



Sustainable Development Goal # 5 Gender Assessment in Georgia



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Preface

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Acronyms

SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
ADC	Austrian Development Cooperation
CB	Caucasus Barometer
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CRRC	Caucasus Research Resource Centers
CSS	Center of Social Sciences
DV	Domestic Violence
ECMI	European Center on Minority Issues
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
GeoStat	National Statistics Office of Georgia
GGGI	Global Gender Gap Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GoG	Government of Georgia
GYLA	Georgian Young Lawyer Association
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
ISSA	Institution of Social Studies and Analysis
JSC	Joint Stock Company
LEPL	Non-commercial legal Entity and Legal Entities of Public Law
LTD	Limited Company
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MPs	Members of National Parliament
NDI	National Democratic Institute
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
SCO	Swiss Cooperation Office
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WVS	World Value Survey

Abstract

Multiple dimensions of gender inequality are significant issues in Georgia. Research indicates that traditional understandings of gender roles are deeply rooted and widespread among the Georgian population. This gender assessment aims to analyze the issues that contribute to the dimensions of gender inequality. In particular, the study focuses on the division of labour between women and men and access, power and control over resources. Furthermore, the study looks at the most vulnerable groups (such as women residing in rural areas, ethnic minorities and women with disabilities) as a crosscutting issue while assessing each thematic area. The data for the analysis were collected in line with thematically relevant Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 5th) indicators. This resulted in a thorough analysis of secondary data and in-depth interviews with the key stakeholders involved in the SDG indicator nationalization process. The results indicate that the SDG implementation process is in its initial phase in Georgia, which includes contextualization of SDG targets and the selection of the respective indicators. The process is led by the Government of Georgia (GoG) and supported by UN agencies, while national local NGOs are not represented in the discussions or the process yet. In terms of the assessment of the thematic areas, the largest challenge is related to the lack of systematic and structured data that would provide detailed information according to the SDG indicator definitions. The existing data suggests that there is an unequal distribution of labour between men and women when it comes to unpaid work. Moreover, women have significantly less access, power and control over resources than men. Women are underrepresented in political bodies, and in public and private organizations in managerial positions. This trend holds with regard to women's access to economic resources such as access to agricultural land and ownership of agricultural holdings. The research findings presented in the report are intended to provide insight for policy considerations during the implementation of SDG targets.

Key Words: gender inequality, sustainable development goals, indicator, Georgia, gender assessment.

Introduction

Gender inequality is a significant issue in Georgia. It is rooted in cultural and social values and prevents women from full participation in social, political, and economic life. According to the Gender Inequality Index (GII) 2015, Georgia ranked 70th out of 188 countries.¹ As for the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI)², Georgia ranked 90th place among 144 countries in 2016.

After independence, significant steps were undertaken by the Government of Georgia (GoG) to overcome the problem. Georgia acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), an international instrument for protection of women's rights, in 1994. The Parliament of Georgia adopted laws such as the Law on Elimination of Domestic Violence, Protection and Assistance to the Victims of DV (2006), Law on Combating Trafficking (2006), Law on Gender Equality (2010), and the Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (2014).

Despite the progress, recent research demonstrates that gender inequality and gender based violence remain severe problems in Georgia. A traditional understanding of gender roles is widespread, and women's main responsibilities are considered to be family related activities like: raising children, taking care of family members, etc. Their social roles outside the families are less supported.³ Such attitudes create barriers for women and translate into discriminatory practices, such as gender based violence,⁴ early marriage,⁵ labor discrimination, and unequal pay.⁶

This gender assessment aims to highlight issues that contribute to gender inequality by examining gender and social roles and relations from different angles. The study focuses on highlighting issues and identifying gaps in the areas of **Division of Labor between Women and Men** and **Access, Power and Control over Resources** at the community and national levels. The objectives of this research are to analyze three **thematic areas** including:

1. The division of labor between women and men in government bodies, both on the national and local levels;
2. Women's access to and control over resources and power;
3. Challenges the most vulnerable groups face, as a cross-cutting issue related to the above two thematic areas;

To analyze the above thematic areas, the 5th Sustainable Development Goal's indicators were selected. A detailed description of SDG indicators is provided below. By reviewing existing research, documents, statistical data, and policy documents, the statuses of the indicators are determined, which in turn provides information about the thematic areas selected for the study.

¹For detailed information about the ranking, see [here](#).

²The Global Gender Gap Report. Available [here](#).

³Research Report on Public Perceptions on Gender Equality in Politics and Business, 2013. Available [here](#).

⁴National Research on Domestic Violence Against Women in Georgia, 2009. Available [here](#).

⁵Report of Public Defender of Georgia on Early Age Marriages: Challenges and Solution, 2016. Available [here](#).

⁶Report from the Study "Gender Discrimination in [the] Georgian Labor Market", 2014. Available [here](#).

The first two thematic areas are related to the SDG Indicators in Table #1 below. The third thematic area, challenges that vulnerable groups face, is analyzed as a crosscutting issue. Ethnic minorities, internally displaced people (IDPs), people with disabilities and rural women are considered the most vulnerable groups for the purposes of this study. These groups were selected for the analysis, because they are the most relevant groups in the Georgian context.

The official list of SDG indicators the Government of Georgia (GoG) selected do not cover the indicators selected in the framework of the current research. However, we believe these are crucial for achieving gender equality, because inequality in access to power and resources and an unequal division of labor are manifestations of gender discrimination. Thus, fighting discrimination entails reaching these goals. Consequently, we consider these indicators important to assess.

Table 1. Thematic Areas with Relevant Indicators

Thematic area	SDG Indicators
Division of Labor between Women and Men/Most Vulnerable	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location
Access, Power and Control over Resources/Most Vulnerable	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments
	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions
	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

Methodology

The research was conducted in two phases: 1. Secondary data review and 2. Qualitative interviews with key stakeholders. **The first stage of research included:**

1. The review of research reports and/or policy documents by international, state and non-state agencies;
2. The consolidation of information collected for each indicator;
3. The requesting of official statistics from state agencies.

In the second stage of research, based on the analysis and information collected in the first stage, key stakeholders were identified for qualitative interviews. Interview guides were developed for each group of key informants (representatives of state institutions, international organizations and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs)). Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews. Overall, five organizations were reached. The report consolidates the information collected from these

two phases of research. Annex #2 provides detailed information about the secondary data/documents collected and analyzed per indicator and selected to be measured for each thematic area. Annex #3 provides the list of key informants interviewed within the auspices of the study.

Sustainable Development Goal 5 – Gender Equality

The SDGs built on the successes of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Their overall mission is to end all forms of poverty by 2030. With this aim they call all countries to action regardless of their economic status and level of income. The SDGs include 17 goals and 169 targets. They cover three primary thematic areas: economic growth, social inclusion, and environmental protection. Each country is expected to establish national frameworks for achieving the 17 goals and they are responsible for the implementation and monitoring processes at the national level.⁷

In 2015, Georgia prioritized a set of 14 goals out of the 17, as well as 88 global targets. Furthermore, GoG established technical working groups to discuss the relevant SDGs in the areas of Human Rights, Social Inclusion, Economic Growth and Environment Protection. GoG presented a voluntarily conducted national review of SDGs⁸ in New York at the High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in 2016. As recommended by the review, the wording of the targets was adjusted to the country's priorities. One of the most important challenges during nationalization of the goals was the provision of disaggregated data: "The key problem identified during the review process is the lack of data disaggregated by age, gender, and specific sectors of economy. This especially concerns the goals and targets that deal with social rights, labor rights, gender issues, poverty and unemployment."⁸ As discussed in the report, it is crucial for GoG to smoothly mainstream SDGs into the country's strategic documents, without triggering additional bureaucratic processes.

One of the goals GoG prioritized is the 5th Goal.⁷ It aims to achieve gender equality and to empower all women and girls. The following UN and Government agencies were involved in nationalization of the 5th goal: the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Administration of Government/PMs Assistant on human rights and gender equality issues; Ministry of Justice; Ministry of Education and Science; Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs; Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development, UN WOMEN, UNFPA; UNICEF, UNDP.

In order to gain a general overview of the selection, implementation and monitoring processes of the SDG #5 on the local level, interviews were conducted with key informants from the Government Administration,⁹ UN agencies, and two local NGO representatives. Initially, in the proposed research methodology, we anticipated conducting a preliminary analysis of the data obtained through document review, and then discussing it with relevant experts during the interviews in order to gain in-depth explanations of the data, as well as recommendations. However, during the secondary data review

⁷For the detailed information about the SDGs refer to the [link](#).

⁸ Voluntary National Report on implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 2016. Available [here](#).

⁹The Department of Policy Analysis, Strategic Planning and Coordination and its Planning and Innovations Unit is responsible in coordinating the adjustment of SDGs.

stage, less information regarding the selection process of the SDG indicators was available compared to the baseline value and content related data. Consequently, the assessment process itself guided the topic of the interviews with regard to the selection and implementation process of the SDG indicators per research thematic area. During the interview stage, all relevant stakeholders (Government entities responsible for the SDG implementation, UN agencies engaged in the selection of the indicators) except for UNFPA, which couldn't be reached for interview, were engaged. As for the local NGOs, the majority of the organizations that were contacted couldn't participate in the interviews since they were not involved in the process and therefore, lacked information. Thus, information collected from the interviews fed into the descriptive and explanatory secondary data in terms of providing information about the SDG indicator selection and implementation processes. The section below summarizes the information collected in the interviews.

Even though GoG selected the 5th SDG as a priority, not all targets and indicators of the goal were reselected (see Annex 1 for the list of selected indicators). According to the interviews with the UN Women representative, it was impossible to cover all targets. Hence, they were selected according to the availability of the data. As the government representative claimed, "A working group was formed which worked together with UN Agencies and Geostat to nationalize relevant indicators. SDG indicators on the local level were selected in accordance with the global indicators (which were published in March 2016 on the SDG webpage), based on existing and planned surveys and considering the possible challenges."

At this stage, it is very difficult to assess the relevance of the selected targets, since the selection process has not been completed. Thus, the representatives of UN agencies as well as local NGOs refrained from evaluating the selection process. However, some of the NGO respondents believe that GoG selected indicators which they could easily fulfill and skipped the ones which are difficult to achieve. According to the UNDP, GoG is cooperative and takes into account recommendations related to the selection of the indicators.

As for the implementation process, the representative of UN Women indicated in the interview that the Georgian government is responsible for the implementation of SDGs, but the UN provides technical support to the government to fulfill their international obligations.¹⁰ The country has no separate action plan for the implementation of SDG 5, although it is mainstreamed into the "National action plan for 2016-2017 on the measures to be implemented for combating violence against women and domestic violence and protection victims/survivors"¹¹ and will be integrated in the "National action plan for implementation of gender equality policy in Georgia 2018-2020".

Interviews showed that local NGOs are poorly informed about the selection processes of the SDG indicators. Some of the NGO representatives did not have relevant information, and therefore, could not participate in the research. One of the NGO actors (Women's Fund in Georgia) indicated that they

¹⁰ Personal interview

¹¹ "National action plan for 2016-2017 on the Measures to be implemented for Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence and Protection Victims/survivors" is available only in Georgian. [link](#)

are aware that the Government will launch various accountability mechanisms, such as holding dialogues with stakeholders and establishing thematic groups, etc. However, according to the respondent, no action has taken place yet, and it seems that SDGs are mainstreamed only in documents and are not translated into practice.

However, GoG has a strategy on the implementation of SDGs. Two governmental commissions will be established and be responsible for monitoring implementation. The Interagency Commission for Gender Equality and the Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence will monitor the thematic areas and the Commission on Public Administration Reform and SDGs will be responsible for general monitoring of SDG implementation. An online monitoring platform will be launched. At the international level, the annual meetings of the High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development will play a central role in reviewing progress towards achieving the SDGs.

To summarize, interviews showed that at this stage, the process of nationalizing SDG indicators is in its initial phase and related processes are ongoing.

Results per SDG Indicator

The results of this study are provided by selected indicator in the subsections below. Each subsection includes the definition of the indicator, indicator-related secondary data analysis, indicator-related information on most vulnerable (where possible) target groups (ethnic minorities, IDPs, rural women and people with disabilities) and recommendations derived from the analysis.

1. Division of Labor between Women and Men/Most Vulnerable

To assess the division of labor between women and men, selected SDG indicators are provided below. The data analysis attempts to answer the following questions: Who does what kind of labor (unpaid and paid work, work within the household, work for wages outside the household)? How much time do women and men spend on these different tasks? How is it done and when? Why is it done? How do people perceive these differences? In the final sub-section, data on most vulnerable groups is provided, when available.

1.1. Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age, and location (5.4.1)

Definition of the indicator

Unpaid domestic and care work activities includes the unpaid production of goods for one's own final consumption including:

- Unpaid work that involves the production of goods for self-consumption (e.g., collecting water or firewood);
- Unpaid work that involves the provision of services for self-consumption (e.g., cooking or cleaning as well as person-to-person care for other people, including childcare, care for elderly and sick people);

– ‘Voluntary work’ which consists of services or activities undertaken without pay for the benefit of the community, the environment, and persons other than close relatives or those within the household.¹²

Secondary Data Analysis

Since time use survey data is unavailable in Georgia, other survey data was analyzed to find out about the division of labour for domestic and care work in Georgia. Although time use survey is not available the data enables us to draw conclusions about the overall trend in the distribution of responsibilities in domestic and care work, and hence, on the indicator indirectly.

According to a variety of studies carried out in Georgia during the last few years (since 2011), domestic work is not equally distributed between male and female family members. All the reviewed studies provide consistent evidence that in the vast majority of cases (more than 80%) the burden of housework and child care related activities falls primarily on women. The studies show that approximately 94% of women are responsible for **cleaning the house** and approximately 88% of women are primarily responsible for **cooking** (UNDP Georgia, 2013; UN women, 2014). Only approximately 20% of men share this responsibility with their spouse (30% of men and 19% of women report that the man is responsible/shares in the cleaning and cooking duties in their families) (UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, SIDA, 2014). According to a 2013 report of Public Perceptions on Gender Equality in Politics and Business (UNDP, 2013) 87% of women are involved in the **daily care of a child**, while only 4% of men are. The result is similar in case of **care for other family members**: 77% of women and 65% of men report that looking after sick members of their family is a women’s responsibility. The picture doesn’t change with regards to doing **laundry**. According to the available data, more than 85% of women are primarily responsible for doing laundry, while only 14% of men claim the same (UNDP Georgia, 2013; UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, SIDA, 2014). On the other hand, the vast majority of men are responsible for **fixing household** items (65% according to UNDP Georgia, 2013; 61% according to UN women, 2014). The share of household activities performed without the participation of spouses or partners is slightly lower among younger (18-24-year-old) married women compared to women aged 65 and above. For example, 89% of women aged 65 and above state that they do laundry without their husband’s help, while the share of younger married women stating the same is 74% (UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, Sida, 2014).

Although the above data refers mostly to distribution of labour among women and men, rather than the amount of time spent on those activities, it is still clear that the time performing those tasks is not equally distributed between female and male family members. Women tend to be more responsible for daily tasks such as child rearing, cooking, and cleaning, while the tasks men are more responsible for such as fixing household objects do not require daily engagement. The 2016 “Gender Assessment of Agriculture and Local Development Systems” supports this claim. The study provides evidence that the time distribution on domestic work is unequal between men and women. For instance, according to the study women tend to work 80 days more per year in farming and livestock than men, which is unpaid work. Moreover, women are primary caregivers for family members and housework is mainly their responsibility (Swiss Cooperation Office, Austrian Development Cooperation, UN women, 2016).

¹² Detailed metadata on SDG 5th is available [here](#).

Previous research which attempted to analyze time-budgeting among Georgian women and men in 2006 and 2008 suggests that men have twice as much leisure time as women. Additionally, the data as of 2008 claims that 77% of women spend more than two additional hours on housework and the amount of unpaid work performed by women is 13 times more than men. It is worth to mention that while the data is quite outdated, it still shows the general tendency.

Analysis of attitudes shows the same trend, i.e. some tasks are believed to be performed by women only. For instance, almost half of women and men do not agree that both parents should equally participate in child rearing (45%) and household activities (46%) (Cleaning, cooking, etc.) (UNDP, 2013). Moreover, according to the 2014 report “Men and Gender Relations in Georgia,” 77% of men and women think that changing diapers, giving children a bath, and feeding them are mother’s responsibility (UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, Sida, 2014). A 2014 survey shows that 88% of girls were taught to cook during adolescence compared with only 32% of boys; While 92% of women were taught to clean the apartment only 29% of men were (UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, Sida, 2014).

Most Vulnerable Groups

For the crosscutting analysis, the data was available only on ethnic minority groups. According to a UN Women study (2014) in Kvemo Kartli, women are responsible for cleaning the house, supplying water, washing, cooking, child rearing (including helping with homework), caring for sick persons, etc. Men are responsible for providing heating/wood and repairing the household if necessary. Comparative data on the situation among ethnic minorities and ethnic Georgians is unavailable.

2. Access, Power and Control over Resources/Most Vulnerable

To assess access, power, and control over resources, selected SDG indicators are discussed below. The data analysis attempts to answer the following questions: who has access, power, and control over natural and productive resources (e.g. land), income, information, time, technologies and services. How is the access, power, and control (legally) granted? Why is this so? Is it fair (e.g. it helps us to identify who has the better means to opportunities and where there are barriers; will it tell us about existing power relations)? In the final sub-section, data on most vulnerable groups is provided, as available.

2.1. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments (5.5.1)

Definition of the indicator

Indicator 5.5.1 (Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments) is defined as “measure[ing] the ratio of the percentage of seats held by women and minorities (including indigenous people) in legislative bodies (national, regional, local) divided by their respective population share. It demonstrates the extent to which women and minorities have equal access to key decision-making positions within formal political processes. Participation in elected office is a key aspect of women’s and minorities’ opportunities in political and public life, and is therefore linked to their

empowerment. Their presence in decision-making bodies alters dynamics and can help bring to light women’s and minorities’ concerns.”¹³

The definition suggests that this indicator is critical to women’s and minority’s empowerment, but it has limitations as well. The definition continues, “This indicator cannot measure actual political decision-making power, and women and minorities can still face many obstacles in carrying out their political mandates. Also, it cannot be assumed that because there are more women and/or minorities in parliament that they will automatically promote gender or minority issues.”¹³ This means that together with this indicator there are other indicators which should be measured to understand real power access and empowerment opportunities for women and minorities. One of them is the “Proportion of women in managerial positions” (indicator 5.5.2).

Secondary Data Analysis

According to the official data, there are only 24 women in the Parliament of Georgia out of 150 elected MPs in 2016, which constitutes 16% of total members. Considering the time series data, there has been progress since 1992 when it comes to women’s representation in parliament, which has increased by 10 percentage points (see the table below)¹⁴.

Table 2. Women in National Parliament of Georgia (1992-2016 years)

Years	1992	1995	1999	2004	2008	2012	2016
Women in Parliament (%)	6.22	6.64	7.17	9.33	6.00	12.00	16.00

According to the Public Defender’s parliamentary report “The Situation in Human Rights and Freedom in Georgia -2016” (pp.603), the 4% change from 2012 to 2016 parliamentary elections was spontaneous and not the result of gender mainstreamed politics.¹⁵

In 2011, the Organic Law of Georgia on Political Unions of Citizens was amended to provide financial incentives to those political parties that voluntarily included candidates of different sexes in their party lists. Initially, the law provided 10% additional funding if the party list was composed of at least 20% female candidates. Now, this law provides a 30% increase in the supplement from the state budget parties receive if the party list includes at least 30% women within every ten candidates. This approach was applied to ensure that female candidates are presented at the top of the party list and have the opportunity to be elected.¹⁶ Twelve political parties have received financial incentives, with three 2014’s local elections and nine in 2016’s parliamentary elections.

¹³More Information about indicator 5.5.1 is available [here](#).

¹⁴ Data are presented from 1992, because this was the first legislature elected in Georgia after becoming an independent country. Parliamentary election are conducted every four years.

¹⁵A full version of the Public Defender’s parliamentary report, 2016is available [here](#).

¹⁶Organic Law of Georgia on Political Unions of Citizens, Article 30 (71). Available [here](#).

On the proportional lists of all parties, women make up 37% of candidates according to the report “Analyze of Parliamentary Election 2016 – Main Findings and Challenges”, published by the Georgian Young Lawyer’s Association (GYLA). In contrast, only 17.52% of candidates were women with single member mandate. Overall, of 24 female members of parliament, 18 were elected by party list and six in single member mandate, first-past-the-post elections (GYLA, 2016).

Table 3. Women candidates by political party in 2016 parliamentary elections

Political Party	Proportional list %	First past the post elections %
Georgian Dream –Democratic Georgia	11.6	7.0
United National Movement	25.1	7.0
Free Democrats	33.0	13.0
State for the People	17.5	14.0
Alliance of Patriots of Georgia	37.9	18.0
Nino Burjanadze-Democratic movement	40.5	18.0
Shalva Natelashvili-Labor party of Georgia	41.2	24.0
Republican Party	34.1	33.0
National Forum	32.1	28.0
Topadze–Industrials, “Our Fatherland”	33.0	18.0

Table 4. Women in other branches of power

Branch of power	Women in various branches of power (%)
Executive (Cabinet of Ministers)	10.5
Judiciary	53
Local government	By proportional rule 15.5
	By majoritarian rule 8.1
Mayors	0
<i>Gamgebelis</i> (executive head of the local municipalities)	2.9
Governors (of regions)	0

From the data provided above, it might be concluded that women’s representation in political bodies is very low and thus, they are almost excluded from decision making processes. However, the judiciary looks an exception, because women’s representation is higher compared to other branches of power.

This could be explained with the fact that the appointment process of judges is more democratic and based on more clear criteria defined in the Organic law of Georgia on Common Courts¹⁷ compared to other branches of power. However, it should be considered that there is no data available regarding the hierarchical position of judges meaning that there might be a large share of female judges having a lower level positions.

Research also indicates that once women are represented in parliament, they are very active and support women's issues. In the 8th term of the Parliament of Georgia (2012-2016), in total, MPs initiated 304 draft laws, out of which 42 were initiated by women (GYLA, 2016). There were seven laws adopted to improve women's right and six of them were proposed by female MPs. The other was initiated by the government (GYLA, 2016). This demonstrates how important it is to increase women's participation in politics and decision-making processes as it is directly or indirectly connected to improvements of their rights.

The data also suggest that the electoral system is problematic for women who stand for election. International as well as Georgian practice shows that first-past-the-post systems (FPTP) are not "women friendly" i.e. gender sensitive. This is because in this electoral system, economic resources and social capital are more crucial and in many cases women lack such resources. Moreover, the last parliamentary elections in Georgia also show that financial incentives do not work properly and do not ensure a significant increase of women's participation in parliament (GYLA, 2016).

The same research indicates that women's political participation is not a popular topic among the political parties, and they avoid discussing and recognizing the importance of these issues. Furthermore, party members fail to understand the meaning of the term women's political participation. They consider the appointment of women as coordinators in election commissions as enough for women's participation in politics. The politicians could not identify concerns related to women's political participation within their parties. While party members stated that they work on women's issues in the regions, they could not name a specific case of doing so (GYLA, 2016).

Within the study "Gender Equality Assessment among Political Parties of Georgia",¹⁸ political parties were assessed according to the following components: **Electoral** (women to men ratio in the proportional lists, women to men ratio that were elected by the proportional lists, women to men ratio in runoff lists, women to men ratio that were elected by the runoff system); **Institutional** (women to men ratio in the main administrative body and women to men ratio in the governing board, the percentage of the budget allocated specifically for gender equality, the existence and operation of an office on women's affairs or gender equality issues); **Programmatic** (the presence of women or gender equality issues in the party bylaws or regulations, the existence of CEDAW mechanisms and concrete measures to ensure gender equality in party programs).

As stated in the report, "The results could be demonstrating that when it comes to actual power sharing with women the party that gets most of the seats is inclined to do the power sharing less." As for the

¹⁷Organic law of Georgia on Common Courts [here](#).

¹⁸Full report of Gender Equality Assessment among Political Parties of Georgia, 2017 is available [here](#).

institutional dimension, “it turned out that none of the political parties have any kind of financial support allotted to gender equality issues in their official budgets. That certainly does not mean that parties do not spend money on these issues on an ad hoc basis.” Interesting results were in the programmatic dimension as well: “it turned out that none of the parties have any formal rules or quotas that promote gender equality. Some parties did emphasize the existence of the informal trends, but we could not take them into account given the criteria requirements.” The research concluded that “Given the socioeconomic context of Georgia ...the political system already favor (sic) clienteles and charismatic linkages between the electorate and the political elite. Consequently, party programs become secondary to these strategies as employed by the parties in electoral competition. The low number of women in politics is a reflection of these realities. As the success of the party depends on (sic) clientelistic potential women are less suited to offer viable options as potential candidates for the parties. Limited financial support base for the opposition parties and their narrow base preclude party transparency and intraparty democracy as well. The fact that there were no budgetary allocations for gender equality or party bylaws that address the issue clearly show that this indeed is the case.”

Discussion

Besides the descriptive analysis of the official/secondary data, it is useful to discuss attitudes and public opinion around the issue. In particular, the National Democratic Institute (NDI) in Georgia conducted research related to public attitudes towards women’s participation in politics. As the survey (NDI, CRRC, November 2016) results show, women respondents are more positive towards increasing the numbers of women MPs than men. To the question “what kind of impact would increase the number of women MPs have on Georgia” only 49% of males answered “a positive impact” compared to 62% of women. There is no significant difference between surveyed men and women about a question on a gender quota, but women are slightly more positive. To the question “to what extent do you support or oppose adopting a mandatory quota in the parliament to increase women’s participation“, 9% of men and 18% of women “strongly support” and 45% of men and 48% of women “somewhat support” it. There is no large difference about mandatory quotas in terms of age, but there is an interesting difference in time series. Before the parliamentary election of 2016, there was a campaign for mandatory gender quotas organized by civil society, and on 13 February, 2014, the Task Force on Women’s Political Participation in Georgia was established by local civil society and international organizations. The Task Force worked with members of parliament on this issue and in 2016 a draft law was put before parliament on gender quotas. The draft law only received 30% of votes in parliament and was not approved. After all these campaigns and lobbying activities, the numbers show that in society the support for gender quotas did not increase but rather decreased. According to the data, in April 2015, 68%¹⁹ of the population supported and 16% opposed mandatory gender quotas, whereas in November 2016, 60% supported and 27% opposed them.²⁰ One of the possible explanations might be that in 2015 the population was not well informed about the practical implications of mandatory gender quotas, while as a result of the

¹⁹ The sum of two answers “strongly support” and “somewhat support”

²⁰ The sum of two answers “strongly oppose” and “somewhat oppose”

intensive campaigns conducted in 2016, awareness increased and the population provided more informed but critical responses to the quotas on the survey.

The survey (NDI, CRRC, November 2016) data show that on the one hand, society realizes the potential barriers for women to be actively involved in politics, as most of them agree with the statements: “ In Georgia, voters prefer voting for male candidates”; “in Georgia, women are not brought up to be leaders”; “in Georgia, women don’t have access to the same kinds of personal networks and connections that men have”; “in Georgia, women do not have enough time for politics because of household responsibilities”; and “in Georgia, women have less access to financial resources than men for political activities”. On the other hand, they also agree with the statement “in Georgia, women have a good chance of being promoted within the political party structure”, meaning that they see potential barriers for women, but cannot connect them in practical implications in party system.

According to the same survey, men and women respondent responses are statistically indistinguishable, but there are several statements in which their opinions differ including “women are held to higher standards than men and have to do more to prove themselves”. Forty-seven percent of men agree to this statement compared with 58% of women. Forty-two percent of men and 55% of women agree with the statement, “In Georgia men prevent women from engaging in politics”. The statement least agreed with in the survey was “generally speaking, women are less likely than men to ask for promotions and raises” to which only 34% of men and 35% of women agreed.

Legal framework

The policy brief “Georgian Politics without Women – Quotas as a Solution to the Problem”²¹ notes that “Georgian legislation guarantees de jure equality with its gender-neutral legislation, but does not have policies and laws that promote de facto equality.” Below is a list of laws and policy documents which assure women’s participation in politics and decision making processes:

National Laws:

- Constitution of Georgia
- Election Code of Georgia
- Organic law of Georgia on Political Unions of Citizens
- Law of Georgia on Gender Equality
- Law of Georgia on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination

National action plans and policy documents:

- Gender Equality Policy Implementation Activity Plan of 2014-2016
- The Gender Equality Council of the Parliament of Georgia - 2017 action plan
- Human Rights Action Plan for the years 2016-2017

²¹Georgian Politics without Women – Quotas as a Solution to the Problem, 2015. Available [here](#)

- National Strategy for the Protection of Human Rights in Georgia(2014-2020)
- Gender Equality Policy of Election Administration of Georgia
- Gender Equality Strategy of Ministry of Defense of Georgia

International agreements and conventions Georgia has acceded to:

- CEDAW-The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women(articles 3,7,8)
- International Pact – on Civil and Political Rights (part II, article 3)
- EU-Georgia Association Agreement(chapter 14, article 349)
- United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 –Action Plan
- Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action

The Most Vulnerable Groups

While analyzing women’s issues, the intersectional approach should be applied meaning that certain vulnerable groups such as people with special needs, IDPs, rural women and others might have specific needs and problems, meaning that these groups become the objects of multiple discriminatory practices.

The results of the research “Gender Assessment of Agriculture and Local Development Systems” indicates that, in general, rural people are less involved in decision making processes, which is even more critical with regard to the female population. The same research shows that this could be caused by traditional gender stereotypes: “Existing gender stereotypes prevent women from participating in planning and decision-making processes at all levels of public life.” Furthermore, the findings state that “gender equality is not mainstreamed or is insufficiently mainstreamed in relevant national, regional and village level policies: the different needs, interests and perspectives of men, women, boys, and girls are not systematically taken into consideration” (UN Women, SCO, ADC, 2016). The same conclusions can be found in the Public Defenders’ parliamentary report 2016, according to which women’s participation in the decision-making process is low. In 2016, 37,392 men and 19,911 women participated in community gatherings where important issues are discussed and solved.

A Needs Assessment of Ethnic Minority Women in Georgia was conducted in 2014, which included ethnic minorities residing in compact settlements in the Samtskhe-Javakheti (Armenians and Russian Dukhobors) and Kakheti (the Avar, Azerbaijani, Kist/Chechen, Ossetian, Russian Molokan and Udi communities). Special attention was given to the needs and priorities of Roma women based on the analysis of their situation within their largest communities in Kobuleti and Kutaisi. As the results show, “The general level of political participation and representation of women in both the Samtskhe-Javakheti and Kakheti regions is low” (ECMI, UN Women, 2014).The same research shows that “Minority women are especially ignored in local government structures. In Samtskhe-Javakheti, minority women have been elected only in Akhaltsikhe (an Armenian) and Ninotsminda (an Armenian). As for

representation in municipal administrations, only 45 minority women are employed across all six municipalities” (ECMI, UN Women, 2014). The “Study on the Needs and Priorities of Ethnic Minority Women in the Kvemo Kartli Region” provides an overview of the challenges and barriers preventing ethnic minority women from participating in public life and in decision making processes. The findings of the survey show that “A total of 77.6% of respondents were uninformed about the activities and responsibilities of local government and self-government bodies. Awareness was lower in rural than in urban areas (81.4% vs. 66.4%)”. The same survey findings show that a “majority did not take part in the drafting of the local budget, determining district/town priorities, planning municipal programmes or evaluating implemented municipal programmes/studying the satisfaction level” (UN Women, ISSA, 2014).

2.2. Proportion of women in managerial positions (5.5.2)

Definition of the indicator

Target 5.5.2 refers to “the proportion of females in the total number of persons employed in senior and middle management.” It provides information on women who are involved in decision-making processes and are employed in large enterprises and state and non-governmental institutions.

Secondary Data Analysis

Secondary data regarding the number of females holding managerial positions, gender disaggregated data on organization founders and business owners, and surveys that measure the public’s attitudes towards women in business were analyzed in line with the indicator’s definition. The data provided by Geostat²² was used to find the percentage of women who hold managerial positions in public and private organizations. Geostat has official data about active organizations in Georgia. The data include information such as sex of the organization directors and founders, and regions, where the organizations are located. The data is also divided by organization type. To analyze state organizations, gender disaggregated data on civil servants and ambassadors was used as another indicator.

In addition to the above data, questions from online survey databases such as the Caucasus Research Resource Center’s (CRRC)²³ and the World Value Survey’s (WVS)²⁴ online data analysis tools were analyzed. The former was used to determine the percentage of woman who run their own business, while the later dealt with the attitudes and beliefs of the Georgian population towards woman in managerial positions. The data is discussed in detail below.

Geostat provides gender disaggregated data on organization directors. The chart below represents the percentage of female directors in the following organization types: LTD, joint stock company (JSC),

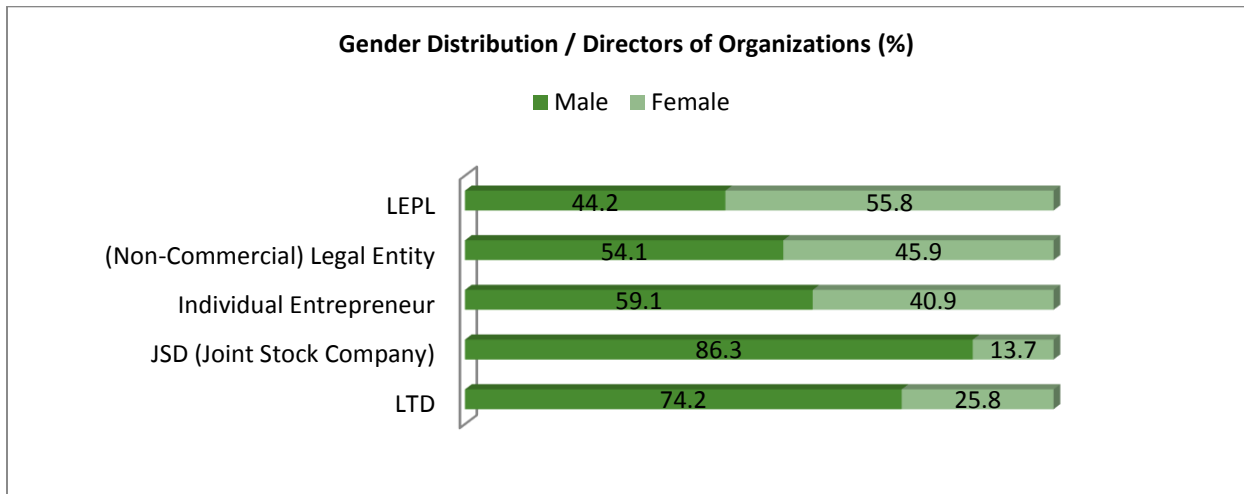
²² Official webpage of GeoStat you can find [here](#)

²³ For the online database of CRRC refer to the [link](#)

²⁴ For the online database of WVS refer to the [link](#)

Individual Entrepreneurs, non-commercial legal entity and legal entities of public law (LEPL).²⁵ The data show that the percentage of male directors exceeds the percentage of female directors in almost all types of organizations. The difference is especially vivid in the case of LTDs and JSCs. LEPLs are the only type of organization where the number of female directors exceeds the number of male ones.

Chart 1. Gender distribution of organization directors



In order to see whether there was a difference in gender balance among organization directors based on geographic location, the data was analyzed by region. However, the analysis shows that there is no difference at the regional level. Thirty six percent of organization directors are female in Tbilisi and thirty-five percent in other regions of Georgia.

The percentage of organization founders was also analyzed for the purposes of the study. The data show that 63.9% of organization founders are male and 36.1% are female. Thus, about one third of organization founders/directors are female in Georgia. However, it also has to be mentioned that quite often women are only officially the organization founders or directors, and men (e.g. their spouses or family members), actually run the organization or business.

The gender imbalance is vivid when analyzing state organizations. According to the Civil Servants Bureau²⁶ the total number of civil servants (2015) is 53,109 (including police), 31% of which are female (16,551) and 69% male (36,558). 112 civil servants are persons with disabilities, however, due to the lack of data, it is impossible to say what the share of women among them is. The average age for men is 41 and for woman 39. Out of the total number of civil servants in managerial positions (4,334), 78% are male and 22% female. Thus, the gender imbalance is even greater in governmental organizations.

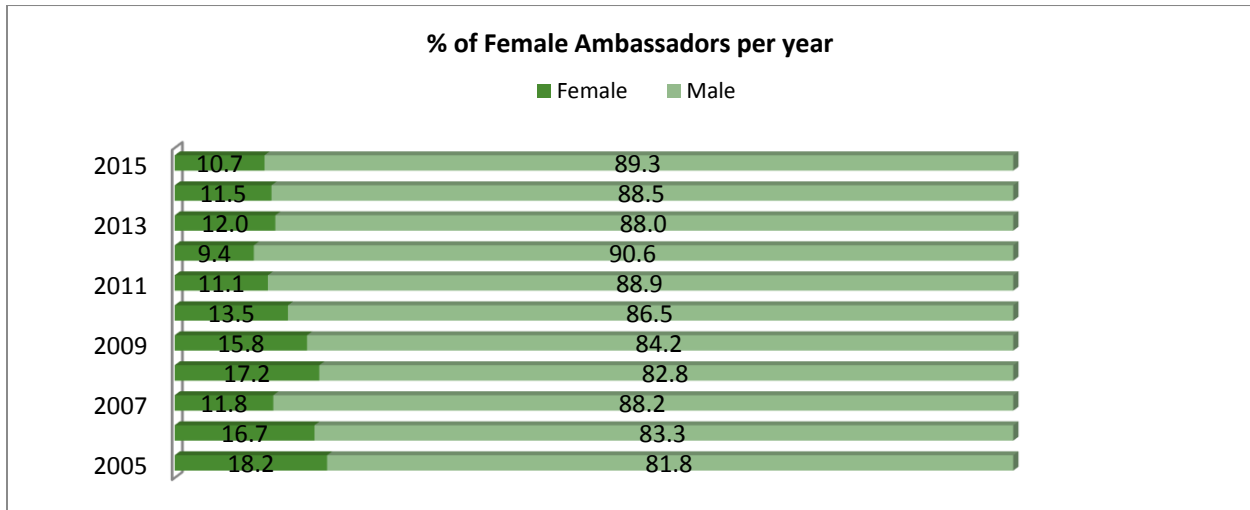
Gender balance among Georgian Ambassadors was analyzed. Geostat provided data from 2005 till 2015. The data illustrate that there are about five to six times as many male ambassadors as female. While the

²⁵ In certain cases the sex of the organization directors and founders was not available. The data presented in the report concerns only those cases where the sex of the director/founder was available.

²⁶ Civil Servants Bureau [webpage](#).

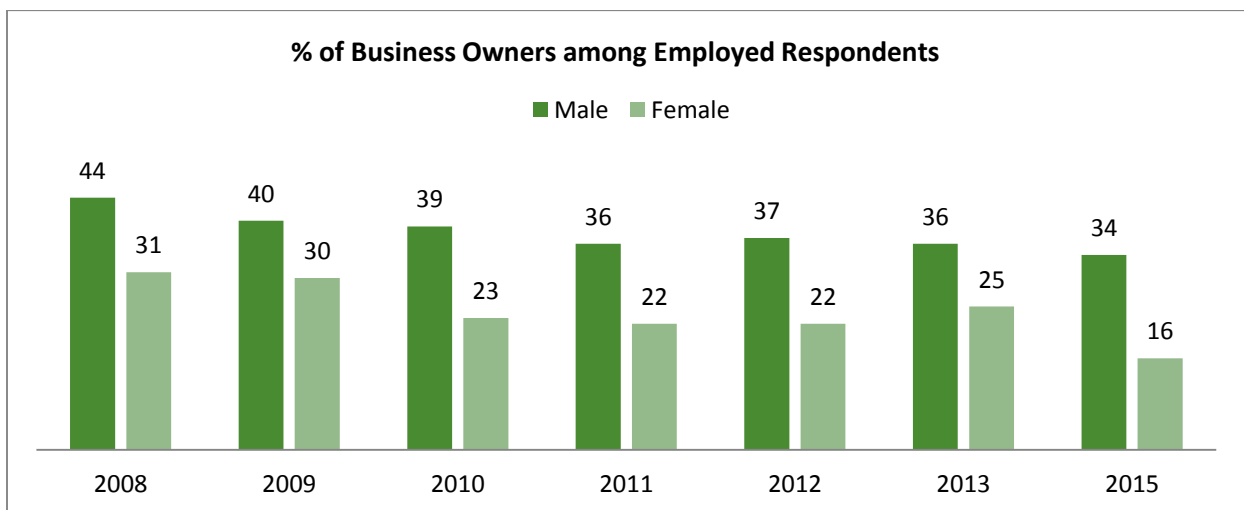
absolute number of ambassadors has increased, the number of male ambassadors increased over the years, while the number of female ones remains unchanged. This leads to the fact that the share of female ambassadors declined from 18.2% in 2005 to 10.7% in 2015.

Chart 2. Gender distribution of female ambassadors



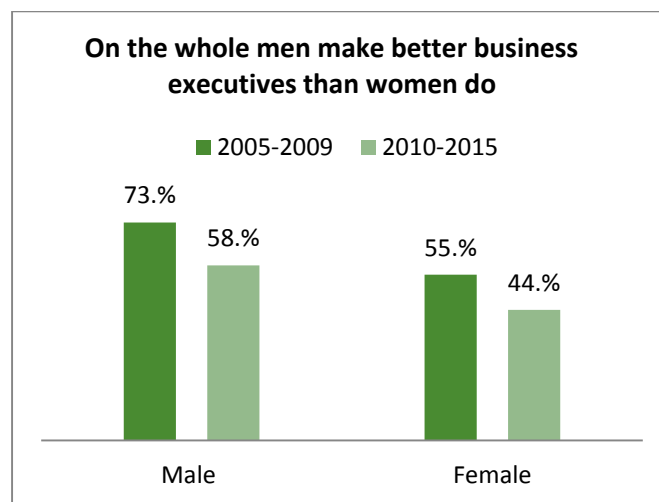
Caucasus Barometer (CB) data includes gender disaggregated data of the share of private business holders among the employed respondents in 2008-2015. The data illustrate that the percentage of men who run their own business exceeds the number of women who do. For example, only 16% of employed women have their own business, while this number reaches 34% among men. The majority of employed women work at local private or state organizations. The chart below shows the percentage of male and female business holders who had their own business from 2008 to 2015. Interestingly, the share of female business owners declined over the years, with the highest percentages in 2009 (30%) and 2008 (31%).

Chart 3. Gender distribution of business owners



In order to explore the attitudes, beliefs and stereotypes of the Georgian population towards women in managerial positions, the WVS databases of 2005-2009 and 2010-2015 were analyzed. The data show that in 2009 almost two thirds of the population (63.5%) believed that men make better business executives than women. The number has decreased to 50.4% with 58.4% male and 43.6% female in 2014.

Chart 4. Public opinion on women in managerial positions



As illustrated in the chart, the percentage of respondents who agree with the statement has decreased among both sexes during the past years. Nonetheless, men still tend to hold stereotypical attitudes.

2.3. Proportion of a) 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 (5.a.1.)

Definition of the indicator²⁷

Target 5.a. refers to reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services and inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws. Within this target, indicator 5.a.1 is divided into two parts and provides (a) the percentage of people with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land (out of total agricultural population) by sex and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure.

Part (a) measures the incidence of people with ownership or secure rights over land. The formula for calculating this is the number of agricultural people that own land divided by the number of agricultural people multiplied by 100. Part (b) focuses on gender parity and the extent to which women are

²⁷ The indicator is defined according to the following [guideline](#)

disadvantaged in ownership and/or in relation to rights to agricultural land. The following formula should be applied: number of women that own agricultural land divided by number of agricultural people that own agricultural land multiplied by 100. According to the initial definition, the total agricultural land as a denominator is applied because ownership or property rights security over agricultural land is obviously relevant only for the people whose livelihoods rely on agriculture. However, in the Georgian context, land ownership does not necessarily relate to being engaged in agricultural work as people living in urban areas are often land owners. The term 'agricultural land' is used to indicate land used for farming, livestock and forestry activities. In terms of the ownership and rights over land, the definition provided in the "Law of Georgia on the Ownership of Agricultural Land" was employed in the current study. In particular, a landowner is considered the legal owner of land through being registered in the public registry. As for the data obtained from the Georgian National Statistics Office (Geostat), land tenure referred to the arrangements or rights under which people have access to land. Three main categories were classified: 1. Legal ownership or legal owner-like possession; 2. Rented land and 3. Land is operated with long-term lease, no possession but in active use. Considering the lack of statistical data at all levels, in the current study, we could only collect sex disaggregated data (part b) on land ownership by type of tenure.

Secondary Data Analysis

According to the findings census Geostat conducted in 2014, the population of Georgia is 3,729,635 persons, or 14.7% less than the previous census conducted in 2002. 57.4% of citizens live in urban areas and 42.6% in rural areas. Of the total population, the majority (52%) are women; 41% reside in a rural area. According to the integrated household survey Geostat conducts annually (2016), households in Georgia are predominantly male headed. The head of household is defined as the "person who is acknowledged as such by the other members" and usually "the person who has the primary authority and responsibility for household affairs, and, in the majority of cases, is its chief economic support."²⁸ This is the same in rural and urban areas. There are twice as many male-headed households as female-headed households (69% against 31%), and this has remained constant over the last three years. Fewer women are heads of households in rural areas compared to urban areas (37% vs. 30%). A plurality of female headed households (41%) have heads over 60 years old, which could be explained by the fact that after the death of a male household head, the female family members fulfil their counterpart's roles. Furthermore, 85% of single member households are headed by widows, while in households with a widower or widow but are not single member households, 50% of the heads of households are women. In other cases, there are more male headed households than female headed households, which indicates an unequal sex distribution across the households with regard to a leading role in the household.

Women living in rural areas are deprived of a number of opportunities such as access to education, employment, a leading role in the household, and access to the rights of ownership of agricultural lands. Even though, women's access to land has been linked to better household welfare, food security, income generation, and prevention and response to gender-based violence it still represents an issue

²⁸ Handbook of Household Surveys (UN, 1984), this definition is applied by Geostat; available [here](#).

worldwide (UN Women, 2013²⁹). Current statistics show that just one per cent of the world's women own land (UN Women, 2013). Women have a disadvantaged position with regard to land ownership in the Georgian context as well. Even though the constitution of Georgia guarantees equal property rights for men and women, discriminatory cultural and traditional attitudes and practices at the local and institutional levels related to women's ownership and control of land create obstacles for women.

This study relies on data provided by the National Agency of Public Registry of the Ministry of Justice to calculate the status of the indicator regarding women's access to agricultural land. According to the data, there are 2,041,552 registered owners of agricultural land, which is 55% of the population. Of these, 1,061,203 (52%) are male owners, 587,570 (29%) female owners, and for 392,779 (19%), gender specific information is missing. Out of the overall registered number, where the gender of the land owners is indicated, 65% are male and 35% female. Unfortunately, the agency does not possess information regarding the settlement type (rural or urban) of the owners. Thus, we could not identify the percentage of land owners in the agricultural/rural population.³⁰

We also collected sex disaggregated data from Geostat (2014)³¹ on land tenure referred to the arrangements or rights under which people have access to land. The data shows that women own 19 % of the land that is in a legal ownership or it is legal owner-like possession; women own 11% of the land, which is rented out and women own 18% of the land which is operated with long-term lease, no possession but in active use. It is obvious that in each types of land tenure women have less access to land.

Discussion

Official data shows a low level of women's ownership of agricultural land or other productive resources. The reasons such data can be analyzed from different angles starting from the deeply rooted gender stereotypes translated into local/traditional practices and lasting to the policy level challenges, which do not fully cover women empowerment aspect in its respective strategies and action plans. Furthermore, research indicates several key reasons which explain unequal access to land rights: 1. Inheritance practices favour sons over daughters; 2. Women have less economic resources to buy land, because they have less access to loans since they are not employed and/or do not possess property, which is a requirement for microfinance institutions and banks; 3. Perceptions and attitudes towards women's role in the household; 4. Patrilocal marriages which means that women leave their households to live with the husband's family once married; In the latter case, women do not usually claim their share of land from their family and they do not have property rights over the land of their new step family (FAO,

²⁹ Report available [here](#).

³⁰ Out of the total population (total number of land owners - 2,041,552/total population – 3,720,400*100) 55% owns agricultural land; out of the total rural population, 98% owns agricultural land (total number of land owners- 2,041,552/total agricultural population – 2,078,800*100). However, the former cannot be accurate since the agricultural land owners can be in either urban or rural settlements. There is no settlement segregated data available (data is obtained from Census 2014, Geostat).

³¹Data are disaggregated according to the sex of the head of the holdings (e.g. women headed vs men headed holdings).

2016).³²Research conducted by USAID (2014), indicates that despite laws protecting women's access and rights to land, women in Georgia often lack information about their rights and customary law and religious law shape their attitudes and behavior. Although the law guarantees an equal right to inherit, women and girls are often secondary heirs with few rights. Furthermore, women have little involvement in economic decision-making within the family and do not have the same rights and responsibilities as men. It is especially critical for women residing in rural areas since they have limited access to credit (USAID, 2014).³³

Official statistics and a number of studies conducted to understand the economic activity of women suggest that women in Georgia have less access to agricultural resources. A study conducted by the Center of Social Sciences (2013) which aimed to identify the needs and challenges of women residing in high mountainous regions of Georgia indicates that in these regions the number of female respondents, who possess real estate is significantly lower (60%/34%) than in lowlands. This is related to the inheritance problem (even though the legal right to inheritance is equal). According to a plurality of male as well as female respondents (39%), property should be bequeathed to a son. Of those interviewed, 86% are landowners out of which 34% of land owners are female.

Another study shows that women experience problems with access to land due to women's traditional roles and power relations, which in practice obstruct women from having the legal protection of property being registered in their name (UNDP, 2016). While there are no legal barriers to women's property ownership in theory, in practice it is customary for men to be given preference in property inheritance, ownership and administration. In rural areas, land is usually registered to the husband. In families, sons most often inherit property. In the case of divorce, women that are living in homes owned by their father-in-law would have no rights to this property (USAID, 2010). Furthermore, women remain economically dependent on their spouses, and thus, are reluctant to seek a divorce. Divorce disproportionately affects women in Georgia. This remains even more critical in some ethnic minority communities in Georgia, with a prevalence of religious customary law marriages. The use of customary law affects women's chances of receiving social support in cases of divorce as well as access to property rights and other economic assets (UN Women, 2014). According to another study conducted to assess women's access to agricultural resources, men own 70% of farms, while women own only 30% of farms in Georgia. This is explained by gender stereotypes like the belief that women's role is mainly in the family, while paid employment outside the household and managing business is a priority for men. These attitudes are predominant in the mountainous populations (CSS, 2013).

The constitution of Georgia ([article 21](#)) states that both men and women have the same inheritance rights. Several research reports concluded that women are discriminated against when it comes to inheritance and are not the primary beneficiaries of inherited property. Research conducted by UNDP (2013) confirms this in regards to parents' property distribution, inheritance and property legacy. A high number of respondents believe that a major part of the parent's property or even the whole property should be given to a son. A significant share of respondents (50% of n=1760) support equality and think

³²Report available [here](#)

³³Report available [here](#).

that parents' land should be divided equally between a son and a daughter. However, the number of people who think that land should be given to a daughter is very small (2% of n=1760). At the same time, 47% supports the idea that the land should be given completely or partially to a son. The arguments explaining this data are associated with Georgian traditions, practices and attitudes towards family property that are bequeathed to a man since the parents are mostly taken care of by their sons. Often, the tradition of bequeathing property to a son is so strong that even women do not consider it proper to dispute their brother's property inheritance (UNDP Georgia, 2013).

A recent study conducted by UN Women Georgia (2016) indicates that gender stereotypes prevent women not only from owning land but from other economic resources and even education such as agricultural training. Notably, fewer women than men are aware of what the extension services offer. Even though agricultural cooperatives often increase productivity, very few women are involved in them, with women constituting only 25% of the membership base (UN Women Georgia, 2016).³⁴ The same study shows that loans are more difficult to access for women than for men, as women are less likely to possess land or a house that could function as collateral for the banks or microfinance institutions. A study conducted by UN Women in 2013 had the same finding, noting that meeting real estate requirements for collateral is often problematic for women in Georgia since the owners of residences or household farms are mostly men and/or women are more often partial owners of the property than full owners, which may hamper women from obtaining a loan that requires real estate as a guarantee.³⁵

Policy level perspectives

According to [Chapter 10](#) (Agriculture and Rural Development) of the Association Agreement between Georgia and the European Union, Georgia has an obligation to adopt an agriculture and rural development policy that is compliant with EU policy and European best practice. In compliance with the obligation, the strategy of Rural Development of Georgia³⁶ was developed in 2016, which covers 2017-2020. The strategy includes gender sensitive aspects such as prioritizing women's economic empowerment, property rights and participation in decision making processes at the local levels. Furthermore, the Government of Georgia developed the Strategy for Agricultural Development in Georgia 2015-2020.³⁷ The strategy, in its implementation phase, envisages collecting gender-disaggregated information for the purpose of its substantive analysis and subsequent inclusion in policy measures targeted at the promotion of female participation in agriculture and agribusiness. At the same time, the strategy recognizes minority, elderly, rural youth and other disadvantaged groups in program development and service delivery. One of the specific visions includes support for the development of cooperatives, which would improve the involvement of vulnerable groups, women and young farmers in

³⁴UN Women Georgia 2016, Gender Assessment of Agriculture and Local Development Systems. Retrieved from [here](#).

³⁵ Accessibility of Microfinance Institutions services for women existing barriers and opportunities, 2013. Available [here](#).

³⁶Rural Development Strategy of Georgia. Available [here](#).

³⁷Strategy of Agricultural Development in Georgia. Available [here](#).

economic activities. None of the above-mentioned strategies highlights or solely focuses on the importance of women's rights and access to agricultural land.

The Most Vulnerable Groups

According to the data Geostat provided (2014), the majority of women who are heads of households are ethnic Georgians (87%). 6% are ethnic Azeris, and 4% are Armenian. The remaining share of female headed households are distributed across other ethnic minorities groups. Furthermore, the majority of women (97%) who are heads of household do not have IDP or Refugee statuses. Only 3% have such statuses. The tendency is the same for women with disabilities. Only 3% have disability status and the majority (94%) do not. Based on such a limited data it is difficult to determine, however, it could be claimed that ethnicity or any other vulnerability statuses could be associated with obstacles for women to be the heads of the household and to claim rights for the households' property.

UN Women conducted a study of ethnic minority women. All ethnic minority women in the study reported problems and needs related to access to land (UN Women 2014).³⁸ In particular, among minority groups, there are culturally-based differences in women's legal ownership of family assets. In most of the Muslim communities, women do not inherit and are not holders of titles to property and it is registered in the husband's name. This in turn, prevents women from obtaining bank loans since banks require collateral. Hence, they are prevented from becoming actively involved in the formal economy. In many municipalities populated by ethnic minorities, ecological migrants were resettled. This process had a negative impact on the distribution of land, which is very important for minority women's livelihood, housing, and social support from municipal budgets (UN Women, 2014).

Conclusions and Recommendations

In 2015 Georgia joined the Sustainable Development Goal agenda and active work has started to enable the effective implementation of the agenda through prioritizing targets and establishing committees. Currently, the SDG implementation process is in its initial phase, which includes selection and contextualization of SDG targets and indicators. As the process overview during the research showed, the list of indicators is not finalized yet. The process of finalization is mainly led by GoG, while UN agencies are involved in technical support. Other stakeholders, such as local NGOs are excluded from the selection and contextualization process for the indicators. Moreover, there is no plan in place on the involvement of the NGOs in further steps. Inclusion of local NGOs as grassroots-level stakeholders, would be an essential asset for the SDG target and indicators selection and contextualization process, as much as they might be the holders of valuable information about the existing needs and real gaps at the grassroots level.

This report once again highlighted the problem of the lack of data, especially when it comes to describing the situation related to the most vulnerable (ethnic minorities, IDPs, people with disabilities, etc.) groups. Local NGOs might be considered important supporters of collecting accurate data before and during the implementation of the SDG.

³⁸Needs Assessment of Ethnic Minority Women in Georgia, 2014. Available [here](#).

A summary of findings and recommendations per research thematic area are presented below:

Thematic area 1: Division of Labour between Women and Men/Most Vulnerable

The data for this thematic area were collected and analysed through the SDG indicator 5.4.1 - *Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age, and location*. As mentioned above, very scarce data is available for the given indicator. Only data which indirectly measures the indicator is available. There is no official data collected and the analysis was conducted based on the several surveys conducted by various national and international organizations working in Georgia. The surveys provide information only on role distribution, rather than time distribution among women and men in household related activities.

The data is quite consistent with the widely-spread view of that the distribution of labour between genders falls along traditional line, i.e. housework, cleaning, cooking, caregiving, etc. are recognized as more “female” tasks, while fixing household things is thought of as a “male” task (Tsereteli, 2006; Katchkatchishvili and Nadaraia, 2014). The causes of such attitudes and behaviour are rooted in the male dominated culture and escalated by a variety of actors. For instance, according to the 2014 report “Gender Assessment in Georgia”, different challenges, such as war and economic crisis, led to a double burden on woman. Even those women who are employed outside of their families, are not free from domestic duties. Rather, they have to do housework independently which makes women’s labour invisible. After the war, men become more depressed, lost their breadwinner function, and therefore women took the role of breadwinner, while still doing domestic work (Austrian Development Cooperation, World Vision, 2014).

This role distribution obviously leads to an unequal distribution of time spent on unpaid work among women and men. The situation is likely one of many factors preventing women from detaching from the family and engaging in other activities which is crucial for women’s empowerment. The data might indirectly serve as evidence that girls need to exert more effort experience personal and professional self-realization. They are required to care for family and children, while at the same time, contemporary lifestyle demands them to be strong and independent women. The majority of girls/women, especially those, who are in a socially disadvantaged position, will fail to meet these requirements until responsibilities towards family and accordingly time spent on unpaid work is distributed equally among men and women.

Considering the fact that accurate and updated data on this issue is missing in Georgia, it would be recommended to allocate funding to plan and implement a time-use survey in rural and urban parts of Georgia and collect and analyze the time-use data among Georgian women and men. The analysis should also disaggregate information by age, settlement type, employment, educational status, ethnicity, etc. Such data would serve as a strong evidence base on which further steps will be initiated to eliminate the above-mentioned problems.

Thematic area 2: Access, Power and Control over Resources/Most Vulnerable

The following three SDG indicators were analyzed under the second thematic area: *5.5.1 - Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments; 5.5.2 - Proportion of women in managerial positions* and *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*. The data for all three indicators were largely unavailable, although compared to thematic area 1, there was more official data.

Overall, the data analyzed for all three indicators shows that women have significantly less access, power and control over resources than men, which could be explained by the patriarchal structure of the society and the traditions and norms entrenched in the social structure.

The data analysis demonstrated that **women's representation in political bodies** is poor and women, as a social group, have almost no political power to lobby for the issues they are interested in. Although the legal framework is gender neutral and does not discriminate against either sex, the implementation of these frameworks shows that this is not enough and special measures need to be undertaken to reach real equality among men and women in practice and not only on paper. In reality, women have equal rights by law but not equal opportunities. This issue is deeply rooted in culture and tradition. Women lack the economic resources and necessary social connections to engage in politics on an equal footing with men. The judiciary is one exception in this regard, as women are equally represented. This could be explained by the fact that the appointment process of judges is more democratic and based on more clear criteria defined in the Organic Law of Georgia on Common Courts.

To increase women's participation in politics, the main recommendation from NGOs and international organizations are gender quotas/zipper list for party lists and reforms of the election system. As the policy brief "Georgian Politics without Women – Quotas as a Solution to the Problem" notes "A contextual analysis concludes that the Georgian Government should implement drastic measures to ensure the equal participation of men and women in politics." The document recommends amendments to the Elections Code of Georgia to establish legislative party quotas, as one of the most effective and well-established methods of boosting women's participation in political life. But this would not be a strong enough measure to meet the SDG, especially for more vulnerable groups of women. Rather additional activities targeting minority women particularly aimed at improving their language skills and promote different educational programmes would be appropriate. The report notes that, "The gender parameter should be stronger positioned in social protection policies and programmes for the most vulnerable groups such as IDPs and ethnic minorities."³⁹It goes on to recommend, "Build[ing of] capacity of line ministries and local governments (gender advisers), state statistics office and academia in designing and monitoring evidence-based policies and programmes that address gender aspects and the most vulnerable women."³⁹Furthermore, international organizations have an important role to play. As the report notes, "Given the current state of affairs it seems that the only force that can positively impact the gender equality issue in the parties and their overall democratization is the international

³⁹"Current Trends and Recommendations for Social Protection Policies in Georgia with a Focus on IDP, Conflict-Affected and Ethnic Minority Women" (2015) UN Women

community. All of the interviews with the party representatives tell the same tale – all the achievements made so far in pursuing these twin goals were accomplished by the support of various international government and nongovernmental organizations.”⁴⁰

Women are underrepresented in *managerial positions* in public and private organizations. There are more male organization directors and founders at all organization types except for LEPL, the number of male ambassadors is much higher than the number of female ambassadors, and the share of men who run their own business is also higher. Stereotypes about woman in business are still common among the population, and it is believed that men are better at doing business than women. Thus, more awareness raising activities should be conducted with the population to change attitudes toward working woman. Women should be empowered and encouraged to lead their own business and have more career-oriented goals. The awareness raising actions should be done with both: men and women, with all age groups starting from school age, and should include vulnerable groups such as women with special needs, IDPs, ethnic minorities and rural woman. The official data on woman in managerial positions is not available for vulnerable groups such as ethnic minorities, people with disabilities, IDPs and rural woman. Disaggregation according to these social groups should be included in National Statistics databases.

The situation is the same with regard to *women’s access to economic resources*. As the analysis showed, women have almost no access to agricultural land since the data indicates that the vast majority of landowners in Georgia are male. The same trend applies to the leading role in a family (head of the household) and ownership of agricultural holdings. Men are the main agricultural land owners and this has remained constant over the last five years. There are different explanations for the low level of women’s ownership of agricultural land, other productive resources, knowledge and expertise. One could be related to the deeply rooted gender stereotypes translated into local/traditional customs and practices and also, policy level challenges that do not fully cover women’s empowerment aspects in their strategies and action plans. Even though, the constitution of Georgia guarantees equal rights for men and women including the right of inheritance and ownership, customary law and local practices shape women’s access to economic and other types of resources. For the most vulnerable groups, this is even more important due to the very low level of access to resources for women living in rural areas, ethnic minorities, and women with disabilities.

From the overview provided above, it is recommended to conduct an analyses/assessment of Georgian law governing women’s land rights, including family law, and assess the degree to which Georgian women have participated in and benefited from land privatization, with particular attention on female headed households. Based on the analysis and findings of the assessment, a follow-up action agenda might be considered for support. Considering the challenges to reporting on the status of indicators due to the lack of appropriate data it is recommended to collect disaggregated data (settlement, sex, age) for a baseline measurement of indicators. This could be done through the public registry or the national statistics office.

⁴⁰“Gender Equality Assessment among Political Parties of Georgia” (2017) NIMD

Annexes

Annex 1. List of selected SDG indicators by GoG



SDGs_Georgia_ENG.
xlsx

Annex 2. List of the secondary data/documents per indicators.

Study Area	Indicator	Secondary data/documents
Division of Labor between Women and Men/Most Vulnerable	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Public perceptions on Gender equality in politics and business (2013) UNDP; ➤ Study on the needs and priorities of ethnic minority women in the Kvemo Kartli region (2014) UN women; ➤ Men and gender relations in Georgia (2014) UNFPA, UNDP, UN women, Sida; ➤ How does Gender determine roles and behaviors of women in and outside of Georgian families (2011) CRRC; ➤ Men and Women in Georgia (2015), National Statistics Office of Georgia; ➤ Gender assessment of Agriculture and local development systems (2016), Swiss cooperation office, Austrian development cooperation, UN women; ➤ “analyze of parliamentary election 2016 – main findings and challenges” (2016), Young Lawyer Association; ➤ Official statistical data of National Statistics Office of Georgia; ➤ “Results of November 2016 Public Opinion Polls in Georgia” (2016) NDI, CRRC; ➤ “Gender Equality Assessment among Political Parties of Georgia” (2017) NIMD;
	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ “Gender Assessment of Agriculture and Local Development Systems” (2016) UN Women, SCO, ADC; ➤ “Needs Assessment of Ethnic Minority Women in Georgia” (2014) ECMI, UN Women; ➤ “Study on the Needs and Priorities of Ethnic Minority Women in the Kvemo Kartli Region” (2014) UN Women, ISSA ➤ “Current Trends and Recommendations for Social Protection Policies in Georgia with a Focus on IDP, Conflict-Affected and Ethnic Minority Women” (2015) UN Women
Access, Power and Control over Resources/Most Vulnerable	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Official data from the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) on the percentage of woman on managerial positions of 2016 year ➤ Official data from the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) on the number of Georgian Ambassadors of 2005-2015 years;
	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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Official data from the National Agency of Public Registry of Ministry of Justice of Georgia on the percentage of the ownership of the agricultural land segregated by sex; ➤ Official data from the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) on the data about agricultural land ownership by type of tenure from the population census of 2014; ➤ “Study on the Needs and Priorities of Ethnic Minority Women in the Kvemo Kartli Region” (2014) UN Women; ➤ UN Women’s contribution to the general discussion on rural women of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, 2013; ➤ Gender assessment of Agriculture and local development systems (2016), Swiss cooperation office, Austrian development cooperation, UN women; ➤ Economic Prosperity Initiative: Georgia. USAID, 2013; ➤ Accessibility of Microfinance Institutions services for women existing barriers and opportunities. UN Women Georgia, 2013.

Annex 3. List of the Stakeholders engaged in assessment:

1	Mari Jobava	The Administration Of Government of Georgia (GoG); Assistant to Prime Minister of Georgia on Strategic Planning, Coordination, Human Rights and Gender equality
2	Maka Meshveliani	United Nations Development Programme in Georgia (UNDP); UN Joint Programme for Gender Equality; Programme Manager
3	Tamar Vashakidze	UN Women, United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women; Project Analyst
4	Baia Patariaia	NGO Safari
5	Nana Pantsulaia	Women Fund in Georgia