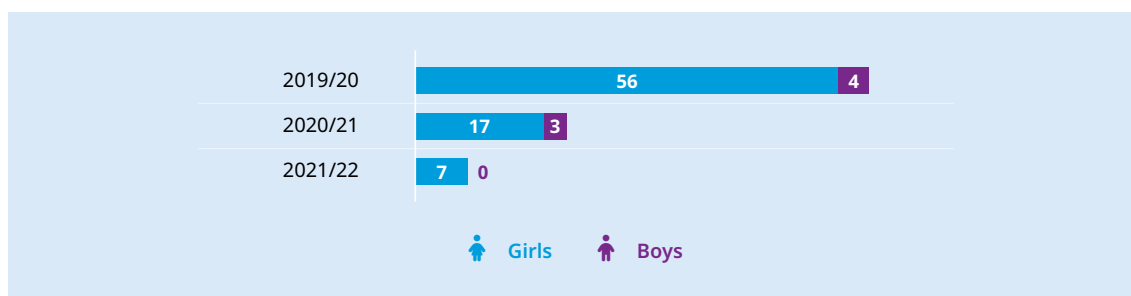


Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

In 2022, according to the PDO report, dropout reasons included 1,831 foreign citizens returning home and 1,163 students opting for vocational education. Additionally, the number of children leaving school due to moving abroad with their families doubled from the previous year (to 5,508).²⁰

Although dropouts due to child marriage significantly decreased in 2021 and accounted for seven cases, girls still constituted the majority of such cases (Figure 5.4).²¹

FIGURE 5.4: Number of children who dropped out of school because of child marriage, by sex




Source: Education Management Information System.

In the 2022/23 academic year, there were 10,108 children with special educational needs in general education, with boys (6,908) outnumbering girls (3,428).²² The main barriers identified by the PDO for children with disabilities to accessing school education include poor infrastructure, inadequate and scarce educational materials, subject area teachers' limited competencies in inclusive practices and a lack of professionals in special education, and low awareness among parents and school staff regarding inclusive education.²³ Funding for inclusive education is also fragmented, hindering the transformation of schools into inclusive institutions. Another main challenge is the poor monitoring and assessment system for inclusive education. These challenges are coupled with teachers' ambivalent attitudes towards inclusion.

The PDO also underscores the major challenges faced by ethnic minorities when accessing education; for example, the lack of quality education derives from the absence of bilingual education, the lack of adequate educational resources, the lower quality of textbooks, the low quality of teachers and the lack of professional development opportunities for school management and teachers.²⁴ 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 vocational and tertiary education as well as to the labour market.

5.2.1 Learning outcomes

TARGET 4-1

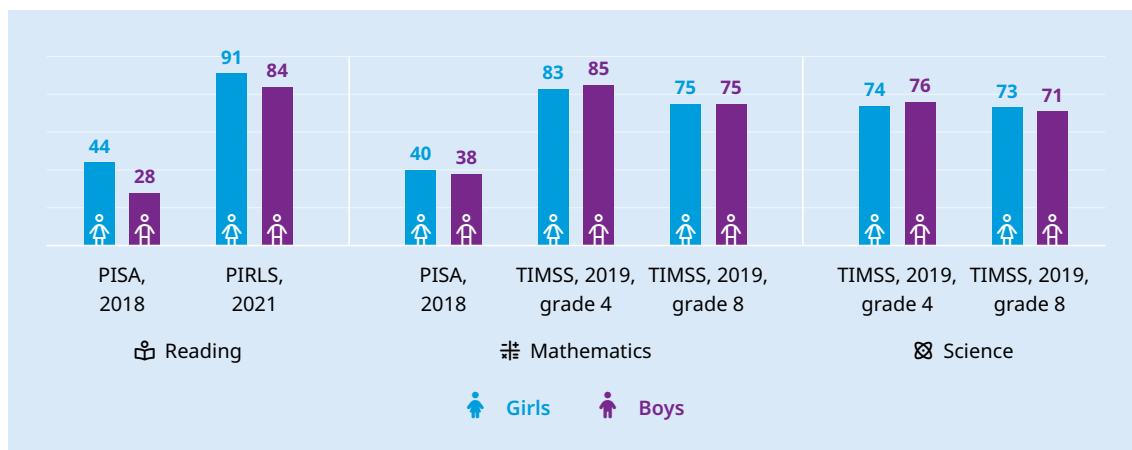


Related to SDG indicator 4.1.1: Based on the latest PIRLS (2021) data on reading outcomes, fourth-grade students in Georgia score well below the international average. In Georgia, only 87 per cent of students demonstrate basic competencies (i.e. meeting the lowest international benchmark) in reading, whereas internationally, the share is 94 per cent. Girls consistently outperform boys in reading, with 91.2 per cent of girls meeting minimum competencies in 2021, compared to 83.7 per cent of boys.²⁵

The latest data from other international standardized assessments are available for the years 2018 (PISA) and 2019 (TIMSS). PISA results for 15-year-old students in Georgia also show significant underachievement in reading, with only 36 per cent demonstrating basic competencies in 2018, while the international average is 77 per cent. Among 15-year-olds, girls outperform boys in reading, with 44 per cent of girls reaching basic competency levels, compared to 28 per cent of boys. In math, 15-year-old girls' and boys' scores were roughly equal in 2018, with 38–40 per cent reaching minimum competency levels.²⁶ A similar pattern emerges in the math and science competencies (TIMSS) of fourth and eighth graders in 2019: boys and girls performed comparably, and there were no statistically significant differences among low or high achievers (Figure 5.5).²⁷ Assessments also reveal significant

spatial and social inequities in Georgia’s education system. Economically disadvantaged students (i.e. those with a low socioeconomic status) from rural households studying at public schools perform much worse than their peers studying in urban centres or those with a higher socioeconomic status studying at private schools.²⁸

FIGURE 5.5: Percentage of children who have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading, (ii) mathematics and (iii) science, by sex



Source: Mullis et al., 2023; NAEC 2018, 2019.

In the adult population, overall literacy rates in Georgia are high, standing above 99 per cent for both men and women. The vast majority of adults have at least an upper secondary education, with only 0.1 per cent having received no education.²⁹

5.2.2 Gender mainstreaming and related challenges in the general education system

Gender mainstreaming in education has resulted in commendable progress towards ensuring girls’ equal access to education. However, lingering issues persist in textbooks, perpetuating gender norms and stereotypes. The content of textbooks used in schools reveals significant issues in Georgia’s education system. In 2022, a comprehensive examination of the assigned school curriculum was conducted by the Public Defender to assess the manuals’ compatibility with human rights standards. The review highlighted that the illustrations and text in the first-grade *Georgian Language and Literature* textbook portrayed family and childcare responsibilities as exclusively assigned to women.³⁰ The curriculum does not incorporate gender equality concerns, making it improbable for these issues to be addressed in educational textbooks. There is a lack of encouragement to include content in school materials that acknowledges the contributions of women across various domains such as history, literature, science and the arts.³¹

Detecting cases of gender-based and domestic violence in schools remains a formidable challenge. Teachers are often reluctant to report such incidents due to existing social norms, confidentiality concerns and a lack of adequate training and recognition skills.³² According to the Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking (ATIPfund), the number of cases of violence reported by educational institutions has drastically increased from 116 in 2021 to 469 in 2022,³³ following the awareness-raising activities carried out with technical support from UN Women and other development agencies.

The incorporation of age-appropriate comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) continues to be a concern in the country. When it comes to CSE content, significant gaps exist in the National Curriculum, in the teacher pre- and in-service training programmes, in the monitoring and evaluation system, and in links to sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services. The review conducted by UNFPA based on the UNESCO methodology “Sexuality Education Review and Assessment Tool” (SERAT) showed that, in school, children and young people do not receive important information concerning their feelings, their body, their sexual identity, gender-based violence, healthy relationships or other related topics. Despite the fact that some CSE topics are represented in the National Curriculum, the review showed that they are not reflected in teachers’ pre- and in-service training programmes. In addition, there is no national-level monitoring and evaluation system in place to assess curriculum implementation.³⁴

5.3 Vocational education

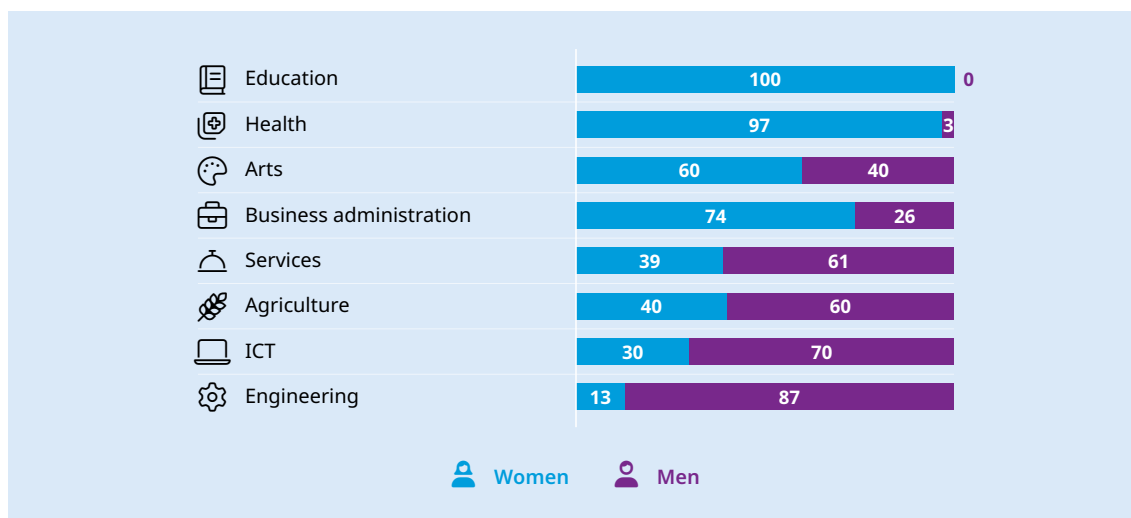
Vocational colleges play a critical role in equipping individuals with the skills and knowledge necessary for successful careers. However, there are significant challenges in attracting women to vocational education programmes. It is essential to recognize that vocational education is not limited to young people, also extending to adults seeking skills development opportunities. For adult women residing in rural areas, attending college can be a formidable challenge due to their caregiving responsibilities. The concept of opportunity cost comes into play, with the time spent on education needing to be balanced with other caregiving duties.³⁵



SDG indicator 4.3.1: The participation rate of youths and adults in formal and non-formal education and training has consistently remained low over the years, with women showing slightly higher engagement than men. According to Geostat’s Labour Force Survey in 2022, only 1.6 per cent of the population (1.8 per cent of women and 1.3 per cent of men) aged 25–64 had been involved in formal or non-formal education or training in the preceding four weeks.³⁶

Regarding participation in **vocational education**, women’s engagement is comparable to men’s, but there was a slight decrease in the number of enrolments and graduates for women in VET compared to 2021 (enrolments: from 49 to 47 per cent; graduates: from 50 to 49 per cent) (Table C.15).³⁷ The data on graduates by study area clearly illustrate sex-based horizontal segregation in vocational education. Gender stereotypes are evident in most VET education programmes, with women predominantly enrolling in traditionally female-dominated courses. Fields such as education, health and social welfare, the arts and humanities, and business administration have a higher representation of women, whereas men outnumber women in STEM fields (Figure 5.6 and Table C.16).

FIGURE 5.6: Proportion of women and men among VET graduates, by field of study, 2022 (percentage)



Source: Geostat.

Note: See Table C.16.

It is important to note that roughly 31 per cent of individuals aged 14–29 fall under the category of ‘not in employment, education or training’ (NEET). NEET status is more prevalent among women, individuals aged 25–29 and those residing outside of Tbilisi.³⁸ In terms of economic activity, most young NEET women fall into the category of inactive (i.e. not in the labour market), while most NEET men fall into the category of unemployed. Among the various individual and social variables, family composition (especially the presence of children in the family) and marital status most determine one’s NEET categorization. Being a NEET correlates with one’s socioeconomic status. More than 60 per cent of NEETs belong to low-income families. Moreover, the probability of becoming a NEET is high for young people whose parents are unemployed or have emigrated.

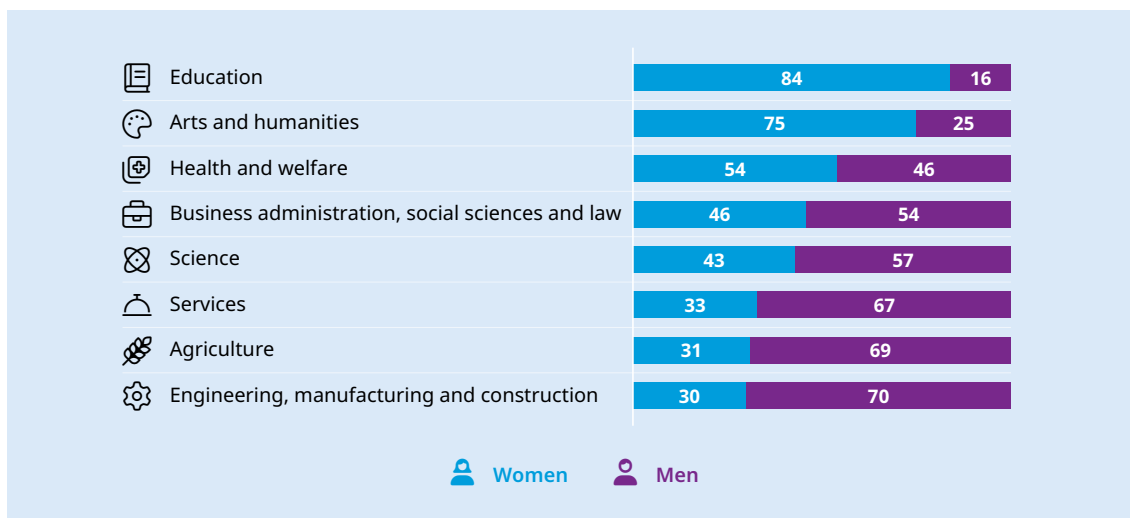
5.4 Higher education



Related to SDG indicator 4.3.1: Women’s participation in higher education has also been comparable to men’s participation throughout the years. There has been a slight increase in women’s enrolment in bachelor’s and master’s programmes, from 51.7 per cent in 2021 to 52.1 per cent in 2022, and slight fluctuations in the share of women PhD graduates (Table C.17).³⁹

Similarly to VET, higher education also exhibits a concerning pattern of horizontal segregation according to the field of study, with significant gender implications. At this level of education, women continue to be disproportionately represented in such fields as education, the arts and the humanities (Figure 5.7 and Table C.18). This pattern reflects the impact of the prevalent gender norms on women’s academic choices and career trajectories. Furthermore, it might be a factor in the gender pay gap, as careers in STEM and other male-dominated sectors generally offer higher earning potential.

FIGURE 5.7: Distribution of women and men among bachelor's and master's degree students, by field of study, 2022/23 (percentage)



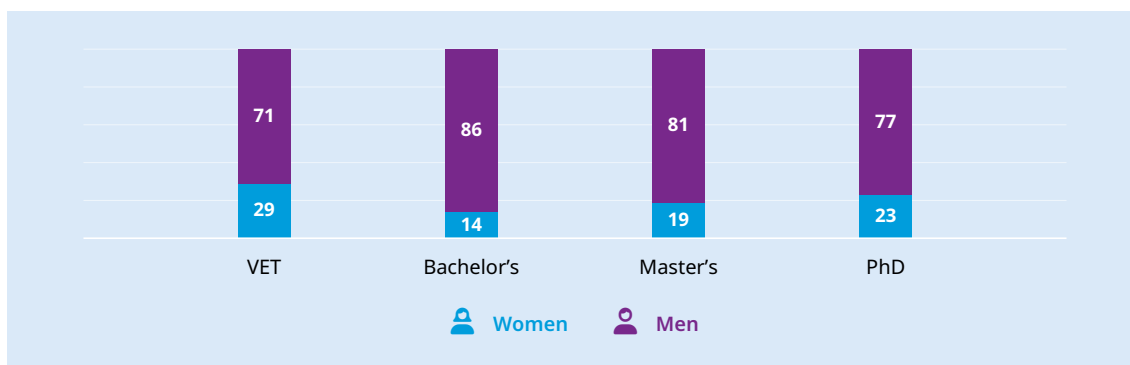
Source: Geostat.

Note: See Table C.18.

5.5 Women in technology education in Georgia

Referring to UN Women's 2023 study on women in information and communications technology (ICT) in Georgia, women are severely underrepresented in the country's ICT sector. Looking at the trends, the imbalance might not be addressed any time soon, as Georgia's future pipeline of ICT talent is heavily skewed towards men. Despite the growth in the number of ICT students in VET programmes, the gender balance of admissions to and students in ICT programmes remains strongly male-dominated, with female students representing only around 29 per cent of VET ICT programme students in 2021/22. The biggest gender gap is observed at the bachelor's level in ICT programmes, with women students representing only 14 per cent of bachelor's degree students in 2021/22. The gender balance in ICT master's and PhD programmes shows a more positive trend than in bachelor's programmes (Figure 5.8 and Table C.19).

FIGURE 5.8: Gender balance of the students in ICT programmes at VET, bachelor's, master's and PhD levels, 2021/22 (percentage)



Source: UN Women 2023e.

Note: See Table C.19.

The trend in ICT education mirrors that of other technical fields like engineering, where the gender gap is more pronounced. When comparing engineering student gender ratios with the ICT sector, engineering consistently lags. However, there is a notable increase in the share of female engineering students, rising from 7 per cent in 2020/21 to 12 per cent in 2021/22.⁴⁰

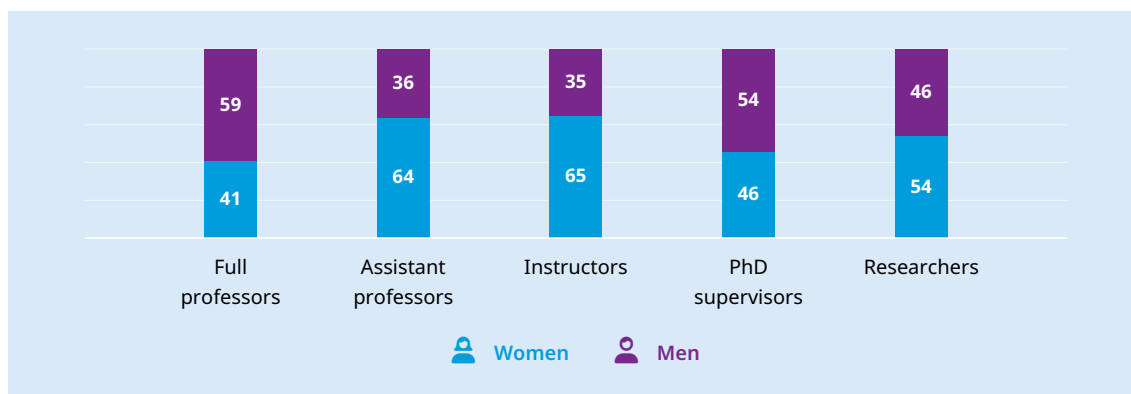
Both male and female students face barriers to choosing ICT as their field of education, including the unavailability of experienced teachers, the lack of sufficient funds for tuition fees and the persistence of stereotypes about ICT being more suitable for boys. Family perceptions play a significant role in preventing girls from choosing ICT professions, as prevailing societal stereotypes label it as a man's profession. The 2023 UN Women study showed that although female students disagree with this notion, the absence of female role models in the sector further discourages them from pursuing ICT programmes. However, despite their lower numbers, female students in ICT demonstrate better academic performance than male students. However, female students also exhibit lower levels of self-confidence in the labour market in ICT, which might affect their competitiveness.⁴¹

Recognizing the pivotal role of human capital in ICT as a driving force behind digital and digital-enabled innovations and its significance in empowering women, the Government of Georgia has taken on commitments within the Generation Equality Forum to promote gender mainstreaming in technology and innovation. The relevant government agencies have collaboratively developed an action plan with both public and private stakeholders in the ICT ecosystem to put these commitments into practice.

5.6 Academia and research

In academia and research in Georgia, women play an active and significant role, making up 60 per cent of professors and instructors in higher education institutions over the past three years.⁴² However, when examining the distribution across different ranks of professors, women are underrepresented among full professors and overrepresented among assistant professors and instructors. A similar trend is observed among PhD supervisors, where men have consistently outnumbered women over the past five years, despite a slight increase in women's representation in 2021/22 and 2022/23. On the other hand, women dominate among researchers, comprising 54 per cent of the total in 2022/23 (Figure 5.9 and Table C.20).⁴³ Moreover, there is a notable gender disparity across various fields of study. Women are overrepresented in fields like medical and health sciences, as well as the humanities and the arts. In contrast, they are underrepresented in engineering and technology disciplines. These findings highlight the existing gender divide in academia, with variations in representation at different academic levels and both across and within various fields of study (Figure 5.10 and Tables C.21 and C.22).

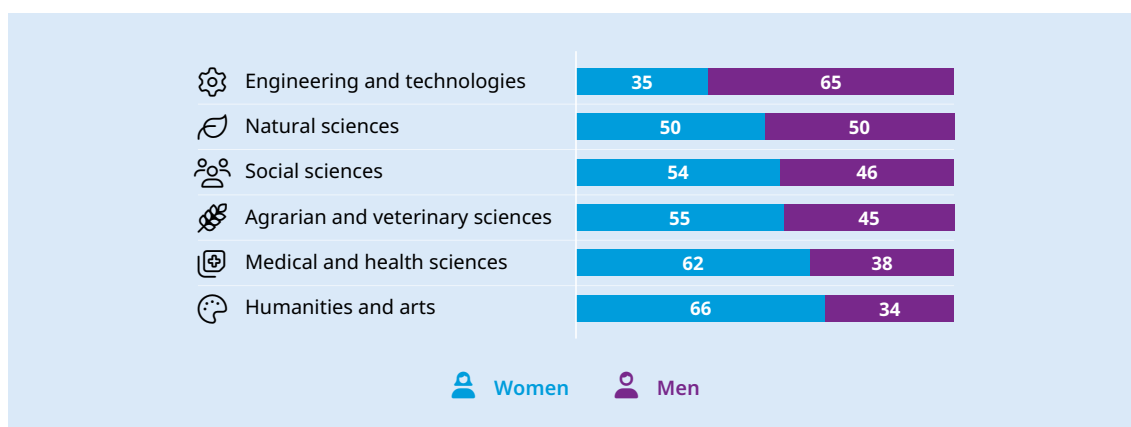
FIGURE 5.9: Distribution of women and men in academia and research, by position, 2022/23 (percentage)



Source: Geostat 2022b.

Note: See Table C.20.

FIGURE 5.10: Distribution of women and men researchers, by field of study, 2022/23 (percentage)



Source: Geostat.

Note: See Table C.21.

Recommendations:

- Ensure the accessibility of quality early childhood education and care, especially in rural areas and for ethnic minorities and children with disabilities.
- Obtain data on childcare options for children aged 2 years and younger, and expand these children's access to childcare.
- Initiate comprehensive retraining and training programmes for educators and stakeholders involved in the education system in order to promote gender sensitivity within the curriculum (through cross-cutting competencies in gender equality).
- Undertake comprehensive textbook review and revision processes to address the persistent issues in gender norms and stereotypes perpetuated by textbooks in Georgia's education system. These reviews should prioritize the removal of content that reinforces gender biases and promotes unequal gender roles. At the same time, school textbooks should involve the intentional integration of gender perspectives and portrayals of women to foster a more inclusive and balanced representation of societal roles.

- Empower school personnel, including school principals, teachers and school resource officers, to improve the response to gender-based violence (GBV). Enhancing their capacity by equipping them with specific knowledge to address such issues is essential for creating a safe and supportive learning environment for students, as well as for encouraging the reporting of incidents of GBV and domestic violence. Furthermore, involving parents and society at large in these efforts is essential to foster a collective commitment to combating GBV within educational settings.
- Implement a comprehensive and inclusive approach to enhance age-appropriate comprehensive sexuality education in Georgia's schools. It is recommended to introduce missing appropriate CSE content at all levels of education by developing age- and developmentally-appropriate content in accordance with UNESCO technical guidance on sexuality education. It is of utmost importance to reflect CSE topics in teacher pre- and in-service programmes, strengthen curriculum implementation monitoring and assessment, and develop and introduce youth- and adolescent-friendly SRH services and ensure its linkages with the in-school and out-of-school CSE in the country.
- Promote proactive actions of the education system to prevent and/or address the cases of child marriage by elaborating internal guidelines, sensitizing the school community on the referral pathways, ensuring proper monitoring of the attendance rates and/or the reasons for school dropouts at the lower secondary education level, and leading comprehensive communication campaigns for the stakeholders involved in the education system.
- Recognize the transportation challenges faced by students, especially by women and by those engaged in vocational education, and collaborate with relevant authorities to improve transportation options, making it easier and more affordable for students to travel to and from educational institutions.
- Offer short-term vocational courses, particularly for women and victims of domestic violence and violence against women. These programmes can provide them with economic independence in a shorter period of time, enabling women to leave violent environments and gain financial stability.
- Combat existing social norms around unpaid care and parenting, and encourage equal distribution of care work among women and men to ensure fathers' involvement in childcare.
- Combat existing social norms around women's professions, and encourage women's involvement in STEM at all levels of education.
- Foster a supportive and inclusive learning environment to attract and retain different groups of learners, including people with disabilities, the LGBTQI+ community and others. Educational institutions should promote a culture of respect, diversity and equal opportunities, ensuring that all students feel welcome and encouraged to pursue their vocational aspirations.
- Ensure that all educational institutions develop gender equality plans encouraging gender equality across different fields and levels within the institution.

6

Women and health



Key takeaways:


- ▶ According to the National Center for Disease Control and Public Health (NCDC), more women are receiving antenatal care. The share of pregnant women who attended at least four antenatal care visits increased during the past decade and reached 86.7 per cent in 2021. Additionally, coverage for at least six antenatal care visits increased from 48.0 per cent in 2018 to 71.8 per cent in 2021. However, coverage for eight or more antenatal care visits is still rather low, at 4.2 per cent in 2021.
- ▶ Maternal mortality represents one of the most important public health challenges in the country. According to UN inter-agency estimates, the country's maternal mortality ratio (MMR) in 2010 was 40 per 100,000 live births; by 2017, it had reduced to 25 per 100,000 live births.¹ However, the high lifetime risk of maternal death puts Georgia among the few countries in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region with rates above the regional average.²
- ▶ Sexual and reproductive health (SRH) services for women, including family planning, are not fully included at the primary healthcare level, nor are these services included in the State's benefits package or in private insurance schemes. In addition, modern contraceptives are not available to those most in need.
- ▶ Women in rural areas, ethnic minority women and women with disabilities face significant barriers to accessing quality and affordable essential SRH services, including family planning services and information about contraceptives.
- ▶ There is a significant gap in the availability of quality SRH information and services for youths. The absence of youth-friendly SRH services limits youth access to accurate information and services, thus preventing youths from fully realizing their potential.
- ▶ According to the MICS, the unmet need for modern contraception is 32.6 per cent among women aged 15–44 who are currently married or in a union. In Eastern European and Middle Eastern countries, the share of those with an unmet need for family planning is about half that of the Georgian percentage.
- ▶ State health programmes in Georgia do not cover the management of post-partum depression.
- ▶ State health programmes in Georgia overlook the broader gender aspects and specific needs of diverse groups, including those of the LGBTQI+ community.

- ▶ The number of registered abortions has declined. However, geographical and financial access to safe abortion services remains a challenge in Georgia, especially for survivors of sexual violence.
- ▶ Despite the overall decline in abortion rates in Georgia, abortion is still seen as a family planning method by the general population. This is due to the lack of available family planning services and information in the country, especially in rural areas, as well as due to the lack of contraception and family planning counselling during abortion procedures.
- ▶ The prevalence of breast and cervical cancer screening has slightly increased but still remains low enough to positively impact cancer morbidity and mortality rates; nearly 40 per cent of cases are diagnosed at later stages.
- ▶ LGBTQI+ individuals in Georgia face barriers when seeking specific medical services. There is an absence of gender-affirming interventions and specific health guidelines for transgender individuals, as well as the lack of specialized programmes designed to meet their unique needs.
- ▶ The perceptions and attitudes of healthcare professionals with regard to identifying and reporting the cases of GBV/VAW remain challenging in the country. Primary healthcare providers are mostly reluctant and lack the capacity to address the (alleged) cases of GBV/VAW, fill in the medical forms and refer cases to the relevant institutions.

6.1 Sexual and reproductive health and rights in Georgia

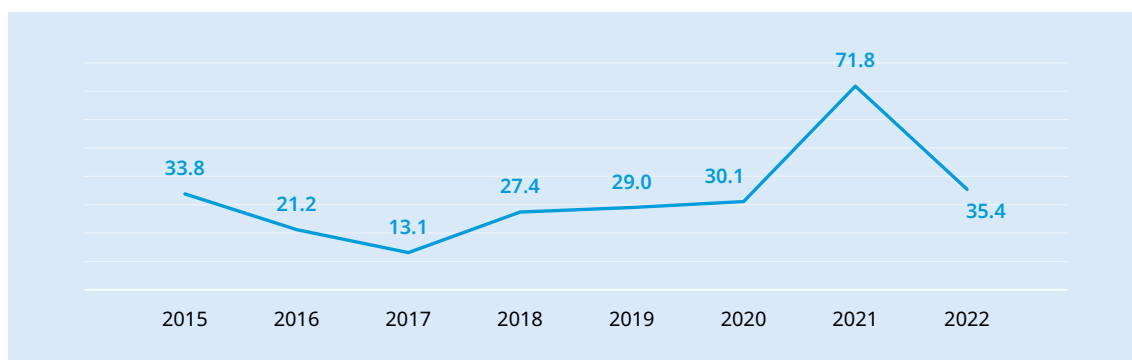
Sexual and reproductive health and rights are crucial aspects of achieving gender equality. The state of women's health in Georgia faces several challenges, particularly in the areas of maternal health, family planning, access to safe abortion services and comprehensive sexuality education. These challenges have significant impacts on the somatic and psychoemotional well-being of women throughout various stages of their lives.

TARGET 3-1



SDG indicator 3.1.1: While there was a significant drop in the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) in 2017, recent trends show an increase. In 2021, the MMR reached 71.8, primarily attributed to COVID-19-related mortality. The following year, in 2022, the MMR was recorded as 35.4 (Figure 6.1),³ which is higher than the regional (Europe and Central Asia) average.⁴

FIGURE 6.1: SDG indicator 3.1.1. Maternal mortality ratio (MMR) per 100,000 live births, 2015–2022



Source: NCDC.

The evidence shows that women in low-income countries have a higher lifetime risk of maternal death. A woman's lifetime risk of maternal death is the probability that a 15-year-old woman will eventually die from a maternal cause. In Georgia, the lifetime risk of maternal death is 1 in 1,900.⁵

Maternal mortality represents one of the most important public health challenges in the country. The high lifetime risk of maternal death puts Georgia among the few countries in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region with rates above the regional average.⁶ Despite improvement, cumulative challenges impede the progress that can be achieved within maternal health in Georgia. The primary reasons for maternal mortality in Georgia are the low quality of antenatal, natal and postnatal care; a weak transport system; a weak regulatory and monitoring system; and referral mechanisms that are still not fully functioning effectively when it comes to maternal healthcare services. The lack of management of post-partum depression and the shortage of trained professionals in maternity units/houses and consultation centres, especially in remote areas, still represent serious challenges for the system. Although improvement to the quality of medical care is part of each facility's licence requirements, regular maternal and perinatal/neonatal critical case 'near-miss' audits, with discussions between the staff caring for mothers and newborns, are not a regular practice at individual facilities. It is clear, however, that auditing maternal and perinatal near-miss cases and linking the results to action has the potential to strengthen capacity to avoid preventable causes of mortality. The lack of continuous medical education poses another important challenge for Georgia. In addition, there is a clear correlation between maternal mortality and morbidity and the socioeconomic status, education and age of mothers. These cumulative challenges are reflected in the high lifetime risk of maternal death, at 1 in 1,900 (in 2017).⁷ Addressing these challenges is vital to promoting the overall well-being of mothers and ensuring a healthier start for newborns.



SDG indicator 3.1.2: According to official data from the NCDC, there has been a general improvement in pregnant women's attendance rate to at least four antenatal care visits in Georgia.⁸ Additionally, the share of those who started receiving timely-initiated antenatal care has progressively increased, from 80 per cent in 2018 to 89.3 per cent in 2022 (Table C.23).

To reduce perinatal mortality and to improve the well-being of pregnant women, the country implemented the Maternal and Child Health Vertical Programme, with eight free antenatal care visits in accordance with WHO recommendations. In 2018, the MoIDPOTLHSA initiated and is implementing the Perinatal and Antenatal Care regionalization programme to ensure the provision of risk-appropriate care to pregnant women. The NCDC reported that the timely initiation of antenatal care increased and reached 89.3 per cent among registered pregnant women during 2022. The share of women who attended at least four antenatal care visits increased during the past decade and reached 86.7 per cent in 2021. Additionally, coverage for at least six antenatal care visits increased from 48.0 per cent in 2018 to 71.8 per cent in 2021. Post-partum care is integrated into the Universal Healthcare Programme; however, it covers only urgent cases and does not include management of post-partum depression.

One of the notable issues is that most state health programmes primarily focus on care for mothers and children, neglecting to address the broader gender aspects and the specific needs of diverse groups, including those of the LGBTQI+ community. This exclusion can result in inadequate healthcare services and support for women who do not fit into traditional gender roles or are part of marginalized communities.

The country also lacks special SRH services for young people that do exist in most European countries, which limits youth access to accurate information and services.

Family planning and contraceptive use remain significant challenges in Georgia.⁹ Despite an increase in awareness of modern contraceptives, their actual utilization remains low. The full integration of family planning services into the primary healthcare sector remains an obstacle in Georgia. Currently, no state funding is allocated for family planning counselling or service delivery, nor are these services included in the State's benefits package or in private insurance schemes. In addition, modern contraceptives are not available to those most in need. Access to family planning services is a challenge; after the termination of a programme supplying donor-supported, free-of-charge contraceptives to the public health system, such provision has not been taken over by the Government.

According to the 2018 MICS data, the unmet need for modern contraceptive methods is 32.6 per cent among women aged 15–44 who are currently married or in a union.¹⁰ In Eastern European and Middle Eastern countries, the share of those with an unmet need for family planning is about half that of the Georgian percentage.¹¹ This high unmet need for family planning is a very common characteristic of Georgian society. What is remarkable is that the percentage of contraceptive users declined in the past eight years. Georgia has the same level of unmet need as Sub-Saharan Africa, and it is far higher than in other developing regions.¹²

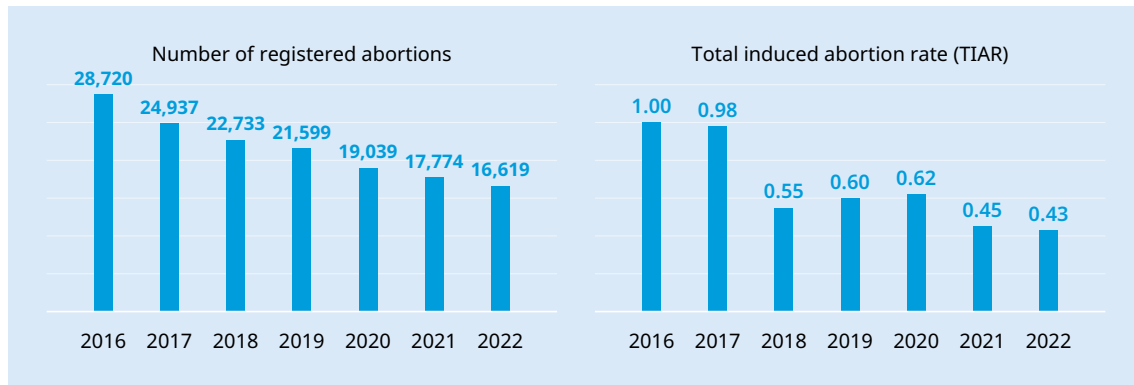
According to the MICS results, the overall contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) was 40.9 per cent among married women and women in a union in Georgia, while 59.1 per cent of women did not use any method of contraception. A CPR of 40.9 per cent is very low in every respect. According to the MICS data, for each contraceptive method, there is a considerable gap between people's awareness of the method and their knowledge of its effectiveness. Problematic perceptions of the methods' effectiveness play an important role in increasing the risk of unplanned pregnancies and abortions.¹³

The MICS data suggest significant discrepancies in the use of contraception across different demographics; for example, urban areas exhibit higher usage rates (37.7 per cent) than rural areas (24.9 per cent). Socioeconomic status also influences usage, with a 19.9 per cent usage rate among the poorest and 41.4 per cent among the wealthiest. The unmet need for modern contraceptives stands at a high of 32.6 per cent as of 2018.¹⁴ Women with disabilities (58.3 per cent) exhibit lower demand for family planning services than women without disabilities (64.6 per cent). Furthermore, among women with a desire for family planning, those with disabilities have a lower likelihood of having their demand met by any such method (31.3 per cent) or by modern methods (26.4 per cent), compared to women without disabilities (41.9 per cent by any method versus 33.4 per cent by modern methods).¹⁵

According to the MICS data, 79.2 per cent of women aged 15–49 make informed decisions on reproductive health care; this rate is significantly lower among the women with an Azerbaijani or Armenian head of household—69.0 per cent and 57.4 per cent, respectively. In addition, among those aged 15–19 who are married or in a union, only 66 per cent answer that they can take such decisions on their own or with their partner.

According to the NCDC, the total number of abortions as well as total induced abortion rate (TIAR) is steadily decreasing (Figure 6.2).¹⁶

FIGURE 6.2: Number of registered abortions and the TIAR, 2016–2022



Source: Geostat.

Source: NCDC.

As the MICS shows, the TIAR in Georgia was 0.9 in 2018; according to the preceding 2010 Georgia Reproductive Health Survey, the TIAR was 3.7 in 1999, 3.1 in 2005 and 1.6 in 2010. Administrative data from NCDC shown in Figure 6.2. shows a bit different picture, but the trend is nevertheless decreasing. The lifetime TIAR is significantly higher among women aged 30 or older, suggesting that most women in Georgia achieve their desired family size before the age of 30, after which they are more likely to end any unplanned pregnancies with an abortion. In the past five years, nearly 37 per cent of women did not receive any family planning counselling services around the time of having an abortion (their latest instance). Only 46 per cent reported receiving a contraceptive method and/or prescription from the doctor after their most recent abortion, to prevent future unintended pregnancies. Furthermore, according to the Georgia Reproductive Health Surveys (1999, 2005, 2010) and the 2018 MICS data, with the increase in the contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR) from 41 to 53 per cent, the TIAR fell sharply from 3.7 in 1999 to 1.6 in 2010 alongside the increase in the total fertility rate (TFR) from 1.7 to 2.0.

Unregulated conscientious objection—without an effective referral system or clear obligations for medical facilities to refer patients to other hospitals—hinders women’s access to safe abortion care, especially for those in rural areas, where relevant medical facilities are especially limited. Thus, such objections create additional financial and psychological burdens for women who seek an abortion.

The PDO underscores the lack of awareness among rural women about abortion services. Furthermore, access to timely abortion services remains problematic for the survivors of sexual violence, as the established requirements by the Government hinder women’s timely access to abortions.¹⁷ While the existing regulations provide a strong basis for respecting a woman’s dignity and her decision, the mandatory five-day waiting period introduced back in 2014, as well as the language in the law prioritizing the fetus, contradicts international health and human rights recommendations.¹⁸

According to a 2022 assessment by Tanadgoma, the level of sexuality education among the population is insufficient. The research showed that women and the younger population (aged 19–35) are more informed about CSE and better understand its importance than men and the older population. Furthermore, according to the research, the attitudes towards this topic are highly polarized, with comprehensive sexuality education facing significant challenges within the education system in Georgia.¹⁹

The healthcare system is one of the most important tiers of the multisectoral response to GBV/VAW/DV. Specifically, the health system and healthcare providers play a critical role in terms of the identification, assessment, treatment, crisis intervention, documentation, referral and follow-up of GBV/VAW/DV cases. Despite significant institutional changes spearheaded with the purpose of strengthening the healthcare system's response to GBV/VAW, the perceptions and attitudes of the primary healthcare professionals create significant barriers to properly identifying and documenting VAW/DV cases and providing services or referring victims of violence to relevant services and state institutions.

The LGBTQI+ community faces further problems in accessing quality health care. The absence of trans-specific health guidelines and programmes tailored to the specific needs of transgender people is a crucial aspect of this problem.²⁰ Moreover, the absence of the practice of legal gender recognition leads to the discriminatory treatment of transgender persons and to restrictions on the enjoyment of their constitutional rights. The issue of legal gender recognition is not legally regulated in Georgia, and the general procedures are unclear and vague. Economic barriers to affording quite expensive medical procedures, such as hormone therapy and/or surgery, coupled with discriminatory treatment in the healthcare system are considerable challenges faced by transgender people. The fear of privacy violations or the expectation of discriminatory treatment is considered a key reason why members of the LGBTQI+ community refuse to use certain services or why they feel forced to hide their identity or orientation.²¹

In Georgia, 127,765 persons with disabilities (3.5 per cent of the total population) are registered as beneficiaries of the state cash assistance programme from the Social Service Agency.²² Specifically, 38 per cent (48,577) of registered persons are women with disabilities, while 17 per cent are women aged 18–49.

Based on a report developed by the PDO in 2022,²³ some positive changes have been made in developing guidelines and protocols as well as by creating some programmes to improve the standards of protection of the rights of persons with disabilities, but the State still lacks a systemic vision of how to improve the protection of the rights of women and girls with disabilities in all areas of life, including when it comes to their sexual and reproductive health and rights.

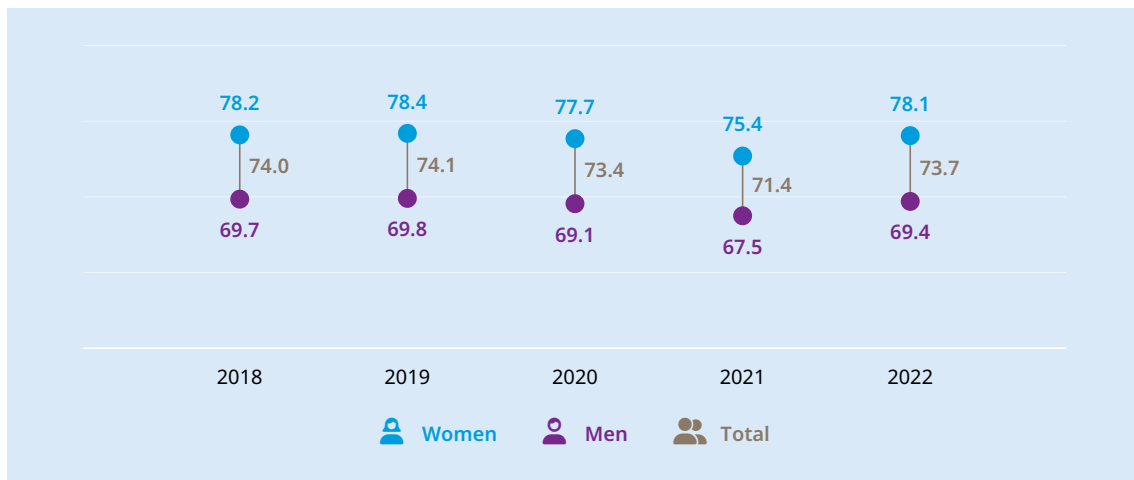
The main problems include the issue of access to health services and information, stigma and low qualification of medical staff, and non-compliance with the obligation of reasonable accommodation.²⁴ Along with the access to the physical environment, access to medical manipulations is also complicated. Unadapted gynaecological chairs present a particular problem in this respect. The discriminatory and stereotypical attitudes of some doctors also create a barrier to receiving gynaecological services.

The PDO report identifies women with mental health problems living in psychiatric inpatient facilities and women living in residential institutions for persons with disabilities as the most discriminated groups in terms of access to sexual and reproductive health, rights and information.

6.2 General health

Over the past five years, the average life expectancy at birth has shown fluctuations ranging from 71.4 to 74 years. The lowest life expectancy of 71.4 years was observed in 2021, which can be attributed to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. In 2022, the average life expectancy increased to 73.7 years, with women having a higher life expectancy (78.1 years) than men (69.4 years) (Figure 6.3).²⁵

FIGURE 6.3: Average life expectancy, by sex

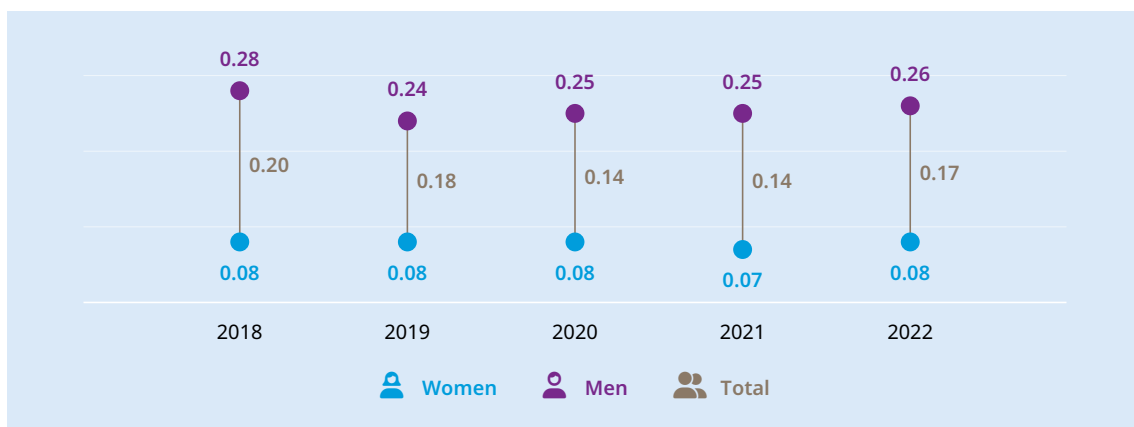


Source: Geostat.



SDG indicator 3.3.1: The prevalence of HIV has slightly increased compared to the previous two years. In 2022, the prevalence of HIV per 1,000 uninfected population was 0.17, while in 2020 and 2021, it was 0.14. The prevalence of HIV remains higher among male (0.26 in 2022) than female (0.08 in 2022) populations (Figure 6.4).

FIGURE 6.4: SDG indicator 3.3.1. HIV prevalence per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex (percentage)

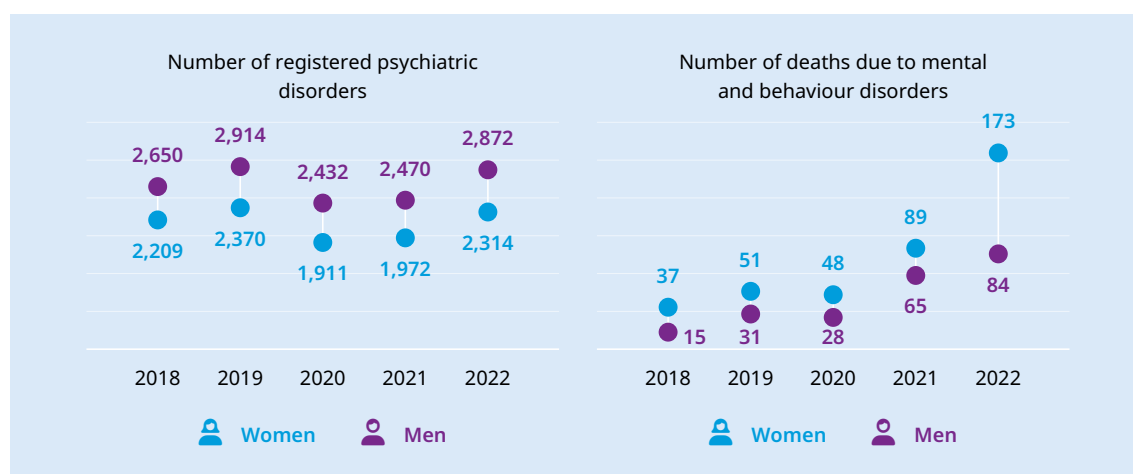


Source: NCDC.

In terms of vaccination, a pilot project to introduce the HPV (human papillomavirus) vaccine to Georgia launched in December 2017 in three territories (Adjara, Tbilisi and Kutaisi) with the goal of preventing cervical cancer. The target group consisted of girls at least 9 years of age or older. HPV vaccination was then included in the National Immunization Calendar for girls aged 10–12 starting in September 2019. In 2023, 'catch-up' vaccination was extended to girls and women aged 13–26 and was also included in the National Immunization Calendar for boys aged 10–12. Vaccinations are provided free of charge through primary healthcare clinics using a two-dose vaccine. The rate of uptake for the HPV2 vaccine was 24 per cent in 2021.²⁶

According to the 2022 report by the PDO, protecting the rights of individuals with mental health problems continues to be a significant challenge. The implementation of the mental health strategy and the quality of services remain problematic.²⁷ Official administrative data indicate that more men than women tend to be assessed for and diagnosed with a psychiatric disorder (i.e. registered cases of psychiatric disorders). However, mortality rates associated with mental disorders are higher among women (Figure 6.5), indicating that there might be underreporting of mental health issues among women and highlighting the importance of quality and accessible mental health care for everyone (Table C.24).

FIGURE 6.5: Number of registered cases of psychiatric disorders and deaths due to mental and behaviour disorders, by sex



Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

Note: See Table C.24.

Among various demographic groups, young people are particularly vulnerable when it comes to mental health issues. A recent UNICEF study²⁸ revealed that female university students 18–24 years of age tend to experience anxiety and symptoms of depression more intensely than their male counterparts. The study also highlighted that female students have suicidal thoughts more frequently than male students. Overall, 33 per cent of 18–24-year-old students have contemplated suicide at least once in their lives. The study found that in general, students rarely discuss their feelings or experiences related to mental health with anyone, while women are more likely to talk to someone about their mental health. Moreover, boys tend to speak more often to specialists and medical personnel, while girls confide more in their parents and friends. Additionally, the study revealed a lack of awareness among youths regarding mental health services and programmes. A majority of students have no information about state or private services and programmes, and a significant portion cannot recall the name of any specific service, programme or clinic.

Another of the most vulnerable groups in terms of mental health is the LGBTQI+ community. A PDO study on LGBTQI+ rights in 2021 showed that 43.1 per cent of respondents reported experiencing mental health issues such as depression, anxiety disorders, PTSD and substance dependency, attributed to factors like stigma related to sexual orientation or gender identity, discriminatory practices and the stress of non-acceptance.²⁹ Various studies indicate that the LGBTQI+ community faces multiple mental health challenges due to social vulnerability. Addressing these problems requires more than just an individual or medical approach, as the underlying factors stem from a harsh social context, inequality and stigma that subject LGBTQI+ individuals to ongoing tensions and stress.³⁰

Within the healthcare sector, one major challenge is the lack of attention to the needs of transgender individuals by the State. The provision of trans-specific health care is crucial not only for ensuring healthcare rights but also for respecting the private and family lives of transgender people.³¹

Recommendations:

- Further develop and implement programmes and guidance that ensure the timely detection of high-risk pregnant women, and ensure proper referrals to the appropriate levels of care, information-sharing and feedback between the various levels of care.
- Enhance the integration of post-partum medical care, including management of post-partum depression, into the Universal Healthcare Programme as part of primary healthcare services. Providing comprehensive care during and after pregnancy is essential for ensuring the well-being of mothers and newborns. Promote the roll-out of the routine use of the 'near-miss case reviews' practice throughout the country, with an overall aim targeted at reducing maternal mortality and morbidity.
- Ensure the seamless integration of family planning services into primary health care, and improve access to family planning services and information about contraceptives, particularly in rural areas. Empowering women with knowledge and resources will enable them to make informed choices about their reproductive health.
- Envisage the allocation of state funds for the free provision of contraceptive supplies to selected groups of beneficiaries, including youths.
- Aim to improve the population's knowledge and practice of family planning methods, including the implementation of proper post-abortion counselling on family planning, in order to substitute induced abortions with modern family planning methods and thus contribute to a reduction in maternal mortality and morbidity, including secondary infertility. Eliminate mandatory waiting periods for abortion services, and ensure that any counselling provided to women is evidence based and non-directive.
- Support the 'triple elimination initiative' by developing and implementing an action plan to eliminate mother-to-child transmission (EMTCT) of HIV, syphilis and hepatitis B virus (HBV). The focus should be on integrated service delivery; prompt and efficacious interventions to treat women who test positive and to prevent transmission of the infection(s) to their child(ren); and improvement of the quality of counselling for women and their partners to reduce transmission risk and ensure appropriate treatment.

- Introduce clear and accessible legal gender recognition procedures that do not require unnecessary medical interventions, and ensure universal healthcare coverage for essential medications and hormonal treatments needed by LGBTQI+ individuals. Develop specialized healthcare programmes that cater to the specific needs of transgender people and address discriminatory practices within the healthcare system.
- Implement gender-inclusive health programmes that include psychological health and cater to the specific needs of diverse groups, including youths, women and youths with disabilities, rural women and the LGBTQI+ community. These programmes should promote equitable access to quality health care and mental healthcare services for all individuals, regardless of their gender identity or orientation.
- Strengthen the healthcare system's response to GBV/VAW by integrating extensive trainings targeting the perceptions and attitudes of medical professionals and by implementing supportive supervision to enable primary healthcare providers to better identify, document and refer cases of GBV/VAW to relevant services.
- Revise the National Curriculum and relevant subject standards to extensively cover the missing CSE topics as per UNESCO technical guidelines, and empower young girls with knowledge about their bodies and relationships.
- Prioritize mental health in policy and resource allocation, and strengthen the implementation of the mental health strategy considering the gender differences and need for accessible and quality mental healthcare services for all.

7

Violence against women and girls and harmful practices





Key takeaways:

- ▶ During the past decade, the Georgian Government took significant steps to improve laws and policies around VAWG. However, sensitizing the justice system, implementing sufficient perpetrator behavioural correction programmes and providing long-term support for all VAWG victims, including women with disabilities and LGBTQI+ people, remain challenges.
- ▶ The nationwide data on violence against women in Georgia reveal that every second woman aged 15–69 has experienced violence in her lifetime, with 18.2 per cent reporting such experiences within the preceding 12 months.
- ▶ Sexual harassment is highly prevalent in Georgia, with almost every fourth woman (24.5 per cent) in the country having experienced sexual harassment at some point in her lifetime and two in five (41 per cent) female civil servants having experienced workplace sexual harassment.
- ▶ The prevalence of child marriages in Georgia is high, with the act of getting engaged playing a significant role as the first step towards marriage, specifically among ethnic minority populations . There is a gap in implementing a multisectoral and coordinated approach by the state institutions to effectively prevent and rapidly address the cases of child marriage.
- ▶ In Georgia, son preference remains a harmful practice deeply entrenched throughout the country, with higher prevalence among certain geographical areas, social-economic groups and rural settlements, perpetuating gender inequality and presenting significant challenges for women and girls.

7.1 Legislation, policy and response mechanisms to prevent and address violence against women

A foundational step in Georgia's efforts to combat violence against women and girls (VAWG) was the adoption of a national law on domestic violence in 2006.¹ Since then, the country has made remarkable strides in refining legislative responses and implementing social protection mechanisms to counter these pervasive issues.

The year 2017 marked a substantial advancement when the Government of Georgia ratified the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (Istanbul Convention),² a pivotal international treaty aimed at preventing and combating VAWG. In 2018, the Parliament of Georgia adopted changes to the Criminal Code of Georgia, adding gender-based and family-member killing, as well as driving one to commit suicide, as aggravating circumstances of the crime, which was a crucial aspect of responding to the high rate of femicide in the country.

In 2019, Georgia continued its efforts to address GBV by enacting a bill on sexual harassment. This legislative milestone led to corresponding amendments to the Labour Code and the Code of Administrative Offences, creating safer working environments and holding perpetrators of sexual harassment accountable. Importantly, in 2022, the Government of Georgia adopted the National Action Plan on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence for 2022–2024, outlining vital measures for prevention, victim protection and assistance. In November 2022, a regulation on issuing compensation to the victims/survivors of violence against women and/or domestic violence was adopted.³ As a result, a victim/survivor of violence is authorized to receive compensation from the State in the maximum amount of GEL 10,000 in the event that the compensation for the damages is not paid by the abuser. Moreover, in December 2022, a bill to increase access to VAWG/DV services for survivors of violence was adopted. The bill implies the removal of the legal eligibility requirements for accessing state-run shelters, thereby allowing any woman seeking shelter to go directly to a crisis centre, where a group of specialists will immediately determine the specific services needed in each individual case.

Also in 2022, with UNICEF support, the first Centre for Psychological and Social Services for Children Victims of Violence (Barnahus) was opened in Georgia. This centre is designed to provide specialized care for children who have experienced sexual violence or abuse, addressing their distinctive needs. The centre protects children from potential retraumatization by integrating investigative actions and rehabilitation services in a unified space.

Irrespective of these positive developments, Georgian legislation still does not fully comply with the Istanbul Convention, particularly concerning the definition of sexual violence, which currently lacks a consent component. Furthermore, issues related to the remote interrogation of victims and the absence of provisions for holding or temporarily removing the accused from the courtroom pose significant obstacles to ensuring justice and protection for victims. Acceptance of the video recording of a victim's interview is a challenge as well. When a child victim of sexual violence is interviewed at the Barnahus, for example, it is recorded to be used as evidence in the criminal case to avoid repetitive interviewing of a child, which is traumatizing. However, judges are reluctant to accept the recording as evidence; for them to do so, it would require legal amendments.

To address VAW cases, Georgia has established the unified emergency number '112', complemented by a mobile app with an SOS function; the '116 006' consultancy hotline, which is offered in multiple languages; and the child helpline '111', which has been strengthened to receive calls from children regarding violence and other violations of child rights. The 112 mobile app also includes information about child marriage and allows adolescents to use the SOS function in the event of a threat. Additionally, the country has successfully set up state-run shelters and crisis centres that provide round-the-clock accommodation as well as legal, psychological and medical assistance to survivors. Georgia currently has a total of five state-supported shelters, along with seven state-supported crisis centres.⁴ Despite adhering to specific guidelines and maintaining well-trained staff, these facilities fall short of meeting the standards set forth by the Istanbul Convention, which recommends having one place in a shelter or crisis centre for every 10,000 residents.⁵



In 2018, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia took a significant step by establishing the Human Rights Protection and Investigation Quality Monitoring Department, focusing on accountability and adherence to legal measures in combating VAWG. The establishment of a risk assessment methodology, the revision of the procedures to issue restrictive orders, and the introduction of an electronic surveillance mechanism were among other positive steps. Since 2018, specialized prosecutors have been assigned to domestic violence cases. Importantly, in order to enhance access to justice for sexual violence victims, specialized prosecutors were assigned to sexual violence crimes from 2021 as well. However, certain challenges hinder the effectiveness of witness and victim coordinators, including a busy work schedule and the geographical spread of domestic violence cases.⁶ Simultaneously, the Legal Aid Service in Georgia is crucial in providing free legal aid to survivors of domestic violence, ensuring access to justice through legal consultations, assistance with documents and court representation. However, it is important to note that currently, this provision is limited to victims of domestic violence, and victims of violence against women are not covered.⁷

One of the most important achievements was, with the support of UNICEF and the Government of Estonia, the establishment of Barnahus in Tbilisi—the Centre for Psychological and Social Services for Children Victims of Violence. The centre provides a multidisciplinary approach and services to respond to the special needs of children who have been subjected to sexual violence, preventing their retraumatization.

Furthermore, to comply with the requirements of the Istanbul Convention, the Ministry of Justice has implemented a specialized programme on perpetrator behavioural correction, implemented through probation services since 2015 and in two correctional facilities since 2019. However, the number of available places for perpetrators under this programme remains exceedingly low. Georgia lacks sufficient perpetrator behavioural correction programmes for those involved in violence against women and domestic violence.⁸

7.2 Prevalence of violence against women in Georgia

The second nationwide survey on violence against women conducted by Geostat and UN Women in 2022 indicates that VAWG remains a critical problem in Georgia. The data reveal that every second woman (50.1 per cent) aged 15–69 in Georgia has experienced violence in her lifetime (18.2 per cent within the preceding 12 months). In addition, 8.5 per cent of women had experienced child sexual abuse and 19.7 per cent had experienced physical and/or emotional abuse as children before the age of 18 (Table C.25).⁹

TARGET 16-1		SDG indicator 16.1.3: In Georgia, 18.2 per cent of women aged 15–69 were subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months.
TARGET 16-2		SDG indicator 16.2.3: In Georgia, 15.7 per cent of young women aged 18–29 had experienced sexual violence by age 18.

The survey showed that 26.5 per cent of ever-partnered women have ever experienced intimate partner violence (IPV) by a male partner (i.e. one or more of the four different types of IPV: physical, sexual, psychological and/or economic violence) in their lifetime. More specifically, 7.7 per cent of ever-partnered women have ever experienced physical and/or sexual IPV, and 24.6 per cent have ever experienced physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV. In particular, 5.9 per cent have ever experienced physical violence, and 3.5 per cent have ever experienced sexual violence. In line with the Eurostat definition, psychological violence combines emotional abuse and controlling behaviours. In total, 23.7 per cent of women have experienced psychological violence, with 12.6 per cent having experienced emotional abuse and 18.8 per cent having experienced controlling behaviour. Moreover, 8.4 per cent of ever-partnered women have ever experienced economic violence.¹⁰


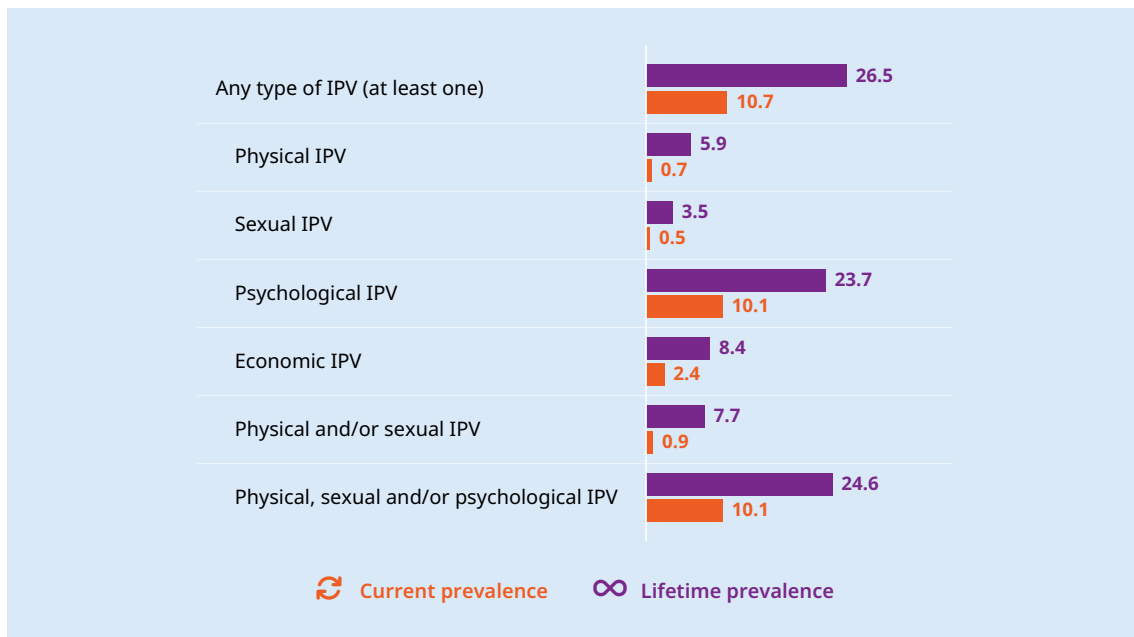
TARGET 5-2		SDG indicator 5.2.1: In 2022, 10.1 per cent of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 and older had been subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months (Figure 7.1 and Table C.25).
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FIGURE 7.1: SDG indicator 5.2.1. Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence (percentage)



Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

Note: See Table C.25.

A higher level of IPV is associated with lower levels of education, child marriage, poorer household economy, alcohol consumption, childhood experience of domestic violence, and living in Tbilisi (Table C.26).¹¹

Every fifth (19.1 per cent) woman who experienced physical and/or sexual violence by her intimate partner was injured in the encounter. Despite the seriousness of this issue, VAW is underreported in Georgia: 38.2 per cent of women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV have not shared their stories with anyone—even with family members and friends. Only one in five (22.8 per cent) women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV sought help from a formal organization or agency. Moreover, only 11.8 per cent of women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV sought help from the police, 8.0 per cent told a religious leader, and 5.1 per cent told a health worker.¹²

Analysis of official data from various agencies indicates fluctuations in different aspects of domestic violence and VAW-related cases and the responses over the past six years. Notably, there has been a decline in the issuance of restraining and protective orders in the past two years (Figure 7.2).

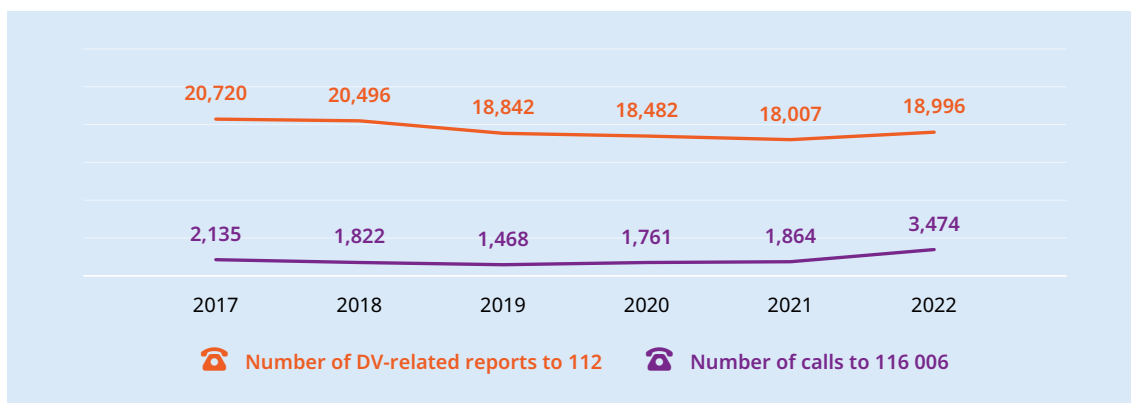
FIGURE 7.2: Number of issued restraining and protective orders, 2017–2022



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs; Supreme Court of Georgia.

Reports of DV cases through the ‘112’ service have showed a decline since 2017, with a slight increase in 2022 (18,996 reports). Interestingly, the number of calls to the hotline ‘116 006’ has steadily increased over the years, experiencing a significant surge in 2022 (3,474 calls) (Figure 7.3). This increase contrasts with the survey data provided above, which show a substantial (26.7 percentage point) decrease in hotline awareness in 2022.

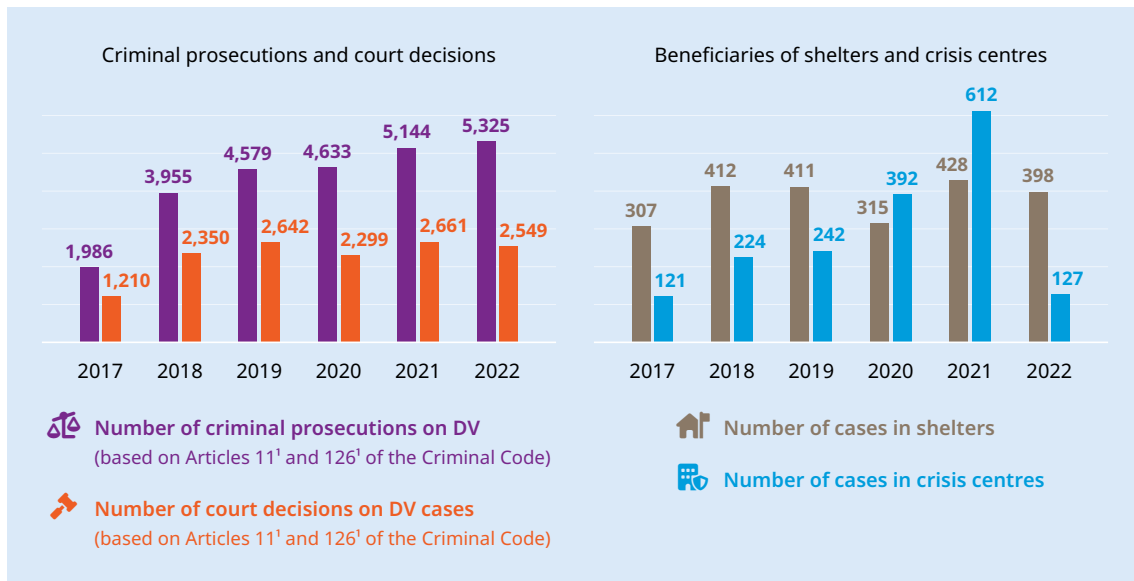
FIGURE 7.3: Number of DV-related reports to 112 and calls to 116 006



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs; ATIPfund.

The number of criminal prosecutions related to violence against women and domestic violence (VAW/ DV), as well as court decisions based on Articles 11¹ and 126¹ of the Criminal Code, has risen over the years.¹³ The number of beneficiaries in shelters and especially in crisis centres decreased in 2022 (Figure 7.4).

FIGURE 7.4: Number of VAW/DV-related criminal prosecutions, court decisions and beneficiaries in shelters and crisis centres



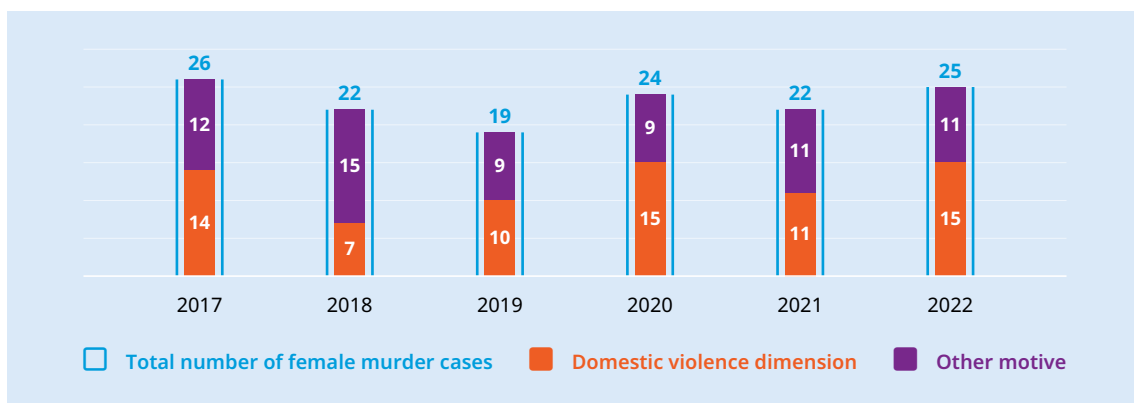
Source: Prosecutor's Office; Supreme Court of Georgia.

Source: ATIPfund.

TARGET 16-1

SDG indicator 16.1.1: In 2022, the rate of women victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 women was 0.59. According to the PDO, 22 women were killed in 2021 and 25 in 2022, and more than half of these cases have a domestic violence dimension (Figure 7.5 and Table C.27).

FIGURE 7.5: Number of female murder cases, by motive of killing, 2017–2022



Source: PDO.

Note: See Table C.27.



Related to SDG indicator 5.2.2: In 2022, almost every fourth (24.5 per cent) woman had experienced **sexual harassment** and 8.5 per cent of women had experienced **stalking** at some point in their lifetime.¹⁴

A higher level of sexual harassment and stalking is associated with younger age and living in Tbilisi. In the majority of cases, sexual harassment occurred on the street or in an alley (41.2 per cent) or in public transport (28.0 per cent), while fewer instances occurred at school or university (11.3 per cent) or in the workplace (7.9 per cent).¹⁵

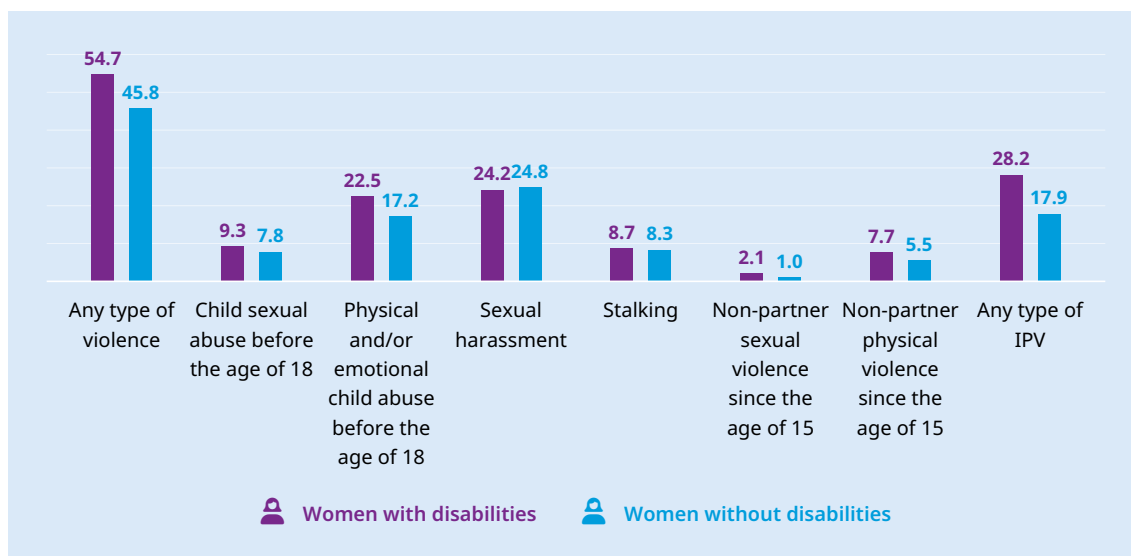
Moreover, a 2021 study conducted by UN Women and the Civil Service Bureau highlights the critical issue of sexual harassment in the workplace among civil servants. The findings reveal that approximately one third (34 per cent) of civil servants—and an even greater share of female civil servants (41 per cent)—reported experiencing sexual harassment at work. Women and younger civil servants, especially those under the age of 35, are more vulnerable to such harassment, with older male colleagues being the primary perpetrators. The study further indicates that women often face multiple forms of sexual harassment, and verbal and non-verbal cues are the most prevalent types in the civil service, often occurring in less formal situations like business trips and team-building activities.¹⁶

Sexual harassment often occurs through the use of technology. Specifically, 7.2 per cent of women reported that someone made inappropriate sexual advances to them on social networking websites, such as Facebook, WhatsApp or Viber, that made them feel uncomfortable or that they found offensive. Moreover, 3.8 per cent reported that someone sent them offensive or unwanted sexually explicit emails or SMS text messages, and 3.4 per cent said that someone sent or showed them sexually explicit or pornographic photos or videos that made them feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended.

Furthermore, the survey identified that 0.5 per cent of women reported experiencing online sexual coercion and extortion at some point in their lifetime, with 0.1 per cent experiencing it within the past 12 months. This includes instances where individuals were pressured to send, share or post sexually suggestive or explicit content and where someone posted, distributed or threatened to post or distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of women without their consent. The study highlights the emerging threat of online violence against women as digital platforms become more widely used. However, in Georgia, comprehensive data on technology-facilitated violence against women are not yet available.¹⁷

Women with disabilities are more likely to experience violence during their lifetime (54.7 per cent) than women without disabilities (45.8 per cent) (Figure 7.6). Women who reported any kind of disability (indicating “some difficulty”, “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all” in their functionality) are more likely to have experienced various forms of violence.

FIGURE 7.6: Percentage of women with and without disabilities, by type of experienced lifetime violence, 2022



Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

The PDO has identified significant challenges faced by women and girls with disabilities and psychosocial needs in accessing justice. These obstacles include physical barriers and the presence of stereotypical attitudes among law enforcement personnel. Furthermore, there is a lack of understanding among law enforcement regarding the complexities involved in violence cases against women with disabilities.¹⁸

Violence against women in politics is prevalent in Georgia (see Chapter 8 for more detailed information). Women who decide to pursue a career in politics often face an alarming level of violence and harassment, especially online. A survey of women in politics revealed that more than half of the respondents (54 per cent) have experienced some form of harassment or violence during their tenure as an appointed official or during their pre-election campaign.¹⁹ Furthermore, social media analysis of majoritarian candidates’ Facebook pages during the parliamentary elections showed that women received an overwhelming 40 per cent of the comments classified as abusive, despite comprising only 22 per cent of the monitored profiles. These derogatory comments frequently demanded that women conform to traditional gender roles by staying at home and taking care of their children or implied that their success was the result of personal or sexual relationships with influential men.²⁰

Ethnic minorities, refugees and asylum seekers, the LGBTQI+ community and sex workers are at greater risk of violence but at the same time face additional barriers to reporting. The fact that sex work is considered an administrative offence in Georgia creates a barrier for these women to self-identify as victims of violence. The fear of legal repercussions by law enforcement agencies further hinders their willingness to report violence and seek assistance.²¹ A lack of trust in law enforcement agencies and the risk of forced outing or victimization deter LGBTQI+ individuals from seeking help and accessing support services.²² Ethnic minority women encounter difficulties in accessing information and services to report violence due to language barriers and other social and economic challenges. Culturally sensitive support programmes and multilingual resources are essential for bridging these gaps and ensuring that all survivors of violence receive the necessary assistance, regardless of their ethnic background. Additionally, refugees and asylum seekers in Georgia face unique challenges in

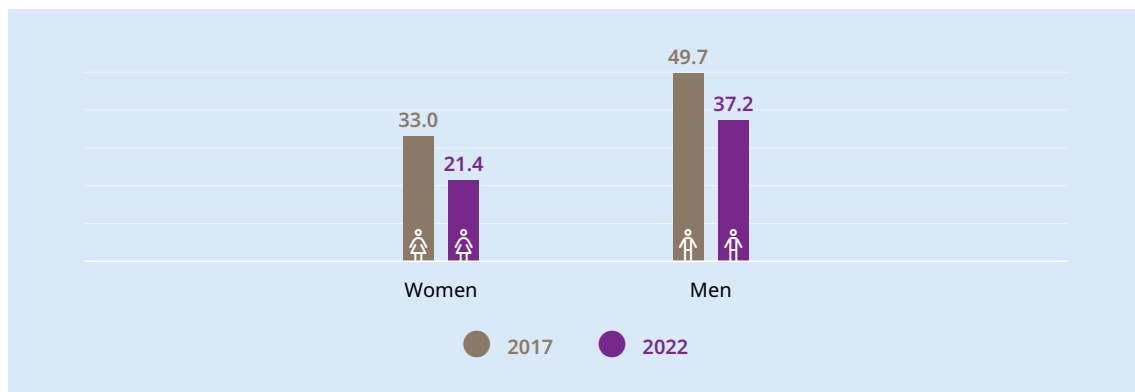
reporting violence. The lack of gender-sensitive approaches in state actions and the limited access to information contribute to underreporting and a lack of appropriate support and protection. It is crucial to provide these vulnerable groups with comprehensive information about their rights and available support services to ensure their safety and well-being.²³

7.3 Public attitudes and knowledge about VAWG

The results of the 2022 nationwide VAW survey indicate that despite some positive changes, perceptions of gender norms largely remain traditional. A significant majority of men (74.7 per cent) and women (59.9 per cent) still believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family, while 77.6 per cent of men and 55.1 per cent of women think that men should control and preside over the household. The data showed that older-aged individuals, people with lower levels of education and those living in rural areas are more likely to hold traditional perceptions of gender norms than other groups in Georgian society.²⁴

However, the 2022 VAW study also revealed a significant change in the attitudes of Georgian women and men towards IPV. For instance, in 2022, approximately one fifth of women and one third of men believed that IPV is a private matter and that others should not intervene. This marks a significant decrease in agreement with VAW-supporting opinions compared to 2017, when the national study on VAW was first conducted (Figure 7.7).²⁵ The 2022 study demonstrated that men are more likely than women to endorse attitudes condoning violence. Additionally, older-aged individuals, those with lower levels of education and those living in rural areas exhibited a higher tendency to support such violence-condoning attitudes than other demographic groups.²⁶

FIGURE 7.7: Proportion of people who think that IPV is a private matter and that others should not intervene, by sex, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



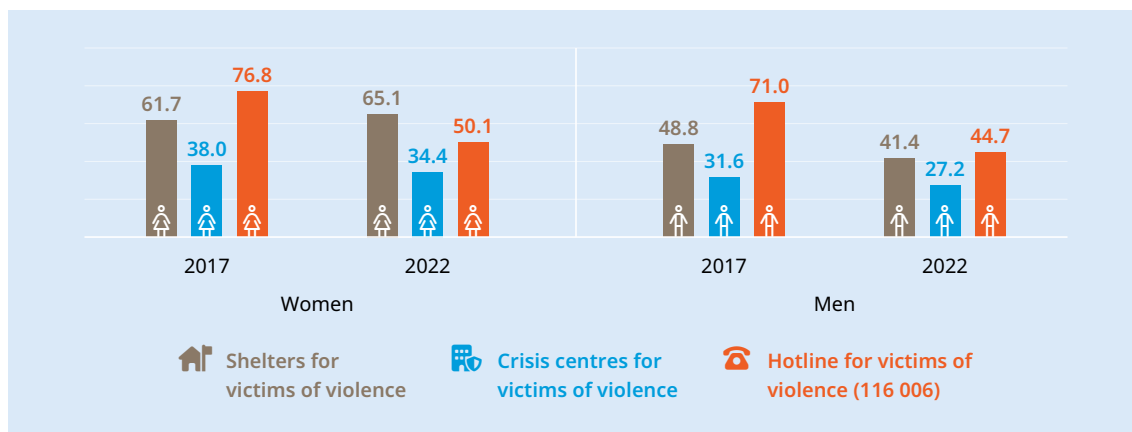
Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

Notably, the 2022 study found that the share of women (1.8 per cent) and men (3.8 per cent) who believed that there are justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife has dramatically decreased since 2017 (22.0 per cent of women and 31.1 per cent of men, respectively).

In terms of society’s attitudes towards the LGBTQI+ community, the latest study indicates a general shift towards less traditional views on gender roles and equality issues among the Georgian public, especially among younger generations, which might also be associated with the observed decrease in homophobia, biphobia and transphobia incidences between 2016 and 2021.²⁷

According to the 2022 VAW study, women are more aware of existing services like shelters and crisis centres. However, the overall level of awareness decreased in 2022 compared to 2017, as depicted in Figure 7.8.

FIGURE 7.8: Awareness of VAW services, by sex, 2017 and 2022 (percentage of the population)



Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

Note: Related to the Objective 1.1 indicators of the 2022–2024 NAP on VAW/DV.

7.4 Harmful practices: Child marriages and son preference in Georgia

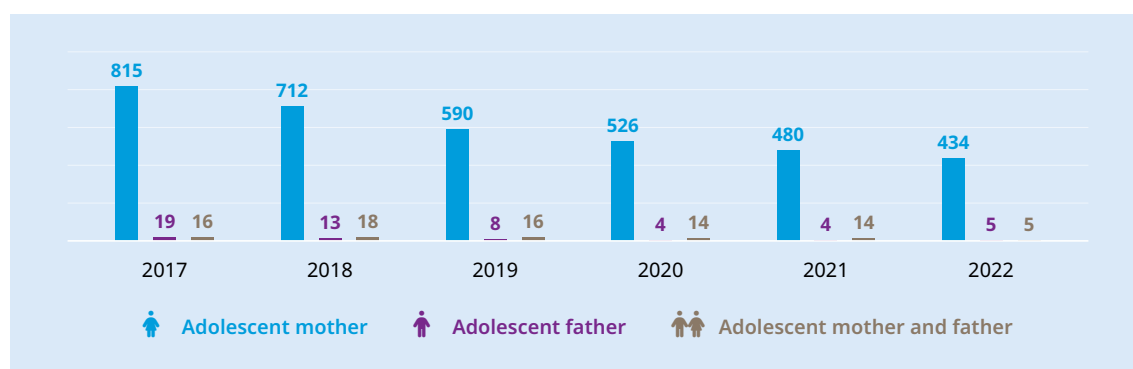
The elimination of the harmful practice of child marriage is a nationalized target under SDG 5 of Georgia (country-specific SDG Target 5.3).²⁸ In 2022, the Parliament of Georgia approved the National Strategy for the Protection of Human Rights.²⁹ Among other priority areas, the gender equality chapter of the document explicitly declares the Government’s commitment to invest in the elimination of harmful practices. The Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia, the Prosecutor’s Office of Georgia, ATIPfund and other state institutions have declared their readiness to implement measures for the prevention of and response to the harmful practice of child marriage, engage in refining the regulatory framework, and lead awareness-raising campaigns on the issue.

Despite the efforts made thus far, **child marriage** remains a significant problem in Georgia, with the prevalence rate holding at 13.9 per cent.³⁰ Public awareness of the harmful consequences of child marriage remains low, contributing to underreporting and limited intervention. Due to these societal gaps, many cases go unreported to the police or relevant government agencies, resulting in a lack of appropriate support and protection for the affected individuals. Qualitative research conducted by the PDO in cooperation with the NGO Center of Development and Democracy identified a dire need for an enhanced multisectoral response and coordinated action among the state institutions to ensure the elimination of harmful practices in the country.³¹ The report declared it a necessity to elaborate Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) for each state institution mandated to respond against child marriage, vis-à-vis the need to implement extensive training sessions for the first responders of the harmful practice and to refine internal procedures for the investigation of the (alleged) cases and adjudication of the perpetrators.

In 2022, the Ministry of Internal Affairs conducted 171 investigations on child marriage cases,³² and the Prosecutor’s Office of Georgia initiated 95 criminal prosecutions against individuals involved in marriage with minors, under Articles 140, 143 and 1501 of the Criminal Code.³³ Furthermore, during the same year, there were 815 registered adolescent pregnancies³⁴ and 434 registered adolescent mothers.³⁵ These data can be explained by the lack of SRHR education and could potentially indicate that despite early marriage being illegal before the age of 18, and therefore not officially registered as child marriages, the harmful practice of child marriage continues unofficially.

Notably, the lack of SRHR education and the practice of child marriage disproportionately affect girls, as evidenced by the data on registered adolescent parents, indicating that girls are more frequently involved in marriages before the age of 18 than boys. This is evident through the significant discrepancy between the number of registered adolescent girls and boys as parents,³⁶ as shown in Figure 7.9.

FIGURE 7.9: Number of registered adolescent parents

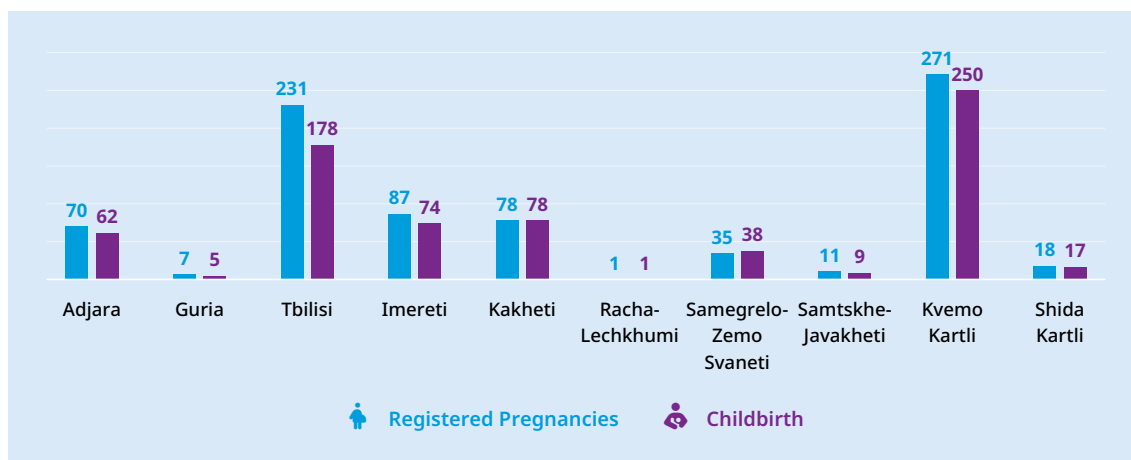


Source: Public Service Development Agency.

The data show a significant decrease in the number of registered adolescent parents between 2017 and 2022. However, it is essential to avoid misinterpreting this decline as a reduction in child marriage cases. According to the PDO report, the number of ATIPfund investigation cases related to child marriages and appeals concerning potential child marriage cases actually increased substantially in 2022.³⁷

Adolescent pregnancy is another proxy indicator of child marriage that remains a pressing issue in Georgia, particularly in regions inhabited by ethnic minorities, where deeply entrenched traditional beliefs and practices continue to perpetuate this problem. The adolescent pregnancy rate per 1,000 women (31.0 in 2020; 29.4 in 2021) and the adolescent birth rate (27.3 in 2020; 24.8 in 2021) in the country have decreased moderately (age group 15–19); however, the total induced abortion rate (TIAR) for the same age group has increased and constituted 4.6 in 2021³⁸ (up from 3.9 in 2020³⁹). According to the MoIDPOTLHSA data, the highest numbers of registered adolescent pregnancies and childbirths are shown in the region of Kvemo Kartli, where ethnic minorities represent a significant portion of the population, and in Tbilisi (Figure 7.10).

FIGURE 7.10: Number of registered adolescent pregnancies and adolescent childbirths, by region, 2022



Source: MoIDPOTLHSA.

The process of identifying cases of child marriages and ensuring the appropriate referral of victims to support services remains problematic. The responsible parties for referrals, as defined by legislation, are not consistently identified or fully engaged in many instances. This lack of clarity and adherence to established procedures can hinder timely and effective support for the victims. Therefore, one of the critical aspects of addressing child marriages is enhancing the knowledge and awareness of relevant specialists, especially teachers, who play a pivotal role in early detection and intervention. Equipping them with proper information and tools to identify potential cases and initiate appropriate responses is essential for safeguarding the well-being of children and ensuring that their rights are protected.⁴⁰

In Georgia, **son preference over daughters**, translated into the practice of gender-biased sex selection, remains a harmful practice deeply entrenched throughout the country, with higher prevalence among certain geographical areas, social-economic groups and rural settlements, perpetuating gender inequality and presenting significant challenges for women and girls. Son preference is a social and gendered norm, a product of discriminatory stereotypes that assign and reinforce a higher social status to men and boys, which results in discrimination against women and girls. Disturbingly, since the 1990s, existing son preference coupled with social-economic factors resulted in an increased imbalance of the male-to-female sex ratio at birth (SRB). This concerning trend is supported by data, such as the observation that for every 100 girls born in 2004, 114.9 boys were born, signifying a significant deviation from the expected norm.⁴¹ In the long term, this practice has consequences for women and girls by further perpetuating the undervaluing of girls and affects social, economic and population dynamics, such as an overabundance of men and a reduced cohort of reproductive-age women. Since 2015, there has been a positive reduction in the national SRB rates, mostly related to the combination of socioeconomic factors—namely, the gradual departure from rigid gender biases towards more equitable gender norms, overall improvement of the socioeconomic conditions, strengthened state institutions and increased female economic empowerment (outside of the agriculture sector).⁴² While improvements have been noticed since 2015, prevailing son preference still persists prominently in some geographical regions, including Kakheti, Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti, all of which are populated by ethnic minority groups.⁴³

Recommendations:

- Amend legislation to fully comply with the Istanbul Convention, in particular by:
 - Incorporating a consent component into the definition of sexual violence.
 - Introducing provisions for the remote interrogation of victims and the temporary removal of the accused from the courtroom to protect the safety and well-being of survivors.
 - Revising the provision for free legal assistance to include victims of violence against women, thereby ensuring equal access to justice and comprehensive protection for all survivors.
- Develop clear guidelines and training programmes for law enforcement and judicial authorities with a special focus on interacting with victims of VAW, especially with women with disabilities and LGBTQI+ individuals, to increase their sensitivity towards VAW issues and prevent secondary victimization.
- Launch targeted public awareness-raising campaigns to inform citizens, especially for those in rural areas and conflict-affected regions, ethnic minorities, asylum seekers, refugees and individuals with disabilities, about existing protection mechanisms and regulations.
- Establish a comprehensive national strategy to prevent femicide and GBV, incorporating preventive measures, early warning systems and community engagement.
- Strengthen support for survivors by providing long-term assistance, empowerment programmes and access to economic opportunities.
- Address the needs of women with disabilities, and improve sensitivity towards LGBTQI+ individuals in the response system. Develop tailored support programmes for women involved in sex work to ensure that they can access justice and assistance.
- Develop mandatory behavioural correction programmes specifically designed for perpetrators of violence against women and domestic violence, particularly those who have had restraining or protective orders issued against them.
- Implement a multisectoral approach to combat child marriages, involving government agencies, civil society and community leaders. Develop mechanisms (SOPs) for identifying and addressing coercion in child marriage cases to protect minors effectively.
- Introduce legislative amendments to cover any possible aspect of the harmful practice of child marriage, including but not limited to abolishing the practice of engagement, reconsidering the practice of plea bargaining, and safeguarding girls aged 16–18.
- Raise the awareness of the population on the legislative framework on child marriage, and lead a comprehensive communication campaign on the detrimental consequences of this harmful practice.
- Develop and implement a training curriculum for the first responders of the cases of child marriage, including but not limited to teachers, principals, social workers, police officers and prosecutors.
- Address the harmful practice of son preference and its associated gender imbalances by implementing comprehensive awareness-raising campaigns and educational programmes focused on addressing discriminatory social norms at both the community and national levels.

- Introduce strong mechanisms for the prevention of all forms of violence against children (VAC). Further enhance the identification and referral procedures, as well as response mechanisms including rehabilitation services for child victims of violence and crime. The State should further strengthen an integrated approach and intersectoral cooperation for addressing cases of VAC. This should also include working with society, parents, caregivers and most importantly children to report violence and seek relevant assistance. Particular attention should be given to addressing online VAC and enhancing data-collection and analysis systems.
- Advance women’s economic empowerment, including by encouraging female employment and entrepreneurship by widening women’s access to finances and other resources in order to increase their autonomy and decision-making power, including making reproductive choices over the timing and number of children they decide to have.
- Increase the awareness of state social programmes and schemes among the population, particularly in groups with a higher likelihood of practising gender-biased sex selection; and identify and remove possible barriers to ethnic minority access to information and state social assistance programmes (e.g. increase the awareness of and accessibility to the 1+4 State Programme for Higher Education).
- Adopt legislative amendments to criminalize sexual harassment of physical nature committed against minors; Develop and implement sexual prevention and response mechanisms on sexual harassment and raise awareness about prevention of sexual harassment, including within civil service, school system and academia.
- Prioritize the collection of data on technology-facilitated GBV (through a GBV task force) in Georgia to better understand the extent of the issue and develop targeted interventions to address this growing form of violence.

8

Women in power and decision-making





Key takeaways:

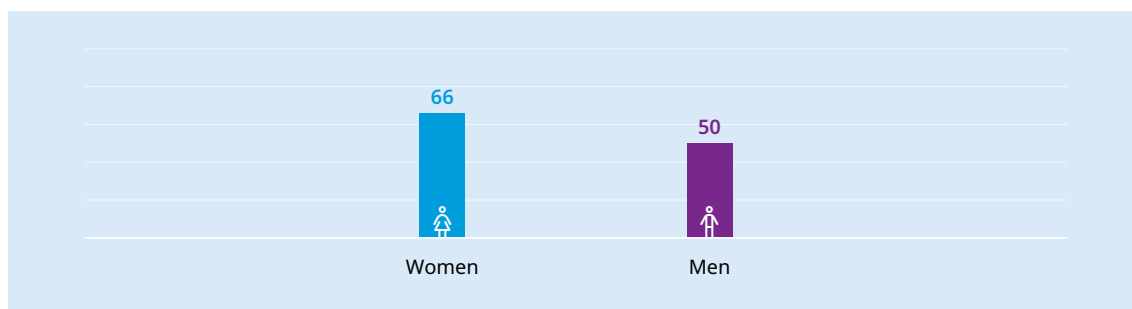
- ▶ Gender quotas have positively impacted women's political participation by increasing the ratio of women candidates and the share of elected women. As of 2023, the share of women MPs has increased to 19 per cent from 14 per cent in 2019. However, this number still falls below the global (27 per cent) and regional (31 per cent) averages for women in national parliaments.
- ▶ The results of the local mayoral elections indicate slight progress, with three women being elected in the 2021 local government elections, compared to only one woman elected in the 2017 elections.
- ▶ Public support for gender quotas has been increasing over the years, but women in politics still face stereotypes related to women's participation in politics, challenges related to political parties' mechanisms to support their empowerment and promotion, and violence from the general public.
- ▶ Women hold only 16.7 per cent of the minister positions (2 out of 12) and 23.5 per cent of deputy minister positions (12 out of 39), indicating a slight decline since 2021.
- ▶ Women comprise 31 per cent of the total public service workforce and comprise 43 per cent within the rank I and rank II managerial positions. The gender gap widens significantly when considering the gender balance in top managerial positions, as women make up only 9 per cent of heads of public entities and 15 per cent of deputy heads of public entities.
- ▶ The judiciary system in Georgia demonstrates relatively good gender representation, with women constituting 55 per cent of the judiciary in 2022. However, there are still gender disparities, as only three out of nine judges in the Constitutional Court are women. Additionally, the proportion of women among the judges of the Supreme Court constitutes 39 per cent.

8.1 Women in the Parliament and local government

In Georgia, women are significantly underrepresented in decision-making roles across all sectors, including in government, the judiciary and public service. Georgia is ranked 55th out of 146 countries in the 2022 Global Gender Gap Index, indicating a decline from its 2021 ranking.¹ Specifically, Georgia made a small improvement in political empowerment from 2021 to 2022, moving up to the 57th position from the 60th. Moreover, based on the 2022 data, Georgia ranks 121st among 187 countries concerning the proportion of women in national parliaments.²

Georgian public opinion is increasingly calling for gender equality in politics and mandatory gender quotas, according to recent studies. Although a 2020 UNDP and UNFPA study suggested that stereotypes remain pervasive and 52 per cent of the population believed that politics is a field best left to men,³ the latest (2022) data collected by the National Democratic Institute (NDI) indicate that a majority of voters are in favour of seeing more women participate in politics. More than half of the Georgian population supports gender quotas (Figure 8.1).⁴

FIGURE 8.1: Proportion of the population supporting 50-50 gender representation in the Parliament, by sex, 2022 (percentage)

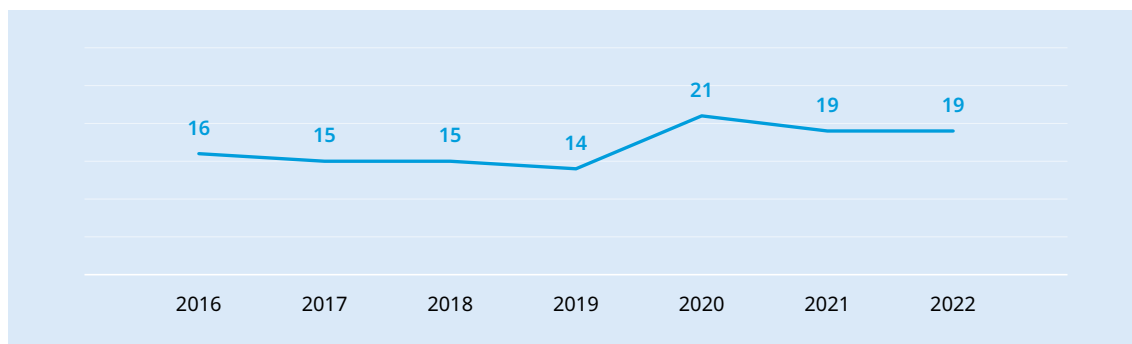


Source: NDI and CRRC 2023.



Related to SDG indicator 5.5.1: The proportion of women in the Parliament of Georgia remains below global (27 per cent) and regional (31 per cent) averages for women in national parliaments. During the 2020 election, 31 women were elected to the Parliament, constituting 21 per cent of the total.⁵ However, only 16 of them could come into office, representing 17 per cent.⁶ As of 2023, 27 of the 141 MPs are women, comprising 19 per cent (Figure 8.2).⁷

FIGURE 8.2: Proportion of women MPs, 2016–2022 (percentage)

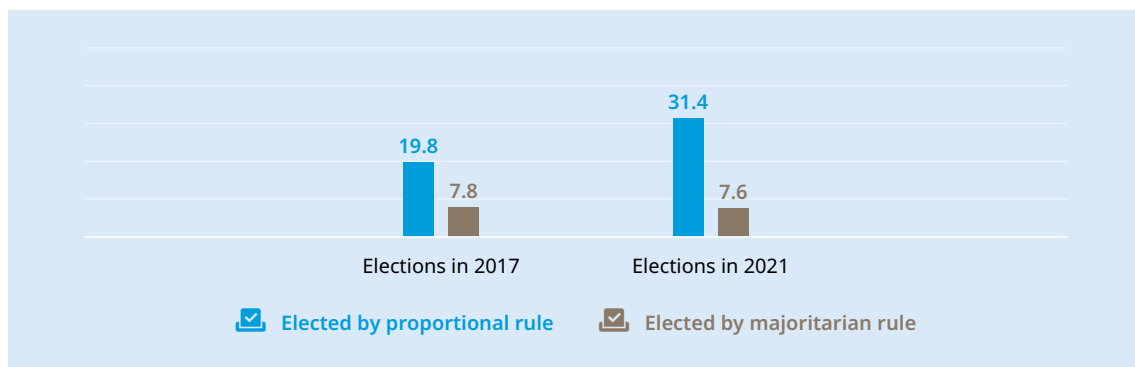


Source: Parliament of Georgia website.

The Georgian Parliament enacted a gender quota mechanism in 2020 and amended the Election Code of Georgia accordingly. This change increased the proportion of women in national and local legislatures.⁸ Maintaining gender-balanced lists is also related to additional funding provided to political parties. The extension of the gender quota implementation period until 2032 is anticipated to have a positive impact on women's political participation.⁹ The proportion of female candidates indicates that the implementation of mandatory gender quotas has already improved the representation of women in politics.

The number of women elected to local self-governance bodies (sakrebulo, or municipal councils) has increased. Only 13.8 per cent of those elected to local governments in 2017 were women; by 2021, that percentage had risen to 24 per cent.¹⁰ Women made up 42 per cent of candidates in the local proportional electoral system, compared to just 18 per cent in the majoritarian electoral system.¹¹ Women achieved notable success from the proportional list, winning 31.4 per cent (441) of mandates, which is a considerable rise above their 19.8 per cent win in 2017 (Figure 8.3).¹²

FIGURE 8.3: Proportion of women elected to the local self-government bodies, by election year (percentage)



Source: NDI 2022.



Country-specific SDG indicators 5.5.1.1 and 5.5.1.2: The results of the local elections for mayor indicate slight progress, with three women being elected in the 2021 local government elections, compared to only one woman elected in the 2017 elections. Only one female was elected out of the five mayors of the self-governing cities—Batumi, Kutaisi, Poti, Rustavi and Tbilisi.¹³ Regarding candidates, 17 per cent were women (7 individuals).¹⁴ At the same time, only two females (3.4 per cent) were elected mayor of 59 self-governing communities out of 18 candidates presented (9 per cent). Of all the candidates presented across Georgia, Tbilisi had the highest representation of female candidates. Regarding the appointment of governors, it is noteworthy that out of the total of nine governors, there are no female appointees.¹⁵ Regarding the proportion of women voters for the local government elections in 2021, women constituted approximately 51 per cent of voters.¹⁶

Women's participation in decision-making is impacted by a number of factors, according to PDO research that evaluated gender equality policies at the local level. These factors include a lack of awareness of their right to participate in decision-making processes, a lack of trust in the process, limited access to transportation, stereotypical attitudes towards their participation, and domestic work responsibilities.

Numerous additional studies also demonstrate the existence of barriers that limit equal opportunities for women. According to the research conducted by the NDI and CRRC in 2023, the lack of a gender policy within some political parties makes it difficult for them to comply with the mandatory gender quota mechanism. The absence of well-defined rules for attracting, recruiting, engaging and promoting female candidates impedes the wider integration of women in political life. Furthermore, none of the political parties have instituted a comprehensive professional development system for its members, contributing to an unequal environment, especially for women. The persistence of negative stereotypes and attitudes towards female politicians and a discriminatory working environment further exacerbates the issue.¹⁷ A recent study conducted by the NDI and UNDP in 2022 indicates that publicity poses a particularly challenging obstacle for female candidates and politicians. Women are subjected to various forms of criticism, including comments about their age and appearance and scrutiny of their personal lives. The lack of adequate mechanisms or their ineffectiveness at both the internal and national party levels in addressing such cases adds to the difficulties faced by women in politics.¹⁸

According to NDI research published in 2022, one major challenge is that political parties lack internal rules that support women in leadership roles, having a strong male-dominated work culture within.¹⁹ Furthermore, according to UN Women's study on violence against women in politics in Georgia, gender stereotypes and public opinion regarding women's engagement in politics were identified as barriers by every four (25 per cent) women in politics, ranking third in importance. The primary barriers are related to financial assistance and the choices that political parties make about promotions and rankings within party lists.²⁰ The same study reveals that more than half of the female candidates interviewed (54 per cent) recalled experiencing physical, psychological, economic or sexual violence and harassment during their election campaigns or political careers. These cases of violence often involve men from opposing political parties.²¹ Importantly, 52 per cent of those who experienced violence in politics did not report it to any authority, citing reasons like a lack of trust in the authorities, a fear of damaging their or their political party's reputation, or a belief that their reporting would not be taken seriously.²² This indicates that violence constitutes a significant barrier to women realizing their political rights and hampers their active participation in elections.

8.2 Women in the executive government

In Georgia, the head of state, the president, is a woman, while the head of government, the prime minister, is a man. By the beginning of 2023, only 2 out of 12 ministers were women, representing a decline from 2021 when four ministers were female. Women hold only 16.7 per cent of the minister positions. Women have been consistently underrepresented at the deputy minister level as well over the years. In 2021, 26 per cent of deputy ministers were women; by 2023, this percentage has dropped to 23.5 per cent. The Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs is the only ministry with more women than men serving as deputy ministers. The Ministries of Internal Affairs and Culture, Sport and Youth currently have no female deputy ministers (Table 8.1).

TABLE 8.1: Distribution of ministers and deputy ministers, by sex, 2023

Ministries	Minister	Deputy Ministers	
		Male	Female
State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia	Female	2	1
Ministry of Regional Development and Infrastructure	Male	2	1
Ministry of Justice	Male	4	1
Ministry of Internal Affairs	Male	4	0
Ministry of Defence	Male	4	1
Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development	Male	5	2
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Male	4	1
Ministry of Finance	Male	4	1
Ministry of Education and Science	Male	2	1
Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs	Male	1	2
Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture	Male	4	1
Ministry of Culture, Sport and Youth	Female	3	0
Total		39	12

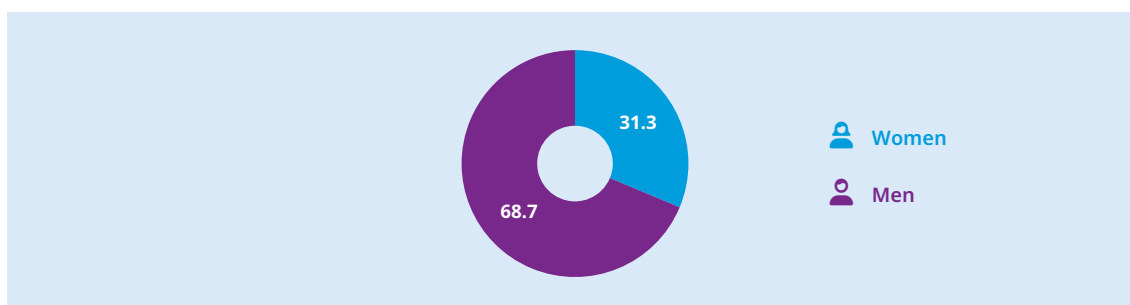
Source: Government of Georgia.

8.3 Women in public service



Related to SDG indicator 16.7.1: The share of women among civil servants has remained unchanged since 2020, at about one third (31.3 per cent) in 2022 (Figure 8.4 and Table C.28). Notably, the Ministry of Internal Affairs shows the highest gender imbalance, with its predominantly male workforce. However, when excluding the Ministry of Internal Affairs from the analysis, the share of women among public servants in 2022 increases to 59 per cent.²³

FIGURE 8.4: Proportion of women and men among civil servants, 2022 (percentage)




Source: Civil Service Bureau 2022.

Note: See Table C.28.

The representation of people with disabilities among public servants is low, both for women (0.30 per cent) and for men (0.16 per cent). Nevertheless, there was a minor increasing trend in the percentage of women with disabilities from 2021 to 2022 (from 0.28 to 0.30 per cent) (Table C.28). The local self-governance bodies are the primary employer for male and female public servants with disabilities. Out of all male and female public servants with disabilities, 23 per cent held managerial positions in 2022.²⁴

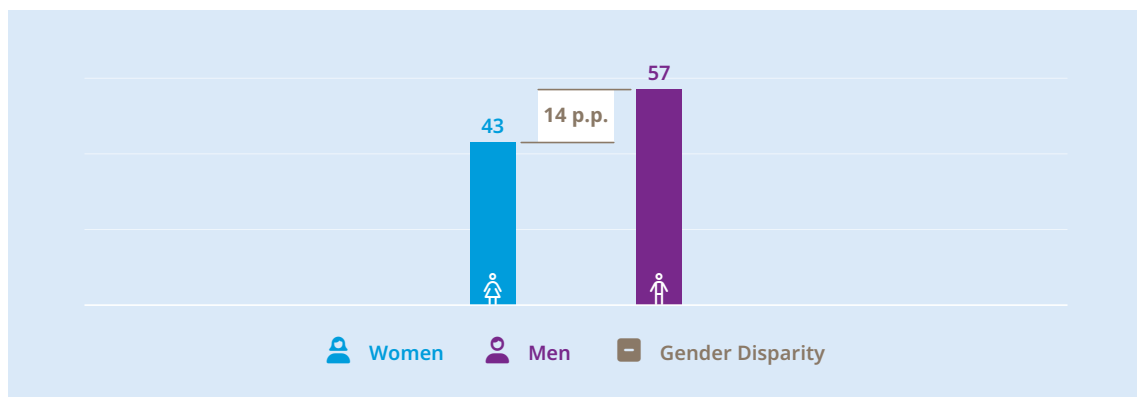
TARGET 5-5



Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.1: Over the years, the percentage of women holding rank I and II managerial positions in the public service sector has fluctuated. However, there has been a steady, positive trend between 2019 (36 per cent) and 2022 (43 per cent) (Figure 8.5 and Table C.29).

When it comes to women’s representation in top managerial positions, the gender gap has grown more noticeable. Moreover, the latest data show that there has been a tangible decrease in women’s representation at the level of heads and deputy heads of public agencies—from 15 and 18 per cent of women in 2019 to 9 and 15 per cent in 2022, respectively.²⁵ The underrepresentation of women in managerial positions in the public sector in Georgia is a reflection of the wider issue. Based on the data from the 2022 Labour Force Survey, only 39 per cent of women and 63.9 per cent of men hold managerial positions in the sector.²⁶

FIGURE 8.5: Proportion of women and men in rank I and II positions in the civil service, 2022 (percentage)



Source: Civil Service Bureau activity report.
 Note: See Table C.29.

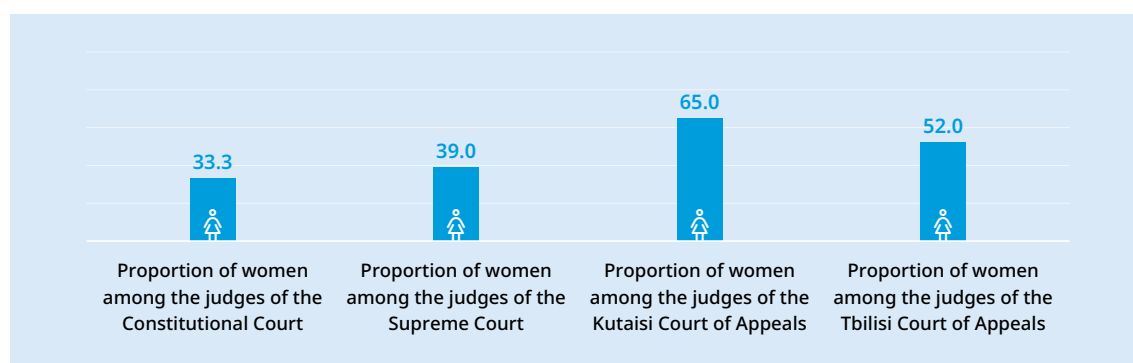
According to Geostat data from 2017 to 2022, there was a slight increase in the percentage of extraordinary and plenipotentiary women ambassadors from Georgia, from 11 per cent to 15 per cent.²⁷

Workplace sexual harassment continues to be a widespread phenomenon in Georgia's public service sector. One third (34 per cent) of civil servants (20 per cent of men and 41 per cent of women) reported experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace.²⁸ Key ministries including the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development are among the many public institutions that have developed and adopted internal sexual harassment prevention and response mechanisms since 2018. However, the Law of Georgia on Public Service currently does not require public entities to set up internal mechanisms for preventing and responding to sexual harassment and/or training staff on sexual harassment. At the local level, the 2022 PDO report indicates that most municipalities in Georgia lack such mechanisms.²⁹

8.4 Women in the judiciary system

The judiciary system remains a sphere where women are relatively well represented. The proportion of women in the judiciary constituted 55 per cent in 2022, showing a 1 per cent increase from 2019.³⁰ However, there are still only three women among the nine judges of the Constitutional Court, and this number has remained unchanged since 2019.³¹ Moreover, the proportion of women among the judges of the Supreme Court constituted 39 per cent in both 2021 and 2022, indicating a decrease from 45 per cent in 2020 (Figure 8.6 and Table C.30).³² Notably, no women were appointed as chairs to the city courts of Batumi, Kutaisi, Rustavi or Tbilisi during the same period.³³

FIGURE 8.6: Proportion of women decision makers in the judiciary, 2022 (country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.2) (percentage)



Source: Data provided in official letters from the Constitutional Court, Supreme Court of Georgia, Kutaisi Court of Appeals and Tbilisi Court of Appeals.

Note: See Table C.30.

Recommendations:

- Implement measures to address and prevent violence against women in politics, with a focus on psychological violence and social media harassment. Create gender-sensitive institutions and legislative entities to enable women to exercise their political rights without fear of intimidation or harm.
- Ensure that political parties develop well-defined internal gender-related policies to support and empower women in politics, explicitly addressing issues such as violence and sexual harassment, setting targets for women's representation in leadership positions, creating mechanisms to ensure their promotion and advancement within the party, and establishing mechanisms to monitor and evaluate the implementation of such gender-related policies.
- Continue to raise public awareness about the importance of gender quotas in increasing women's representation in politics. Foster public support for gender equality measures, which can lead to a more inclusive and diverse political landscape.
- Develop comprehensive policies and initiatives to increase the proportion of women in decision-making bodies, aiming to achieve the goals outlined at the sixty-fifth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, namely for equal representation with 50 per cent women and 50 per cent men.
- Implement strategies to address the stagnation of women's representation in public service. Provide equal opportunities for career advancement, mentorship and training programmes to empower women to take on leadership roles within the civil service sector.
- Introduce legislative amendments that would mandate public service entities to adopt internal prevention and response mechanisms on sexual harassment and to introduce mandatory trainings on sexual harassment for staff.
- Ensure that efforts are made to eliminate remaining gender disparities in the judiciary, particularly in higher judicial bodies like the Constitutional Court and the Supreme Court. Promote diversity and gender balance at all levels of the judiciary to ensure equal representation and access to justice.

9

Women, peace and security



Key takeaways:

- ▶ Despite Georgia's active engagement in formulating and executing National Action Plans (NAPs) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) since 2011, women continue to be underrepresented in the security sector institutions and especially in the leadership positions.
- ▶ While there have been efforts to include gender issues in the training courses of the Ministry of Defence and develop gender-related documents, the representation of female soldiers in the Georgian Defence Forces is still critically low at only 7 per cent.
- ▶ The representation of women in the Geneva International Discussions (GID) was only 20 per cent of the total Georgian participants of the GID in 2022, marking a notable decline from the previous year (24 per cent). Additionally, there was no female participation in the Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism (IPRM) negotiations from 2020 to 2022.
- ▶ Women's involvement in people-to-people diplomacy initiatives is limited, with only 16 per cent of such initiatives being implemented by women's civil society organizations or other entities focusing on women's issues in 2021–2022.
- ▶ Internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Georgia, particularly women, constitute one of the most vulnerable groups facing issues related to housing, unemployment, health and domestic violence.
- ▶ In 2021–2022, 51 per cent of the individuals utilizing the referral healthcare system in the breakaway regions were women. The population residing along the Administrative Boundary Line (ABL) and those in IDP communities encounter challenges in accessing medical services due to the absence of hospitals in their communities and limited access to pharmacies.
- ▶ Ukrainian refugees and especially women are facing a number of challenges in Georgia, mostly related to employment, migration and access to education, childcare services and psychological support. In addition, there is a lack of understanding about the assistance and services that are available to them.

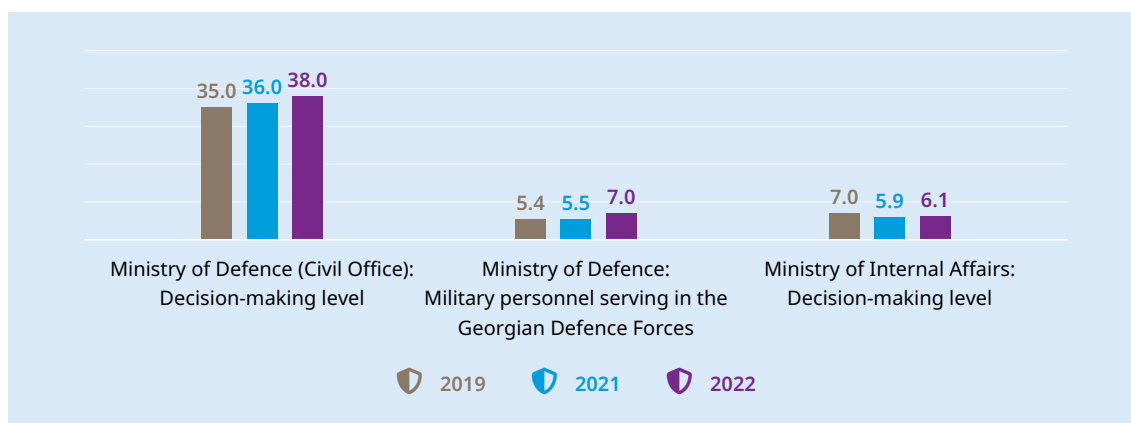
9.1 Participation of women in processes strengthening peace and security

Since its introduction in 2000, UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (WPS), as well as its successive nine resolutions, has emerged as a significant instrument for shaping ideas and policymaking concerning the involvement of women in conflict resolution and the pursuit of lasting peace. From 2011 onwards, Georgia has actively engaged in formulating and executing National Action Plans (NAPs) on WPS.¹ Georgia ranks 40th out of 170 countries on the WPS Index, scoring higher than in 2017 with approximately a 10 per cent improvement since then. Of significance is the decline in women's perception of community safety, by 7.3 per cent since 2017.²

In 2022, Georgia developed the first draft of the State Strategy for De-Occupation and Peaceful Conflict Resolution. Additionally, Georgia adopted its fourth 2022–2024 NAP on WPS.³ For the first time, the action plan has a dedicated budget and financial resources allocated for each activity.⁴ The NAP on WPS in Georgia for 2022–2024 encompasses several vital commitments. These include efforts to enhance housing conditions and livelihoods for conflict-affected women and youth. The plan is dedicated to preventing GBV and fostering women's active participation in decision-making processes related to peace and security. The plan also prioritizes women's empowerment, emphasizing access to basic services for conflict-affected women and girls. Additionally, in addressing violence prevention and elimination, the NAP focuses on raising awareness of violence issues and human security for conflict-affected women and girls.

Despite the progress made towards adopting action plans and strategic documents, in the security sector of Georgia, women continue to be underrepresented and face limited opportunities for career advancement and leadership roles. In 2021, the proportion of women among employees of the Ministry of Defence of Georgia was 51 per cent, and this figure has remained unchanged over the past three years (Table C.31).⁵ However, women only occupied 36 per cent of the decision-making positions in the Civil Office in 2021, which increased to 38 per cent in 2022.⁶ Moreover, women made up only 7 per cent of the Georgian Defence Forces in 2022.⁷ At the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia, women held 6.1 per cent of the leadership roles in 2022, which is almost unchanged from 2021 but is a 1 per cent decrease from 2019 (Figure 9.1).⁸

FIGURE 9.1: Proportion of women at the decision-making level in the security sector (percentage)



Source: PDO; Ministry of Internal Affairs; Geostat.

It should be emphasized that, according to the PDO, in 2022, the Ministry of Defence had integrated WPS-related subjects into various educational courses and had also developed strategic documents related to gender equality. On the other hand, the Ministry of Internal Affairs had provided training for several employees but has not yet approved a gender equality strategy.⁹

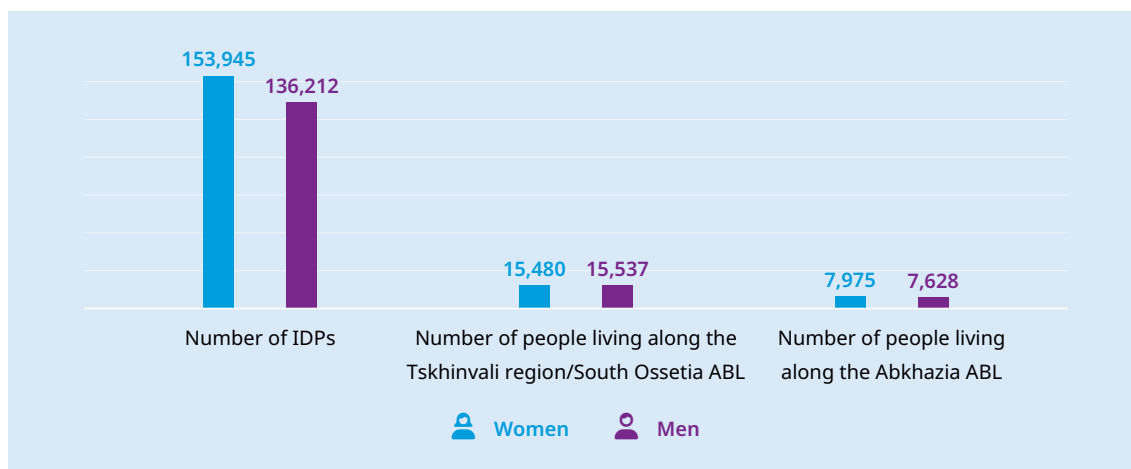
Furthermore, there is a significant deficiency in women's involvement in conflict resolution efforts and peace dialogues, resulting in the exclusion of their experiences and contributions from peace processes. A study conducted by UN Women and ANOVA in 2023 states that 53 per cent of IDP women have heard about the Geneva International Discussions (GID); however, women's representation in the GID remains low.¹⁰ According to a PDO report in 2022, women's representation in the GID was 20 per cent. This marks a decline of 4 percentage points from the previous year when it reached 24 per cent, the highest recorded share since 2019 (Table C.32).¹¹ The statistics, however, need to be improved in order to accurately capture the number of women participating in the GID per meeting. Regarding the Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism (IPRM), the representation of women was 15 per cent in 2019, and there were no female participants in the negotiations from 2020 to 2022 (Table C.33). The rationale behind this absence was the strict limitation of meeting participants due to the pandemic, which resulted in women being unable to take part in the negotiations at all. However, despite the resumption of physical IPRM meetings in the post-pandemic period, this trend has continued.¹²

Women are also underrepresented in people-to-people diplomacy initiatives, with only 16 per cent of such initiatives being implemented by women's civil society organizations or other entities focusing on women's issues in 2021 and 2022. This is a significant decrease compared to 2018 (27 per cent) but a slight increase compared to 2020 (13 per cent) (Table C.34).¹³

9.2 Protection and empowerment of women

IDPs are one of the most vulnerable groups in Georgia. The total number of IDPs in 2021 was 290,257, of whom 53 per cent are women; this figure has not changed since 2018 (Figure 9.2 and Table C.35).¹⁴ In addition, 46,620 people live along the Administrative Boundary Lines (ABLs) with Abkhazia, Georgia and the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia, Georgia, of whom 31,017 reside in the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia. Among them, half (15,480) are women.¹⁵

FIGURE 9.2: Number of IDPs and people living along the ABLs in Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia, by sex



Sources: Geostat, n.d.-a.; UN Women 2023c.

Note: See Table C.35.

The research conducted by the PDO in 2022 highlights the importance of IDP women’s engagement in decision-making processes by central or municipal authorities and the lack of information about existing programmes or projects related to their situation. These challenges arise from both a lack of information on available opportunities for engagement and a lack of proactive outreach by state agencies to IDP women.¹⁶

A 2023 study by UN Women and ANOVA on the views and attitudes of IDP women revealed that only 24 per cent of IDP women are aware of conflict transformation and peacebuilding initiatives and that 29 per cent are aware of people, organizations or government projects working on these issues. Additionally, the study found that participants lacked trust in the groups engaged in conflict transformation and peacebuilding processes, with one in four women reporting that female IDPs are rarely asked for their opinion on conflict transformation (28 per cent) and that female IDPs’ ideas and opinions are not taken seriously (25 per cent).¹⁷

The study further showed that IDP women are most familiar with health programmes but that they still face significant barriers to accessing complete health services, particularly when it comes to covering their treatment and medical expenses. Domestic violence among IDP women still remains one of the most formidable challenges named by IDP women in focus group discussions alongside other critical issues, including housing, unemployment, health and other concerns.¹⁸ In 2023, UN Women conducted a needs assessment among the population residing along the ABL, which revealed widespread psychological and economic violence in their communities. Additionally, physical violence was reported as an issue by 14 per cent of women living along the ABL and 28 per cent of IDP women. Interestingly, the assessment found that sexual violence emerged as a more significant concern in IDP communities than in villages along the ABL.¹⁹

In terms of awareness-raising efforts for the population residing along the ABLs in 2021–2022, a total of 10 consultation meetings about legal rights, support services and other issues were attended by 235 people. Among the attendees, 83 per cent were women.²⁰

In 2022, ISET Policy Institute (ISET-PI) and UN Women conducted a GIA of the vocational education support programme for IDPs and ecomigrants and the self-employment support grant programme. The goal of the programmes was to promote the socioeconomic integration of IDPs and ecomigrants. The study revealed that the programmes improved living conditions by creating better employment prospects. The programmes also increased access to resources, especially for women. However, women in the regions faced more obstacles to participating in the programmes. Despite this, the programmes had a beneficial impact on women's perception of their social status. Recommendations included addressing existing gender norms, conducting a gender gap analysis, and promoting female participation in the self-employment support group programmes.²¹

9.3 Relief and recovery

In 2021–2022, the referral healthcare system was utilized by 2,669 people from Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/South Ossetia, with 51 per cent of them being women (Table C.36).²² During the same period, 1,057 IDPs in 2021 and 1,018 IDPs in 2022 benefited from free state legal aid services. There are no sex-disaggregated data available.²³

According to a 2023 UNHCR report, 24,000 Ukrainians arrived in Georgia as a consequence of the war.²⁴ The study conducted by UNHCR revealed that refugees and especially women are facing a number of challenges mostly related to employment, migration and access to education, childcare services and psychological support. In addition, there is a lack of understanding about the assistance and services that are available to them.²⁵

The 2023 Rapid Gender Analysis conducted by CARE International unveiled challenges faced by Ukrainian women and girls in Georgia, notably including a high risk of violence and exploitation. The findings indicated that 14 per cent of Ukrainian women were aware of GBV cases, with the most common forms of GBV experienced being domestic violence, sexual harassment and abuse, and economic violence. Additionally, the analysis revealed a lack of awareness of the GBV response mechanism within the community, as 56 per cent stated that there are no support services available in their areas of residence.²⁶ Regarding access to legal aid, there is no statistical information available on the number of Ukrainian refugees who accessed this service. However, a 2022 report developed by UNHCR reveals that refugee women in Georgia refrain from applying for legal aid in cases of discrimination based on gender or nationality.²⁷

Recommendations:

- Increase efforts to improve women's representation in decision-making positions within the security sector. This can be achieved through targeted initiatives of recruitment, retention and promotion and career advancement, ensuring their increased participation in leadership roles and throughout institutions.
- Strengthen efforts to include women's voices and experiences in conflict resolution and peace dialogues. Encourage the meaningful participation of women in the GID and other peace processes to ensure that their perspectives are considered in shaping peace policies, including the impact of said policies on women and girls in conflict settings.
- Enhance support for women's civil society organizations and initiatives that focus on people-to-people diplomacy. Increase funding and ensure the sustainability of resources to empower women's civil society organizations to play a more active role in conflict resolution and peacebuilding efforts.
- Improve outreach and communication strategies to ensure that IDP and conflict-affected women are aware of available programmes, projects and opportunities for their meaningful engagement in decision-making processes. State agencies should take proactive measures to reach out to these vulnerable groups and provide them with necessary information.
- Develop targeted awareness-raising campaigns on conflict transformation, peacebuilding and related initiatives specifically for IDP and conflict-affected women. Building trust in these processes is essential to encourage their active participation and involvement.
- Address the issue of domestic violence among IDP and conflict-affected women through comprehensive support services, including counselling, legal aid and protection measures, and enhance their awareness about support services.
- Improve access to medical services for the population residing along the ABL and for IDP communities by establishing medical facilities and increasing access to pharmacies in these areas.
- Develop targeted programmes and initiatives to address the challenges faced by Ukrainian refugees, with special attention given to employment opportunities and access to education, childcare services and psychological support for women.
- Strengthen efforts to combat GBV and domestic violence by raising awareness about the available support services, establishing response mechanisms and providing necessary resources and assistance to survivors.
- Establish support services in areas where there is a lack of access to legal aid for Ukrainian refugees facing discrimination based on their gender or nationality, thereby ensuring their access to justice and the protection of their rights.

10

Women, climate change and natural disasters





Key takeaways:

- ▶ Climate change and disaster risk reduction frameworks and initiatives do not comprehensively consider the specific needs of women and girls. Women's agency, leadership and meaningful participation are critical to the successful development and implementation of gender-responsive policies and interventions, specifically at the regional and local levels.
- ▶ Georgia is measuring its efforts to reduce disaster losses by 2030 through the Sendai Framework Monitor. However, currently, the collected data are not disaggregated by sex, age or disability (SADDD). The lack of robust analysis and reporting of the gendered nature of climate and disaster risks poses a challenge to developing and implementing progressive and inclusive climate and disaster risk reduction policies, plans and interventions.
- ▶ The population of Georgia is well informed about climate change and recognizes it as a significant global challenge. In particular, women and individuals aged 65 and above have shown a heightened awareness of their vulnerability and exposure to climate change.
- ▶ Women are represented in climate change decision-making processes in Georgia. However, there is a lack of comprehensive studies to assess and evaluate the extent of their leadership and meaningful participation in the processes. The absence of such research hinders the opportunity to have a clear understanding of women's actual influence and contributions within these decision-making structures.

10.1 Gender dimensions of climate change and disasters

Georgia is a disaster-prone country. The country's geographical position and meteorological situation create favourable conditions for natural hazards. More than 80 per cent of Georgia's territory is mountainous, with around 20 per cent of its area located at 2,000 metres above sea level.¹ These conditions facilitate the occurrence of floods, droughts, mudflows, landslides and avalanches, especially in mountainous regions and along major rivers.² In addition, the country is exposed to earthquake risks, with shallow seismicity spread across the country. Earthquakes, though relatively less frequent, pose a severe threat to Georgia's population and economy.³

Climate change is a significant threat multiplier for Georgia. Since the 1960s, average temperatures have increased by 0.3°C in the west and by 0.4°–0.5°C in the east. The growing number of hot days, particularly in the lowlands, has led to an increasing risk of droughts. While precipitation in the mountainous areas in the west has increased, precipitation from the middle of the country to the east has decreased. During the same period, Georgia's glacier mass has decreased by around 30 per cent.⁴ These long-term changes have amplified the number and severity of extreme weather events. Predictions estimate an increased amount and density of daily rainfall, leading to higher risk of floods, flash floods, mudflows and landslides, causing fatalities and leading to ever-increasing economic losses.⁵

In Georgia, many of the high-risk zones for floods, landslides and mudflows are mountainous areas with limited road access.⁶ In the eastern Kakheti region, an increasing number of droughts threaten livelihoods, as rural communities rely on agriculture as their main source of income. Georgia's freshwater is concentrated in its western regions, forcing many rural communities in the east to rely on wells and boreholes for water, which increases their vulnerability to droughts and potential reductions in groundwater.⁷ Moreover, hail and other extreme weather events will become more frequent, causing damage to crops in the immediate term. Climate change in Georgia is also likely to affect regional disparities in living standards, as higher temperatures and the associated lower crop yields could lead to lower incomes in rural areas, which could worsen inequalities at the national level and drive outward migration.⁸ Despite the growing understanding of the impacts of climate change, Georgia lacks a comprehensive mapping of hazards, risks and vulnerabilities for any of the hydrometeorological threats it faces.⁹

Women and girls are disproportionately exposed to the growing climate and disaster risks. Evidence from around the world suggests that pre-existing gender inequalities, including unequal obligations of care work, inadequate rights and access to resources,¹⁰ and poor and hazardous housing, as well as differences in exploring alternative livelihoods, increase women's and girls' vulnerability and exposure to climate and disaster risks.¹¹ Disasters further exacerbate many prevailing gender inequalities. There is an increasing amount of global evidence and data on the unequal impacts of disasters on women and girls.¹² Across the board, from life expectancy to education, health, violence, livelihoods and nutrition, women tend to be negatively and disproportionately impacted, especially in rural areas and regions densely populated by ethnic minority groups.

Women and women's organizations can be critical agents of change in disaster risk reduction and climate change, yet their capacities often remain unleveraged. Gender barriers prevent women from being able to actively contribute to disaster prevention, preparedness, response and recovery. Women also experience barriers to their full participation in the transition to green energy. Emerging research demonstrates that women's needs, priorities, agency and participation remain underrepresented

throughout all stages of the energy value chain. Women’s energy poverty can manifest as a facet of environmental injustice, including unequal access to natural resources, distribution of environmental hazards, protection from risks and burdens, underrepresentation in decisions, and unfair treatment in their access to benefits.¹³

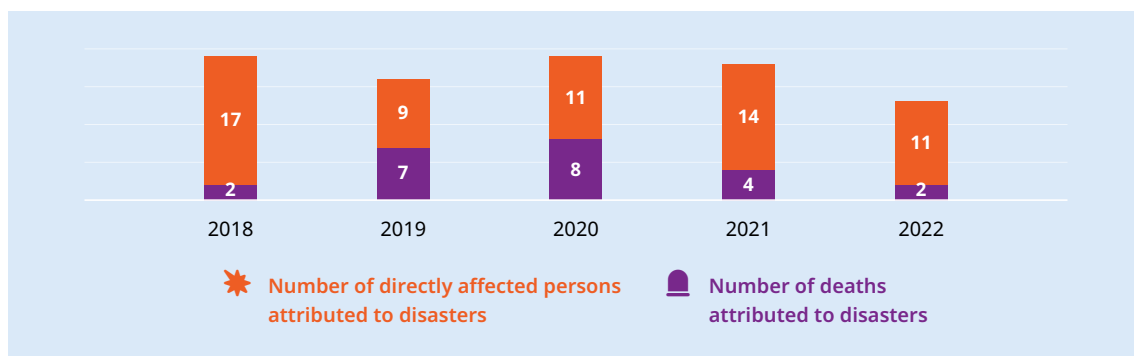
Recent studies describe the knowledge and perception of the Georgian population regarding climate change, its consequences and its potential long-term impacts as predominantly well informed, comprehensively understood, accurate, logical and accompanied by a strong sense of social responsibility.¹⁴ Moreover, 57.9 per cent of the Georgian population recognizes climate change as a significant global challenge and identifies it as one of the top three challenges currently confronting the world.¹⁵ Women and representatives of the 65+ age group feel more vulnerable to climate change and related issues.¹⁶

10.2 Sex-disaggregated data on climate and disaster risks and impacts

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 acknowledges the differential impacts of climate change-induced hazards as well as other natural hazards on women and girls.¹⁷ Nevertheless, critical gender gaps in climate and disaster data remain. The Midterm Review of the Sendai Framework, which concluded in 2023, identified critical gaps in the collection, analysis and reporting of sex, age and disability disaggregated data (SADDD) at the national and subnational levels.¹⁸ According to the DesInventar database,¹⁹ 11 out of 85 countries reported mortality data disaggregated by sex. Furthermore, of those 11 countries, a mere 0.65 per cent of recorded deaths were disaggregated.²⁰

Since 2017, Georgia has measured its efforts to reduce disaster losses by 2030. Georgia provides data on the progress achieved to the Sendai Framework Monitor tool including mortality, numbers of people affected, economic losses and damage to critical infrastructure.²¹ In addition, the Emergency Management Service (EMS) of the Ministry of Internal Affairs collects statistical data on disaster losses and damages. In 2022, the number of deaths recorded was two, and the number of people directly affected by disasters was 11 (Figure 10.1).²² As the data are not sex-disaggregated, it remains difficult to identify the impact of climate-induced hazards and other natural disasters on women and girls. For 2023, the death count can be expected to significantly rise, following the Shovi landslide.²³

FIGURE 10.1: Number of deaths and directly affected persons attributed to disasters (related to SDG indicator 13.1.1)



Source: Emergency Management Service.

Disaggregation of how hazards affect different groups in society is essential for understanding the vulnerabilities and risks that need to be addressed. Sex, age and disability disaggregated data (SADDD) are too rarely collected, analysed and reported to inform disaster risk reduction or resilience strategies. The lack of data hinders exploring the differentiated impacts of climate change on a variety of social groups more deeply and further excludes social groups from respective mitigation and adaptation interventions. Similarly, there is a lack of knowledge-sharing on women's abilities and contributions to climate action and resilience building. This undermines the enabling environment for gender-responsive disaster risk reduction and climate action and prevents governments and partners from tackling the underlying drivers of disproportionate risks and impacts of climate change on women and girls.

10.3 Gender-responsive climate and disaster laws, policies, strategies and plans

Gender-responsive climate and disaster laws, policies, strategies and plans incorporate the experiences, capacities and needs of women and girls. Built on women's agency, leadership and meaningful participation, gender-responsive frameworks address the underlying causes of vulnerability to address climate and disaster risks. Georgia is committed to implementing three pivotal UN agendas for gender-responsive, resilient and carbon-neutral development. By becoming a signatory to the SDGs, the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC) and the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, Georgia has taken significant strides towards fostering the development of low-carbon and resilient societies. In addition, the EU-Georgia Association Agreement also underlines Georgia's commitment to mitigating and adapting to climate change in an inclusive way.

Georgia's 2021 Updated Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) under the Paris Agreement acknowledges the gender dimensions of climate change.²⁴ Chapter 6 of the Updated NDC emphasizes the NDC's alignment with Article 11 of the Constitution of Georgia as well as the Law of Georgia on Gender Equality, which enshrine the right to equality, in addition to Decision 21/CP.22 on Gender and Climate Change. Moreover, the NDC places importance on SDG Targets 5.1–5.6, 5.a and 5.b, which are directly related to the empowerment of women, reflecting the national commitment to achieving gender equality in climate change efforts. The NDC also underlines the need for women's active participation in climate change processes and acknowledges their role as catalysts for change.²⁵ Recognizing women as agents of change moves the understanding and perception of women from that of a vulnerable group to that of significant actors making meaningful contributions to societal processes.²⁶

In line with Georgia's global commitments, the 2030 Climate Change Strategy²⁷ reflects gender aspects within certain sectoral priorities. Task 7.3 of the strategy outlines the development of a forest management system that adequately addresses climate change challenges and sets a goal for more than 50 per cent of sustainable forest management plans to be gender sensitive by 2030. In addition to the 2030 Climate Change Strategy, the related 2021–2023 Action Plan reflects a connection between the EU-Georgia Association Agreement and the SDGs.²⁸ The action plan aligns with gender-related sustainable development objectives through specific activities, including raising public awareness of such topics as energy efficiency programme implementation, the qualification and accreditation of experts in the energy sector, and the development of certification schemes. Additionally, the plan aims to provide educational and training programmes for energy consultants' professional development.

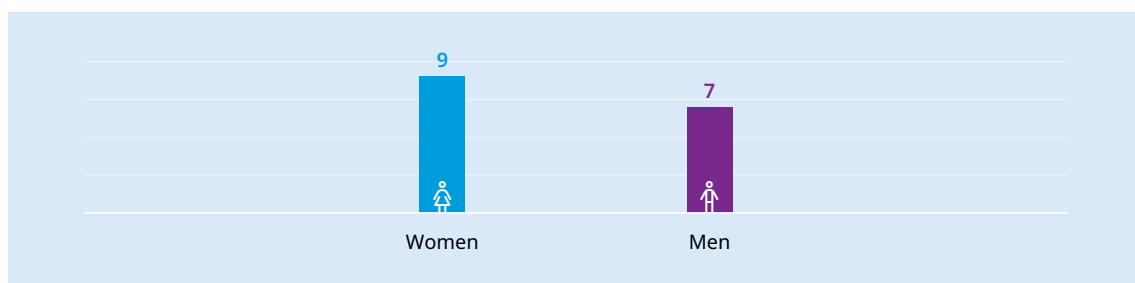
Nevertheless, gaps in integrating and implementing the gender dimensions of national legislation, policy, strategies and plans for climate action exist. Georgia's legislative frameworks on climate change and disaster resilience demonstrate only some consideration of gender equality and the specific challenges faced by women and girls. The Law of Georgia on Environmental Protection imposes broad obligations on citizens, but gender-related issues are missing from the National Civil Security Plan. Georgia's National Disaster Risk Reduction Strategy and Action Plan 2017–2020 considers women's vulnerability to disasters.²⁹ However, the gender dimensions are not comprehensively translated into concrete actions.

10.4 Civic engagement and women's agency and leadership in climate decision-making

Women's agency and leadership in climate decision-making bodies is crucial to ensure inclusive, gender-responsive and effective climate action that addresses the needs of all stakeholders, promotes gender equality and contributes to a sustainable and resilient future. In Georgia, no research studies have been conducted that measure women's participation in climate change decision-making. However, several studies assess the involvement of civil society in climate change policymaking and stress the barriers to meaningful participation.³⁰ These barriers include a lack of inclusiveness and transparency, particularly towards smaller and newer civil society organizations; the use of complex and technical language, making it difficult for the public to understand the topic; inadequate time for providing feedback, hindering meaningful participation; and the rareness of taking into consideration the ideas and comments from civil society in the final decision-making process.³¹ Considering that women are primary caretakers and spend much time on unpaid care work,³² these domestic responsibilities are likely to create an additional barrier to women's participation.

Women are well represented in high-level positions across climate decision-making bodies in Georgia, such as the Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture, the parliamentary Environmental Protection and Natural Resources Committee, the National Environmental Agency, the Emergency Management Service, and the Environmental Information and Education Center (Figure 10.2 and Table C.37). However, there has been a notable absence of thorough studies that measure and evaluate women's substantial involvement in and influence on decision-making processes. The lack of comprehensive research poses a challenge to fully grasping the extent of women's impact and contributions within government entities.

FIGURE 10.2: Number of women and men in climate decision-making bodies, 2023



Source: Government agencies' webpages.

Note: See Table C.37.

10.5 Gender and climate action

The Government of Georgia has been taking active steps in implementing initiatives to strengthen the country's climate resilience and reducing CO2 emissions. For example, together with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Government is implementing a seven-year programme dedicated to reducing the risk of climate-driven disasters in Georgia.³³ The programme's objective is to reduce the exposure of communities, livelihoods and infrastructure to climate-induced natural hazards through a well-functioning, nationwide, multi-hazard early warning system and risk-informed local action. In addition to ongoing efforts, it is critical to develop and implement targeted climate and resilience initiatives that realize women's transformative potential. Areas of intervention could include securing equal access to finance, insurance, services, infrastructure, resilient livelihoods and business for climate and disaster resilience.

Recommendations:

- Ensure that gender equality and women's empowerment are central pillars of the country's approach to climate change and disaster risk reduction.
- Improve the collection, analysis and reporting of disaster losses by 2030. Disaggregate data by sex, age and disability to allow for a more detailed analysis of how climate-induced and other hazards affect different social groups, including women and girls.
- Integrate gender considerations into national climate change and disaster risk reduction laws, policies, strategies and plans, and ensure regional and local implementation.
- Conduct comprehensive studies to assess the extent of women's agency, leadership and meaningful participation in climate change decision-making processes.
- Encourage and promote the active participation of women in climate change decision-making processes. Establish mechanisms to ensure that women's voices are heard and that their perspectives are integrated into climate policies and strategies.
- Provide training and capacity-building opportunities for women to engage more effectively in climate-related activities, including disaster risk reduction.
- Develop and implement targeted awareness-raising campaigns to increase people's understanding of the differential impacts of climate change on different groups in society.
- Develop and implement gender-responsive disaster resilience and climate action initiatives that address the specific needs of women and girls, recognizing women's critical role in the successful design and implementation of these initiatives.
- Establish a system for continuous monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of gender-responsive climate initiatives.

Annexes

Annex A. Methodological approaches and considerations

Developing the Country Gender Equality Profile (CGEP) for Georgia required a meticulous methodological foundation to ensure the integrity and relevance of the findings. This annex provides an in-depth exploration of the approaches employed and the considerations guiding the research.

A mixed methodology was adopted, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to capture the multifaceted dimensions of gender equality.

Quantitative data, essential for broad trends, were acquired through analyses of available official statistics and administrative data including the year 2022. This analysis specifically addressed the eight areas of interest of this profile, incorporating gender-specific SDG indicators (as available) and indicators from relevant national action plans. The consultants, in close collaboration with UN Women, developed detailed mapping of the indicators and data sources per area. A diverse range of sources were utilized to gather the data for the indicators, including Geostat, national and international reports, and administrative agencies (through formal requests).

Complementary qualitative insights were gleaned from consultation meetings with various stakeholders and analyses of the various reports, allowing for a nuanced comprehension of the GEWE situation in Georgia. Seventeen consultation meetings were conducted with major governmental and non-governmental sector representatives as well as independent experts. These discussions focused on fields where data were limited as well as on policies that impact the GEWE situation in Georgia, highlighting how they are being implemented, what blockages or bottlenecks can be encountered and how these realities differ for those groups most at risk of being left behind. The full list of stakeholders consulted can be found in the table below.

Affiliation	Position/Role
Government and state entities	
Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia	Head of the Human Rights Protection and Investigation Quality Monitoring Department
Ministry of Defence of Georgia	Head of the Monitoring Group on Gender Issues
Prosecutor's Office of Georgia	Prosecutor at the Department of Human Rights Protection
LEPL Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking (ATIPfund)	Head of the Agency
Office of the Public Defender of Georgia	Acting Head of the Gender Equality Department





























Affiliation	Position/Role
International organizations and UN agencies	
UN Refugee Agency (UNHCR)	National Protection Officer
GIZ	Gender focal point
International Organization for Migration (IOM)	IOM Programme Officer
Non-governmental organizations	
Partnership for Human Rights (PHR)	Executive Director
Women's Information Center (WIC)	Executive Director
Women Fund "Sukhumi"	Head of Tbilisi branch
Woman & Reality	Executive Director
WECF International	Co-Director
Women's Initiatives Supporting Group (WISG)	Executive Director
Caucasus Environmental NGO Network (CENN)	Former focal point on gender issues
Independent experts	
Independent researcher	Researcher on gender and climate
Independent researcher	Expert in education issues

The triangulation of qualitative and quantitative sources bolstered the reliability and comprehensiveness of the insights generated. Acknowledging the intricate interplay of various social categories, the methodology embraced an intersectional perspective. This facilitated a deeper examination of how gender interacts with social status, ethnicity and disability, ensuring a more holistic and inclusive analysis.

A human rights-based approach underpinned the entire methodological framework. This commitment to ethical considerations, dignity and respect for individual rights guided every process, aligning the study with international human rights standards.





In some instances, relevant data, mainly comprehensive data sets, were scarce, limiting the depth of analysis or the ability to track changes over time. This scarcity might be attributed to factors like the underdevelopment of specific sectors or the absence of standardized data-collection practices.

Annex B. Timeline of Georgia's commitments to gender equality and the empowerment of women

- 1994 ●  Georgia ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
- 1995 ●  Georgia participated in the UN Fourth World Conference in Beijing
- 2000 ●  UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, binding on all UN Members States, including Georgia
- 2004 ●  Parliamentary Gender Equality Advisory Council was established
- 2006 ●  Georgia adopted State Concept on Gender Equality
-  Georgia adopted the 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
- 2007 ●  Georgia started adopting and implementing periodic National Action Plans on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence
- 2009 ●  State Fund for Protection and Assistance of (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking was established
- 2010 ●  First shelter for domestic violence survivors and hotline established
-  Georgia adopted Law on Gender Equality
- 2011 ●  Georgia adopted National Action Plan on Implementation of UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security
- 2012 ●  Domestic violence criminalized in the Criminal Code of Georgia
- 2013 ●  Public Defender's Office established the standing Gender Equality Department within its structure
- 2014 ●  Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination adopted
-  Government of Georgia adopted the 2014–2020 Human Rights Strategy and Action Plan
- 2015 ●  Georgia joined the global 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development
- 2016 ●  Public Defender's Office established the Femicide Watch
- 2017 ●  Government of Georgia ratified the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (the Istanbul Convention)
-  Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence Issues established
- 2018 ●  Constitution of Georgia amended with new equality article (Article 11) providing grounds for substantive gender equality and special measures
- 2019 ●  Bill on sexual harassment was adopted by the Parliament of Georgia and respective amendments made to the Labour Code of Georgia and the Code of Administrative Offences of Georgia
-  Leading up to the twentieth anniversary of UN Security Council resolution 1325, the Government of Georgia undertook 10 commitments to advance the WPS agenda
- 2020 ●  Parliament approved amendment to the Election Code of Georgia incorporating gender quotas
-  Parliament adopted Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
- 2021 ●  Georgia undertook commitments under the Generation Equality movement
-  Georgia became a member of the Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC)
- 2022 ●  Parliament adopted State Concept on Gender Equality
- 2023 ●  Parliament adopted State Concept on Women's Economic Empowerment





Annex C. Detailed statistical tables

TABLE C.1: SDG indicator 1.2.1. Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (absolute poverty line in Georgia), by sex and settlement type (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	20.1	19.5	21.3	17.5	15.6
Sex					
 Women	20.2	19.4	20.9	17.1	15.3
 Men	20.0	19.6	21.7	17.9	15.8
Settlement type					
 Urban	18.0	16.4	17.1	15.0	12.3
 Rural	23.1	23.7	27.5	21.3	20.6







Source: Geostat 2022c.

TABLE C.2: Share of households with computer access, by sex of head of household (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Households with computer access					
 Women	58	57	59	59	57
 Men	69	65	64	67	62
Households with Internet access					
 Women	67	74	80	81	86
 Men	80	82	86	89	90









Source: Geostat 2022e.

TABLE C.3: Number of people covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Subsistence allowance					
Total	435,450	427,373	524,598	643,167	535,343
 Women	239,095	233,852	287,133	352,025	297,426
 Men	196,355	193,521	237,465	291,142	237,917
Social package					
Total	165,012	171,712	174,612	177,897	178,426
 Women	61,487	61,012	60,841	61,754	59,338
 Men	103,525	110,700	113,771	116,143	119,088
Old-age pension					
Total	745,001	762,621	783,705	793,751	808,326
 Women	529,705	542,736	559,189	567,772	576,554
 Men	215,296	219,885	224,516	225,979	231,772

Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.





TABLE C.4: Migration statistics (total numbers and proportions)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Immigrants					
Total	88,152	96,864	89,996	74,008	179,778
 Women (percentage)	40.0	41.0	42.0	44.0	42.0
 Men (percentage)	60.0	59.0	58.0	56.0	58.0
Georgians among immigrants					
Total (percentage)	54.3	56.2	74.0	53.4	30.2
 Women (percentage)	40.0	40.0	43.0	43.0	39.0
 Men (percentage)	60.0	60.0	57.0	57.0	61.0
Emigrants					
Total	98,935	105,107	74,264	99,974	125,269
 Women (percentage)	43.0	44.0	40.0	38.0	38.0
 Men (percentage)	57.0	56.0	60.0	62.0	62.0
Georgians among emigrants					
Total (percentage)	77.1	78.0	58.0	80.3	80.4
 Women (percentage)	45.0	46.0	40.0	38.0	38.0
 Men (percentage)	55.0	54.0	60.0	62.0	62.0
Net migration					
Net migration	-10,783	-8,243	15,732	-25,966	54,509

Source: Geostat, n.d.-c.









Note: Proportions calculated by author based on Geostat data.

TABLE C.5: Employment and unemployment rates, by sex (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Employment rate					
Total	42.7	42.7	41.1	40.4	42.9
 Women	36.4	36.2	33.9	33.3	35.4
 Men	50.0	50.1	49.5	48.6	51.7
Gender gap	13.6	13.8	15.6	15.3	16.2
Unemployment rate					
Total	19.2	17.6	18.5	20.6	17.3
 Women	17.6	16.0	16.2	17.8	14.6
 Men	20.6	18.9	20.2	22.7	19.3
Gender gap	2.9	3.0	4.0	4.9	4.6





Source: Geostat 2022d.

TABLE C.6: Employment rate, by sex and other demographics (percentage)

	2020		2021		2022	
	 Women	 Men	 Women	 Men	 Women	 Men
Settlement type						
 Urban	37.3	50.0	37.0	48.4	38.1	51.5
 Rural	29.1	48.8	28.2	48.9	31.5	51.9
Age group						
15–24	16.4	25.1	15.0	21.8	14.6	23.1
25–34	42.3	62.0	40.1	58.5	44.5	64.7
35–44	48.9	62.7	51.3	64.1	51.0	67.5
45–54	51.6	62.2	50.1	63.5	55.8	65.7
55+	24.2	40.8	24.1	40.6	25.6	43.2
Marriage status						
Married or in a union	38.7	56.5	38.4	56.0	40.6	59.7
Unmarried/single	32.6	37.4	31.6	36.1	33.0	38.6
Divorced	42.7	39.0	43.5	39.0	51.8	42.6
Widowed	19.9	26.7	19.0	27.2	20.7	22.3
Education attainment level						
Primary	2.9	4.7	2.6	4.3	2.8	4.7
Secondary	25.4	41.2	23.8	42.8	26.1	43.7
Vocational	22.2	18.4	22.4	16.5	22.6	15.7
Tertiary or above	49.4	35.5	51.1	36.3	48.4	35.9

Source: Geostat 2022d.

TABLE C.7: Labour force participation rate, by sex (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Active					
Total	52.9	51.8	50.5	50.9	51.9
 Women	44.2	43.1	40.4	40.5	41.5
 Men	63.0	61.8	62.0	62.9	64.0
Inactive					
Total	47.1	48.2	49.5	49.1	48.1
 Women	55.8	56.9	59.6	59.5	58.5
 Men	37.0	38.2	38.0	37.1	36.0
Gender gap					
Gender gap	18.8	18.7	21.6	22.4	22.5

Source: Geostat 2022d.

TABLE C.8: Unemployment rate, by sex and other demographics (percentage)

	2020		2021		2022	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Settlement type						
Urban	17.8	22.4	19.3	24.8	15.7	20.6
Rural	13.2	17.3	14.8	20.1	12.6	17.5
Age group						
15–24	38.2	40.1	40.5	44.3	38.8	39.8
25–34	18.1	23.6	21.6	28.7	17.0	23.4
35–44	18.1	20.4	17.0	22.6	16.7	19.2
45–54	14.4	16.5	16.8	18.0	12.2	17.0
55+	9.1	12.2	10.7	13.5	7.9	10.8
Marriage status						
Married or in a union	13.9	15.9	14.5	17.6	12.5	14.8
Unmarried/single	24.6	31.8	26.9	35.7	23.5	30.9
Divorced	23.6	32.9	26.2	37.5	17.6	33.1
Widowed	10.9	6.1	14.3	8.7	9.0	6.2
Education attainment level						
Primary	21.3	29.1	28.2	36.6	23.0	28.8
Secondary	21.8	23.3	25.3	26.5	21.1	22.9
Vocational	15.3	17.2	16.4	18.9	12.9	14.4
Tertiary or above	13.1	16.5	13.7	17.4	10.9	14.9

Source: Geostat 2022d.

TABLE C.9: Economic inactivity rates, by sex and age group (percentage)

	2020					2021					2022				
	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55+	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55+	15–24	25–34	35–44	45–54	55+
Women	73.4	48.4	40.4	39.7	73.4	74.8	48.9	38.2	39.8	73.1	76.1	46.4	38.8	36.5	72.2
Men	58.0	18.8	21.2	25.6	53.5	60.9	17.9	17.2	22.6	53.1	61.7	15.5	16.4	20.9	51.6
Percentage point difference	15.4	29.6	19.2	14.1	19.9	13.9	31.0	21.0	17.2	20.0	14.4	30.9	22.4	15.6	20.6

Source: Geostat 2022d.

TABLE C.10: Labour force participation (economic activity) rate, by sex and settlement type (percentage)

	2020		2021		2022	
	👤 Women	👤 Men	👤 Women	👤 Men	👤 Women	👤 Men
🏠 Rural	33.5	59.1	33.1	61.2	36.1	62.9
🏙️ Urban	45.4	64.5	45.8	64.3	45.2	64.9

Sources: Geostat 2022d, n.d.-a.

TABLE C.11: Labour force, by sex, type of employment and settlement type (percentage)

	2020		2021		2022	
	👤 Women	👤 Men	👤 Women	👤 Men	👤 Women	👤 Men
Rural						
Hired	46.4	37.3	47.5	35.5	51.6	37.9
Self-employed	40.4	45.3	37.6	44.3	35.7	44.5
Unemployed	13.2	17.3	14.8	20.1	12.6	17.5
Urban						
Hired	72.9	58.4	71.8	56.3	74.3	57.0
Self-employed	9.2	19.1	8.9	18.8	10.0	22.2
Unemployed	17.8	22.4	19.3	24.8	15.7	20.6

Sources: Geostat 2022d, n.d.-a; author's calculations based on Geostat data.








TABLE C.12: Distribution of Georgia's newly established enterprise owners, by sex (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
👤 Women	29.1	29.1	29.7	29.5	24.7
👤 Men	51.4	55.4	58.8	57.9	58.9
Unidentified	19.5	15.5	11.4	12.5	16.3

Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

TABLE C.13: Type of kindergarten attendance (percentage)

Per cent distribution of children aged 3–5 years^a who attended kindergarten during the academic year 2021/22, by type of kindergarten ownership

	Type of kindergarten			Normalized weighted frequency of children aged 3–5 years who attended kindergarten during the academic year 2021/22
	Public	Private	Total	
Total	95.1	4.9	100.0	294
Sex				
 Girl	98.5	1.5	100.0	121
 Boy	92.7	7.3	100.0	173
Age				
 Age 3	94.5	5.5	100.0	85
 Age 4	98.4	1.6	100.0	88
 Age 5	93.1	6.9	100.0	120
Area				
 Urban	92.6	7.4	100.0	184
 Rural	99.3	0.7	100.0	110
Material and social deprivation				
Experiencing material and social deprivation	100.0	0.0	100.0	98
Not experiencing material and social deprivation	92.6	7.4	100.0	196
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	100.0	0.0	100.0	69
Second	100.0	0.0	100.0	53
Middle	100.0	0.0	100.0	59
Fourth	93.0*	7.0*	100.0	52
Richest	82.1*	17.9*	100.0	61

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2023.

^a Refers to the child's age at the beginning of the 2021/22 academic year.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size (25–49 unweighted cases).

TABLE C.14: Average time spent by the population on learning activities, by sex, location and age group (hours per day)

	Women				Men			
	Georgia	Tbilisi	Other urban	Rural	Georgia	Tbilisi	Other urban	Rural
15-24	2.3	2.5	2.5	1.9	1.9	1.6	1.9	2.1
25-44	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0.1	0	n/a
45-64	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
65+	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
All ages	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2022.

TABLE C.15: Participation rate in vocational education, by sex (related to SDG indicators 4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1) (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
VET graduates					
Women	50	50	51	50	49
Men	50	50	49	50	51
VET enrolments					
Women	48	48	50	49	47
Men	52	52	50	51	53







Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.16: Proportion of women and men among VET graduates, by field of study (related to SDG indicators 4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1) (percentage)

	2019		2020		2021		2022	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Agriculture	44	56	38	62	0	100	40	60
Business administration (2021 and 2022 years include law)	68	32	67	33	70	30	74	26
Education (2021 and 2022 years include manufacturing and construction)	100	0	100	0	100	0	100	0
Engineering	15	85	17	83	8	92	13	87
ICT	20	80	25	75	33	67	30	70
Services	63	37	49	51	55	45	39	61
Arts (2021 and 2022 years include the humanities)	90	10	94	6	78	22	60	40
Health (2021 and 2022 years include welfare)	90	10	98	2	95	5	97	3

















Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.17: Participation rate in higher education, by sex (related to SDG indicators 4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1) (percentage)

	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22	2022/23
Bachelor's and master's degrees					
 Women	50.2	50.7	50.9	51.7	52.1
 Men	49.8	49.3	49.1	48.3	47.9
PhD students					
 Women	53.0	53.0	53.0	55.2	54.1
 Men	47.0	47.0	47.0	44.8	45.9
PhD graduates					
 Women	61.0	56.0	57.0	62.0	55.8
 Men	39.0	44.0	43.0	38.0	44.2



Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.18: Proportion of women and men among bachelor's and master's students, by field of study (related to SDG indicators 4.3.1, 4.4.1, 4.5.1) (percentage)

	2019/20		2020/21		2021/22		2022/23	
								
 Agriculture	34	66	35	65	31	69	31	69
 Business administration, social sciences and law	54	46	53	47	55	45	46	54
 Education	91	9	91	9	93	7	84	16
 Engineering, manufacturing and construction	14	86	17	83	20	80	30	70
 Services	36	64	33	67	34	66	33	67
 Arts and humanities	74	26	75	25	76	24	75	25
 Health and welfare	56	44	56	44	54	46	54	46
 Science	44	56	45	55	44	56	43	57

Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.19: Gender balance of the students in ICT programmes at VET, bachelor's, master's and PhD levels (percentage)

	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22
VET				
 Women	21	25	27	29
 Men	79	75	73	71

	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	2021/22
Bachelor's				
Women	20	13	15	14
Men	80	87	85	86
Master's				
Women	42	15	20	19
Men	58	85	80	81
PhD				
Women	33	30	34	23
Men	67	70	66	77

Source: UN Women 2023e.

TABLE C.20: Proportion of women and men in higher education and research, by position (percentage)

	2018/19		2019/20		2020/21		2021/22		2022/23	
Full professors	45	55	39	61	39	61	40	60	41	59
Assistant professors	62	38	64	36	68	32	67	33	64	36
Instructors	63	37	56	44	58	42	55	45	65	35
PhD supervisors	42	58	41	59	41	59	46	54	46	54
Researchers	53	47	52	48	53	47	53	47	54	46
















Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.21: Proportion of women and men researchers in academia, by field of study (percentage)

	2018/19		2019/20		2020/21		2021/22		2022/23	
Natural sciences	43	57	47	53	48	52	47	53	50	50
Engineering and technologies	38	62	33	67	34	66	35	65	35	65
Medical and health sciences	63	37	66	34	63	37	65	35	62	38
Agrarian and veterinary sciences	50	50	55	45	59	41	58	42	55	45
Social sciences	52	48	52	48	53	47	53	47	54	46
Humanities and arts	68	32	68	32	69	31	67	33	66	34

Source: Geostat based on science statistics from the Ministry of Education and Science.

TABLE C.22: Proportion of women and men among the recipients of national research grants (percentage)

	2018/19		2019/20		2020/21		2021/22	
								
 Natural sciences	41	59	47	53	55	45	55	45
 Engineering and technologies	25	75	25	75	29	71	32	68
 Medical and health sciences	58	42	52	48	76	24	73	27
 Agrarian and veterinary sciences	36	64	68	32	47	53	42	58
 Social sciences	60	40	66	34	46	54	46	54
 Humanities and arts	78	22	60	40	64	36	54	46
 Georgian studies	54	46	54	46	46	54	44	56





Source: National Science Foundation of Georgia.

TABLE C.23: Access to antenatal care (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Coverage for at least four antenatal care visits	81.0	84.9	85.2	86.8	85.7
Timely-initiated antenatal care	80.0	85.5	86.7	87.5	89.3

Source: NCDC.

TABLE C.24: Number of new cases of psychiatric disorders and deaths due to mental and behaviour disorders, by sex

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Number of new cases of psychiatric disorders							
 Women	2,384	2,303	2,209	2,370	1,911	1,972	2,314
 Men	2,844	2,538	2,650	2,914	2,432	2,470	2,871
Number of deaths due to mental and behaviour disorders							
 Women	54	45	37	51	48	89	173
 Men	48	69	15	31	28	65	84

Source: Geostat.

TABLE C.25: Prevalence of violence, by type (percentage)

	Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,330	
	Lifetime	Current (in the past 12 months)
Any type of violence	50.1	18.2
Child sexual abuse before the age of 18	8.5	n/a
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before the age of 18	19.7	n/a
Sexual harassment	24.5	9.7
Stalking	8.5	1.6
Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15	1.5	0
Non-partner physical violence since the age of 15	6.5	0.5
Any type of intimate partner violence (IPV) among ever-partnered women	26.5	10.7
Physical IPV	5.9	0.7
Sexual IPV	3.5	0.5
Psychological IPV	23.7	10.1
Economic IPV	8.4	2.4

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

TABLE C.26: Prevalence of physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV, by age group, education, age at first marriage, household economic status and settlement type (percentage)

	Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Lifetime physical, sexual and/ or psychological IPV N = 747	Current physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV N = 270
Age group		
15–24	25.9	18.8
25–34	25.9	14.3
35–44	24.4	12.6
45–54	24.0	8.7
55–64	23.4	5.8
65–69	25.9	3.6

	Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Lifetime physical, sexual and/ or psychological IPV N = 747	Current physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV N = 270
Highest level of education completed		
Primary school or less	69.8	33.5
Lower secondary school	30.2	13.4
Upper secondary school	22.1	9.0
Vocational education	24.2	8.9
University education	25.6	11.1
Don't know	38.1	0.0
Age at first marriage/union		
≤ 15 years old	40.2	16.8
16–17 years old	29.6	10.8
< 18 years old	31.1	11.7
18–24 years old	23.6	9.6
25+ years old	21.5	9.4
Not married / Ever had or currently has a boyfriend/fiance'	38.1	17.8
Household economic status (self-described)		
Very poor	40.8	14.8
Poor	30.6	11.6
Average	21.4	9.3
Good	22.4	10.0
Very good	14.1	0.0
Settlement type		
Tbilisi	37.1	16.0
Other urban areas	20.0	6.6
Rural areas	18.8	8.2

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

TABLE C.27: Number of female murder cases, by motive of killing

	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	26	22	19	24	22	25
Domestic violence dimension	14	7	10	15	11	15*
Other motive	12	15	9	9	11	11*

Source: PDO reports.

* Two persons killed one woman. The case included both domestic violence and other motives.

TABLE C.28: 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 (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Proportion of women and men among civil servants					
👤 Women	32.8	30.5	31.0	31.1	31.3
👤 Men	67.2	69.5	69.0	68.9	68.7
Proportion of women and men with disabilities among all women and men civil servants					
👤 Women	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
👤 Men	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2

Source: Civil Service Bureau activity reports.

TABLE C.29: Proportion of women in rank I and II positions (country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.1) (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Proportion of women among rank I and II civil servants (managerial positions)	39	36	42	41	43
Proportion of men among rank I and II civil servants (managerial positions)	61	64	58	58	57
Gender disparity in ranks I and II	22	27	16	17	14
Proportion of women among rank III and IV civil servants (managerial positions)	n/a	n/a	n/a	30	30
Proportion of men among rank III and IV civil servants (managerial positions)	n/a	n/a	n/a	70	70
Gender disparity in ranks III and IV	n/a	n/a	n/a	40	40

Source: Civil Service Bureau activity reports.

TABLE C.30: Proportion of women decision makers in the judiciary (country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.2) (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Proportion of women among the judges of the Constitutional Court	44	44	33	33	33
Proportion of women among the judges of the Supreme Court	40	40	45	39	39
Proportion of women among the judges of the Kutaisi Court of Appeals	53	59	71	65	65
Proportion of women among the judges of the Tbilisi Court of Appeals	46	49	51	53	52

Sources: Constitutional Court, official letter No. 429-01-2-202307171735, dated 17 July 2023; High Council of Justice of Georgia, official letter No. 827/2193-03, dated 25 July 2023.

TABLE C.31: Proportion of women among employees of the Ministry of Defence of Georgia (percentage)

2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
50	49	51	51	51

Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

TABLE C.32: Representation of women in peace negotiations (percentage of participants)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Representation of women in the Geneva International Discussions	40	17	14	24	20

Source: PDO.

TABLE C.33: Representation of women in peace negotiations (percentage of participants)

	2019	2020	2021	2022
Representation of women in the Incident Prevention and Response Mechanism	15	0	0	0



Source: State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter No. 1341-1-2-202307251412, dated 25 July 2023.

TABLE C.34: Inclusion of IDP and conflict-affected women in the peacebuilding process (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Proportion of people-to-people diplomacy initiatives implemented by women's CSOs or addressing women's issues	27	17	13	16	

Source: State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter No. 1341-1-2-202307251412, dated 25 July 2023.

TABLE C.35: Number of IDPs, by sex

	2018	2019	2020	2021
Total	283,271	285,977	288,520	290,157
 Women	150,134	151,974	153,293	153,945
 Men	133,137	134,003	135,227	136,212



Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

TABLE C.36: IDP and conflict-affected women benefiting from public services

	2019	2020	2021	2022
Number of women from Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/ South Ossetia who benefited from the referral healthcare system	800	892	637	728
Share of women from Abkhazia and the Tskhinvali region/ South Ossetia (among all beneficiaries) who benefited from the referral healthcare system	53%	52%	51%	51%

Source: State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter, dated 25 July 2023.

TABLE C.37: Women's representation in climate decision-making bodies (number of decision makers)

Position	 Male	 Female
Ministry of Environmental Protection and Agriculture		
Minister	1	0
Deputy Minister	4	1
Environmental Protection and Natural Resources Committee of the Parliament		
Head of the Committee	0	1
National Environmental Agency (NEA)		
Head of the Agency		1
Deputy Head of the Agency	1	2
Emergency Management Service (EMS)		
Head of the Agency	1	0
Environmental Information and Education Center (EIEC)		
Director	0	1
Deputy Director	0	1
Head of Division	0	2
Total		
Total	7	9

Sources: Agencies' webpages, accessed 14 July 2023

<https://mepa.gov.ge/Ge/Structure>

<https://parliament.ge/media/news/category/131>

<https://nea.gov.ge/En/Managments>

<https://es.gov.ge/page/507>

<https://eiec.gov.ge/En/Structure>

Annex D. List of gender-specific SDG indicators





GOAL 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere

TARGET 1-1



SDG indicator 1.1.1: Proportion of population living below the international poverty line (\$2.15/day, 2017 PPP), by sex (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021
Total	5.6	4.8	5.8	5.5
 Women	5.6	5.1	5.8	5.4
 Men	5.5	4.6	5.8	5.6





Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

Lowest value  Highest value

TARGET 1-2



SDG indicator 1.2.1: Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (absolute poverty line in Georgia), by sex, age and settlement type (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	20.1	19.5	21.3	17.5	15.6
Sex					
 Women	20.2	19.4	20.9	17.1	15.3
 Men	20.0	19.6	21.7	17.9	15.8
Age group					
0-17	25.5	24.5	26.4	22.7	20.4
18-64	19.5	19.2	21.2	17.3	15.3
65+	14.4	13.8	15.4	11.9	10.5
Settlement type					
 Urban	18.0	16.4	17.1	15.0	12.3
 Rural	23.1	23.7	27.5	21.3	20.6

Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

Lowest value  Highest value

TARGET 1-3



SDG indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/ systems, by sex (Country-specific SDG indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of persons registered in the database of socially vulnerable families receiving (a) living allowance; (b) social packages; (c) retirement pension) (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Subsistence allowance					
Total	11.7	11.5	14.1	17.2	14.5
Women	12.3	12.1	14.9	18.2	15.5
Men	11.0	10.8	13.3	16.2	13.4
Social package					
Total	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.8	4.8
Women	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.1
Men	5.8	6.2	6.4	6.5	6.7
Old-age pension					
Total	20.0	20.5	21.1	21.3	21.9
Women	27.3	28.1	29.0	29.4	30.0
Men	12.0	12.3	12.5	12.6	13.1

Source: Author's calculations based on Geostat data.

TARGET 1-4



SDG indicator 1.4.2: Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, (a) with legally recognized documentation, and (b) who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and type of tenure (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Distribution of land area operated by holdings, by gender of the holder					
Women	19.0	20.0	21.0	19.0	18.0
Men	81.0	80.0	79.0	81.0	82.0
Distribution of agricultural holdings, by gender of the holder					
Women	31.5	32.3	32.2	32.1	31.7
Men	68.5	67.7	67.8	67.9	68.3

Source: Geostat.

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING



GOAL 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

TARGET 3-1



SDG indicator 3.1.1: Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)

2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
33.8	21.2	13.1	27.4	29.0	30.1	71.8	35.4

Source: NCDC.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 3-1



SDG indicator 3.1.2: Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (percentage)

2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
99.9	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8

Source: NCDC.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 3-3



SDG indicator 3.3.1: Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population					
Total	0.20	0.18	0.14	0.14	0.17
Women	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.08
Men	0.28	0.24	0.25	0.25	0.26
Total number of new cases of HIV					
Total	672	668	530	530	617

Source: NCDC.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 3-7



SDG indicator 3.7.1: Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods (percentage)

Need satisfied with modern contraceptive methods	51
Need satisfied with any contraceptive method	64

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

TARGET 3-7



SDG indicator 3.7.2: Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Aged 10–14	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Aged 15–19	43.2	36.1	32.2	29.3	27.2	24.7	21.5

Source: Geostat.

Lowest value Highest value



GOAL 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

TARGET 4-1



Country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.1: Percentage of children in fourth, sixth and ninth grades who have achieved at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex

	👧 Girls	👦 Boys
Reading		
PISA, 2018	44.0	28.0
PIRLS, 2021	91.2	83.7
Mathematics		
PISA, 2018	40.0	38.0
TIMSS, 2019, grade 4	83.0	85.0
TIMSS, 2019, grade 8	75.0	75.0

	👧 Girls	👦 Boys
Science		
TIMSS, 2019, grade 4	74.0	76.0
TIMSS, 2019, grade 8	73.0	71.0

Source: Mullis et al., 2023; NAEC 2018, 2019.

TARGET 4-1



Country-specific SDG indicator 4.1.3: Dropout rates for primary and secondary levels of education, by sex

Number of children and adolescents dropping out of school

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Primary							
👧 Girls	882	1,085	1,388	965	880	1,416	2,761
👦 Boys	1,026	1,368	1,690	1,138	976	1,648	3,241
Lower secondary							
👧 Girls	680	698	821	568	445	750	1,328
👦 Boys	956	992	1,117	789	522	787	1,544
Upper secondary							
👧 Girls	3,178	2,986	2,699	1,849	1,692	1,604	2,320
👦 Boys	5,074	5,169	4,334	2,938	2,535	2,641	3,717

Source: Geostat, n.d.-a.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 4-2



SDG indicator 4.2.1: Proportion of children aged 24–59 months who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex

Percentage of children aged 36–59 months who are developmentally on track in the indicated domains

	Literacy and numeracy	Physical well-being	Social and emotional well-being	Learning
Total	25.4	99.1	89.2	98.7
👧 Girls	26.0	98.6	88.4	99.0
👦 Boys	24.8	99.6	89.9	98.3

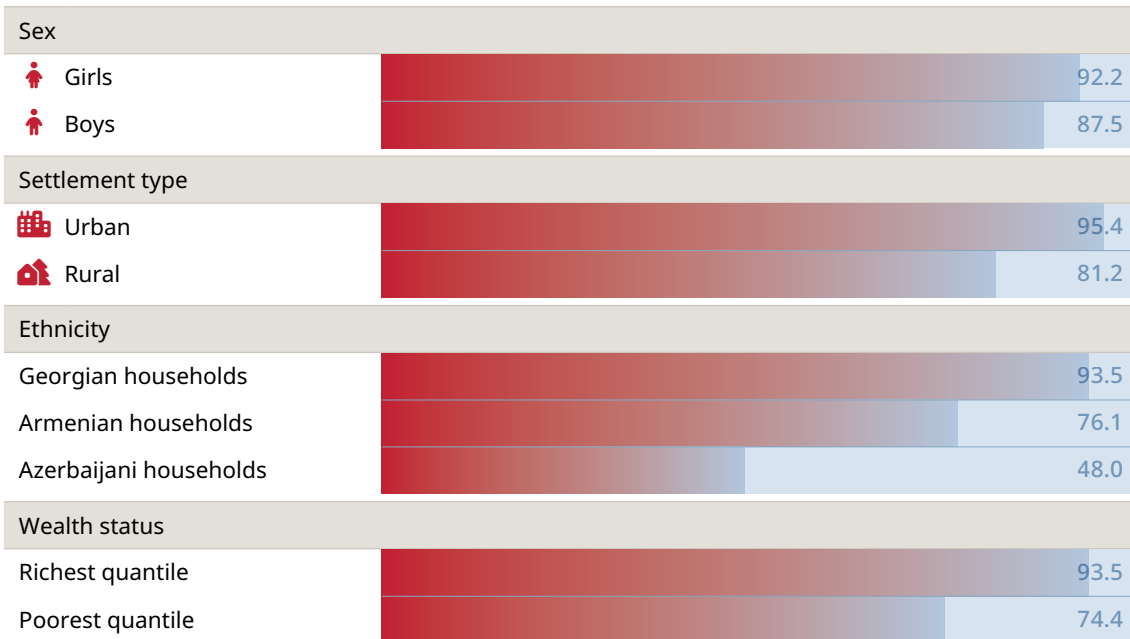
Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

TARGET 4-2



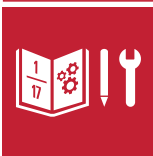
SDG indicator 4.2.2: Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex

Percentage of children aged 5 years who attended kindergarten



Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

TARGET 4-3



SDG indicator 4.3.1: Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex

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 (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.6
Women	1.2	0.8	1.2	1.3	1.8
Men	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.3
Lifelong learning index (LLI) – national indicator					
LLI	–	1.0	0.8	1.1	–

Sources: Geostat 2022d; SDG tracker at sdg.gov.ge.

5 GENDER EQUALITY



GOAL 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

TARGET 5-1



SDG indicator 5.1.1: Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex (percentage of extent)



Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

TARGET 5-2



SDG indicator 5.2.1: Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age (percentage)

	Lifetime prevalence	Current prevalence (in the past 12 months)
Any type of IPV	26.5	10.7
Physical IPV	5.9	0.7
Sexual IPV	3.5	0.5
Psychological IPV	23.7	10.1
Economic IPV	8.4	2.4
Physical and/or sexual IPV	7.7	0.9
Physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV	24.6	10.1

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

TARGET 5-2



SDG indicator 5.2.2: Proportion of women and girls aged 15–69 subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence (percentage)



	2023
Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15	1.5
Sexual abuse as a child	8.5

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2023.

TARGET 5-3



SDG indicator 5.3.1: Proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18 (percentage)

	Women	Men
Before age 15	0.3	0.5
Before age 18	13.9	0.5
Ethnicity, before age 18		
Georgian	12.4	–
Armenian	4.5	–
Azerbaijani	37.6	–
Education level, before age 18		
Primary or lower secondary	46.5	–
Higher education	3.1	–
Settlement type, before age 18		
 Rural area	25.0	–
 Urban area	8.0	–

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

TARGET 5.4



SDG indicator 5.4.1: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location (percentage)

2021

	Women	Men	Gender ratio
Total	17.8	3.7	4.8
Settlement type			
Tbilisi	17.5	3.8	4.6
Other urban	18.5	3.6	5.1
Rural	17.2	3.8	4.5
Age group			
15–24	10.5	1.3	8.2
25–44	23.0	3.9	5.9
45–54	19.0	4.0	4.8
55–64	18.3	4.3	4.3
65+	14.4	4.4	3.3

Source: UN Women and Geostat 2022.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 5.5



SDG indicator 5.5.1: Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments (percentage)

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Parliament of Georgia	16	15	15	14	21	19	19
Local governments	-	14	-	-	-	24	-

Source: Parliament of Georgia.

TARGET 5.5



Country-specific SDG indicator 5.5.2.1: Proportion of women in rank I and II positions (percentage)

2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
39	36	42	41	43

Source: Civil Service Bureau, Activity Reports.

TARGET 5-6



SDG indicator 5.6.1: Proportion of women aged 15–49 who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care (percentage)

2018

Share of women who make their own sexual, contraceptive and reproductive healthcare decisions

79.2

Source: UNICEF and Geostat 2018.

TARGET 5-6



SDG indicator 5.6.2: Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education (percentage)

Laws and regulations guarantee full and equal access to...

2022

Sexual and reproductive health care, information and education

94.0

Sexual and reproductive health care, information and education on maternity care

90.0

Contraceptive and family planning

100.0

Sexuality education

81.0

HIV and HPV

100.0

Maternity care

100.0

HIV counselling and test services

100.0

HIV treatment and care services

100.0

HIV confidentiality

100.0

HPV vaccine

100.0

Post-abortion care

100.0

Contraceptive services

100.0

Contraceptive consent

100.0

Emergency contraception

100.0

Sexuality education curriculum laws

100.0

Sexual and reproductive health care, information and education on life-saving commodities

85.0

Abortion

75.0

Sexuality education curriculum topics

63.0

Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

TARGET 5·A



SDG indicator 5.a.1: (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure (percentage)

2015



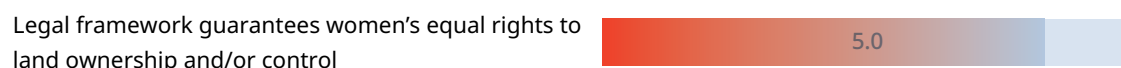
Source: Geostat.

TARGET 5·A



SDG indicator 5.a.2: Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control (1–6 scale)

2022



Source: UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs.

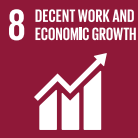
TARGET 5·B



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

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	83	85	87	86	88
Sex					
Women	80	84	86	85	87
Men	85	86	87	88	89
Settlement type					
Urban	89	89	91	90	92
Rural	75	79	80	81	82

Source: Geostat 2022e.



GOAL 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

TARGET 8-3



SDG indicator 8.3.1: Proportion of informal employment in total employment, by sector and sex (percentage)

Non-agriculture sector

	2020	2021	2022
Total	31.7	28.8	28.4
Women	26.2	22.5	22.5
Men	36.4	34.2	33.2

Source: Geostat 2022d.

TARGET 8-5



SDG indicator 8.5.1: Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by sex

	2018	2019	2020	2021
Hourly earnings (GEL)				
Women	5.10	5.40	6.00	6.60
Men	8.00	8.50	8.80	9.60
Monthly earnings (GEL)				
Women	822.60	869.10	952.20	1,055.50
Men	1,280.70	1,361.80	1,407.70	1,537.90

Source: Geostat, n.d.-b.

TARGET 8-5



SDG indicator 8.5.2: Unemployment rate, by sex and age (percentage)

	2020		2021		2022	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	16.2	20.2	17.8	22.7	14.6	19.3
Settlement type						
Urban	17.8	22.4	19.3	24.8	15.7	20.6
Rural	13.2	17.3	14.8	20.1	12.6	17.5
Age group						
15-24	38.2	40.1	40.5	44.3	38.8	39.8
25-34	18.1	23.6	21.6	28.7	17.0	23.4
35-44	18.1	20.4	17.0	22.6	16.7	19.2
45-54	14.4	16.5	16.8	18.0	12.2	17.0
55+	9.1	12.2	10.7	13.5	7.9	10.8
Marriage status						
Married or in a union	13.9	15.9	14.5	17.6	12.5	14.8
Unmarried/single	24.6	31.8	26.9	35.7	23.5	30.9
Divorced	23.6	32.9	26.2	37.5	17.6	33.1
Widowed	10.9	6.1	14.3	8.7	9.0	6.2
Educational attainment level						
Primary	13.9	15.9	14.5	17.6	12.5	14.8
Secondary	24.6	31.8	26.9	35.7	23.5	30.9
Vocational	23.6	32.9	26.2	37.5	17.6	33.1
Tertiary or above	10.9	6.1	14.3	8.7	9.0	6.2

Source: Geostat 2022d.



GOAL 10. Reduce inequality within and among countries

TARGET 10-2



SDG indicator 10.2.1: Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by sex, age and persons with disabilities (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	15.0	14.4	13.4	13.3	12.4
Sex					
Women	14.7	14.3	13.1	12.9	12.4
Men	15.3	14.4	13.7	13.8	12.5
Age group					
0-17	17.4	16.9	15.0	15.6	13.2
18-64	15.3	14.8	14.6	14.6	13.6
65+	9.7	8.8	6.5	5.8	7.7

Source: Geostat 2022c.

Lowest value Highest value



GOAL 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

TARGET 16-1



Country-specific SDG indicator 16.1.1: Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex

	2019	2020	2021	2022
Total	1.99	2.50	2.33	2.11
Women	0.32	0.62	0.45	0.59
Men	1.67	1.88	1.88	1.52

Source: SDG tracker, Georgia.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 16-2



Country-specific SDG indicator 16.2.2: Number of victims of human trafficking, by sex and age

	2015	2019	2020
Women	3	27	5
Men	5	2	1

Source: SDG tracker, Georgia.

Lowest value Highest value

TARGET 16-7



Country-specific SDG indicator 16.7.1.2: Proportion of seats held by women in Parliament and in the city councils; indicator 16.7.1.3: Proportion of women in the judiciary system; indicator 16.7.1.4: Proportion of women as rank I and II officials (percentage)

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Parliament	15.0	14.0	21.0	19.0	19.0
Local government	-	-	-	24.0	-
Judiciary	53.7	54.0	54.3	55.0	55.0
Rank I and II	39.0	36.0	42.0	41.0	43.0

Sources: Geostat, n.d.-a; Parliament of Georgia website; Civil Service Bureau.

Endnotes

Chapter 2

- 1 Parliament of Georgia 2010a.
- 2 Parliament of Georgia 2014a.
- 3 Parliament of Georgia 2010b.
- 4 Parliament of Georgia 2006.
- 5 Parliament of Georgia 2020.
- 6 Parliament of Georgia 2019.
- 7 UN General Assembly 1979.
- 8 UN General Assembly 1995.
- 9 Council of Europe 2011.
- 10 Parliament of Georgia 2010b, article 12.
- 11 PDO, n.d.
- 12 Government of Georgia 2017a.
- 13 Ibid., article 1.
- 14 Ibid.
- 15 Government of Georgia 2022b.
- 16 Government of Georgia 2022c.
- 17 Government of Georgia 2022a.
- 18 PDO 2022d.
- 19 Government of Georgia 2017a.
- 20 UN CEDAW 2023, pp. 22–24.
- 21 Government of Georgia 2023a.
- 22 Ministry of Finance 2023.
- 23 UN Women supported the Government of Georgia in mainstreaming gender in the public administration reform (PAR) process throughout the period 2020–2022. The PAR process covers the following pillars: (1) policy planning and coordination; (2) civil service and human resources management; (3) accountability; (4) public service delivery; and (5) public finance management.
- 24 Parliament of Georgia 2018, article 76, para. 1.
- 25 Parliament of Georgia, Gender Equality Council 2017, article 7.
- 26 Parliament of Georgia 2018, article 76, para. 4.
- 27 Parliament of Georgia 2022.
- 28 Parliament of Georgia 2023.
- 29 PDO 2022d.
- 30 Parliament of Georgia 2010b, article 13.
- 31 Parliament of Georgia 2014b, article 16.
- 32 Parliament of Georgia 2010b, article 13.
- 33 PDO 2023a.
- 34 PDO, n.d.
- 35 Sapari 2022.
- 36 OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights 2023.
- 37 PDO 2023b.

Chapter 3

- 1 Geostat 2022c.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 UN Women 2022c.
- 4 Geostat 2022e.
- 5 Geostat 2022d.
- 6 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Agriculture).
- 7 UN Women 2022c.
- 8 CRRC 2019.
- 9 UN Women and Geostat 2022, p. 119.
- 10 UN Women 2022b, p. 8.
- 11 PDO 2021c.
- 12 UN Women 2021c, p. 55.
- 13 PDO 2021b, pp. 43–44.
- 14 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Social Protection).
- 15 ILO and UN Women 2020, p. 102.
- 16 UN Women 2021a, pp. 29–30.
- 17 PDO 2021c.
- 18 UN Women 2021b.
- 19 ILO 2000.
- 20 ATIPfund 2023.
- 21 ILO and UN Women 2020, p. 102.
- 22 Government of Georgia 2020.
- 23 Geostat, n.d.-c.
- 24 OECD 2022.
- 25 ICMPD 2019.
- 26 OECD 2022.
- 27 State Commission on Migration Issues 2021.
- 28 EUAA 2022.

Chapter 4

- 1 Geostat 2022d.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 An unemployed person, as defined by the ILO, is a person aged 15 or above who simultaneously meets three conditions: being unemployed for a given week; being available to take a job within two weeks; having actively sought a job in the last four weeks; or having found a job starting in less than three months.
- 4 UN Women 2022a.
- 5 Geostat 2022d.
- 6 UN Women 2021a, p. 81.
- 7 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Employment and Unemployment).
- 8 Author's calculations based on Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Employment and Unemployment).
- 9 UN Women 2022d.
- 10 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Agriculture).

- 11 PDO 2021a.
- 12 Parliament of Georgia, Gender Equality Council 2020, p. 71.
- 13 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Business Statistics).
- 14 UN Women and ILO 2023.
- 15 Ibid.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 Ibid.
- 18 Geostat, n.d.-b.
- 19 UN Women 2021a, p. 97.
- 20 Geostat 2022a.
- 21 UN Women and Geostat 2022.
- 22 Ibid.
- 23 UN Women 2022b.
- 24 UNDP and UNFPA 2020.

Chapter 5

- 1 UNFPA Georgia 2022.
- 2 UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- 3 UN Women and Geostat 2022, p. 13.
- 4 UNICEF and Geostat 2023.
- 5 Ibid.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- 9 PDO 2022d, p. 263.
- 10 UNICEF and Geostat 2023.
- 11 Ministry of Education and Science 2022, p. 17.
- 12 Ministry of Education and Science 2022.
- 13 PDO 2022d, p. 263.
- 14 Ibid., p. 250.
- 15 UNICEF and Geostat 2023.
- 16 OECD 2019.
- 17 UN Women and Geostat 2022.
- 18 UN Women 2021a, p. 36.
- 19 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Education).
- 20 PDO 2022d, pp. 264–265.
- 21 Education Management Information System (Ministry of Education and Science), official letter No. 0 23 0000951203.
- 22 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Education).
- 23 Ibid.
- 24 PDO 2022d, p. 289.
- 25 Mullis et al., 2023.
- 26 NAEC 2018.
- 27 NAEC 2019.
- 28 NAEC 2018, 2019.
- 29 UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- 30 PDO 2022d.
- 31 Gorgadze and Tabatadze 2021.
- 32 UN Women 2019.

- 33 ATIPfund's official letter dated 6 August 2023 stated that 469 violence cases were reported in 2022, compared to 116 cases reported in 2021 (according to the official letter dated 22 March 2022).
- 34 UNFPA Georgia 2022.
- 35 Parliament of Georgia, Gender Equality Council 2019.
- 36 Geostat 2022d.
- 37 Geostat 2022f.
- 38 Friedrich Ebert Stiftung 2023.
- 39 Geostat 2022b.
- 40 UN Women 2023e.
- 41 Ibid.
- 42 Geostat 2022b.
- 43 Ibid.

Chapter 6

- 1 WHO 2019.
- 2 UNFPA EECARO 2017.
- 3 NCDC, official letter No. 2 23 00698372.
- 4 World Bank 2023.
- 5 UNFPA EECARO 2017.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 From 2018 to 2022, the percentage of attendance increased from 81.0 to 86.8 per cent. However, a slight decrease was observed in 2022, with a reported attendance rate of 85.7 per cent. (Source: NCDC 2022.)
- 9 UNFPA 2014.
- 10 UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- 11 UNFPA 2019.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 UNICEF and Geostat 2018, table TM.13.1CS.
- 14 UNICEF and Geostat 2018.
- 15 UN Women 2021c, pp. 50–51.
- 16 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Health Care).
- 17 PDO 2022d, p. 201.
- 18 PDO 2018.
- 19 Tanadgoma 2022.
- 20 PDO 2021b.
- 21 Equality Movement 2022.
- 22 See the website of the Social Service Agency at <https://ssa.moh.gov.ge/statistik.php?lang=1&id=202212062358125404245357&v=0>.
- 23 PDO 2022a.
- 24 UNFPA 2020b.
- 25 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Demography).
- 26 NCDC 2022.
- 27 PDO 2022d, p. 254.
- 28 UNICEF 2023.
- 29 PDO 2021b, p. 40.
- 30 Ibid., p. 41.
- 31 Ibid., p. 41.

Chapter 7

- 1 Parliament of Georgia 2006.
- 2 Council of Europe 2011.
- 3 Government of Georgia 2022e.
- 4 ATIPfund operates five state-run shelters (in Tbilisi, Kutaisi, Gori, Telavi and Batumi); and seven crisis centres (in Ozurgeti, Kutaisi, Gori, Tbilisi, Marneuli, Tsaishi and Telavi). The hotline operated by ATIPfund is free for the callers of any phone service operator. The service is anonymous, works round the clock and is available in Georgian and eight additional languages: Arabic, Armenian, Azerbaijani, English, Farsi, Russian, Turkish and Ukrainian. In 2022, 3,428 calls were made to the hotline on VAW/DV-related issues.
- 5 PDO 2020.
- 6 PDO 2022d.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 Ibid.
- 9 UN Women and Geostat 2023.
- 10 Ibid.
- 11 Ibid.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 Prosecutor's office; Supreme court of Georgia.
- 14 UN Women and Geostat 2023.
- 15 Ibid.
- 16 UN Women and CRRC 2021.
- 17 UN Women and Geostat 2023.
- 18 PDO 2021c, p. 153.
- 19 UN Women 2023d.
- 20 CRRC 2020.
- 21 Georgian Young Lawyers' Association 2018.
- 22 Interviews with stakeholders, July 2023.
- 23 Ibid.
- 24 UN Women and Geostat 2023.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 WISG 2023.
- 28 United Nations Georgia 2023.
- 29 Government of Georgia 2022d.
- 30 UNFPA 2020a.
- 31 PDO 2022b.
- 32 PDO 2022d, p. 204.
- 33 Prosecutor's Office of Georgia, official letter No. 13/48961.
- 34 PDO 2022d, p. 204.
- 35 Public Service Development Agency, official letter No. 01/168168.
- 36 Ibid.
- 37 PDO 2022d, p. 205.
- 38 NCDC 2022.
- 39 NCDC 2021.
- 40 PDO 2022d.

- 41 The normal biological level of the SRB is 104–106 males born per 100 females. In 2022, the SRB stood at 107.2 boys born per 100 females. (Source: Geostat.)
- 42 UNFPA and ISET-PI 2019.
- 43 Ibid.

Chapter 8

- 1 World Economic Forum 2022.
- 2 IPU 2022.
- 3 UNDP and UNFPA 2020.
- 4 NDI and CRRC 2023.
- 5 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Influence and Power).
- 6 UN Women 2021a, p. 86.
- 7 The total number of seats amounts to 150 in the Georgian Parliament. If calculated based on total seats, the share of women in the Parliament decreases to 18 per cent. (Source: Parliament of Georgia website.)
- 8 According to Article 203 of the Election Code of Georgia (2010), the process of creating a party list for the upcoming parliamentary elections in Georgia, scheduled before 26 October 2024, mandates that political parties or electoral blocs ensure a gender balance. Specifically, for every four persons listed, at least one must be a female. Subsequently, for the parliamentary elections on 28 October 2028, and those occurring before 2032, parties must structure their lists so that at least one out of every three persons is a female. Similarly, for general elections of municipal bodies preceding 2032, political parties must adhere to a ratio where at least one out of every three candidates on the party list is a female, as defined by the respective election commission chairperson.
- 9 PDO 2022d, p. 196.
- 10 Geostat, n.d.-a.
- 11 Central Election Administration of Georgia, n.d.
- 12 NDI 2022.
- 13 Geostat, n.d.-a.
- 14 Central Election Administration of Georgia, n.d.
- 15 Government of Georgia 2023b.
- 16 Geostat 2022g.
- 17 NDI and CRRC 2023.
- 18 NDI 2022.
- 19 Ibid.
- 20 UN Women 2023d.
- 21 Ibid.
- 22 Ibid.
- 23 Civil Service Bureau 2021, 2022.
- 24 Ibid.
- 25 UN Women 2023a.
- 26 Geostat 2022d.
- 27 Geostat 2022g.
- 28 UN Women and CRRC 2021.
- 29 PDO 2022d, p. 197.

- 30 Geostat, n.d.-a.
- 31 Constitutional Court of Georgia, official letter received in 2023.
- 32 Supreme Court of Georgia, official letter received in 2023.
- 33 High Council of Justice of Georgia, official letter received in 2023.

Chapter 9

- 1 The first NAP covered the years 2012–2015; the second, 2016–2017; the third, 2018–2020; and the fourth, 2022–2024.
- 2 GIWPS 2021.
- 3 Government of Georgia 2022c.
- 4 UN CEDAW 2023b.
- 5 Geostat, n.d.-a.
- 6 PDO 2022d, p. 199.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 Ministry of Internal Affairs 2021, 2022.
- 9 PDO 2022d, p. 199.
- 10 ANOVA 2023.
- 11 Ibid.
- 12 State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter No. 1341-1-2-202307251412, dated 25 July 2023.
- 13 Ibid.
- 14 Geostat, n.d.-a (see: Social Protection).
- 15 UN Women 2023c.
- 16 PDO 2022c.
- 17 ANOVA and UN Women 2023.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 UN Women 2023c.
- 20 State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter No. 1341-1-2-202307251412, dated 25 July 2023.
- 21 UN Women 2023b.
- 22 State Ministry for Reconciliation and Civic Equality of Georgia, official letter No. 1341-1-2-202307251412, dated 25 July 2023.
- 23 MoIDPOTLHSA, official letter No. 5 23 00961617, dated 12 September 2023.
- 24 UNHCR and World Vision 2023.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 CARE International 2023.
- 27 UNHCR 2022.

Chapter 10

- 1 World Bank 2020.
- 2 UNDP 2014.
- 3 World Bank and Asian Development Bank 2021.
- 4 USAID 2017.
- 5 Government of Georgia 2017b.
- 6 World Bank and Asian Development Bank 2021.
- 7 IFRC 2022.
- 8 World Bank and Asian Development Bank 2021.

- 9 Westminster Foundation for Democracy 2023.
- 10 The lack of resources contributes to the gender pay gap and the insufficient access to finance. See also Chapter 5.
- 11 Resurrección 2021, p. 7–8.
- 12 UN Women and UNICEF 2019.
- 13 UNIDO and UN Women 2023.
- 14 UNDP 2020; UNDP and EIEC 2023.
- 15 UNDP 2020, p. 43.
- 16 Ibid., pp. 67–68.
- 17 The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 was adopted by UN Member States on 18 March 2015 at the third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction in Sendai City, Miyagi Prefecture, Japan. The Sendai Framework is the first major agreement of the post-2015 development agenda, with seven targets and four priorities for action. The Framework aims to achieve the substantial reduction of disaster risk and losses in lives, livelihoods and health and in the economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets of persons, businesses, communities and countries over the next 15 years. See: UNDRR 2015.
- 18 UNDRR 2023.
- 19 The UNDRR disaster loss database DesInventar Sendai is an event-based platform that serves for reporting disaster loss data disaggregated by hazards, location, gender, income and disability. See: <https://www.desinventar.net>.
- 20 UN Women and UNICEF 2019.
- 21 The Sendai Framework Monitor data can be searched based on country and year. See: <https://sendaimonitor.undrr.org>.
- 22 Emergency Management Service, official letter No. 1900676, dated 31 July 2023.
- 23 In August 2023, a landslide hit the village of Shovi, a popular mountain resort in Georgia. Within minutes, the entire affected territory became engulfed in several metres of mud from the landslide. The landslide killed 33 people, among whom 16 were women and 7 were minors.
- 24 Government of Georgia 2021a. The NDC was submitted in accordance with paragraph 24 of Decision 1/CP.21 of the 21st Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC Framework Convention.
- 25 Government of Georgia 2021a, pp. 36–37.
- 26 Youth Development Center 2022, p. 29.
- 27 Government of Georgia 2021b.
- 28 Government of Georgia 2021c.
- 29 Government of Georgia 2017b.
- 30 Independent Institute for Environmental Issues 2020; WeResearch 2022.
- 31 Donges and Kurdadze 2021, p. 9.
- 32 UN Women and Geostat 2022.
- 33 National Security Council 2022, pp. 39–40; UNDP 2023.

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