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NATIONAL STUDY ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN GEORGIA

2022



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The content of this publication does not reflect the official opinion of the European Union, UN Women or the National Statistics Office of Georgia. Responsibility for the information and views expressed herein lies entirely with the author.

NATIONAL STUDY ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN GEORGIA 2022



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KEY TERMINOLOGY AND DEFINITIONS

Coercive controlling behaviours	<p>A strategic course of oppressive behaviours designed to secure and expand gender-based privilege by depriving women of their rights and liberties and establishing a regime of domination in their personal life.</p> <p>Georgia’s Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines coercion as compelling a person by using physical or psychological force to carry out an act, carrying out or refraining from that which is the right of that person, or making a person tolerate an action carried out against his/her will.</p>
Current prevalence / past 12 months	<p>Prevalence rate that shows the proportion of women who experienced one or more acts of violence in the 12 months prior to the interview.</p>
Dating violence	<p>Patterns of abusive behaviours, including emotional, physical, sexual and financial abuse, used to exert power and control over a dating partner. Similarly, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) defines dating violence as a type of intimate partner violence occurring between two people in a close relationship.</p>
Domestic violence	<p>All acts of physical, sexual, psychological or economic violence that occur within the family or domestic unit or between former or current spouses or partners, whether or not the perpetrator shares or has shared the same residence with the victim.</p> <p>Georgia’s Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines domestic violence as a violation of the constitutional rights and freedoms of one family member by another family member through neglect and/or physical, psychological, economic or sexual violence.</p> <p>The Criminal Code of Georgia defines domestic violence as an act of violence, a habitual insult, blackmail or an act of humiliation by one family member against another family member which has resulted in physical pain or anguish and which has not warranted the consequences provided for by Articles 117, 118 or 120 of the Criminal Code.</p>

Economic violence	<p>Acts of control and monitoring of the behaviour of an individual in terms of the use and distribution of money, and the constant threat of dwindling economic resources.</p> <p>Georgia’s Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines economic violence as an act which causes restrictions to the right to have food, a dwelling and other conditions for normal development, to enjoy property and labour rights, to use common property and to administer one’s own share of that property.</p>
Ever-partnered woman	Any woman who has ever been married to a man, has ever lived with a man or has ever been in a dating relationship with a man. This includes women who were or had ever been married or in a common law relationship and/or a dating relationship.
Gender-based violence against women	Violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman, or violence that affects women disproportionately. It constitutes a breach of the fundamental right to life, liberty, security, dignity, equality between women and men, non-discrimination, and physical and mental integrity.
Intimate partner violence	Any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship, including acts of physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours.
Lifetime prevalence	The proportion of women in the population who have ever experienced one or more acts of violence at any time in their lifetime. This prevalence rate does not indicate how long the violence lasted or how frequently it occurred; it only indicates whether or not the violence ever happened, even if it was only once.
Non-partner	A type of perpetrator who has never had an intimate relationship with the respondent, such as a stranger, an acquaintance, a friend, a colleague, a teacher, a neighbour or a family member.
Partner	An intimate partner, a person with whom one has a close personal relationship that may be characterized by the partners’ emotional connectedness, regular contact, ongoing physical contact and sexual behaviour, identity as a couple and/or familiarity with and knowledge about each other’s lives. Intimate partner relationships include current or former spouses (married spouses, common law spouses, civil union spouses, domestic partners), boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners and ongoing sexual partners. Intimate partners may or may not be cohabitating, and they can be opposite or same sex.
Prevalence	The proportion of women in a population who have experienced violence.

<p>Physical violence</p>	<p>Intentional conduct of committing acts of physical violence against another person, and includes bodily harm suffered as a result of the application of immediate and unlawful physical force.</p> <p>Physical violence refers to a range of violent types of behaviour or acts involving physical harm as a result of unlawful physical force. Physical violence can take the form of, among others, serious and minor assault, deprivation of liberty and manslaughter.</p> <p>Georgia’s Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines physical violence as beating, torture, damage to health, illegal deprivation of liberty or any other action that causes physical pain or suffering, including the withholding of medical care, which leads to damage to health or the death of a victim of violence.</p>
<p>Psychological violence</p>	<p>Intentional behaviour that involves seriously impairing a person’s psychological integrity through coercion or threats. This type of violence includes a range of behaviours encompassing acts of emotional abuse, controlling behaviour and economic harm.</p> <p>Georgia’s Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines psychological violence as offence, blackmail, humiliation, threats or any other action that violates a person’s honour and dignity.</p>
<p>Sexual harassment</p>	<p>Any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment.</p>

Sexual violence

Engaging in non-consensual vaginal, anal or oral penetration of a sexual nature of the body of another person with any bodily part or object; engaging in other non-consensual acts of a sexual nature with a person; or causing another person to engage in non-consensual acts of a sexual nature with a third person. Consent must be given voluntarily as the result of the person's free will assessed in the context of the surrounding circumstances.

Any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances or acts to traffic, or other act directed, against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work.

Georgia's Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and/or Domestic Violence and the Protection and Support of Victims of Such Violence defines sexual violence as any sexual act by violence or the threat of violence, or by taking advantage of the victim's helplessness, and any sexual act or other acts of a sexual nature or child sexual abuse.

The Criminal Code of Georgia defines rape as any form of penetration of a sexual nature of the body of a person with any bodily part or object, committed with violence, under the threat of violence or by abusing a helpless condition of a person affected; another action of a sexual nature that does not contain elements of crime under Article 137 of the Criminal Code, committed with violence, under the threat of violence or by abusing a helpless condition of a victim; coercion into penetration of a sexual nature into the body of a person, or into another action of a sexual nature, committed under the threat of damaging property, disclosing defamatory information or information representing private life or such information that may substantially affect the right of that person, and/or by abusing a helpless condition of a person affected, or material, official or other kind of dependence.

Social norms

Widely held beliefs about what is typical and appropriate in a reference group. Social norms are shared beliefs about others. This includes (a) beliefs about what others in a group 'actually do' (what is typical behaviour) and (b) what others in a group think others 'ought to do' (what is appropriate behaviour). These beliefs shape the 'social expectations' within a group of people. Social norm may or may not be based on accurate beliefs about the attitudes and behaviours of others.

<p>Stalking</p>	<p>Intentional conduct of repeatedly engaging in threatening conduct directed at another person, causing them to fear for their safety.</p> <p>Repetition of acts intruding into a person's life which increase in intensity over time. There are many ways in which such an intrusion can take place. One of them, called cyberstalking, involves persistent and threatening intrusions online. Stalking causes distress, anxiety or fear. It is a form of violence in itself but can lead to other forms of violence, including murder.</p> <p>The EIGE defines the stalking of women as a form of violence against women (VAW), defined as repeatedly engaging in threatening conduct directed at a woman that causes her to fear for her safety.</p> <p>The Criminal Code of Georgia defines stalking as the illegal monitoring (personally or through a third person) of a person, his/her family member or a close relative, or the establishment of an undesirable communication by a telephone, an electronic or other means, or any other intentional action conducted regularly and causing mental torture to a person, and/or a reasonable fear of using coercion against a person and/or his/her family member or a close relative, and/or of destroying property, that makes the person substantially change his/her lifestyle or creates a real need for changing it.</p>
<p>Violence</p>	<p>The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation.</p> <p>The Criminal Code of Georgia defines violence as beating or another type of violence that caused the victim physical pain but did not warrant the consequences provided for by Article 120 of the Criminal Code.</p>
<p>Violence against women</p>	<p>Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.</p> <p>Violence against women is a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women including all acts of gender-based violence that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.</p>

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
DFAT	Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade of the Australian Government
DV	Domestic violence
EU	European Union
Eurostat	European Statistical Office
FGD	Focus group discussion
FRA	European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights
GBV	Gender-based violence
Geostat	National Statistics Office of Georgia
GoG	Government of Georgia
HH	Household
IDI	In-depth interview
IPV	Intimate partner violence
Istanbul Convention	Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence
KII	Key informant interview
LGBTQI	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex
MIA	Ministry of Internal Affairs
NAP	National Action Plan
PSU	Primary sampling unit
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
UN	United Nations
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNOPS	United Nations Office for Project Services
VAW	Violence against women
VAWG	Violence against women and girls
WHO	World Health Organization

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The National Study on Violence Against Women (VAW) in Georgia was conducted in 2022 by UN Women in partnership with the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) within the framework of the “Ending Violence against Women and Girls in Georgia” project funded by the European Union and UN Women’s flagship programme “Making Every Woman and Girl Count” in Europe and Central Asia (Women Count). This is the second national study to respond to the data-collection obligation stated in Article 11 of the Istanbul Convention.

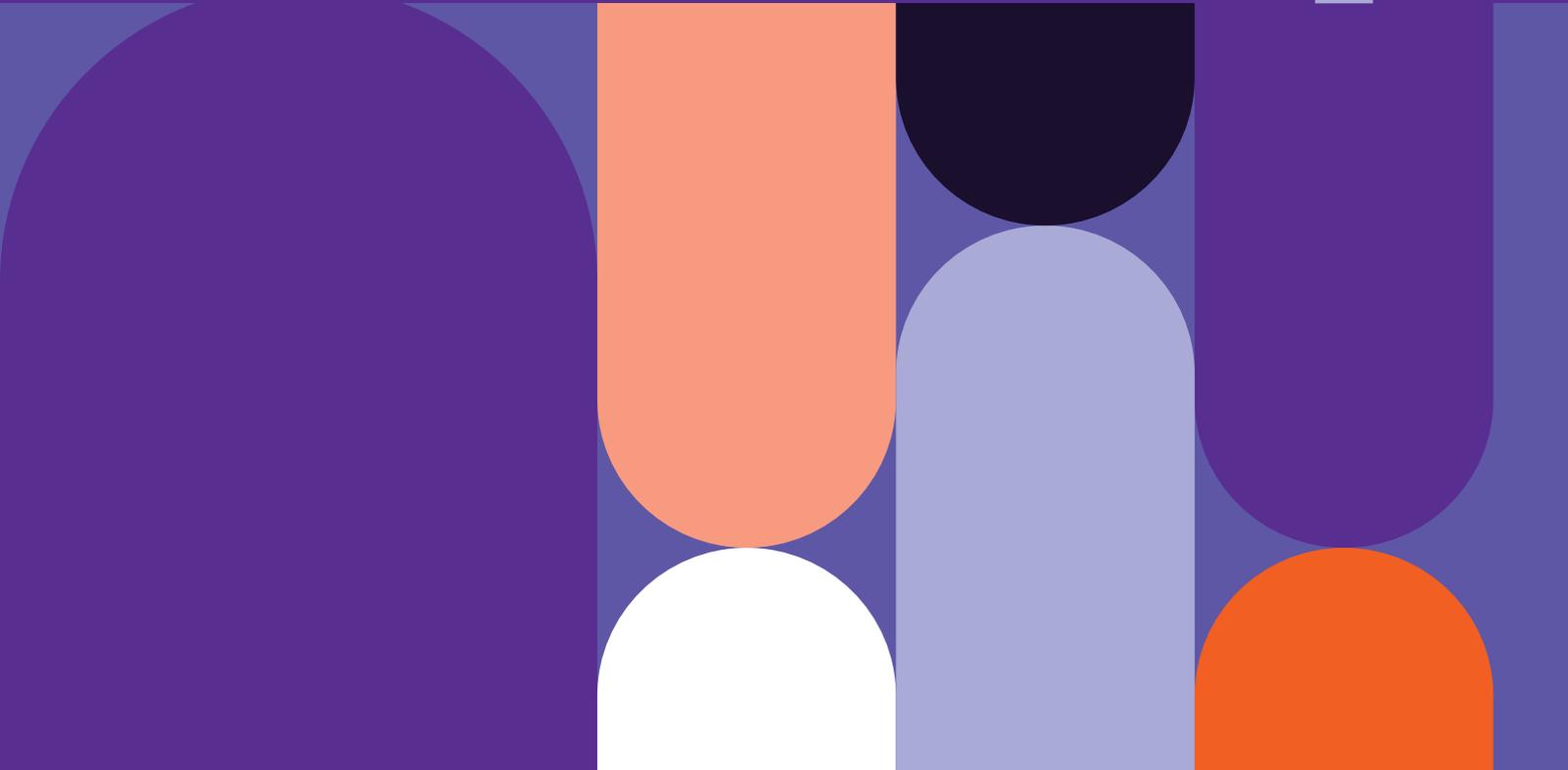
UN Women wishes to especially thank the European Union for its generous support in the implementation of the first (2017) as well as this second (2022) nationwide survey on VAW in Georgia.

We would also like to express our appreciation to the survey implementation team at Geostat and all of the interviewers and supervisors involved in the fieldwork of the quantitative survey and the calculation of its indicators; Dr. Robin Haarr, the international consultant who led the design and implementation of the study and served as the main author of this report; and the WeResearch team, responsible for the fieldwork and analysis of the qualitative component of the study. And last but not least special thanks to Women count for the valuable contribution in data analysis and dissemination.

Most of all, we would like to thank the thousands of women and men who generously spared their time and agreed to be interviewed for the survey and participate in focus groups and in-depth interviews. Their courage in sharing such intimate and personal experiences, which underpin the findings of this study, is highly valued. The data collection and analysis will be used to generate further evidence to inform legislation and policymaking to end violence against women and domestic violence in Georgia.

INTRODUCTION

1

The bottom half of the page features a series of overlapping, rounded rectangular shapes in various colors: purple, orange, black, light blue, white, and dark orange. These shapes are arranged in a way that they appear to be stacked or layered, creating a modern, abstract composition.

Violence against women (VAW) is a pervasive violation of human rights and a global public health problem of epidemic proportions. VAW manifests in various forms of physical, sexual, emotional and economic violence that occurs in both private and public spaces. Ultimately, VAW undermines the mental and physical health and well-being of women and girls, and it can have a negative impact on their long-term sense of safety, stability and peace.¹ VAW also has serious implications for the development and advancement of women and girls, as well as their contribution to the economy and national development. The economic costs of VAW for women, families, communities and society at large are significant.

Similar to the definition of VAW advanced in the 1993 United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (DEVAW), the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence² (commonly referred to as the Istanbul Convention) defines VAW as “a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women, and shall mean all acts of gender-based violence³ that result in, or are likely

Violence against women (VAW) is “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.”

Source: UN General Assembly 1993.

to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.”

Globally, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that about one in three women (35 per cent) have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner and/or sexual violence by a non-partner in their lifetime.⁴ More specifically, 30 per cent of ever-partnered women have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in their lifetime, and 7 per cent have experienced sexual violence by a non-partner in their lifetime.⁵

This violence starts early, as one in four women aged 15–24 who have been in a relationship will have already experienced violence by an intimate partner by the time they reach their mid-twenties.⁶ It is also notable that in 2022, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) documented that about three in five women (55 per cent) who were intentionally killed worldwide were murdered by an intimate partner or other family member; this is up from 48 per cent in 2012, compared to 6 per cent of male homicide victims.⁷

In 2014, a study from the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) estimated that globally, about 1 in 10 or 120 million girls under the age of 20 had been subjected to forced sexual intercourse or other forced sexual acts.⁸ Most girls reported that they were sexually victimized for the first time during adolescence, and the perpetrators of sexual violence were most likely to be intimate partners (i.e. either a current or former husband, partner or boyfriend).⁹ The study also found that nearly one in three adolescent girls aged 15–19 in formal unions had been the victims of emotional, physical and/or sexual violence at the hands of their husband or partner at some point in their lives.¹⁰

Women and girls located at the margins, due to their intersectional identities, are at increased risk of social and economic discrimination and violence as a direct result of their marginalized status within society and their community. Marginalized women and girls include refugees, asylum seekers, documented and undocumented migrant women, ethnic minority women, women living in rural and remote areas, elderly women, women with functional difficulties, women living with HIV/AIDS, and members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer (LGBTQI+) community, among others.

Because of their intersectional identities, women and girls at the margins have fewer opportunities to access support services, protection and justice when they experience violence.

VAW persists for many reasons. One contributing factor is the widely held view that women and girls have a lower status in many societies and are therefore expected to conform to certain social and gender roles and expectations, including that of devoted mother and wife. Several studies have demonstrated that rates of VAW are higher in countries characterized by gender inequality, where 'manhood' is defined in terms of dominance and 'womanhood' is defined by submission or being constrained by the fulfilment of certain gender roles and a rigid code of conduct.¹¹ When such gender roles are not fulfilled, intimate partner violence (IPV) may be seen as a justifiable form of punishment in certain contexts. In fact, in 2014, UNICEF estimated that worldwide, close to half of all girls aged 15–19 thought that a husband or partner was sometimes justified in hitting or beating his wife (or partner) under certain circumstances (e.g. if the wife argues with her husband, goes out without telling him, neglects the children, refuses to have sexual relations with him or burns the food). In Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States, the proportion of adolescent girls who hold such views was only 28 per cent.¹²

Although VAW is often recognized as both a cause and consequence of gender inequality, as well as a major obstacle to women and girls' enjoyment of human rights and their full participation in society, there is no single cause of VAW. Rather, there is a combination of elements at different levels of the 'social ecology' that perpetuate and reinforce biased and discriminatory attitudes, norms and practices that contribute to the pervasive imbalance of power that exists between women and men within societies and contributes to VAW.¹³ These elements include the following:

- Individual factors, including a person's attitudes or beliefs that condone VAW, and one's developmental history, agency and self-efficacy.¹⁴
- Social factors, including a person's social relationships and household dynamics, as well as harmful social and gender norms.¹⁵
- Material factors, including household poverty and the lack of economic opportunities for women and girls.
- Structural forces (macro-level factors), including weak or discriminatory legal and institutional frameworks that underpin gendered differences in power and social status and are the basis for gender inequality.¹⁶

1.1 Global efforts to end violence against women

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development identified ending VAW as a crucial priority for achieving gender equality and sustainable development (**Table 1.1**). In particular, Sustainable Development Goal 5 (SDG 5) aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. More specifically, SDG Target 5.2 aims to eliminate all forms of VAW in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation, while SDG Target 5.3 aims to eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.¹⁷

Ending VAW is recognized as a cross-cutting priority across the SDGs and is vital for achieving SDGs in such areas as poverty eradication, health, education, sustainable cities, and just and peaceful societies.¹⁸ In particular, SDG 16 aims to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable

development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels. More specifically, SDG Target 16.1 aims to significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere; SDG Target 16.2 aims to end abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children; and SDG Target 16.3 aims to promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all.¹⁹

TABLE 1.1. Targets and indicators for SDG 5 and SDG 16

		SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	
TARGET			
		Target 5.2 – Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation	
INDICATOR		DATA REQUIRED	
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		Requires VAWG prevalence data collected through population-based prevalence surveys of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older	
Indicator 5.2.2 – Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence		Requires VAWG prevalence data collected through population-based prevalence surveys of women and girls aged 15 years and older	
TARGET			
		Target 5.3 – Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation	
INDICATOR		DATA REQUIRED	
Indicator 5.3.1 – Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18		Requires prevalence data collected through population-based prevalence surveys of women and girls aged 15–24 years (in some countries, census records also provide data on this indicator)	

TARGET	
	<p>Target 5.6 – Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences</p>
INDICATOR	DATA REQUIRED
<p>Indicator 5.6.1 – Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care</p>	<p>Requires prevalence data related to sexual and reproductive health and decision-making via population-based prevalence surveys of women and girls aged 15–49 years</p>
SDG 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	
	<p>SDG 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</p>
TARGET	
	<p>Target 16.1 – Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere</p>
INDICATOR	DATA REQUIRED
<p>Indicator 16.1.3 – Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological and sexual violence in the previous 12 months</p>	<p>Requires prevalence data related to physical, psychological and/or sexual violence via population-based surveys</p>
TARGET	
	<p>Target 16.2 – End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children</p>
INDICATOR	DATA REQUIRED
<p>Indicator 16.2.3 – Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18</p>	<p>Requires prevalence data of sexual violence before age 18 through population-based surveys of women and men aged 18–29 years, by sex</p>

TARGET	
	<p>Target 16.3 – Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all</p>
INDICATOR	DATA REQUIRED
<p>Indicator 16.3.1 – Proportion of victims of violence in the previous 12 months who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms</p>	<p>Requires violence prevalence data of persons who experienced violence and reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms</p>

The past two decades have also seen increased efforts to measure VAWG. Since 2017, these efforts have led to important lessons learned and enhancements to the research methodologies and data-collection tools, as well as ethics and human subjects protection in research on VAWG. In recent years, the UN and Eurostat have developed guidelines and implementation toolkits for conducting VAW surveys.²⁰ UN Women has also done the same for conducting surveys on men and violence, with a particular focus on IPV.²¹ In addition, the 2017 National VAW Survey in Georgia led to a series of lessons learned.²² These lessons learned, guidelines and implementation toolkits for conducting VAW surveys have been used to design and implement this 2022 National VAW Survey in Georgia.

1.2 Violence against women in Georgia

VAW is not a new phenomenon in Georgia; it has deep roots in Georgian society, which has long been shaped by patriarchal traditions and customs, including strict gender identities and roles, patriarchal authority and customs of hierarchal ordering within the family as well as intergenerational family control. Still, however, data on VAW are limited. In fact, administrative data on VAW and female victims of gender-based violence (GBV) are limited. Key indicators of VAW are published on the website of the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) and are available in its annual statistical publications 'Women and Men in Georgia'²³ and 'Children and Youth in Georgia'.²⁴

In recent years, efforts have been made to compile administrative data on domestic violence. For instance, the number of calls made to the "116 006" victim support helpline has increased three times, from 1,016 in 2011 to 1,864 in 2021 and 3,474 calls in 2022.²⁵ Similarly, the number of reports of domestic conflicts or violence reported to the '112' helpline increased from 15,910 in 2015 to 18,428 in 2020²⁶ and 26,896 in 2021.²⁷

In 2021, the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MIA) reported that there were 8,338 victims of domestic violence, of whom 83 per cent were women, while in 2022, there were 7,846 registered victims with 84 per cent of them women.²⁸ In 2021, there were 7,990 perpetrators of domestic violence, of whom 83 per cent were men, and in 2022, there were 7,366 perpetrators with 84 per cent of them men.²⁹ **Figure 1.1** also shows that the number of beneficiaries in shelters increased from 89 in 2011 to 428 in 2021 and decreased modestly to 398 in 2022,³⁰ while the number of beneficiaries in crisis centres increased

from 24 in 2016 to 344 in 2021 and dropped to 222 in 2022.³¹ However, it should be noted that not all beneficiaries in shelters and crisis centres were VAW survivors. In 2021, among the beneficiaries of domestic violence shelters, 96 per cent were women.

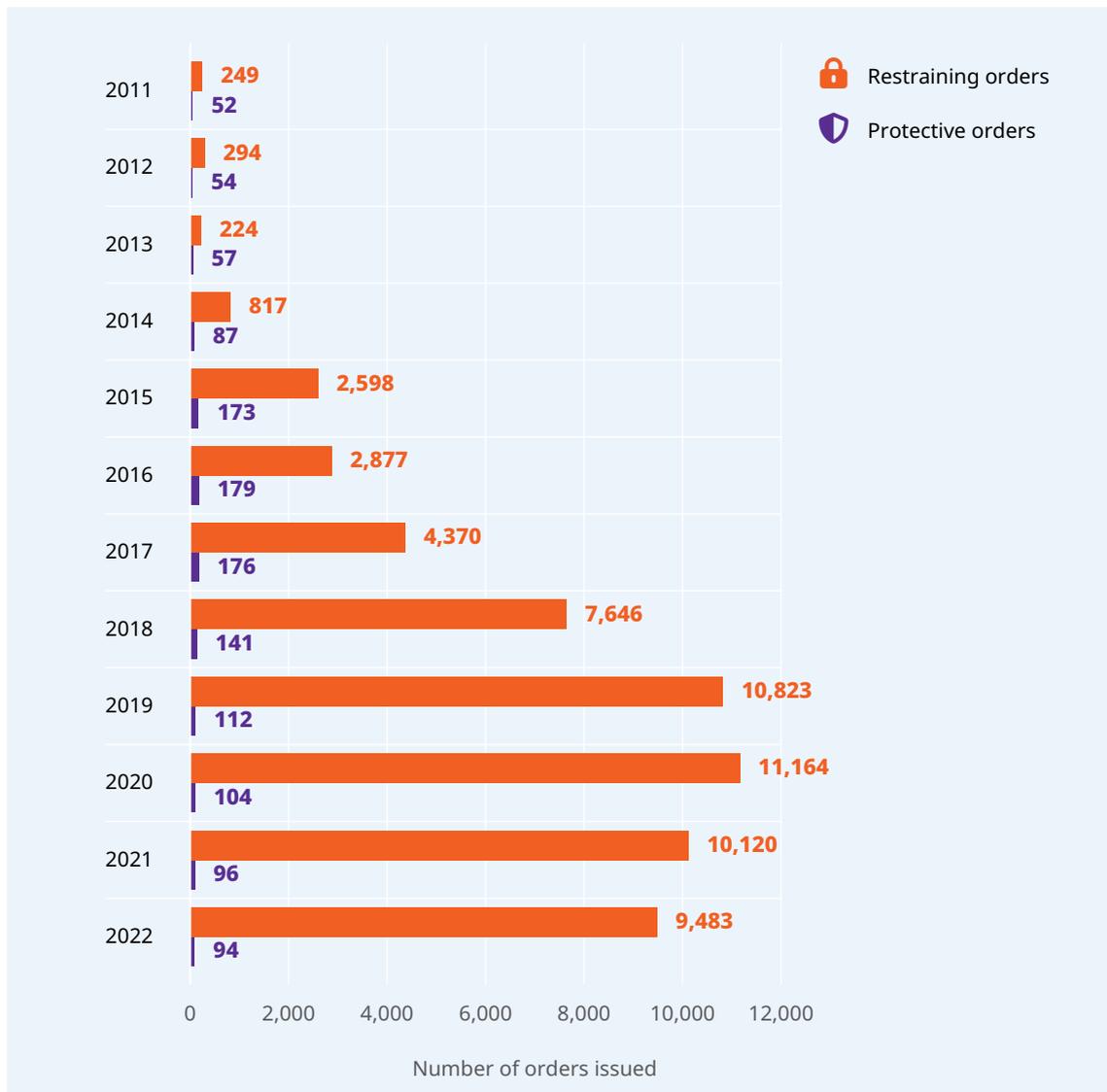
FIGURE 1.1. Number of beneficiaries of VAW/DV shelters and crisis centres in Georgia, 2011–2022



Source: The Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking.

Figure 1.2 also shows a dramatic increase in the number of restraining orders, from 249 in 2011 to 10,120 in 2021 and decreased to 9,483 in 2022.³² According to the MIA, in 2022, among those instances in which restraining orders were issued, 80 per cent of the victims were women.³³ In addition, there has been a nearly twofold increase in the number of protective orders issued, from 52 in 2011 to 94 in 2022.

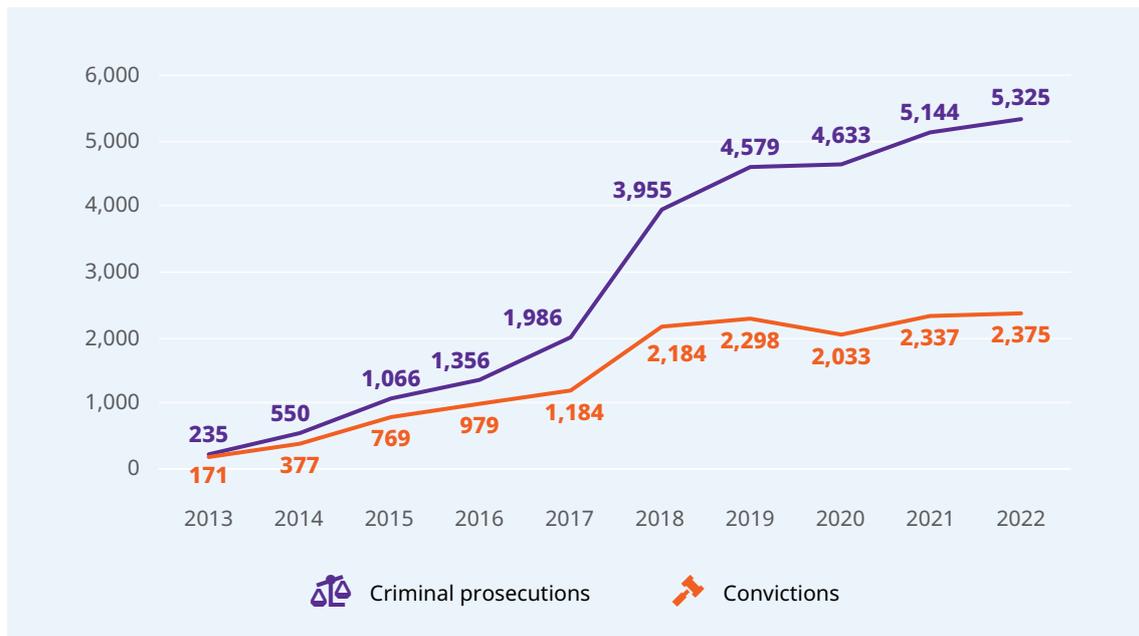
FIGURE 1.2. Number of restraining and protective orders issued, 2011–2022



Source: Ministry of Internal Affairs and the Supreme Court of Georgia.

Finally, **Figure 1.3** shows that the number of criminal prosecutions for domestic violence has increased significantly, from 235 in 2013 to 5,325 in 2022,³⁴ whereas the number of convictions increased from only 171 in 2013 to 2,375 in 2022.³⁵ It is not clear, however, what proportion of domestic violence perpetrators who were prosecuted and convicted are men because the data are not disaggregated by sex, although we can assume that the majority are men.

FIGURE 1.3. Number of criminal prosecutions and convictions on domestic violence cases, 2013–2022



Source: The Prosecutor's Office of Georgia and the Supreme Court of Georgia.

In recent years, efforts have been made to compile administrative data related to sexual violence and domestic violence; however, data are presented as totals and are not disaggregated by sex. For instance, **Figure 1.4** shows that the number of registered rape cases increased from 59 in 2017 to 176 in 2022,³⁶ while the number of rape cases that reached the courts increased from 12 in 2017 to 48 in 2022.³⁷ These data highlight the fact that only a small proportion of rapes are reported in the country; the large majority go unreported.

FIGURE 1.4. Number of registered cases of rape and cases discussed by the courts, 2017–2022



Source: The Ministry of Internal Affairs and the Supreme Court of Georgia.

When interpreting administrative data on VAW and domestic violence, it is important to remember that administrative data are not prevalence data. Administrative data only reflect those cases of VAW and domestic violence that are reported to and registered by the authorities.

More accurate data on the prevalence of VAW can be obtained from the 2017 National Study on Violence against Women in Georgia, carried out by Geostat with technical and financial support from UN Women and the European Union.³⁸ The 2017 study provided the country's first-ever data set on the prevalence of intimate partner and non-partner violence, as well as sexual harassment, stalking and sexual violence in childhood. The study also measured women's and men's perceptions and awareness of gender and violence in Georgia. The sample included a total of 7,607 persons aged 15–64, including 6,006 women and 1,601 men. Findings from the study were used to inform policy and programme development and to establish baseline data for several SDG-related indicators, including those related to SDG 5 and SDG 16.

Table 1.2 shows results from the 2017 National VAW Survey and highlights the prevalence of different types of IPV experienced by ever-partnered women³⁹ aged 15–64 in their lifetime and in the past 12 months (current), as well as the different types of non-partner sexual violence experienced by women aged 15–64, regardless of their partner status. Most notably, 13.6 per cent of women had ever experienced physical, sexual and/or emotional IPV, and 6.1 per cent experienced physical and/or sexual IPV. In addition, 26.2 per cent of women aged 15–64 had ever experienced non-partner sexual violence, including sexual harassment (19.8 per cent), sexual abuse as a child (9.0 per cent), stalking (3.5 per cent) and non-partner sexual violence (2.7 per cent). In recent years, the problem of sexual harassment against women has gained attention, despite the fact that only 19.8 per cent of women reported having ever experienced sexual harassment, half of which occurred in the workplace.

Moreover, the 2017 survey found that 14 per cent of ever-partnered women had ever experienced physical, sexual and/or emotional violence (lifetime) and 4 per cent had in the 12 months prior to the survey. More specifically, 6 per cent of ever-partnered women aged 15–64 had ever experienced physical and/or sexual violence by a male partner, while 1 per cent had in the 12 months prior to the survey. The 2017 study also found that 13 per cent of ever-partnered women had experienced psychological abuse in their lifetime and 3 per cent in the 12 months prior to the survey, while 10 per cent had ever experienced economic abuse and 3 per cent in the 12 months prior to the survey.⁴⁰

In addition, the 2017 survey showed that 78 per cent of respondents believed that domestic violence occurs very often or quite often, 67 per cent admitted that they know victims/survivors of domestic violence, and 56 per cent admitted that they know perpetrators personally.⁴¹

TABLE 1.2. Percentage of women aged 15–64 who experienced intimate partner and/or non-partner violence, by type of violence, 2017

	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Child sexual abuse before the age of 18	9.0	n/a
Sexual harassment	19.8	7.8
Stalking	3.5	1.1
Non-partner sexual violence	2.7	0.4

	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Any type of intimate partner violence (IPV)	14.6	4.5
Physical IPV	4.5	0.7
Sexual IPV	1.9	0.3
Emotional IPV	10.7	2.7
Economic IPV	7.9	2.3
Physical and/or sexual IPV	5.0	0.9
Physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV	11.2	2.9

Source: Geostat and UN Women. National Study on Violence Against Women in Georgia, 2017.

In 2017, women reported lower rates of all types of violence than they did in the 2022 National VAW Survey. This is likely due to the fact that the 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey measured many more types and forms of VAWG than did the 2017 National VAW Survey. The 2022 survey was designed to generate a more comprehensive and reliable measure of all types of VAWG, including in online and social media platforms. In addition, the 2022 survey included women up to 69 years of age, whereas the 2017 survey included women up to 64 years of age. The decision to include women up to 69 years of age in 2022 was grounded in the recognition that many women retire at the age of 65 and return to spending much more time in their home with their husband/partner, who may also be retired; thus, women may be at increased risk of IPV during their early retirement years. It should be underlined that **because the methodology used in the 2017 and 2022 surveys is different, the results related to the prevalence rates of violence are not comparable.**

Findings from the above-mentioned studies have informed policymaking and programming aimed at ending VAW, including domestic violence. Some of these reforms and developments are discussed in the sections that follow.

1.3 National frameworks to end VAW

The Government of Georgia (GoG) has joined or ratified a number of global and regional normative and development frameworks related to women’s rights and gender equality, including but not limited to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Istanbul Convention. In addition, the GoG has endorsed the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and nationalized each of the 17 SDGs, including SDG 5, which aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.⁴²

Eliminating all forms of VAW is a key priority area for the United Nations in Georgia and particularly UN Women, which works jointly with the GoG and non-State partners. To this end, UN Women provides technical support to the Government to meet its targets under the nationalized SDGs and to further ensure that national legislation and policies are in compliance with Georgia's international human rights commitments and obligations. In this regard, UN Women prioritizes support for the harmonization of the Georgian legislation with CEDAW and its General Recommendations and Concluding Observations, as well as recommendations generated through the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) process and Special Procedures of the Human Rights Council, the agreed conclusions of the Commission on the Status of Women and the Istanbul Convention.⁴³

Over the past three decades, Georgia has seen considerable progress in advancing legislative and policy reforms around gender equality and VAW, specifically in an effort to bring national legislation in compliance with international agreements. In 2006, the GoG adopted the Law of Georgia on the Elimination of Violence against Women and Domestic Violence, Protection and Support of Victims of Violence. Subsequently, the GoG adopted the 2010 Law of Georgia on Gender Equality and the 2014 Law of Georgia on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination, with the latter including the prohibition of discrimination based on sex, sexual orientation and gender identity. Amendments were also made to the Criminal Code of Georgia in 2012 to criminalize domestic violence.⁴⁴ In 2019, legislative amendments were adopted that prohibit sexual harassment.⁴⁵

In addition, in 2006, the Domestic Violence Law was introduced as a legal mechanism for the disclosure, elimination and prevention of domestic violence and to ensure inter-agency coordination to support the elimination and prevention of domestic violence, as well as to ensure that protection, assistance and rehabilitation support is provided to VAW survivors. The Domestic Violence Law has defined domestic violence and its forms, thus establishing legal grounds for the issuance of restraining and protective orders. In 2014, the Domestic Violence Law was amended to include other forms of GBV besides domestic violence, following the logic of the Istanbul Convention. Additional legislation has been adopted since then in order to ensure coherence and efficient enforcement of the Domestic Violence Law.⁴⁶

Since 2008, the GoG has also adopted the National Action Plan (NAP) on the Measures to be Implemented for Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence and Protection of Victims/Survivors⁴⁷ and has adopted the 2022–2024 Domestic Violence NAP.⁴⁸ These NAPs also led to the establishment and strengthening of services for VAW survivors, including shelters, crisis centres, psychological support, medical assistance and legal aid, as well as a national helpline.⁴⁹ These NAPs also address the production, analysis and use of gender statistics, which includes setting a common standard for data-collection agencies and establishing the Database on Cases of VAW and Domestic Violence. The status of this database has improved over time with the strengthening of the Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (hereinafter the Inter-Agency Commission).⁵⁰

More recently, Geostat's 2021–2023 Strategy for Gender Statistics includes Task 1.1, which aims to increase the availability of gender statistics in the Georgian National Statistics System. Related to Task 1.1 is the activity to continue to produce sex-disaggregated indicators based on existing regular surveys and irregular surveys, such as the Time Use Survey and the National Study on Violence against Women.⁵¹

1.4 National mechanisms to respond to VAW

Important steps have also been taken to strengthen institutional mechanisms on gender equality in Georgia. In 2010, as a result of the Law of Georgia on Gender Equality and the introduction of changes to the Rules of Procedure of the Parliament, the Gender Equality Council was converted into a standing body of the Parliament. The mandate of the Gender Equality Council is to ensure systematic and coordinated activities on gender issues. In 2013, the Department of Gender Equality was established in the Public Defender's Office,⁵² with the mandate to monitor the protection of human rights and freedoms in terms of gender equality.

In 2017, to strengthen gender equality mechanisms, the Inter-Agency Commission was created under the Human Rights Council, replacing the Inter-Agency Council on Implementing Measures to Eliminate Domestic Violence in Georgia established in 2009. The Inter-Agency Commission is responsible for developing NAPs related to gender equality, violence against women and domestic violence and strengthening the coordination and monitoring of agencies responsible for the implementation of the NAPs, as well as promoting gender mainstreaming in government policies. In addition, the position of Assistant to the Prime Minister of Georgia on Human Rights and Gender Equality Issues was established to chair the Inter-Agency Commission.⁵³ The title of this position was changed to the Adviser to the Prime Minister on Human Rights Issues in 2020.

The Inter-Agency Commission is in line with Article 10 of the Istanbul Convention, which requires Parties to designate or establish one or more official bodies to be responsible for a wide range of functions, including the coordination, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and measures to prevent and combat all forms of violence covered by the Convention.⁵⁴ The Inter-Agency Commission is responsible for coordinating legislative and policy developments related to the development of the legal framework and the planning of activities and programmes directed at the prevention of domestic violence.⁵⁵

Currently, the mechanisms and services listed below in **Table 1.3** are available to VAW survivors in Georgia.⁵⁶

TABLE 1.3. Mechanisms currently in place to support VAW survivors in Georgia

Law enforcement and judicial mechanisms	VAW support mechanisms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Restraining orders issued by the police based on a risk assessment mechanism ▶ Protective orders issued by the courts ▶ Electronic monitoring of high-risk perpetrators ▶ Witness and Victim Coordinator Service at the Prosecutor's Office ▶ Human Rights Protection Department at the MIA, responsible for monitoring the quality of VAW investigations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Health sector regulations for documenting incidents of VAW, including domestic violence ▶ Standard operating procedures for primary healthcare workers to respond to, document and refer VAW cases and survivors ▶ '116 006' consultancy hotline, providing information in eight different languages to VAW survivors

Law enforcement and judicial mechanisms	VAW support mechanisms
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Perpetrator behavioural correction programmes ▶ Femicide Watch reports prepared by the Public Defender’s Office of Georgia ▶ ‘112’ unified emergency phone number, available 24/7 ▶ ‘112’ mobile app, with integrated chat function and SOS button 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Five State-funded shelters in different locations (i.e. Tbilisi, Batumi, Gori, Kutaisi and Sighnaghi) that provide free 24/7 accommodations and legal, psychological and medical assistance to VAW survivors ▶ Seven crisis centres in different regions (i.e. Tbilisi, Gori, Marneuli, Kutaisi, Ozurgeti, Telavi and Zugdidi) that provide legal, psychological and medical assistance to VAW survivors⁵⁷ ▶ State funding available for essential services required by victims of sexual violence

1.5 Reasons for conducting a second national VAW survey in Georgia

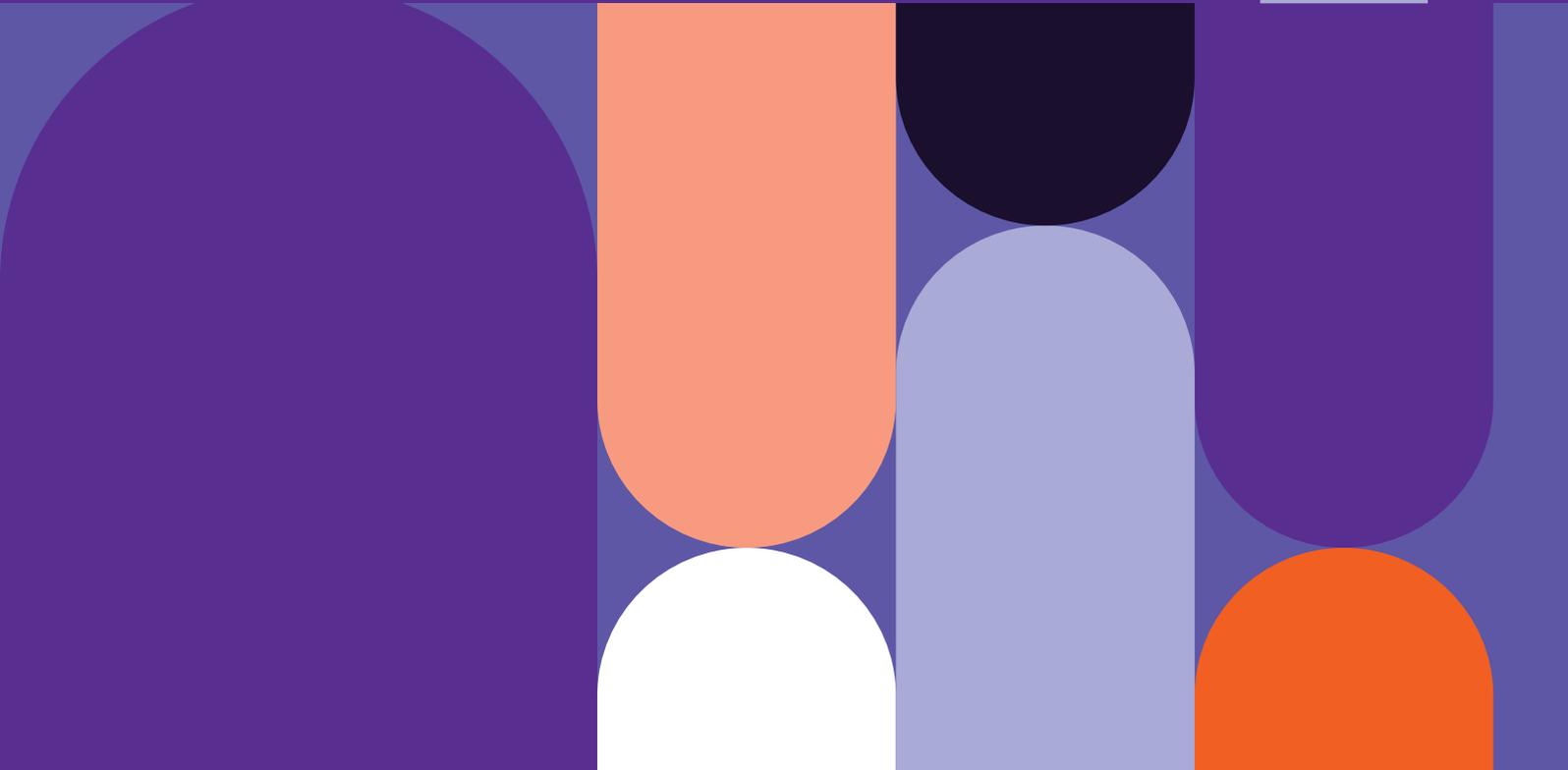
Article 11 of the Istanbul Convention obliges Parties to collect disaggregated, relevant statistical data at regular intervals on cases of all forms of violence covered by the scope of the Convention. It also establishes that Parties shall endeavour to conduct population-based surveys at regular intervals to assess the prevalence of and trends in all forms of violence covered by the scope of the Convention.

It is important to monitor both lifetime and current prevalence rates of VAW because up-to-date data related to VAW helps those who make decisions and draft legislation and policies to understand patterns and trends in VAW over time, as well as the impact of ending VAW initiatives on current prevalence rates. In Georgia, time series data related to VAW is limited; thus, this second national study on VAW will assuredly provide the GoG and international and non-governmental organizations with the data needed to better understand VAW, including domestic violence, and to make evidence-based decisions when formulating policies and programmes to end VAW. Conducting a second national study on VAW will also provide the data needed for SDG Target 5.2—to eliminate all forms of VAW in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.

Strengthening VAW prevalence data is aligned with EU recommendations to not only consolidate efforts to enhance gender equality and fight against VAW but also move swiftly to strengthen the protection of human rights of vulnerable groups, including by bringing perpetrators and instigators of violence to justice more effectively and by strengthening gender statistics and indicators.⁵⁸ Moreover, as previously mentioned, Geostat’s 2021–2023 Strategy for Gender Statistics includes Task 1.1, which aims to increase the availability of gender statistics in the Georgian National Statistics System. Task 1.1 includes an activity to continue to produce sex-disaggregated indicators based on existing regular surveys and irregular surveys, such as the Time Use Survey and the National VAW Survey.⁵⁹

RESEARCH DESIGN

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VAW is a sensitive issue, making data collection on VAW prevalence a complex process.¹ This is because much of the violence that women experience happens behind closed doors and at the hands of intimate partners, family members and/or men with whom they are acquainted. In addition, VAW survivors are often reluctant or afraid to report instances of such violence out of fear of retaliation from their abuser(s) and/or negative reactions from family and friends. Moreover, females who speak out or seek help for VAW, particularly domestic violence, are often blamed for their own victimization.² For these reasons, women usually do not spontaneously disclose a history of violence.³

Other major challenges faced by researchers collecting data on VAW prevalence include developing clear operational definitions of the different types of VAW and tools for measuring each of these types of VAWG.⁴ While the prevalence of VAW, in all its forms, should be measured as a long-term objective, methodological developments have not advanced enough to capture all forms of VAW.⁵

Geostat conducted its second national survey on VAW in Georgia five years after the first national study on VAW was conducted in 2017.⁶ The goal was to conduct the second national VAW survey using similar methods and data-collection tools as the first national study, with some notable differences and improvements to the methodology and data-collection tools. Most notable is that the first national study on VAW included a sample of women aged 15–64, whereas the second survey sampled women aged 15–69. In addition, the types of VAW measured were significantly expanded in 2022 to include additional forms of IPV experienced by ever-partnered women⁷ as well as non-partner violence, sexual harassment and stalking experienced by all women, regardless of partner status. The second national study on VAW was also expanded to include not only measures of attitudes towards IPV and sexual violence, which were included in the 2017 survey, but also social norms related to VAW. Similar to the first national study on VAW, the second national study relied upon internationally established research methods that complement one another to provide a more holistic picture of VAW, including the collection of quantitative and qualitative data.

2.1 Research objectives

The objectives of this second national study on VAW were to:

- Obtain reliable estimates of the prevalence of different forms of VAW at the national level and across three domains—Tbilisi (the capital), other urban areas and rural areas—in one's lifetime and in the past 12 months (current), including different forms of VAW committed by intimate partners and non-partners (e.g. family members, employers, colleagues and strangers) in public and private spaces.
- Analyse women's experiences of VAW based on demographic characteristics (e.g. age, marital status and education level) and settlement type (e.g. Tbilisi, other urban areas and rural areas).
- Assess the extent to which VAW is associated with a range of health and other outcomes.
- Identify factors and context that may either protect or put women at risk of violence.
- Assess the extent to which women are aware of and use services available to VAW survivors.
- Examine women's and men's awareness of and attitudes towards issues of VAW, including its causes, consequences and how it can be prevented.

The research findings serve to update and broaden knowledge about the prevalence of VAW and the attitudes and social norms related to VAW in Georgia. The findings can be used to inform legal and policy formulation/revision and the establishment of services for VAW survivors.

2.2 Quantitative data-collection methods

This second national study on VAW relied upon two surveys: the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey and the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire. Each of these surveys are described in the subsections that follow.

2.2.1 Quantitative data-collection tools

Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey

The 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey was modelled after the survey used in the first national study on VAW, with numerous modifications and enhancements. The 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey was designed to measure the nature and extent of four different types of VAW:

- Intimate partner violence
- Non-partner violence
- Sexual harassment
- Stalking

Each of these types of VAW were operationalized in the questionnaire using a range of behaviour-specific questions. The survey did not attempt to measure an exhaustive list of acts of violence but instead focused on a number of questions about specific acts that commonly occur in violent and abusive intimate relationships, marriages and families, as well as acts that women and girls commonly experience in the workplace and in public spaces.

In 2022, the aim was to strengthen the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey based on lessons learned from the 2017 National VAW Survey⁸ and recent guidance offered by ‘The Violence Against Women Survey Implementation Toolkit’⁹ and the ‘Methodological manual for the EU survey on gender-based violence against women and other forms of inter-personal violence (EU-GBV)’¹⁰, as well as a desk review of other women’s health and life experiences surveys and modules, including those conducted with funding and technical support from UN Women and the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA).

The 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey was developed in keeping with international best practices and ethics and safety guidelines for research and data collection on VAW. The questionnaire was developed in English and then translated into Georgian, Armenian and Azerbaijani.

For comparison purposes, **Table 2.1** highlights key components of the 2017 and 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Surveys. This is followed by a brief description of each module of the 2022 questionnaire.

TABLE 2.1. Measures in the 2017 and 2022 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Surveys

	2017	2022
Sample size	6,006 women	3,300 women
Representativeness of the sample	Regional level; national level; Tbilisi, other urban areas and rural areas	National level; Tbilisi, other urban areas and rural areas
Age coverage	Aged 15–64	Aged 15–69
Types of VAW measured	Intimate partner violence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Sexual violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Psychological violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Economic violence (current) 	Intimate partner violence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Sexual violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Psychological violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Economic violence (current)
	Violence during pregnancy	Violence during pregnancy
	Non-partner violence since the age of 15: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Sexual violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Violence during pregnancy (lifetime) 	Non-partner violence since the age of 15: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Sexual violence (lifetime/current) ▶ Violence during pregnancy (lifetime)
	Sexual harassment	Sexual harassment
	Stalking	Stalking
	Forced or coerced first sexual experience	Forced or coerced first sexual experience
	Violence and neglect before the age of 18: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence ▶ Sexual violence ▶ Emotional abuse ▶ Neglect ▶ Witnessed domestic violence 	Violence and neglect before the age of 18: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Physical violence ▶ Sexual violence ▶ Emotional abuse ▶ Neglect ▶ Witnessed domestic violence

	2017	2022
Other violence-related experiences	Childhood trauma	n/a
	Perpetrators of violence	Perpetrators of violence
	Violence-related injuries	Violence-related injuries
	Help-seeking behaviours	Help-seeking behaviours
	n/a	Missed work days due to violence
	n/a	Missed domestic and care work days due to violence
Social norms and attitudes towards VAW	Attitudes towards IPV and sexual violence	Attitudes towards IPV and sexual violence Social norms related to VAW

The 2022 Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey included the following 16 modules:

- Section 1: Women's Household Selection Form – Collected data and information about the number of people in the household and demographic information related to women in the household, including: female household members; relationship to the head of household; residence; age; date of birth; and eligibility. Based on these data, one eligible female in the household was randomly selected to participate in the Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey. To do this, the tablet chose the female whose birthdate (only the day, irrespective of month and year) was the nearest to the day of the interview.
- Section 2: Household characteristics – Collected data and information about household income and socioeconomics.
- Section 3: Background of the respondent – Collected demographic data and information for the selected female respondent, including date of birth and age, ethnicity, education, relationship with her family of origin, mobile phone use and her sense of safety.
- Section 4: Marital status (relationship with husband/partner) – Collected data and information about the respondent's current and previous marriages/relationships, her age at marriage/union and type of marriage/union, as well as information about her current and most recent husband/partner.
- Section 5: Financial status and work – Collected data and information about land and property ownership, employment, income-earning opportunities, spending power and decision-making abilities.
- Section 6: Health and well-being – Collected data and information about the quality of the respondent's health, decision-making about her health, health-related difficulties, pregnancies, family planning or contraceptive use and decision-making, and her attitude towards wife abuse.
- Section 7: Childhood experiences – Collected data and information related to the respondent's experiences in childhood, including the presence of biological parents, the role of her father/stepfather in domestic and childcare work, decision-making in the household and family/domestic violence in childhood.

- Section 8: Background of the current or most recent husband/partner – Collected data and information about the respondent’s most recent husband/partner, including age, education, employment status, alcohol use/abuse, engagement in physical fights with other men, extramarital affairs with other women and childhood exposure to domestic violence.
- Section 9: Husband/partner domestic violence – Collected data and information as it relates to ever-partnered women’s most recent husband’s/partner’s engagement in controlling behaviours, financial/economic control, psychological abuse/violence, physical violence and sexual violence, including physical violence during pregnancy, and the use of physical violence as self-defence.
- Section 10: Violence-related injuries – Collected data and information about violence-related injuries, including the type of physical injuries, health care for violence-related injuries and the inability to perform household chores and work because of said injuries.
- Section 11: Impact and help-seeking behaviours – Collected data and information about the impacts of violence on women, including psychological harm and disruptions to work, along with help-seeking behaviours, reasons for seeking help and not seeking help, and exposure to violence and abuse in childhood.
- Section 12: Non-partner violence – Collected data and information as it related to non-partner physical and sexual violence since the age of 15, including perpetrators of non-partner violence and help-seeking behaviours for such violence.
- Section 13: Sexual harassment – Collected data and information as it related to experiences of sexual harassment since the age of 15, including places of sexual harassment and perpetrators of sexual harassment.
- Section 14: Stalking – Collected data and information related to experiences of stalking since the age of 15, including perpetrators of stalking.
- Section 15: Social norms and attitudes – Collected data and information related to women’s perceptions of social norms related to VAWG as well as laws related to VAWG.
- Section 16: Completing and concluding the interview – Collected data and information related to sexual abuse before the age of 18 and how the questions made the respondent feel, as well as information about local services for VAW survivors.

Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire

The 2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire was modified significantly from the 2017 Men’s Questionnaire, which only measured attitudes towards gender relations and VAWG, including laws related to VAWG. The 2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire was strengthened based on a review of the ‘Toolkit for Replicating the UN Multi-Country Study on Men and Violence’, which focuses on understanding why some men use violence and how it can be prevented.¹¹ The Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire was developed in keeping with international best practices, ethics and safety guidelines for research and data collection on VAW.

Table 2.2 highlights the types of VAW that were measured in the 2017 Men’s Questionnaire and in the 2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire.

TABLE 2.2. Measures in the 2017 Men’s Questionnaire and the 2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire

	2017 Men’s Questionnaire	2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire
Sample size	1,601 men	1,104 men
Representativeness of the sample	National level	National level
Age coverage	Aged 15–64	Aged 15–69
Types of violence perpetrated against respondents	n/a	Experiences of abuse and neglect before the age of 18: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▀ Physical violence ▀ Emotional abuse ▀ Neglect ▀ Witnessed domestic violence
Other violence-related experiences	Childhood trauma	n/a
Social norms and attitudes towards VAW	Attitudes towards IPV	Attitudes towards IPV Social norms related to VAW

The 2022 Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire included the following 10 sections:

- ▀ Section 1: Men’s Household Selection Form – Collected data and information about the number of people in the household and demographic information related to men in the household, including: male household members; relationship to the head of household; residence; age; date of birth; and eligibility. Based on these data, one eligible male in the household was randomly selected to participate in the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire. To do this, the tablet chose the male whose birthdate (only the day, irrespective of month and year) was the nearest to the day of the interview.
- ▀ Section 2: Household characteristics – Collected data and information about household income and socioeconomics.
- ▀ Section 3: Background of the respondent – Collected demographic data and information for the selected male respondent, including date of birth and age, ethnicity, education, land and property ownership, and sense of safety.
- ▀ Section 4: Childhood experiences – Collected data and information related to the respondent’s experiences in childhood, including the presence of biological parents, the role of his father/stepfather in domestic and childcare work, decision-making in the household and family/domestic violence in childhood.

- Section 5: Health and well-being – Collected data and information about the respondent’s quality of health, alcohol use, and involvement in physical fights in adulthood.
- Section 6: Marital status (relationship with wife/partner) – Collected data and information about the respondent’s current and previous marriages/relationships, his age at marriage/union and type of marriage/union.
- Section 7: Background of the current or most recent wife/partner – Collected data and information about the respondent’s most recent wife/partner, including age, education, employment status, engagement in decision-making, frequency of quarrelling and childhood exposure to domestic violence.
- Section 8: Attitudes about relations between men and women – Collected data and information about the respondent’s attitudes towards relations between men and women and wife-beating.
- Section 9: Social norms and attitudes – Collected data and information related to men’s perceptions of social norms related to VAWG as well as laws related to VAWG.
- Section 10: Completing and concluding the interview – Collected data on how the questions made the respondent feel.

2.2.2 Maximizing disclosure

It is well recognized that VAW is a highly sensitive issue and that most likely, both women and men would be reluctant to disclose their experiences of violence. For these reasons, attempts were made to design the women’s and men’s questionnaires to ensure that both women and men felt comfortable and able to disclose experiences of violence in adulthood and childhood, including in their intimate relationships. In particular, the questionnaires were structured so that early sections collected information on less sensitive issues, such as demographics, while the more sensitive issues, such as reporting violence and injuries, were explored later in the questionnaires. In addition, attention was given to the wording of the survey directions.

The selected respondents were forewarned about the focus of the survey and the sensitive nature of the questions included in the questionnaire; however, the survey’s focus was not made known to the other members of the household. Interviewers were instructed to obtain privacy prior to asking questions about violence experienced by women and men. Respondents were informed that their responses would remain confidential and that they could end the interview at any time.

2.2.3 Pilot survey

The women’s and men’s questionnaires were pretested in September 2022 in three different settlements, including in Tbilisi, in another urban area and in a rural area, with 15 interviews in each locale. In total, 30 women and 15 men were interviewed as part of the pilot. Interviewers went through a four-day training before conducting the pilot fieldwork. Respondents were selected from different age and ethnic groups to test the questionnaires in different settings and languages. After the pilot, minor edits and updates were made to finalize the questionnaires. It is important to note that piloting for the survey took place in locations that were not part of the final sample.

2.2.4 Sampling framework

The 2022 National VAW Survey included a sample of women and men aged 15–69, while the 2017 National VAW Survey used an age range of 15–64. The rationale for increasing the age of women and men to be sampled was aligned with recommendations from the 2021 ‘Methodological manual for the EU survey on gender-based violence against women and other forms of inter-personal violence (EU-GBV)’ put forth by Eurostat. This change also reflected the conclusions of the UN Women–WHO Joint Programme on VAW Data that leaving out women over 50 years of age in previous VAW studies has resulted in notable gaps in knowledge and understanding of the different types and frequency of VAW experienced by older women, including who the perpetrators are of such violence and the causes and consequences of violence on older women. To fill this knowledge gap, the Joint Programme suggested methodologies that capture older women’s experiences of violence.¹²

The women’s survey was designed to provide national-level estimates as well as estimates for three domains— Tbilisi, other urban areas and rural areas—while the men’s survey was designed to capture only national-level estimates.

The primary sampling units (PSUs) selected at the first stage were the enumeration areas defined in the 2014 Population Census. While no further stratification of PSUs for Tbilisi was done, for the ‘Other urban’ and ‘Rural’ domains, PSUs were allocated to strata, defined by region. The VAW sampling of households (HHs) is a three-stage sample: (1) PSUs were selected with probability proportional to size; (2) households within sample PSUs were systematically selected; and (3) a randomly selected eligible woman/man within the selected HH (a woman/man was considered eligible if she/he was 15–69 years of age and regularly lived in the household). For households with more than one woman/man, the nearest birthday method of random selection was used.

The sample size for the women’s survey was 3,300 HHs, distributed uniformly across three domains (1,100 HHs for each). The sample size of each domain was distributed in strata according to the proportion of the size of the strata, defined as ‘region’. The sample size for the men’s survey was 1,104 HHs. The sample size was distributed in strata according to the proportion of the size of the strata, defined as ‘region’ and ‘urban/rural’. In each PSU, 10 HHs were selected in the case of the women’s survey and 8 HHs in the case of the men’s survey. In the case of a non-response, the HH was replaced by another HH within the same PSU. Different PSUs were selected for female and male respondents.

2.2.5 Field staff selection and training

Prior to administering the survey, Geostat selected and trained the field staff responsible for data collection, which included local supervisors and interviewers. Local supervisors were responsible for coordinating fieldwork across the municipalities, including making the necessary preparations, directing the fieldwork and interviewers, and conducting initial logic checks of the completed questionnaires. Interviews were conducted by a qualified team of Geostat interviewers. The total number of field staff selected to support this survey was 96, including 14 fieldwork supervisors and 82 interviewers from the 11 regions where the survey was conducted.

Considering the fact that the questionnaires covered a wide range of topics that were sensitive for respondents, female respondents were interviewed only by female interviewers who were trained to conduct the interview using the women's questionnaire. Likewise, male respondents were interviewed only by male interviewers who were trained to conduct the interview using the men's questionnaire. Among the 82 interviewers, 59 were women and 23 were men.

All field staff members were trained over a four-day period in October 2022. The training covered the purpose and content of the National VAW Survey, key concepts related to gender, issues of VAW, sampling and survey procedures, how to administer the survey in a face-to-face setting, how to help interviewees correctly recall violent events,¹³ and ethical and safety considerations for interviewing VAW survivors. They were also trained on how to use the software and tablets to complete the women's and men's questionnaires. Field staff were also provided with ongoing support throughout the data-collection period by the head office of Geostat.

The safety of the respondents and field staff was of paramount importance; therefore, ethical considerations for surveys on VAW as outlined by the World Health Organization (WHO),¹⁴ the European Statistical Office (Eurostat)¹⁵ and the Global Women's Institute (GWI) for the Australian Government's Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT)¹⁶ were incorporated into the survey design, administration procedures and training for interviewers. Interviewers were instructed on the importance of ensuring the confidentiality and privacy of the respondents to protect their safety and to improve the quality of the data. To protect confidentiality, interviewers were trained to interview respondents in private. The Geostat head office staff and local supervisors regularly monitored the performance of the interviewers and the quality of the collected data.

The training was developed and conducted by a group of experts consisting of an international expert, two national consultants/psychologists and Geostat staff engaged in developing the methodology, including the questionnaires. Training was administered according to the subsequent predesigned plan; **Table 2.3** offers an outline of the topics covered in the four-day training.

TABLE 2.3. Training agenda for field staff

Day	Content
1 Day 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Background on violence against women ➤ Purpose and scope of the national VAW survey ➤ Definitions, concepts and topics included in the VAW survey ➤ Understanding VAW, violence-related stereotypes and myths, and cycles of violence ➤ Understanding the way perpetrators act and the differences between normal and violent relationships ➤ Understanding the causes and consequences of VAW ➤ Prevalence of VAW and other forms of interpersonal violence ➤ Anonymity and confidentiality during the interview ➤ Asking sensitive questions ➤ How to make contact ➤ Role of the interviewer ➤ Interviewer’s behaviour during the interview ➤ Speaking and listening to respondents who have difficult first-hand experiences ➤ Ability to react appropriately ➤ How to deal with stress, and what to do in situations where there is unpredictable behaviour from respondents ➤ Techniques for improving data quality ➤ Ethics in VAW research ➤ Field supervision
2 Day 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Review of the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey ➤ Review of the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire ➤ Scenarios and considerations
3 Day 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Review of the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey ➤ Review of the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire ➤ Scenarios and considerations ➤ Role play on the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey ➤ Role play on the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire ➤ Discussion based on the role plays
4 Day 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Scenarios and considerations ➤ Role play on the Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey ➤ Discussion based on the role play

2.2.6 Survey administration in the field

The 2022 women's and men's surveys were administered during the period from October to November 2022. Interviews were administered in a face-to-face setting. Participation was completely voluntary; respondents were not paid to participate in the interview. Both anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed for all respondents, and privacy was obtained prior to asking questions about VAW.

2.2.7 Ethical and safety considerations

Ethical principles require that any research involving human subjects be framed and conducted in a way that respects the human rights of research participants. Given the sensitive nature of the VAW survey, research on VAW raised methodological and ethical challenges, including issues of safety and confidentiality, in which case interviewers' skills and training were of particular importance.¹⁷

It is well documented that women are often at risk of retaliation from an abusive partner and/or family members as a result of disclosing violence. In addition, women can be retraumatized by the intrusive nature of the interview questions. These risks also extend to the researchers themselves, as there have been documented instances worldwide of fieldworkers being threatened by family and/or community members in the course of carrying out research on VAW.

For these reasons, international ethical and safety guidelines and protocols for research on VAW, outlined by the WHO,¹⁸ Eurostat¹⁹ and the Global Women's Institute (GWI) for Australia's DFAT,²⁰ were implemented. This included specific guidance related to obtaining privacy, guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality for respondents, ensuring voluntary participation, having adequate and informed consent procedures for participants, and offering referrals to women who experienced violence and requested assistance to available local services and sources of support.

Geostat and UN Women took steps to ensure sound ethical processes; as a result, the safety of the respondents and field staff were integrated into the design stage and subsequently followed during the implementation of the 2022 National VAW Survey.

Informed consent

At the start of every interview, respondents were informed orally about the purpose and scope of the questionnaire and the expected risks and benefits, as well as their right to voluntary participation, including the right to skip questions that they did not want to answer and to end the interview at any time without penalty. Because of the potential risks to women, in particular, for possessing a document that details the nature of the questionnaire, the information was only shared orally with them.

The interviewer recorded in the tablet that verbal consent was obtained to proceed with the interview. In situations where verbal consent was not obtained, the interview ended immediately. Oral consent is an international best practice for research on VAW and is sufficient for the purposes of the Georgian normative framework for conducting surveys, and it is a common practice used in Geostat surveys.

As part of informed consent procedures, respondents were informed that the data collected would be held in strict confidence and that no names would be used in the analysis or reporting processes. In the case of minors aged 15–17, informed verbal consent was obtained from both the minor and his/her parents (or any other adult household member).

Anonymity and confidentiality

All respondents were assured anonymity and confidentiality, given the personal and sensitive nature of the information and data collected. Given the dynamics of abusive and violent relationships, victims of violence who speak out about violence and reveal detailed aspects of violence to someone outside of the marriage and family are at increased risk of retaliation and further violence and abuse. For this reason, the anonymity and confidentiality of the data and information collected were crucial.

A number of mechanisms were used to ensure respondents' anonymity and confidentiality. For example, all interviewers received strict instructions about the importance of maintaining respondents' anonymity and confidentiality. To that end, no interviewers conducted interviews in their own communities.

Physical safety of respondents and interviewers

The physical safety of the respondents and interviewers from potential retaliatory violence by an abuser or family members is extremely important for surveys of this nature. If the topic and focus of the questionnaire becomes widely known, either within the household or among the wider community, and known to perpetrators of domestic violence, respondents who are survivors of VAW may face retaliation or increased violence for participating in the study. This may also place interviewers at increased risk of violence, either before, during or after the interview.

The following steps were taken to ensure the physical safety of the respondents and researchers:

- The purpose of the study was framed as a survey on women's and men's health and life experiences and was introduced as such at both the community and household levels.
- Interviews were conducted only in private settings. Only young children under 2 years of age were permitted to be present during the interview. When necessary, locations outside of the home were identified where the interview could be conducted in private, such as in nearby fields or at a local clinic, church or temple.
- Respondents were free to reschedule or relocate the interview to different times or places that were considered safer or more convenient for him/her.
- Interviewers were trained to terminate or change the subject of discussions if an interview was interrupted by anyone. Before the interview, the respondents were informed by the interviewer that he/she would terminate or change the topic of conversation if the interview was interrupted and to be prepared to switch to a dummy set of questions at any point, if needed. Interviewers were trained on how to handle interruptions to interviews, and role play exercises simulated different situations that they may encounter.

'Do no harm' and respect women's decisions and choices

In families, VAW is a sensitive issue that can be stigmatizing for women. As previously mentioned, VAW survivors may not want to speak out about their experiences of violence for fear of being blamed for their own victimization or being ostracized and stigmatized. For this reason, care must be taken to ensure that all questions about violence and the consequences of violence are asked sensitively and in a non-judgmental manner. Women should never be asked what they did to provoke such violence or blamed for their own victimization.

There is some evidence that shows that women may find it beneficial to have the opportunity to talk about their experiences of violence. It is important to bear in mind, however, that VAW survivors may recall frightening, humiliating or extremely painful experiences, which may cause them distress and a strong emotional or negative reaction. Interviewers were trained to understand VAW survivors' possible reactions and to be aware of the effects that the survey questions may have on respondents—and, if necessary, to terminate the interview if their participation was causing them too much distress or a negative emotional response.

Care was taken when designing the Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey in order to be aware and sensitive when introducing and inquiring about women's experiences of violence. For example, at the start of the module that explores women's experiences of violence, the introduction highlighted the sensitive nature of the questions that would be asked. Then, before direct questions concerning women's experiences of violence were asked, an additional phrase was used to introduce the issue of domestic violence in a way that acknowledged its widespread occurrence, with the aim of enabling respondents to disclose incidents of violence without feeling that they would be blamed or judged.

The survey was also designed to ensure that each interview ended in a positive way and that respondents were provided with information that would offer a positive outlook and reinforce effective coping strategies. The questionnaire included two scripted conclusions for the interview: one for women who disclosed experiences of violence and the other for women who did not disclose violence. The former script stressed the importance of the information that the respondent provided, commented on the respondent's strength and courage, recognized that the violence she experienced is unacceptable, and provided information about services available to all VAW survivors.

In-depth training was provided to the interviewers and local supervisors. The training not only discussed survey techniques but also provided guidance on how to respond to and, if necessary, provide support to women reporting experiences of violence. Interviewers were trained to assist, if asked, but not to try to force any woman into an intervention for which she was not ready.

2.2.8 Field staff well-being

Given the prevalence of VAW, almost without exception, one or more field staff of this type of study will have been a direct target or have familial experiences of violence. While this may improve the interviewers' skills and empathy, the process of being involved in the study (either as an interviewer, supervisor or statistician) may awaken images, emotions, internal confusion and/or personal conflict. This may affect their ability to work and/or have a negative impact on their health and well-being. It may also lead to feelings of tension at home. Even if field staff had not experienced violence directly, listening to stories of violence and abuse can be overwhelming and emotionally draining.

These issues were openly discussed during the field staff trainings. In addition, field staff were given the option of withdrawing from the study without judgment or prejudice. These approaches aimed to reduce the stress of the fieldwork and minimize any negative consequences.

2.2.9 Providing information on services available for VAW/DV victims

Prior to conducting data collection in the field, UN Women identified potential service providers that VAWG survivors could access in each of the regions, including shelters, psychosocial support, health care and legal aid. UN Women produced a resource list of agencies and individuals who could provide support services, both during and after the survey. This list was offered to all respondents, regardless of whether they disclosed experiencing violence.

2.2.10 Sample weighting

Due to the non-strictly proportional allocation of samples to different regions and their urban and rural areas, sampling weights were required for analysis to ensure representativeness of the survey results at the national level.

Following the sample design, weights were calculated as the inverse probability of selection into the sample. These basic weights were adjusted for non-responses and for population benchmarks. The main estimates produced in this report are weighted estimates—using weighted data.

2.2.11 Data processing and analysis

A computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI) method was used for data collection. The electronic questionnaires for the tablets were developed using the World Bank's software, Survey Solutions. Collected data were processed and cleaned by Geostat head office staff.

Once all of the data were collected, cleaned and verified, statistical weights were calculated by Geostat in consultation with UN Women. Data analysis was carried out by Dr. Robin Haarr, UN Women International Consultant, with inputs from Geostat. Data were analysed using SPSS at the national level with disaggregation by settlement type, as well as by age group, level of education, household economic status and more.

2.2.12 Restrictions on data reporting based on sample size

The data in the report, including the tables in Annex B, follow the Eurostat recommendations on publication rules for GBV survey results, which set out the following:

- Estimates should not be published if they are based on fewer than 20 sample observations.
- Estimates should be published with a flag if they are based on 20 to 49 sample observations.
- Estimates shall be published in the normal way when based on 50 or more sample observations.²¹

To that end, study estimates that are based on 20–49 observations are denoted by an asterisk in this report to indicate that the data are unreliable due to the small sample size.

2.3 Qualitative data collection

This study also used qualitative research methods to supplement the quantitative survey data (Table 2.4). Qualitative data collection and analysis was conducted by a local research company, WeResearch.

The qualitative component of this study was conducted in both urban and rural areas of Georgia. More specifically, urban areas included Tbilisi, the capital city, as well as Batumi and Kutaisi in western Georgia, whereas rural areas included the villages of Kisiskhevi (Telavi Municipality) and Shaumiani (Marneuli Municipality) in eastern Georgia. The qualitative methods included a sample of 171 respondents. Most of the KIIs, FGDs and IDIs were conducted via Zoom; however, IDIs with VAW survivors and FGDs with community representatives were conducted in person. Two FGDs in Tbilisi were conducted online at the request of the participants.

TABLE 2.4. Qualitative research methods

Qualitative data-collection method	Target groups
15 key informant interviews (KIIs) with service providers	Representatives of governmental and non-governmental service provider organizations, as well as subject experts and other relevant stakeholders, were interviewed to capture a broader understanding of service provision to VAW survivors, including access to essential services, barriers to quality service provision and the availability of such services to marginalized groups of women. KIIs aimed to obtain higher-level perspectives, such as the view and perspectives of policymakers and decision makers.
6 focus group discussions (FGDs) with service providers	Three FGDs were conducted with the State service providers (i.e. police, social workers, health workers, crisis centre/shelter representatives) and three with non-State service providers. This included two FGDs in Tbilisi, two in other urban areas and two in rural areas. FGDs focused on front-line service providers and grass-roots stakeholders working in communities on a daily basis.
10 FGDs with community representatives	Four FGDs were conducted in urban areas and four FGDs in rural areas, with each settlement type holding: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ One FGD with young women aged 18–29 ▶ One FGD with young men aged 18–29 ▶ One FGD with women aged 30 and above ▶ One FGD with men aged 30 and above In addition, two FGDs were held in Tbilisi, one each with women and men aged 30 and above. FGDs focused on the attitudes and social norms that underpin VAW in the Georgian context.
24 in-depth interviews (IDIs) with VAW survivors who sought essential services	IDIs were conducted with VAW survivors who sought essential services from governmental and non-governmental service providers in an effort to understand their experiences with accessing services, including the barriers and challenges they faced accessing such services. Effort was made to sample VAW survivors with diverse sociodemographic profiles (i.e. age, education, income and other relevant characteristics), including VAW survivors from ethnic minority and marginalized communities (e.g. LBTQI community members and women with functional difficulties).

Qualitative data-collection method	Target groups
16 IDIs with marginalized women	Among the 16 IDIs, four were conducted with members of the LBTQI community, four with women with functional difficulties, four with ethnic minority women and four with migrant women. IDIs were determined to be a more effective method for data collection from marginalized groups and allowed for a more in-depth focus on the experiences of VAW among women from marginalized groups.

Based on lessons learned from the 2017 National VAW Survey in Georgia, IDIs with members of the LBTQI community were conducted by a person affiliated with the community in order to ensure a higher level of sincerity and frankness. When it came to IDIs with migrant women, those with different backgrounds were interviewed (e.g. migrant women from conflict zones and expatriate women) to ensure diversity in the sample. IDIs with ethnic minority women were conducted in the Azerbaijani language for their ethnic group and in Georgian for all other ethnic groups. All KIIs, FGDs and IDIs were conducted by experienced researchers, all of whom had prior experience in gender and VAW studies.

The qualitative research team was supported by fieldwork coordinators who mobilized research participants in each of the different locations. Prior to beginning data collection, all coordinators and researchers received a one-day training on the purpose of the study as well as the methodology, sampling framework, data-collection tools and ethical procedures. Women researchers conducted KIIs, FGDs and IDIs with women, and men researchers conducted the same with men.

Most of the KIIs, FGDs and IDIs were audio-recorded with the consent of all participants and later transcribed. Only one of the IDI respondents refused to have their interview recorded; thus, the researcher developed detailed notes after the interview. Researchers completed reflection notes during the fieldwork, which helped in incorporating lessons learned during the process of data collection and in making adjustments, as needed, to the research process during the fieldwork.

2.3.1 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis was performed using a hybrid inductive and deductive thematic coding approach. The hybrid coding approach allowed for some flexibility in qualitative analysis by adding thematic codes to capture new or unexpected themes that emerged from the data—namely, themes that were not anticipated in the research design.²² First, researchers developed a general scheme with broader themes. Next, three researchers read the KII, FGD and IDI transcripts and individually identified more specific themes and codes. Finally, the researchers compiled the individually identified themes and codes and developed a unified coding tree, which was applied for further data analysis. These new themes and codes were then analysed and compiled into a summary report of the qualitative study's findings.

2.3.2 Qualitative study limitations

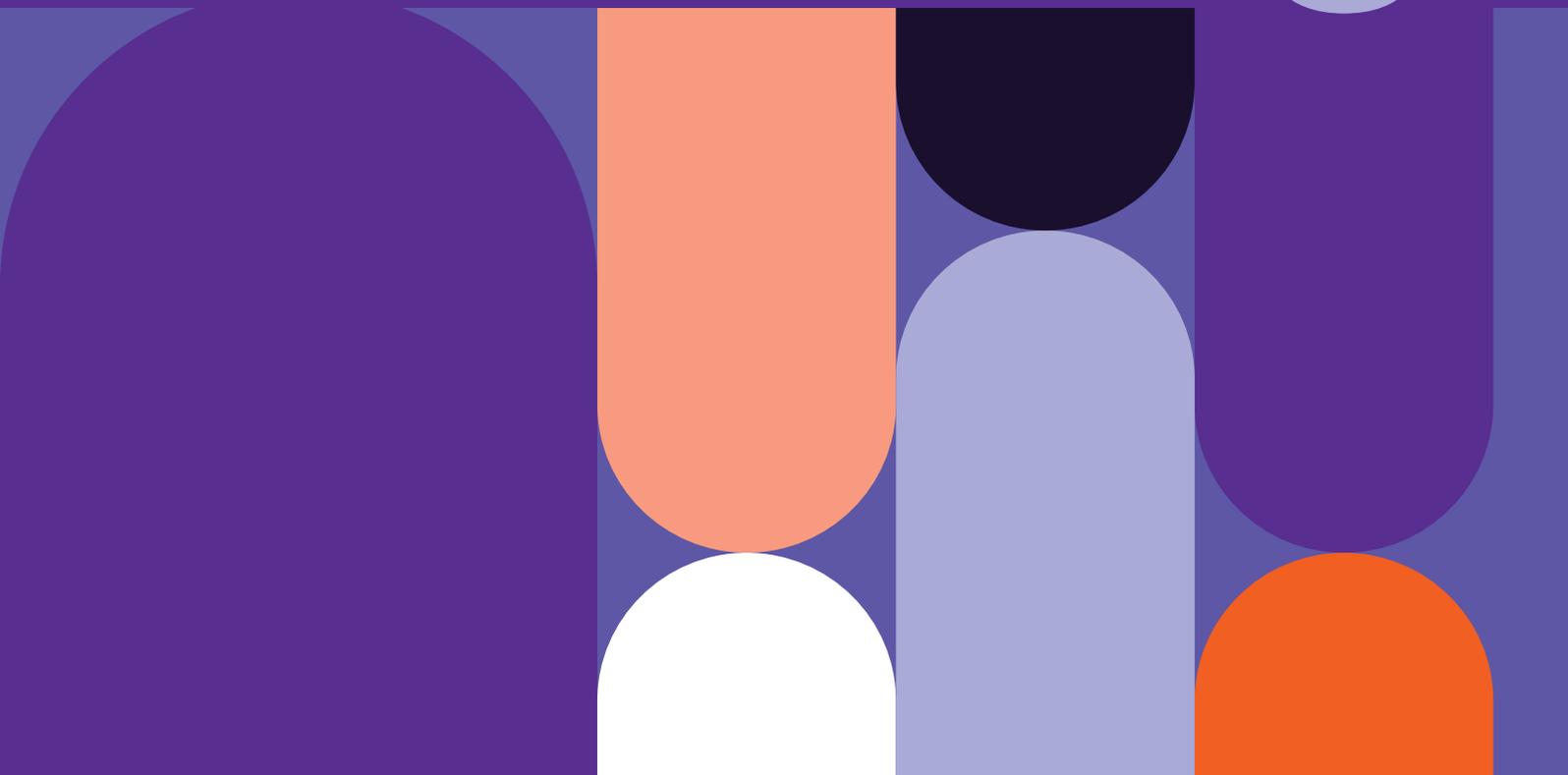
There were several limitations to the qualitative component of this study, including the following:

- Although every effort was made to engage diverse members of marginalized communities, data-collection efforts focused on specific locations and VAW survivors who were readily available to participate in the study. Thus, women from marginalized groups, such as women with different types of functional difficulties, women from ethnic minority groups and members of the LGBTQI community were not equally represented. For instance, only women from ethnic minority Azerbaijani and Pankisi communities were interviewed; women from ethnic minority Armenian communities were not included. In addition, members of the LGBTQI community who were engaged in the study did not include any transgender women. Due to these limitations, the qualitative data do not capture the wider perspectives and experiences of VAW survivors from marginalized groups.
- VAW survivors were mostly interviewed in shelters or through referrals from local NGOs that provide essential services; thus, the qualitative component of this study did not capture the experiences of VAW survivors who never sought services. In addition, most VAW survivors interviewed were survivors of IPV, but those who experienced non-partner violence were underrepresented in the sample.
- The qualitative component of this study attempted to analyse the accessibility, availability and quality of governmental and non-governmental VAW-related services; however, there was no opportunity to triangulate the qualitative data with other types of data that comprehensively assessed the quality of these services.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF

SURVEY RESPONDENTS

3

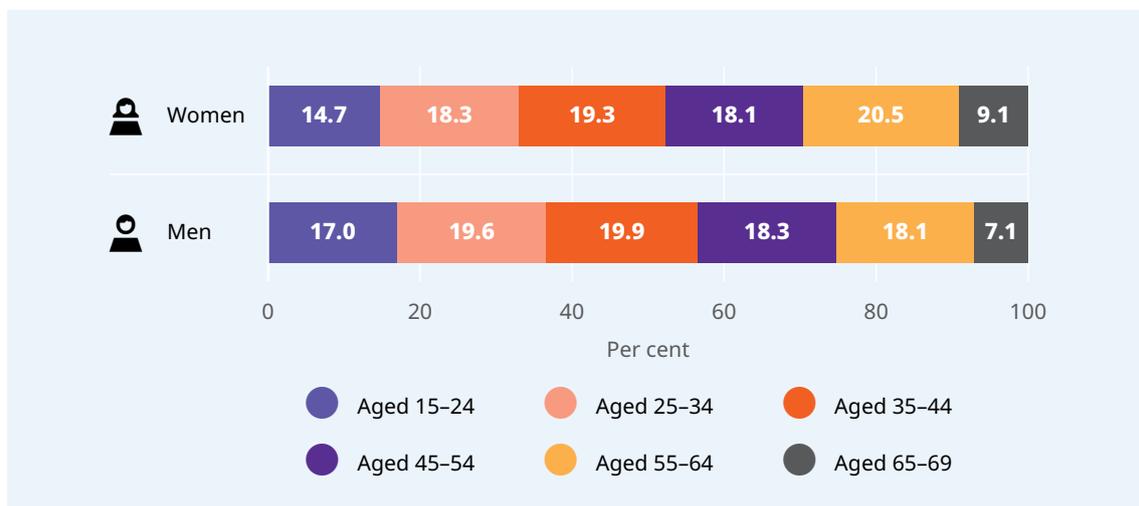


The survey was administered to women and men between 15 and 69 years of age from rural and urban communities in Georgia. A total of 3,300 women and 1,104 men were interviewed across Georgia. This chapter describes the survey sample, looking at the age, education, employment and marital/union status of the respondents. For data and information related to the response rates, see Annex A.

3.1 Age

Figure 3.1 shows the distribution of the respondents of both surveys by age group. Specifically, 14.7 per cent of surveyed women were 15–24 years old, 18.3 per cent were 25–34 years old, 19.3 per cent were 35–44 years old, 18.1 per cent were 45–54 years old, 20.5 per cent were 55–64 years old, and 9.1 per cent were 65–69 years old. The ages of the men respondents had a similar distribution, with 17.0 per cent aged 15–24, 19.6 per cent aged 25–34, 19.9 per cent aged 35–44, 18.3 per cent aged 45–54, 18.1 per cent aged 55–64, and 7.1 per cent aged 65–69.

FIGURE 3.1. Distribution of survey respondents, by sex and age group (percentage)

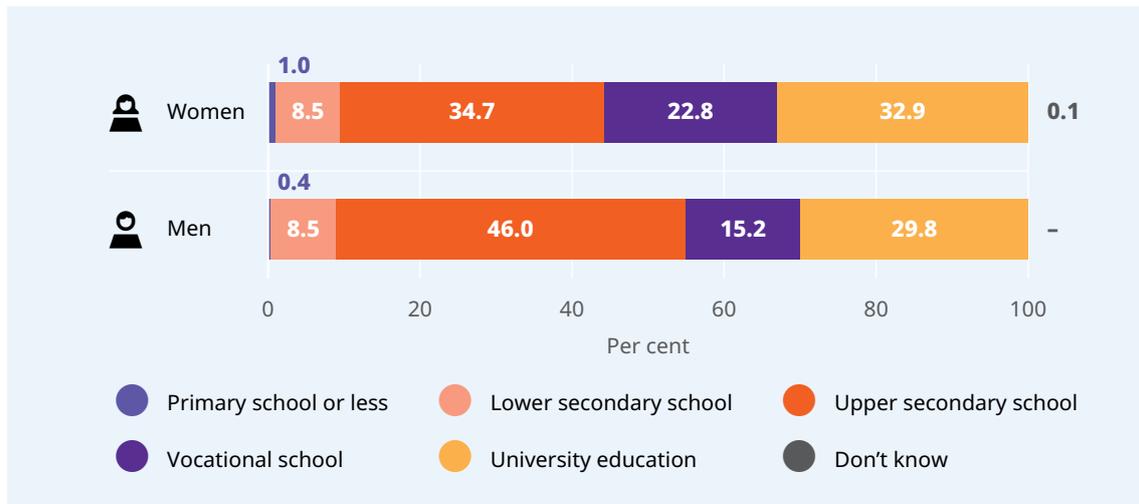


Note: See Table B.1.

3.2 Education

The majority of respondents sampled had an upper secondary education or higher. More specifically, 34.7 per cent of women and 46.0 per cent of men had an upper secondary education, 22.8 per cent of women and 15.2 per cent of men had a vocational education, and 32.9 per cent of women and 29.8 per cent of men had a university education. Only 8.5 per cent of both women and men respondents had a lower secondary education, while fewer than 1 per cent had a primary education or less (**Figure 3.2**).

FIGURE 3.2. Distribution of survey respondents, by sex and level of education (percentage)



Note: See Table B.1.

3.3 Employment and main source of income

Table 3.1 shows that the majority of women earned money themselves (61.2 per cent). It also shows that the majority of men had worked or earned money in the past 12 months (75.8 per cent). In terms of employment, 34.3 per cent of women and 42.6 per cent of men were employees. More than a quarter of men (26.0 per cent) but only 8.3 per cent of women owned their own business or were self-employed. Moreover, both women and men were employers at very low levels (0.7 per cent of women and 1.0 per cent of men). It is also notable that 23.0 per cent of women were homemakers (not employed) and 14.0 per cent were pensioners.

TABLE 3.1. Women's and men's earnings and employment status (percentage)

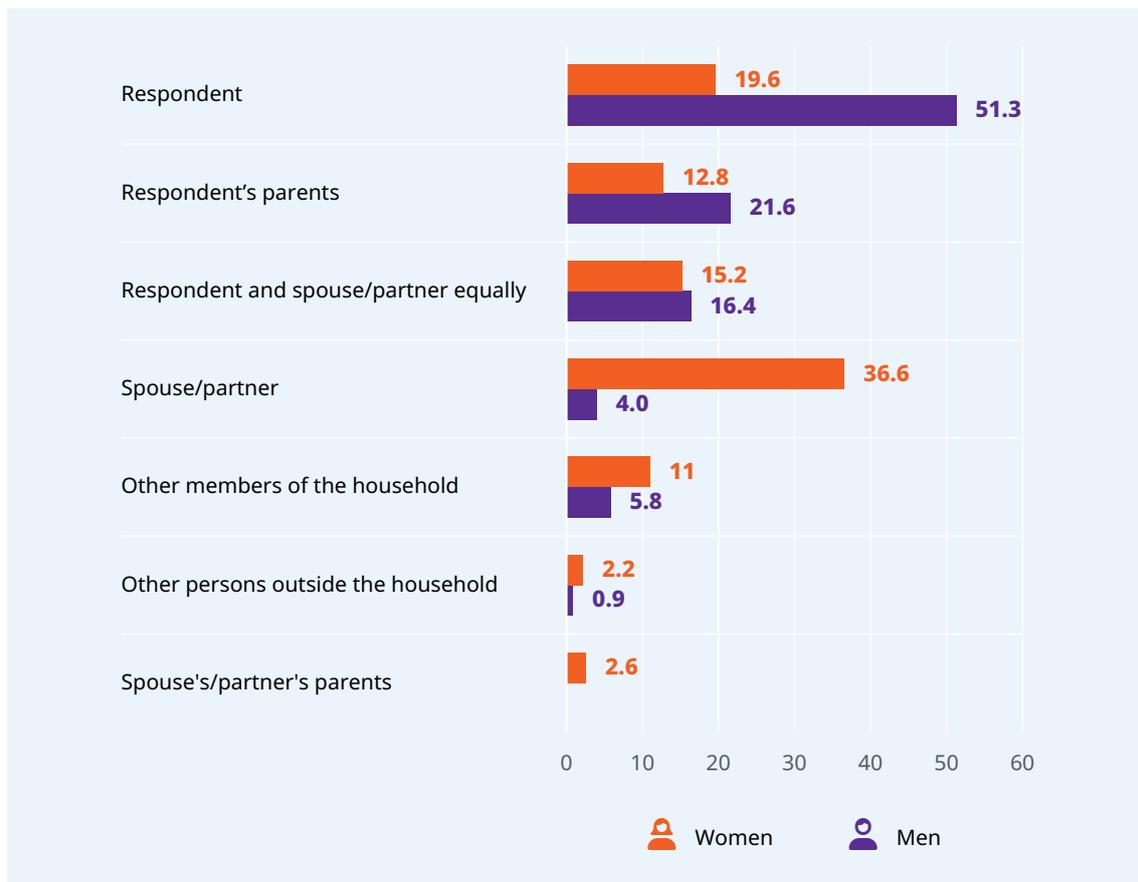
	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Earnings	Do you earn money by yourself?	Did you work or earn money in the past 12 months?
 Yes	61.2	75.8
 No	36.9	24.2
 Refused / No answer	1.9	-

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Employment status		
Employee	34.3	42.6
Employer	0.7	1.0
Business owner / Self-employed	8.3	26.0
Works in family business	2.2	2.0
Not employed, looking for work (worked before)	4.7	6.9
Not employed, looking for work (never worked before)	1.4	2.5
Not employed and not looking for work	2.4	2.9
Homemaker (not employed)	23.0	2.4
Pensioner	14.0	4.1
Student	8.0	8.1
Person with disability/long-term illness	0.8	1.4
Other	0.2	0.1

Note: See Table B.2.

Only 19.6 per cent of women reported that they themselves were the main source of income in their household, whereas 36.6 per cent reported that their husband/partner was the main source of income. In contrast, the majority of men reported that they themselves were the main source of income in their household (51.3 per cent); only 4.0 per cent reported that their wife/partner was the main source of income. In addition, only 15.2 per cent of women and 16.4 per cent of men reported that both they and their spouse/partner contributed equally to the household income. A larger proportion of men than women (21.6 per cent versus 12.8 per cent, respectively) reported that their own parents were their main source of income, while fewer (11.0 per cent of women and 5.8 per cent of men) reported that other members of their household were the main source of income. In the case of women, 2.6 per cent reported that it was their husband's/partner's parents who were the main source of income for the household (**Figure 3.3**).

FIGURE 3.3. Main source of household income, by respondent's sex (percentage)



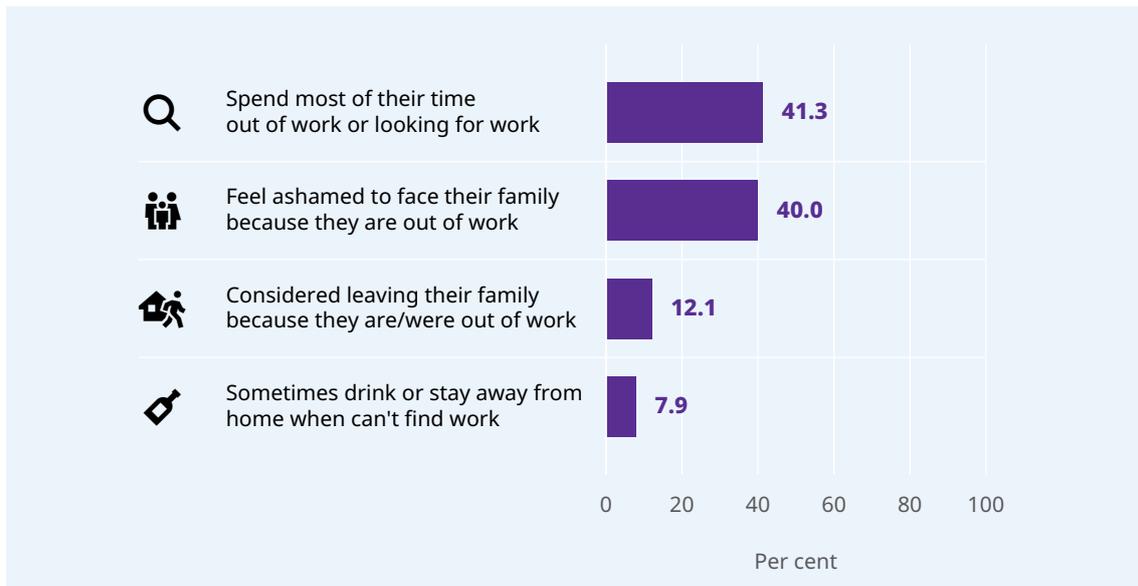
Note: See Table B.3.

Among women who were currently married or living with a male partner and had earned money by themselves, nearly all reported that they are able to spend the money that they earn (97.7 per cent). Yet 43.8 per cent of women reported that the money they earn and bring into the household is less than that of their husband/partner, while 38.5 per cent reported that their earnings were about the same as their husband/partner. Only 16.9 per cent of women reported that they earn more and bring more money into the household than their husband/partner (see Table B.4).

Men respondents were asked about the pressure they feel in supporting their household. Among all men aged 15–69, nearly one out of three (30.5 per cent) reported that they are frequently stressed or depressed because of not having enough income. In addition, among employed men, more than one out of five (22.6 per cent) were frequently stressed or depressed because of not having enough work (see Table B.5).

Among men who were unemployed, 41.3 per cent spent most of their time either looking for work or not working. In addition, 40.0 per cent reported feeling ashamed to face their families because they were out of work, 12.1 per cent considered leaving their family because they were out of work, and 7.9 per cent sometimes drank or stayed away from home when they could not find work (**Figure 3.4**).

FIGURE 3.4. Unemployed men's stress and strains related to work and income earnings (percentage)



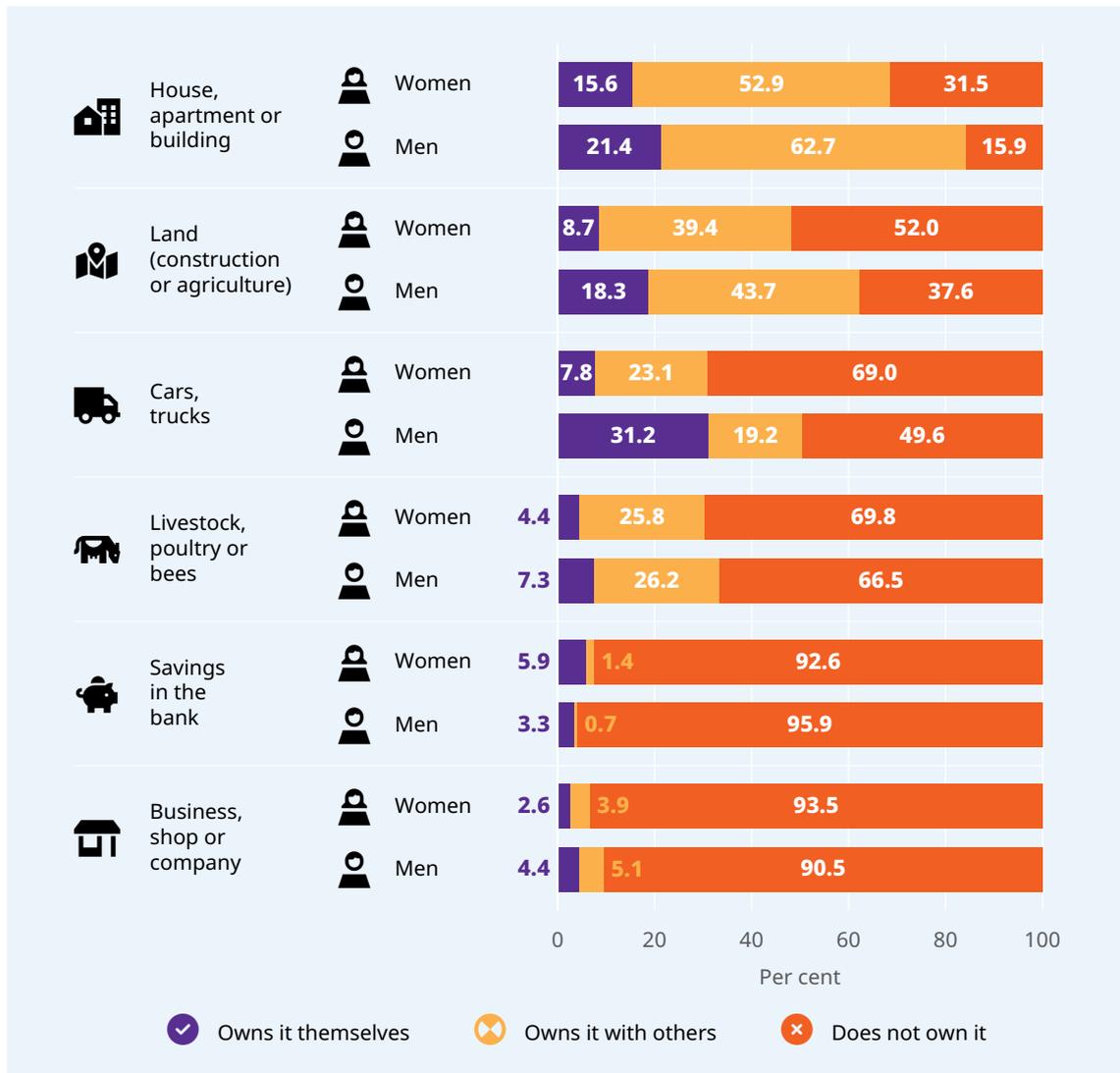
Note: See Table B.5.

3.4 Property and land ownership

A small proportion of women own property or land on their own. It is notable, however, that a combined 68.5 per cent of women owned a house, apartment or building either on their own or with others. In addition, 48.1 per cent of women reported that they own land, 30.9 per cent own cars or trucks, and 30.2 per cent own livestock, poultry or bees (**Figure 3.5**).

Men were more likely than women to own their own cars or trucks (31.2 per cent), yet 49.6 per cent did not own any. Not many men owned a house, apartment or building, and/or land (construction or agriculture) on their own (21.4 per cent and 18.3 per cent, respectively); rather, they more often owned such property and land with others (62.7 per cent and 43.7 per cent, respectively). Very few men owned a business, shop or company or have savings in the bank.

FIGURE 3.5. Percentage of women and men with property and land, by type and degree of ownership



Note: See Table B.6.

3.5 Marital/union status

Table 3.2 shows that approximately two thirds of women (66.6 per cent) and men (64.2 per cent) were currently married (3.2 per cent of women and 4.8 per cent of men were currently married but not living together), and 16.2 per cent of women and only 3.0 per cent of men were previously married. While the share of the population who had ever had or currently have a boyfriend/girlfriend or fiancé(e) is similar (3.2 per cent of women and 2.4 per cent of men), only 13.7 per cent of women had never had a boyfriend or fiancé, while almost a third of men (29.9 per cent) had never had a girlfriend or fiancée. Thus, 86.3 per cent of women and 70.1 per cent of men were categorized as ever partnered, which includes women and men who were currently or previously married, had lived with a partner, and/or had ever had or currently have a boyfriend/girlfriend or fiancé(e).

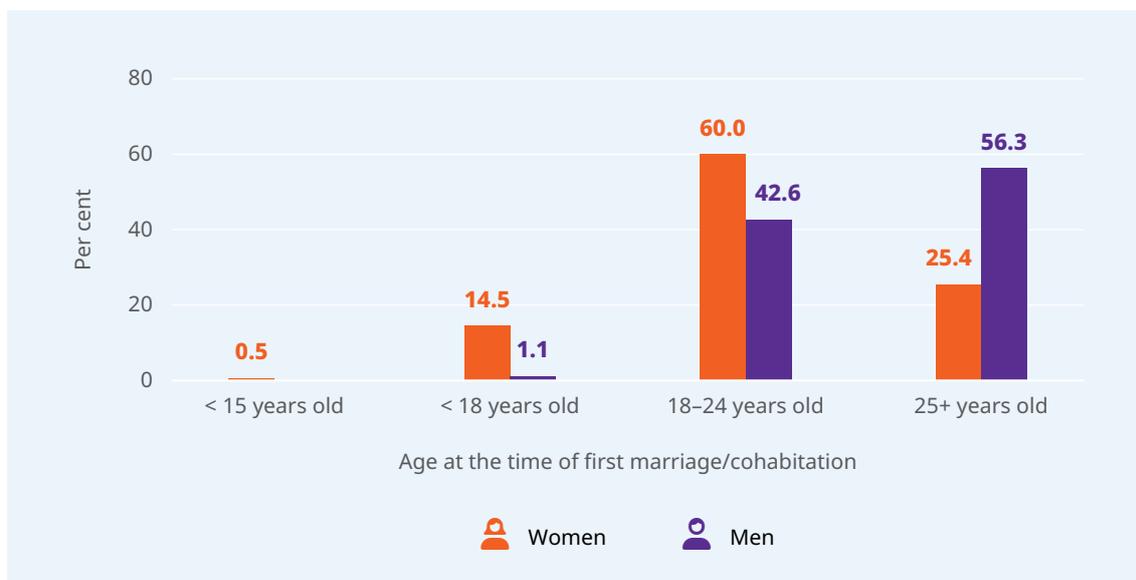
TABLE 3.2. Distribution of women and men, by marital/union status (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 Total never-partnered population	13.7	29.9
 Total ever-partnered population	86.3	70.1
Currently married, living together with a spouse/partner	63.4	59.4
Currently married, not living together with a spouse/partner	3.2	4.8
Living with a partner, not married	0.1	0.2
Previously married	16.2	3.0
Previously lived with a partner, but not married	0.3	0.3
Ever had/currently have a boyfriend/girlfriend or fiancé(e) (without being married or having lived with a partner)	3.2	2.4

Note: See Table B.7.

Women's average age at the time of their first marriage or cohabitation was 22.1, while men's average age was 26.6. **Figure 3.6** shows that only 0.5 per cent of women aged 15–69 were first married before the age of 15. In addition, 14.5 per cent of women aged 15–69 were under the age of 18 when they first married or cohabited, while only 1.1 per cent of men reported the same. Moreover, 60.0 per cent of women and 42.6 per cent of men were first married between 18 and 24 years of age, while those reporting their first marriage at or after the age of 25 accounted for 25.4 per cent of women and 56.3 per cent of men.

FIGURE 3.6. Distribution of population, by sex and age at the time of their first marriage/cohabitation (percentage)



Note: See Table B.8.

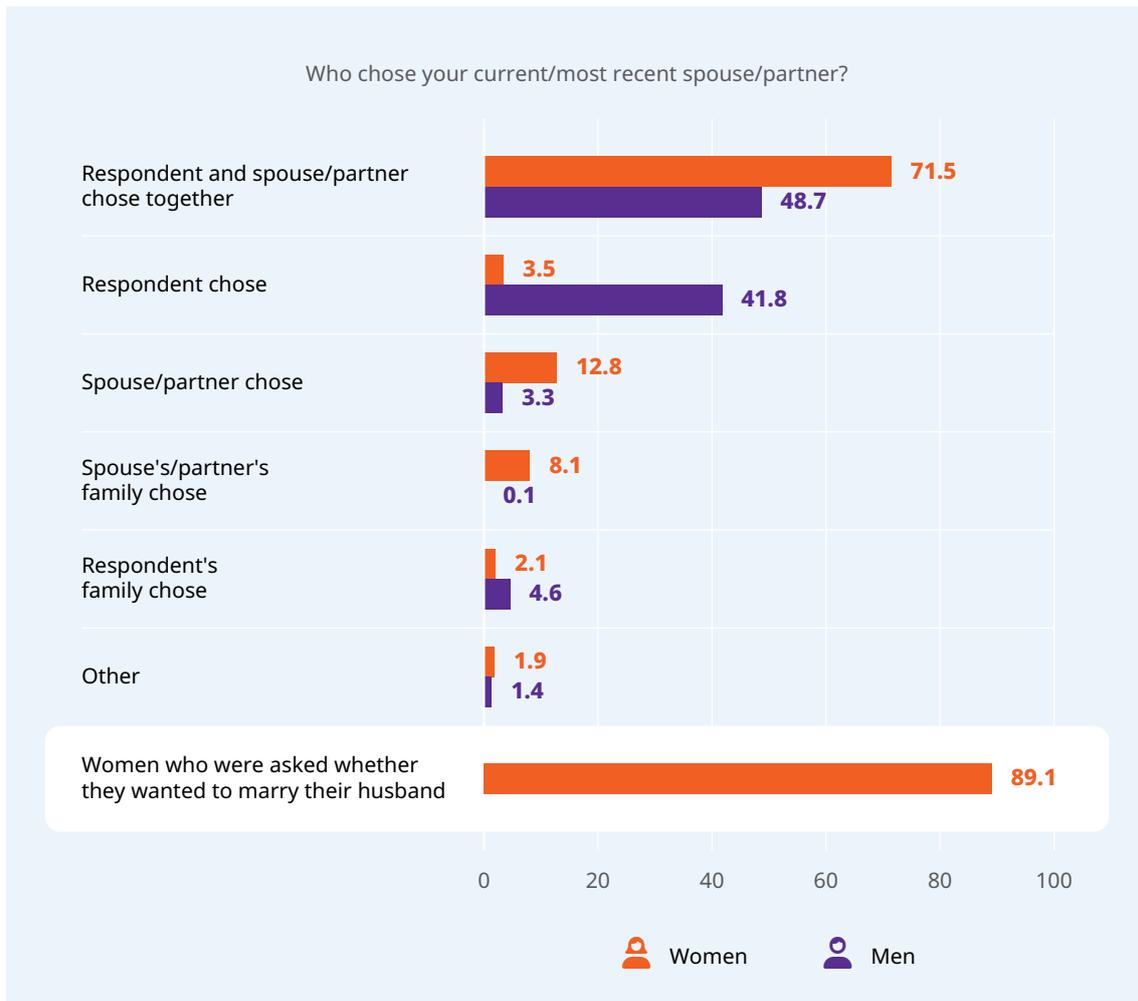
The data were further analysed to report on SDG Indicator 5.3.1, which is the proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before the age of 15 and before the age of 18. Notably, 22.0* per cent of women aged 20–24 were married or in a union before the age of 18. The proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before the age of 15 could not be estimated due to the insufficient sample size of the survey (see Table B.9).

The majority of ever-partnered women and men had a civil marriage (81.7 per cent and 81.3 per cent, respectively), whereas closer to half had a religious marriage (42.9 per cent and 49.2 per cent, respectively). Only 11.2 per cent of women and 10.8 per cent of men had neither a civil nor religious marriage. It is notable that nearly all respondents had been married or lived together with a partner only one time (96.1 per cent of women and 93.6 per cent of men). Only 3.9 per cent of ever-partnered women and 6.4 per cent of ever-partnered men had married or lived together with a partner more than one time (see Table B.8).

3.6 Spouse selection

The majority of ever-partnered women (71.5 per cent) reported that they and their spouse/partner both chose each other, while only 48.7 per cent of men reported the same. Furthermore, 3.5 per cent of women reported that they were the one who made the choice to marry their current/most recent husband/partner, while a much greater share of men, 41.8 per cent, reported that they chose to marry their current/most recent wife/partner. In addition, 12.8 per cent of women reported that their husband chose to marry them, 8.1 per cent reported that their husband's/partner's family made the choice, and 2.1 per cent reported that their family of origin chose their current/most recent husband/partner. The majority of ever-married women (89.1 per cent) reported that they were asked whether they wanted to marry their husband. As for the men, 4.6 per cent reported that their family chose, while 3.3 per cent reported that their wife/partner chose (**Figure 3.7**).

FIGURE 3.7. Ever-partnered respondents' spouse selection, by respondent's sex (percentage)



Note: See Table B.10.

3.7 Living arrangements

As for their living arrangements, 48.5 per cent of ever-partnered women and 42.3 per cent of ever-partnered men reported living with their spouse/partner only. While 43.0 per cent of women lived with their husband's/partner's family, only 2.8 per cent of men lived with their wife's/partner's family. Conversely, only 7.5 per cent of women lived with their own family of origin, whereas more than half of men (53.7 per cent) did the same (**Table 3.3**).

TABLE 3.3. Living arrangements of ever-partnered women and men (percentage)

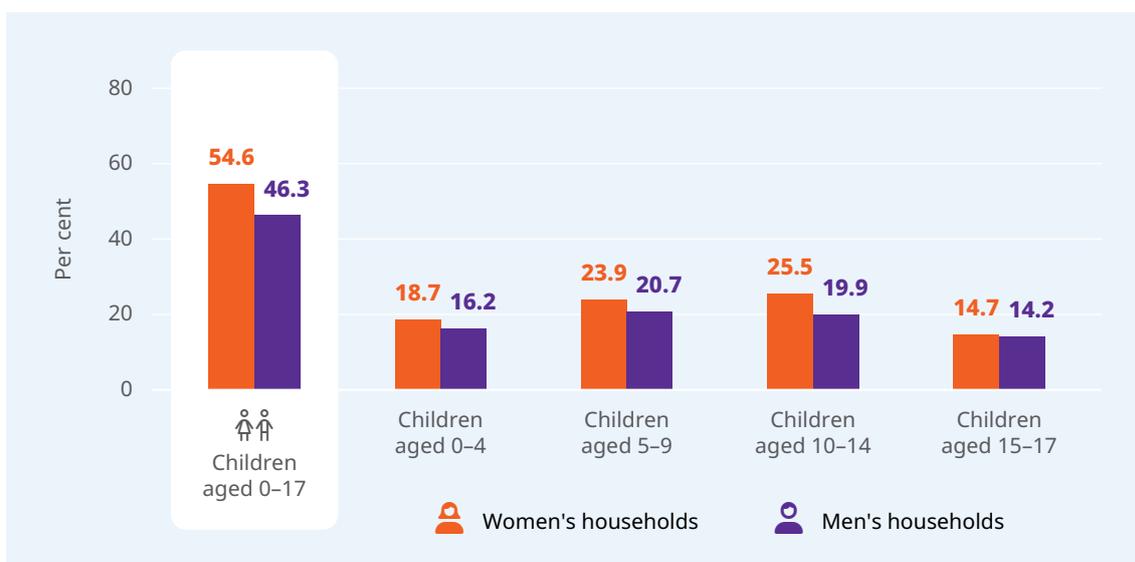
	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a man N = 2,904	 Ever-partnered men (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a woman N = 826
With spouse/partner only	48.5	42.3
With spouse's/partner's family	43.0	2.8
With own family of origin	7.5	53.7
With both your spouse's/partner's family and your own family of origin	0.9	0.5
Refused / No answer	0.1	0.7

Note: See Table B.11.

3.8 Children in households

Figure 3.8 shows that 54.6 per cent of women and 46.3 per cent of men reported having one or more children aged 0–17 living in their household. More specifically, 18.8 per cent of women and 16.2 per cent of men reported having one or more children aged 0–4; 23.9 per cent of women and 20.7 per cent of men, one or more children aged 5–9; 25.5 per cent of women and 19.9 per cent of men, one or more children aged 10–14; and 14.8 per cent of women and 14.2 per cent of men, one or more children aged 15–17.

FIGURE 3.8. Percentage of women and men having one or more children aged 0–17 in the household, by age group of children



Note: See Table B.12.

3.9 Divorce/separation

Among ever-partnered women and men whose last partnership ended, 64.2 per cent of women and 24.9* per cent of men had experienced the death of their spouse or partner. A similar share of women and men (23.2 per cent and 19.3* per cent, respectively) were divorced, while 12.4 per cent of women and more than half of men (55.8* per cent) were separated/broken up. Among the respondents who were divorced or separated/broken up, more than half of women (57.0 per cent) but only 8.1* per cent of men reported that they initiated the divorce or separation, whereas 23.5 per cent of women and 46.5* per cent of men reported that both they and their spouse/partner made a joint decision to initiate the divorce or separation. Moreover, 15.8 per cent of women and 42.7* per cent of men reported that it was their spouse/partner who initiated the divorce or separation (**Table 3.4**).

TABLE 3.4. Marital experiences of ever-partnered women and men (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women whose latest partnership ended (aged 15–69) N = 681	 Ever-partnered men whose latest partnership ended (aged 15–69) N = 44
How the latest partnership ended		
Divorced	23.2	19.3*
Separated / Broken up	12.4	55.8*
Spouse/partner died	64.2	24.9*
Refused / No answer	0.2	–
	 Ever-partnered women whose latest partnership ended in divorce or separation N = 223	 Ever-partnered men whose latest partnership ended in divorce or separation N = 28
Which person initiated the divorce/separation		
Respondent	57.0	8.1*
Spouse/partner	15.8	42.7*
Both (respondent and spouse/partner)	23.5	46.5*
Other	2.8	2.7*
Refused / No answer	0.8	–

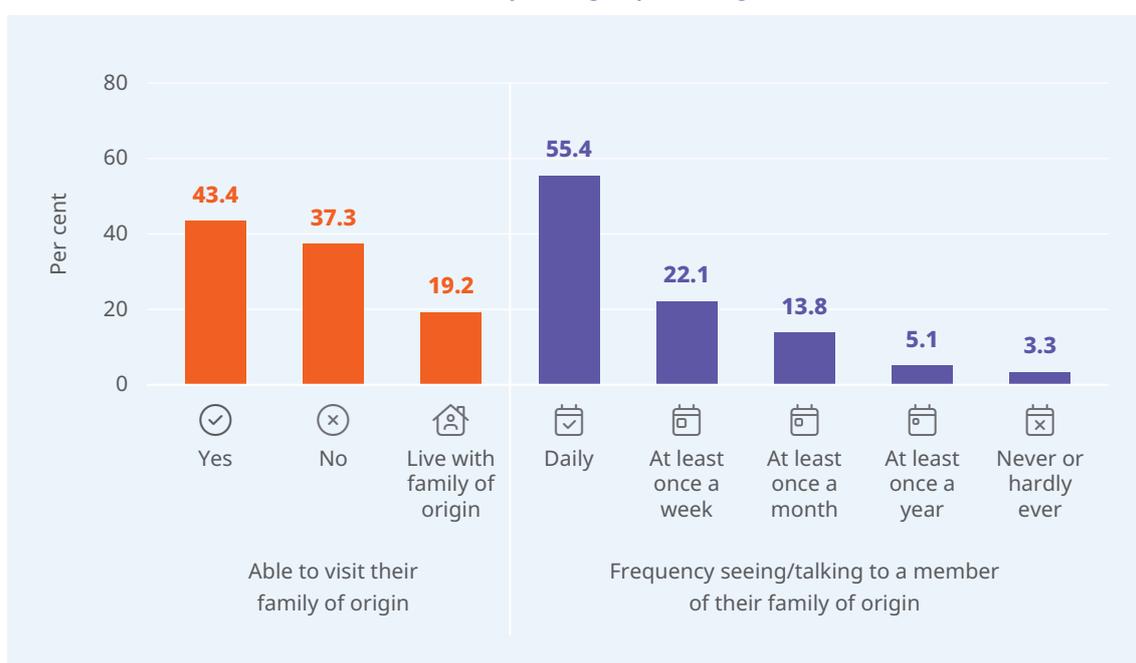
Note: See Table B.13.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

3.10 Women’s contact with their family of origin

In total, 43.4 per cent of women were able to visit their family of origin and 19.2 per cent lived with their family of origin, whereas 37.3 per cent of women were unable to visit their family of origin. The majority of women reported that they have regular contact with a member of their family of origin. More specifically, 55.4 per cent of women reported that they see/talk daily with a member of their family of origin, 22.1 per cent see/talk at least once a week with a member of their family of origin, and 13.8 per cent do so at least once a month. Only 3.3 per cent reported that they never or hardly ever communicate with a member of their family of origin (Figure 3.9). The majority of women also reported that they can usually count on a member of their family of origin for support (80.8 per cent), yet 18.2 per cent of women reported that they cannot do the same (see Table B.14).

FIGURE 3.9. Women’s contact with their family of origin (percentage)

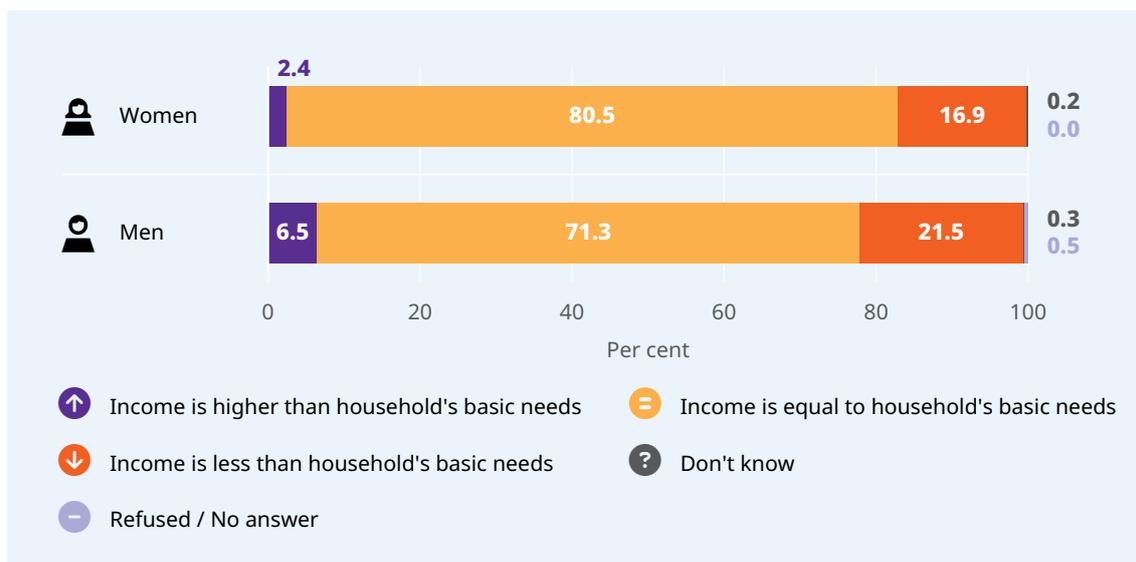


Note: See Table B.14.

3.11 Household’s economic situation

The majority of women and men reported that their household income was equal to the cost of the household’s daily basic needs (80.5 per cent of women and 71.3 per cent of men), while 16.9 per cent of women and 21.5 per cent of men reported that their household income was insufficient for their daily basic needs. Only 2.4 per cent of women and 6.5 per cent of men reported that their household income exceeded their daily basic needs (Figure 3.10).

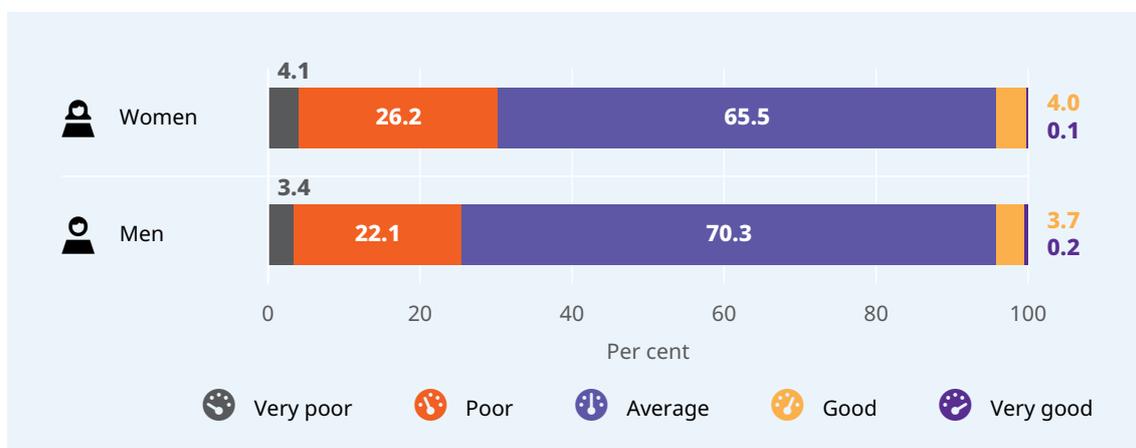
FIGURE 3.10. Sufficiency of the household's income to meet basic needs, by sex of the respondent (percentage)



Note: See Table B.15.

Most women and men reported their economic situation as average (65.5 per cent of women and 70.3 per cent of men), whereas about a quarter of them considered it poor (26.2 per cent of women and 22.1 per cent of men) and even fewer as very poor (4.1 per cent of women and 3.4 per cent of men). Only 4.0 per cent of women and 3.7 per cent of men considered their economic situation good (Figure 3.11).

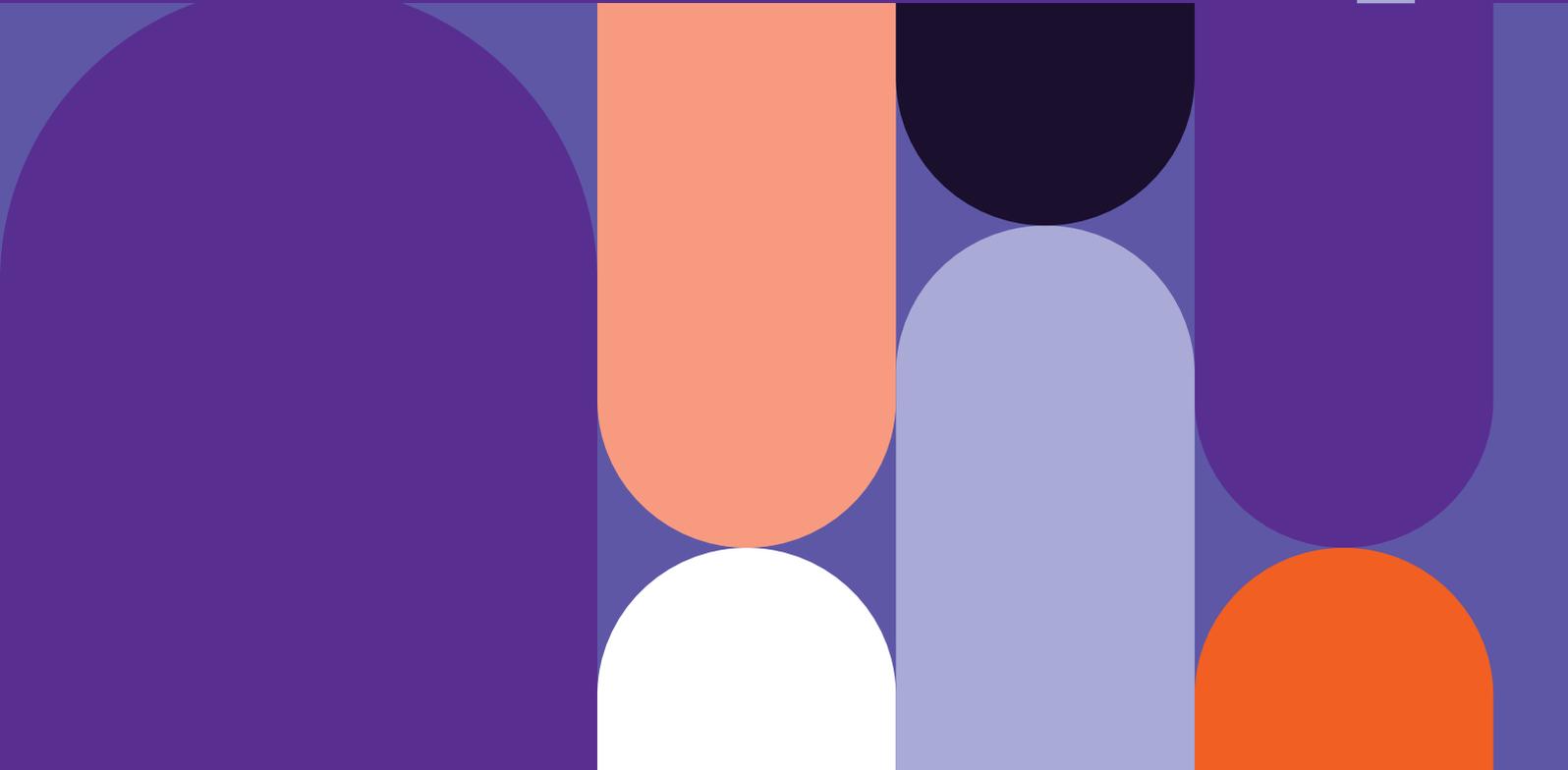
FIGURE 3.11. Perceived economic situation of the household, by sex of the respondent (percentage)



Note: See Table B.15.

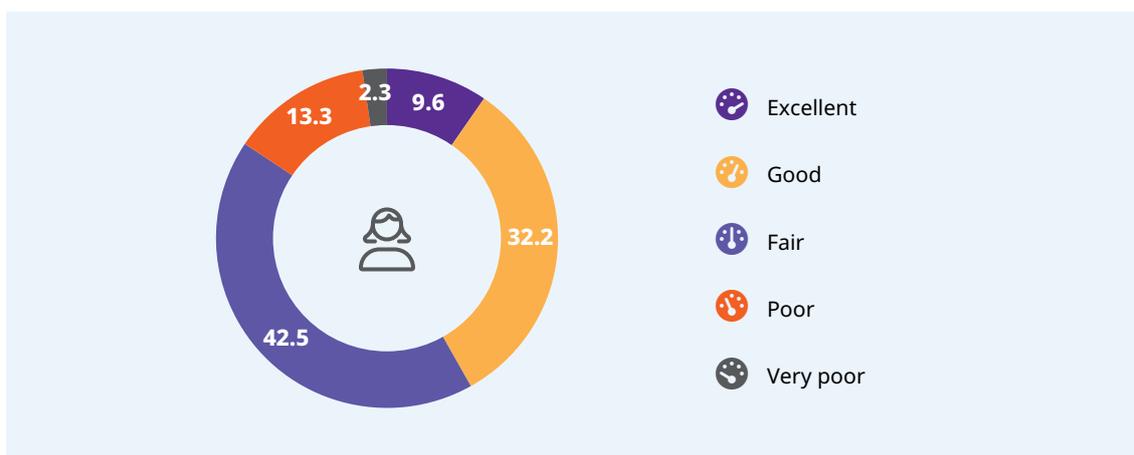
WOMEN'S HEALTH AND SEXUAL REPRODUCTION

4

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In general, only 9.6 per cent of women evaluated the quality of their overall health as excellent, while one in third (32.2 per cent) rated it as good. Another 42.5 per cent of women described their health as fair, whereas 13.3 per cent described their health as poor and 2.3 per cent as very poor (**Figure 4.1**). Three quarters of women (74.5 per cent) reported that they usually make the decisions about their health care, whereas 19.7 per cent reported that both they and their husband/partner make decisions about their health care, and only 1.3 per cent reported that their husband/partner alone makes decisions about their health care (see Table B.16).

FIGURE 4.1. Distribution of women, by their perceived overall health (percentage)

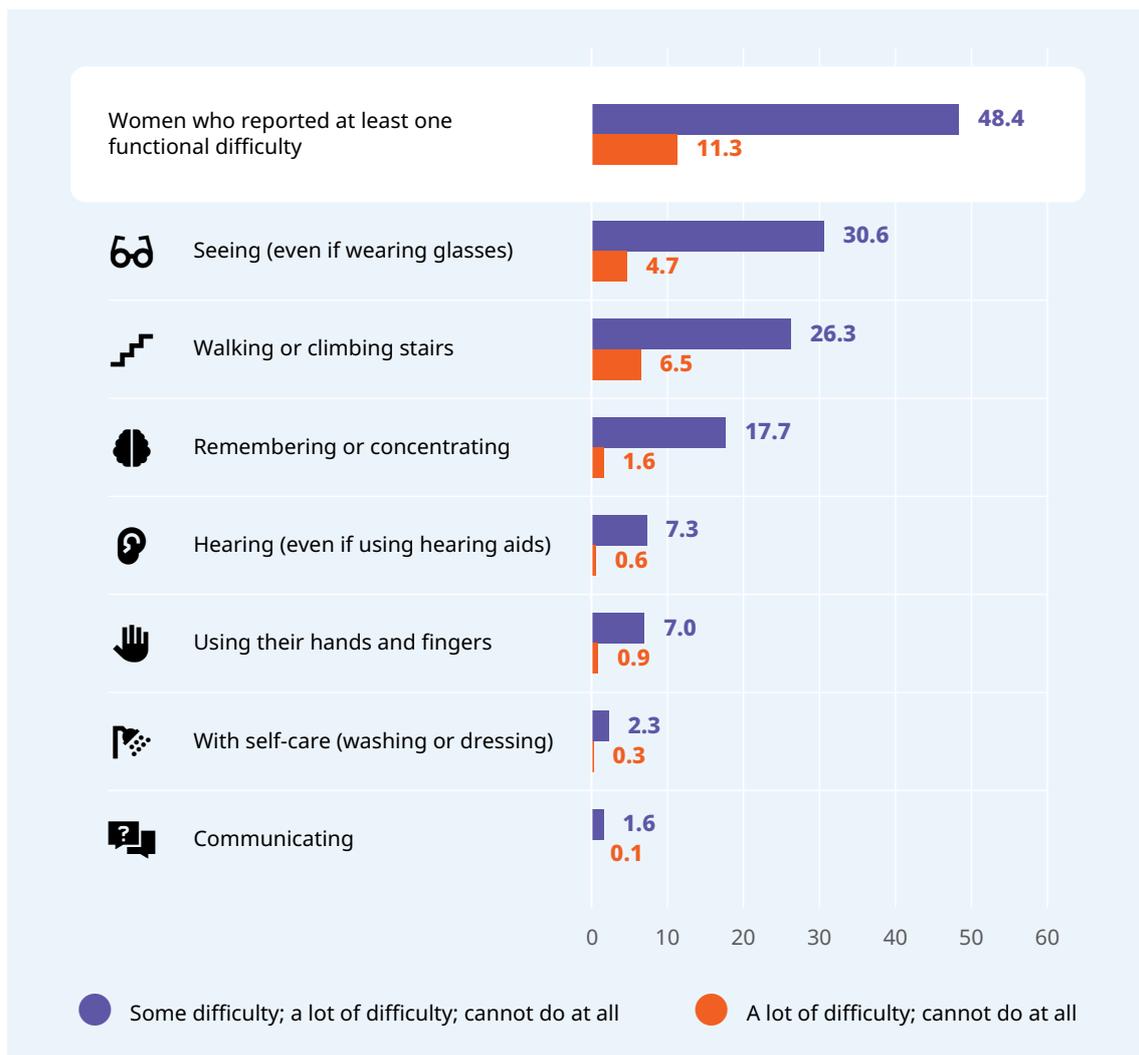


Note: See Table B.16.

4.1 Women with functional difficulties

Figure 4.2 shows that almost every second woman reported having at least one functional difficulty (indicating “some difficulty”, “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all”), while only 11.3 per cent of women reported having at least one difficulty when estimating the degree as “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all”. About one in three women (30.6 per cent) had difficulties seeing, even if wearing glasses, and 26.3 per cent had difficulties walking or climbing stairs. In addition, 17.7 per cent of women had difficulties remembering or concentrating. Fewer women had difficulties hearing, even if using hearing aids (7.3 per cent), and using their hands and fingers, such as picking up small objects (e.g. a button or pencil) or opening/closing containers or bottles (7.0 per cent). In addition, 2.3 per cent of women had difficulties with self-care, such as washing or dressing themselves, and 1.6 per cent had difficulties communicating (e.g. understanding or being understood by others).

FIGURE 4.2. Percentage of women with functional difficulties, by type of functional difficulty



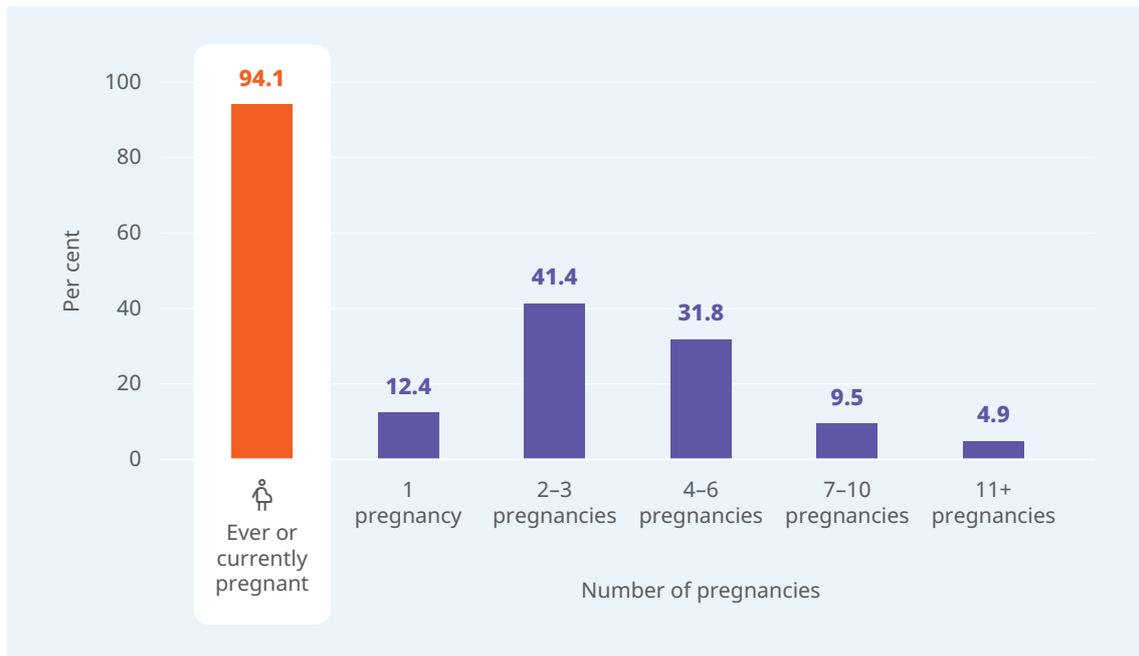
Note: See Table B.17.

4.2 Pregnancy and childbirth

The majority of women (84.4 per cent) were sexually active; only 15.3 per cent of respondents had not had sexual intercourse. On average, women became sexually active at 22 years of age. Nearly all women (95.5 per cent) reported that they wanted to have sex the first time they had sexual intercourse; only 4.2 per cent described their first sexual experience as unwanted or forced (see Table B.18).

Nearly all women (94.1 per cent) who had ever had sex had also ever been or were currently pregnant. Among ever-pregnant women, 12.4 per cent had only one pregnancy, 41.4 per cent had 2–3 pregnancies, 31.8 per cent had 4–6 pregnancies, 9.5 per cent had 7–10 pregnancies, and 4.9 per cent had 11 or more pregnancies (**Figure 4.3**). On average, ever-pregnant women had 4.3 pregnancies.

FIGURE 4.3. Percentage and distribution of ever-pregnant women, by number of pregnancies



Note: See Table B.19.

Among women who were ever pregnant, 18.9 per cent gave birth to only one child, 71.7 per cent gave birth to 2-3 children, and 6.9 per cent gave birth to more than three children. In addition, as many as 26.1 per cent of women experienced at least one miscarriage, 5.5 per cent had at least one stillbirth, and 44.1 per cent had an abortion (Figure 4.4).

FIGURE 4.4. Number of children born and pregnancy losses (percentage)

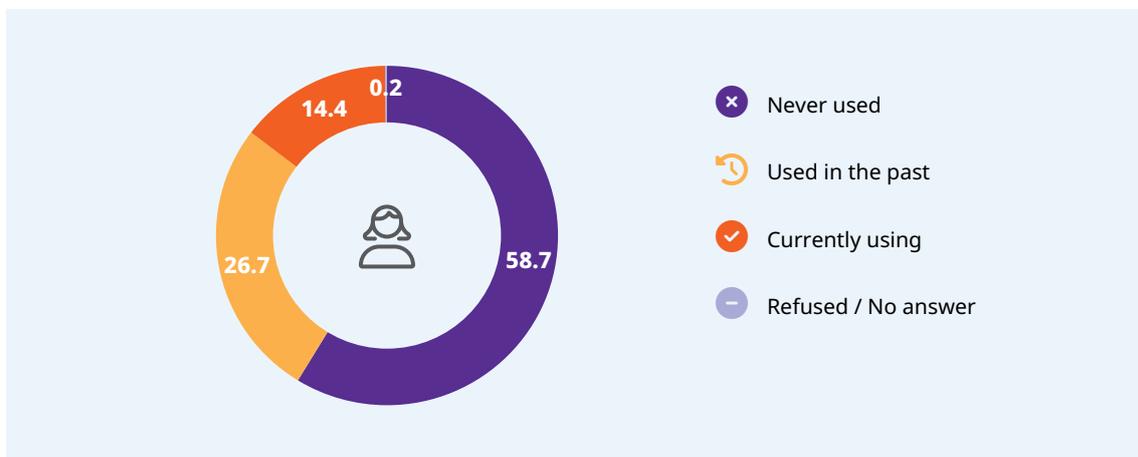


Note: See Table B.20.

4.3 Family planning, contraception and reproductive healthcare decision-making

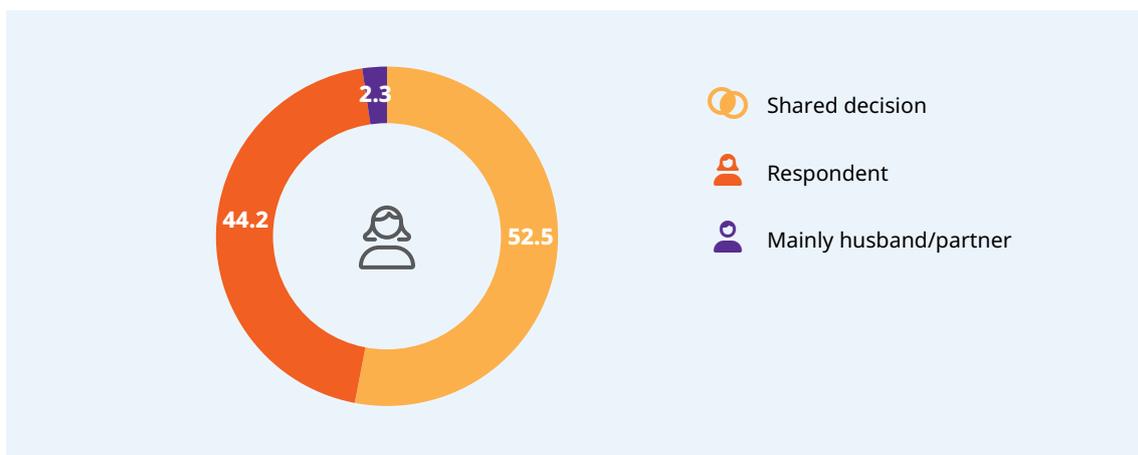
Among women who had ever had sexual intercourse, 58.7 per cent reported that they never used any method of family planning or contraception, whereas 26.7 per cent had used family planning or contraception in the past and only 14.4 per cent were currently using any method of family planning or contraception (**Figure 4.5**). Among women who had ever used family planning or contraception, more than half (52.5 per cent) reported that the decision to use family planning or contraception was a shared decision between them and their husband/partner, while 44.2 per cent reported that it was they themselves who decided. Only 2.3 per cent of women reported that mainly their husband/partner decides (**Figure 4.6**). In addition, 5.7 per cent of women reported that their husband/partner had ever refused contraception use (see Table B.21).

FIGURE 4.5. Distribution of women, by their use of any method of family planning or contraception (percentage)



Note: See Table B.21.

FIGURE 4.6. Distribution of women, by the decision maker of family planning or contraception use (percentage)



Note: See Table B.21.

SDG Indicator 5.6.1 in Georgia

- 81.9 per cent of women aged 15–49 who are married or live with a partner make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations
- 41.0 per cent of women aged 15–49 who are married or live with a partner (and used contraceptives) make their own informed decisions regarding contraceptive use
- 67.7 per cent of women aged 15–49 who are married or live with a partner make their own informed decisions regarding their reproductive health care



Note: See Table B.22.

Among women who had ever used family planning or contraception, 62.8 per cent reported that the most recent time they used family planning or contraception was because they did not want to have any more children, whereas one out of three (33.2 per cent) reported that it was to delay pregnancy (see Table B.21).

Among women who had never used family planning or contraception, 44.9 per cent reported that this was because they wanted to have children. In addition, nearly one third (30.3 per cent) reported that they did not use contraception because of the health side effects related to their use. Less than 1 per cent of women reported that their husband disagreed with or pressured them not to use family planning or contraception (see Table B.21).

Only 2.5 per cent of ever-partnered women reported that they ever wanted to have children and that their husband/partner disagreed. Among these women, 51.0 per cent reported that they broke from their husband's decision and got pregnant anyway. Among women who accepted their husband's/partner's decision to not have children, about one out of three women (30.7* per cent) reported that they accepted their husband's/partner's decision because he hit, threatened and/or pressured them (see Table B.23).

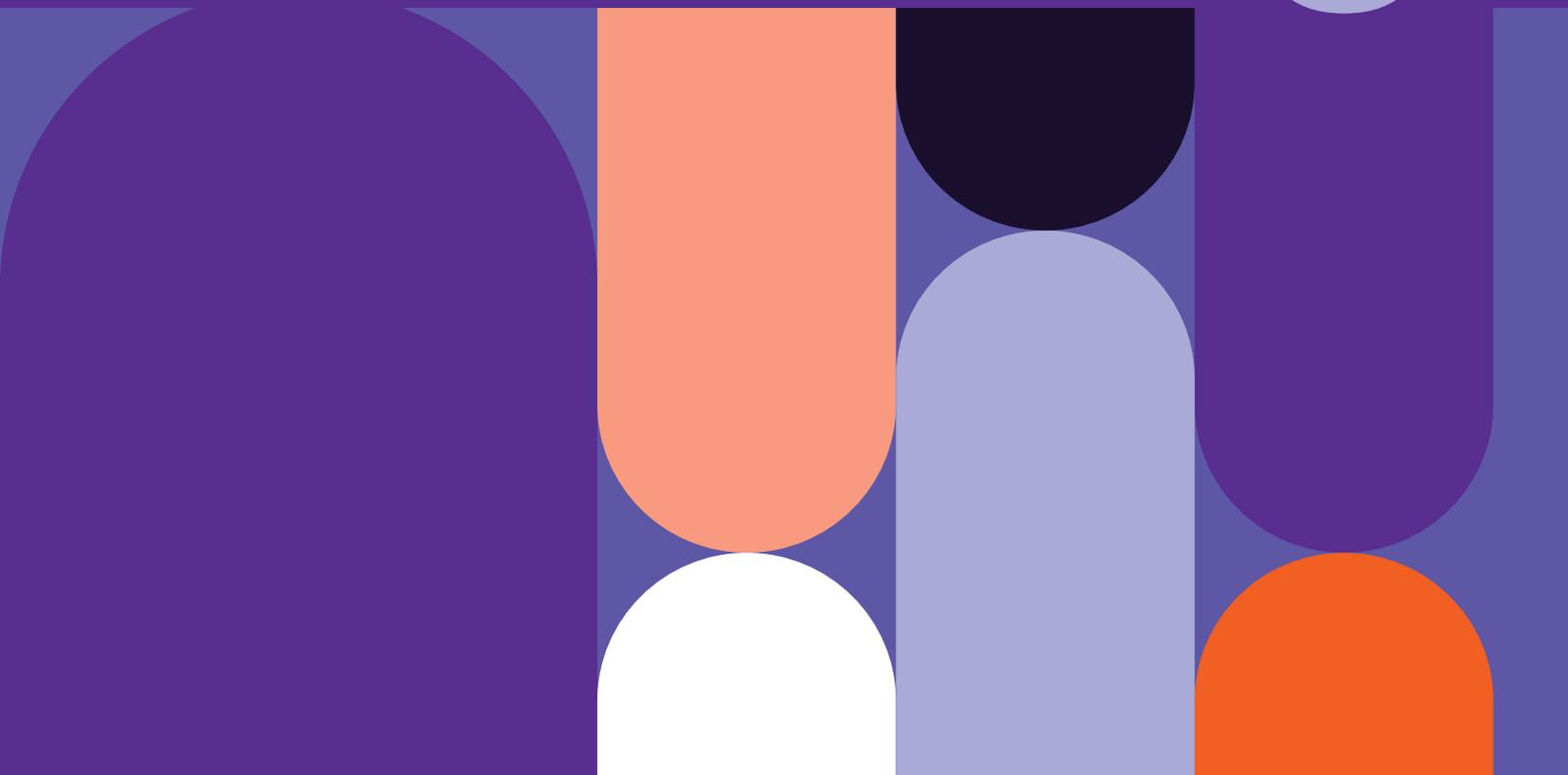
Regarding sexual relations with their husband/partner, the majority of ever-partnered women (80.3 per cent) reported that they can refuse sexual intercourse with their husband/partner, whereas 17.6 per cent could not (see Table B.24).

When it comes to their reproductive healthcare decision-making, the majority of women (75.9 per cent) reported that they are able to decide when to seek reproductive health care, such as from a gynaecologist or OB/GYN, whereas 18.6 per cent of women reported that decisions to seek reproductive health care are shared with their husband/partner. Only 1.8 per cent of women reported that their husband/partner is who mainly decides when they should seek reproductive health care, and 2.8 per cent reported that someone else makes this decision.

VIOLENCE AGAINST

WOMEN AT A GLANCE

5



This chapter offers a glance at the key findings that are presented throughout this report related to the prevalence of VAWG and the relationship between different types of VAWG. These findings and the more complex analyses in the subsequent chapters offer a more in-depth understanding of the nature and prevalence of VAWG.

5.1 Experiences of violence against women and girls

Table 5.1 offers a snapshot of the proportion of women aged 15–69 who had experienced violence during their lifetime and in the 12 months prior to the survey (current). Overall, 50.1 per cent of women aged 15–69 had experienced one or more of the seven types of violence in their lifetime.¹ More specifically, 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. In addition, 22.9 per cent of women had experienced intimate partner violence (IPV). In terms of non-partner violence since the age of 15, 6.5 per cent of women had ever experienced physical violence and 1.5 per cent had ever experienced sexual violence. Moreover, 24.5 per cent of women had experienced sexual harassment and 8.5 per cent had experienced stalking in their lifetime.

SDG Indicator 16.2.3 in Georgia

15.7 per cent of young women aged 18–29 had experienced sexual violence by age 18



TABLE 5.1. Percentage of women who experienced any type of violence, by type of violence

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	∞ Lifetime	↻ Current
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	0.0
Non-partner physical violence since the age of 15	6.5	0.5
Any type of intimate partner violence (IPV)	22.9	9.3

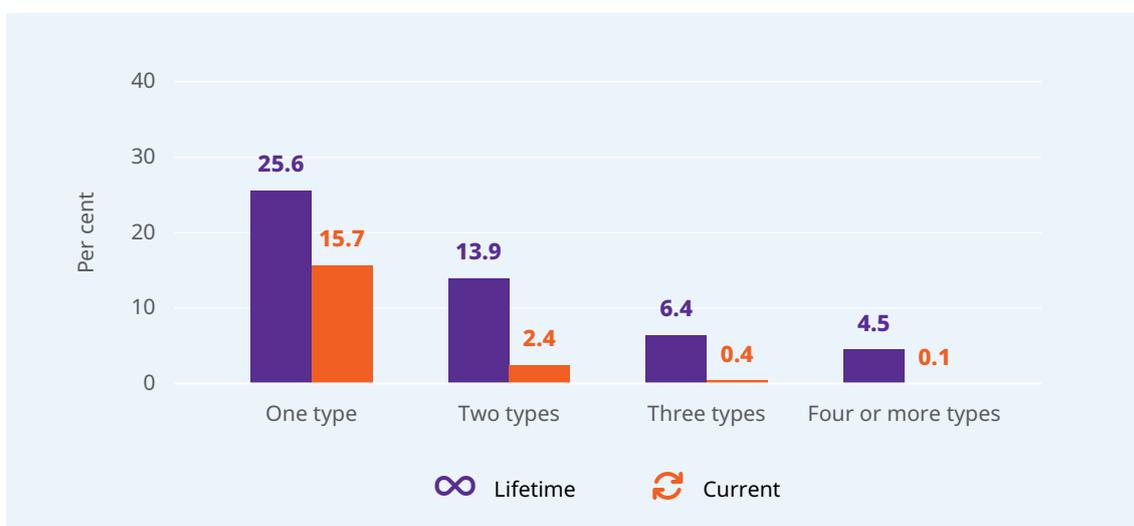
	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	∞ Lifetime	↻ Current
 Physical IPV	5.1	0.6
 Sexual IPV	3.0	0.4
 Psychological IPV	20.5	8.7
 Economic IPV	7.2	2.1

Note: See Table B.26.

Table 5.1 also shows that 18.2 per cent of women had experienced one or more of the seven types of violence in the 12 months prior to the survey (current). More specifically, 9.3 per cent of women had experienced IPV in the past 12 months, and 0.5 per cent of women had experienced non-partner physical violence. Moreover, 9.7 per cent of women had experienced sexual harassment, and 1.6 per cent had experienced stalking in the past 12 months.

Women often experience more than one type of violence. **Figure 5.1** shows the proportion of women aged 15–69 who had experienced one or more of the seven types of lifetime violence and five types of current violence identified in **Table 5.1** (sexual harassment, stalking, non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15, non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, IPV). More specifically, 25.6 per cent of women had experienced only one of the seven types of violence in their lifetime, whereas 13.9 per cent had experienced two types of violence, 6.4 per cent had experienced three types, and 4.5 per cent had experienced four or more types of violence in their lifetime. In addition, in the 12 months prior to the survey, 15.7 per cent of women had experienced only one of the five types of violence, whereas 2.4 per cent had experienced two types, and fewer than 1 per cent had experienced three or more types of violence. These data demonstrate that women do not experience only one type of violence listed in **Table 5.1**; rather, they often experience multiple types of gender-based violence (polyvictimization).

FIGURE 5.1. Percentage of women who experienced violence, by the number of types of violence experienced (lifetime and current)



5.2 Relationship between types of violence

Further analysis was conducted to understand the relationship between women’s experiences with each of the seven types of violence measured in this survey, including their experiences of violence and abuse in childhood and adulthood. **Table 5.2** shows that experiences of child sexual abuse before the age of 18 are strongly associated with sexual harassment (52.7 per cent) and IPV (47.5 per cent) experiences in adulthood. In addition, a large proportion of women who had experienced physical and/or emotional child abuse had also experienced sexual harassment (43.3 per cent) and IPV (38.9 per cent) in later life. Moreover, a large proportion of women who had experienced IPV had also experienced sexual harassment (36.4 per cent).

TABLE 5.2. Relationships between types of violence and abuse experienced in childhood and adulthood (percentage)

	Total	Also experienced in childhood		Also experienced in adulthood				
		Child sexual abuse	Physical and/or emotional child abuse	IPV	Non-partner physical violence	Non-partner sexual violence	Sexual harassment	Stalking
Child sexual abuse	8.5		40.6	47.5	19.0	11.0	52.7	24.9
Physical and/or emotional child abuse	19.7	17.5		38.9	17.8	4.5	43.3	14.8
IPV	22.9	17.6	33.5		11.5	3.2	36.4	14.4
Non-partner physical violence	6.5	24.7	53.6	40.4		11.6	69.3	30.0
Non-partner sexual violence	1.5	61.6	58.9	47.6	50.0		77.3	46.6
Sexual harassment	24.5	18.3	34.8	34.1	18.5	4.8		23.8
Stalking	8.5	24.9	34.4	38.7	23.1	8.3	68.5	

Experiencing non-partner physical violence since 15 years of age is strongly associated with experiences of sexual harassment (69.3 per cent). In addition, a large proportion of women who had experienced non-partner physical violence also had experiences of physical and/or emotional child abuse (53.6 per cent) in their backgrounds. However, women who had experienced non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 were most likely to have experienced child sexual abuse (61.6 per cent) and physical and/or emotional child abuse (58.9 per cent) before the age of 18, and they were

very likely to have experienced sexual harassment (77.3 per cent), non-partner physical violence (50.0 per cent), stalking (46.6 per cent) and IPV (47.6 per cent). Finally, women who had experienced stalking were also very likely to experience sexual harassment (68.5 per cent).

5.3 Relationship between experiences of violence and feelings of safety

Women were asked how safe they feel when walking alone in their area/neighbourhood (see Table B.27). Data were analysed to understand the relationship between women’s current experience of violence and feeling safe walking alone in their area/neighbourhood. As would be expected, women who did not experience violence in the 12 months prior to the survey were far more likely to feel very safe walking alone in their area/neighbourhood (63.0 per cent) than women who did experience violence in the same period (37.7 per cent). In comparison, women who experienced violence in the past 12 months were more likely to report that they feel fairly safe (41.6 per cent), a bit unsafe (16.5 per cent) or very unsafe (3.7 per cent), compared to women who did not experience violence (30.4 per cent, 5.0 per cent and 0.8 per cent, respectively) (Figure 5.2).

FIGURE 5.2. Relationship between women’s current experiences of violence and feelings of safety walking alone (percentage)



Note: See Table B.28.

5.4 Violence among marginalized women

The qualitative component of this study attempted to analyse and understand the experiences of violence among marginalized women, including women with functional difficulties, ethnic minority and migrant women, and LBTQI women; these experiences were not easily captured in the survey component of this study.

5.4.1 LGBTQI+ community

In Georgia, the experiences of violence among marginalized women varied by one's status. For instance, **members of the LGBTQI+ community** described themselves as highly stigmatized and discriminated against in Georgian society; they are even excluded from many mainstream segments of society because of their sexual orientation and gender identity. As a result, members of the LGBTQI+ community face discrimination, harassment and violence in their daily lives. To avoid such treatment, many LGBTQI persons choose to keep their sexual orientation and gender identity hidden, and many isolate themselves from the general public. Too often, members of the LGBTQI+ community do not receive support from their family; and in some cases, their family pressures them not to express their identities. Often, such situations cause conflict within families, and some LGBTQI+ persons choose to leave their family.

IDIs with LBTQI women revealed that they have often experienced physical and psychological violence in their family, both as children and as adults. Some have even experienced economic violence, as their access to financial resources and other material resources were restricted by their family. Some LBTQI women shared that when they decided to 'come out' to their family, they faced significant psychological pressure to conform to traditional constructs of sexual orientation and gender identity; in some cases, this eventually led to physical violence. Several LBTQI women reported that their family tried to force them to seek psychiatric help and even threatened to send them to a psychiatric facility, insisting that they had a mental health problem. These forms of domestic abuse have had a significant impact on LGBTQI women and have led to feelings of anxiety and depression, as well as feelings of isolation and being 'other'.

Moreover, the qualitative study showed that LBTQI women, especially transgender women, are at risk of experiencing violence not only in their family but also in the community. They often fear being treated as sexual objects and physically attacked in public spaces, such as on the street and in public transport.

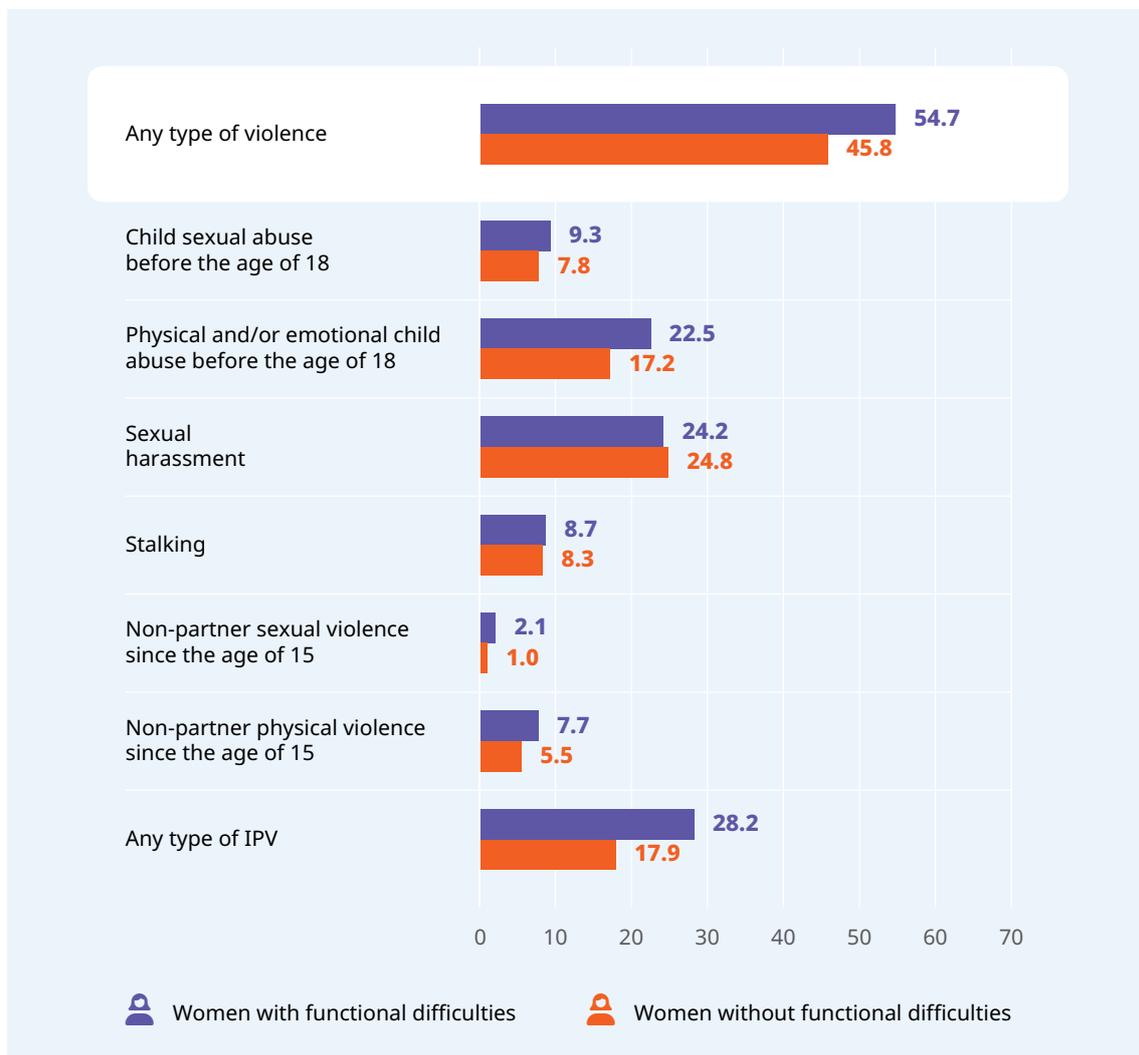
"I had depression during that period, and my father would tell me that I had mental issues so that he could have power over me to control my behaviour. This way, he would have higher authority in society than me and that my words would mean nothing for society, especially if I were declared mentally ill." (IDI with LBTQI woman)

"In certain cases, [my brother] would become so angry that he would not beat me, but he would scare me, and sometimes he would beat me, but I do not call it beating. [...] It caused a lot of stress in me—so much stress that nothing else mattered." (IDI with LBTQI woman)

5.4.2 Women with functional difficulties

The VAW survey data show that women with functional difficulties are more likely to experience violence during their lifetime (54.7 per cent) than women without functional difficulties (45.8 per cent). Women who reported any kind of functional difficulty (indicating “some difficulty”, “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all” in their functionality) are more likely to have experienced child sexual abuse (9.3 per cent), physical and/or emotional child abuse (22.5 per cent), IPV (28.2 per cent) and non-partner physical and sexual violence (7.7 per cent and 2.1 per cent, respectively) compared to women who reported no functional difficulty. The prevalence rates for those currently experiencing violence follow the same trend (Figure 5.3).

FIGURE 5.3. Percentage of women with and without functional difficulties, by type of experienced lifetime violence



Note: See Table B.29.

The qualitative data confirmed that in Georgia, persons with functional difficulties are often isolated and hidden away behind closed doors by their family because they are stigmatized within the community. For women with functional difficulties who choose to access public spaces, they frequently experience discrimination. Some in society believe that a woman with functional difficulties is not a whole woman because she is unable to fulfil her biological roles as wife and mother. When a woman with functional difficulties becomes a wife and mother, others often question whether she is a good wife and mother. In rural areas, acceptance of persons with functional difficulties is even lower; thus, they often report even greater feelings of isolation, discrimination or stigmatization. In most cases, women with functional difficulties limit their social interactions, and some find that they are unable to move independently through society without support from their family.

Women with functional difficulties can experience physical, emotional and economic violence at the hands of their family, as well as controlling behaviours and neglect. Restrictions placed on women with functional difficulties by family members are not always in the name of protection and safety; rather, they are more so aligned with maintaining the image and reputation of the family within the community. Women with functional difficulties also spoke about their experiences of economic violence at the hands of their family members who attempt to control their monthly disability pension/allowance. In some cases, these pensions/allowances are spent by family members without input or consent from the person with disability because their family members have the legal right to use their bank accounts.

Given that women with functional difficulties are often heavily dependent on other people, particularly family members, such women who experience violence often have limited opportunities to escape or seek help, especially when such violence occurs in the home and family. Moreover, in an effort to avoid experiencing violence in public spaces, women with functional difficulties often refuse to go out alone. Many women with functional difficulties end up living very isolated lives, which can have negative consequences for their health and well-being.

“You are not considered a woman; you are just a person with a disability. The woman part of you is neglected, like you do not have that [part]. [...] Basically, women and girls with functional difficulties are invisible.” (IDI with woman with functional difficulties)

“Women with functional difficulties are perceived as helpless creatures who should be double controlled—not like ordinary control, but double, triple control. [...] Or like a potentially unstable creature who can damage their family’s reputation and who should again and again be controlled—especially, of course, during cases of psychiatric problems.” (IDI with woman with functional difficulties)

“[They are subjected to] financial control; [for example, their] monthly allowance is spent by others. These people do not have the chance to control their own finances; they are living like guests in their families, as if their family is doing them a favour. Therefore, these property and unjust financial distributions of resources create a big problem for them.” (IDI with woman with functional difficulties)

“I’ve heard from many that they are not going out because they are afraid of being abused, or that they would not go alone; they would not take a taxi alone. By doing so, they are trying to deprive themselves of everything. They are isolating themselves, which in turn affects them negatively.” (IDI with woman with functional difficulties)

5.4.3 Ethnic minority women

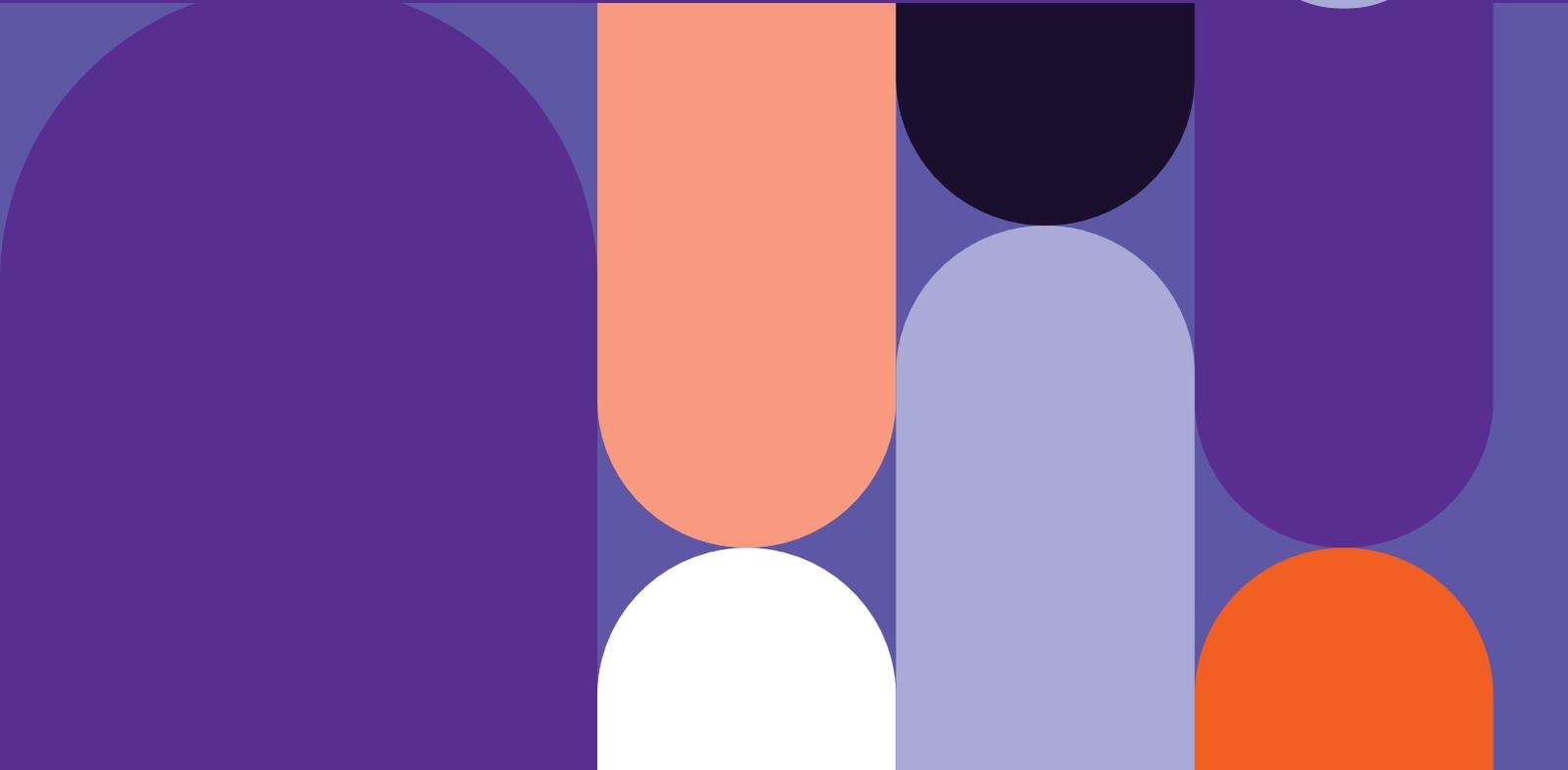
In Georgia, ethnic minority women can experience discrimination, harassment and/or violence because of the intersections of their ethnicity and gender. Some ethnic minority women may be further restricted by their cultural traditions, particularly if such beliefs restrict women's access to education and employment and instead encourage early marriage.

Some ethnic minority women are at increased risk of experiencing violence because they face the strict patriarchal cultural norms and traditions that place limits on their freedoms and opportunities in life. When women resist or rebel against these cultural norms and traditions, they are often at risk of violence. During IDIs, women belonging to ethnic minority groups expressed their concerns that there is not enough understanding of the gender-based violence experienced by ethnic minority women.

"In our community, attitudes towards women are very good, but because of some ideology or religion, [...] women do not have [the right] to continue education independently. I am saying that such cases are not many, but women do not have the right to go out alone, [and] some are not allowed to work in their [chosen] profession." (IDI with ethnic minority woman)

**INTIMATE PARTNER
VIOLENCE AGAINST
WOMEN**

6

The bottom half of the page features a series of overlapping, rounded rectangular shapes in various colors: purple, orange, black, and white. These shapes are arranged in a way that they appear to be layered, creating a modern, abstract graphic design.

Globally, IPV is the most pervasive form of VAW. IPV is a manifestation of gender inequalities that exist in intimate relationships, families and the wider society. IPV exists in all societies but tends to occur at higher rates in those with cultural ideologies that support male dominance and gender role socialization, placing women in subordinate positions to men. These structures obtain legitimacy from patriarchy.¹ In countries where cultural practices dictate that women leave their family of origin to live with their husband and his family, such arrangements further reinforce women's subordinate status and place them at increased risk of marital violence. In such situations, perpetrators of marital violence are not only husbands but can also be in-laws, particularly mothers-in-law, especially in families where newly married women are relegated to the lowest position within the marital family.²

This chapter presents the findings of the 2022 Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey as it relates to the prevalence of different forms of IPV experienced by ever-partnered women aged 15–69 at the hands of their male husbands/partners. This includes physical and sexual violence, emotional and economic abuse, and controlling behaviours. It reports on data collected from women who have ever been in an intimate relationship with a male partner. Two measures are used: lifetime prevalence and current prevalence. Lifetime prevalence refers to the percentage of ever-partnered women who have ever experienced IPV, whereas the current prevalence refers to the proportion of ever-partnered women who have experienced IPV within the past 12 months. The current prevalence is, therefore, a subset of lifetime prevalence.

The data presented in this chapter show the experiences of women who have ever had a male partner. Among ever-partnered women, 99.5 per cent consented to answer questions related to IPV.

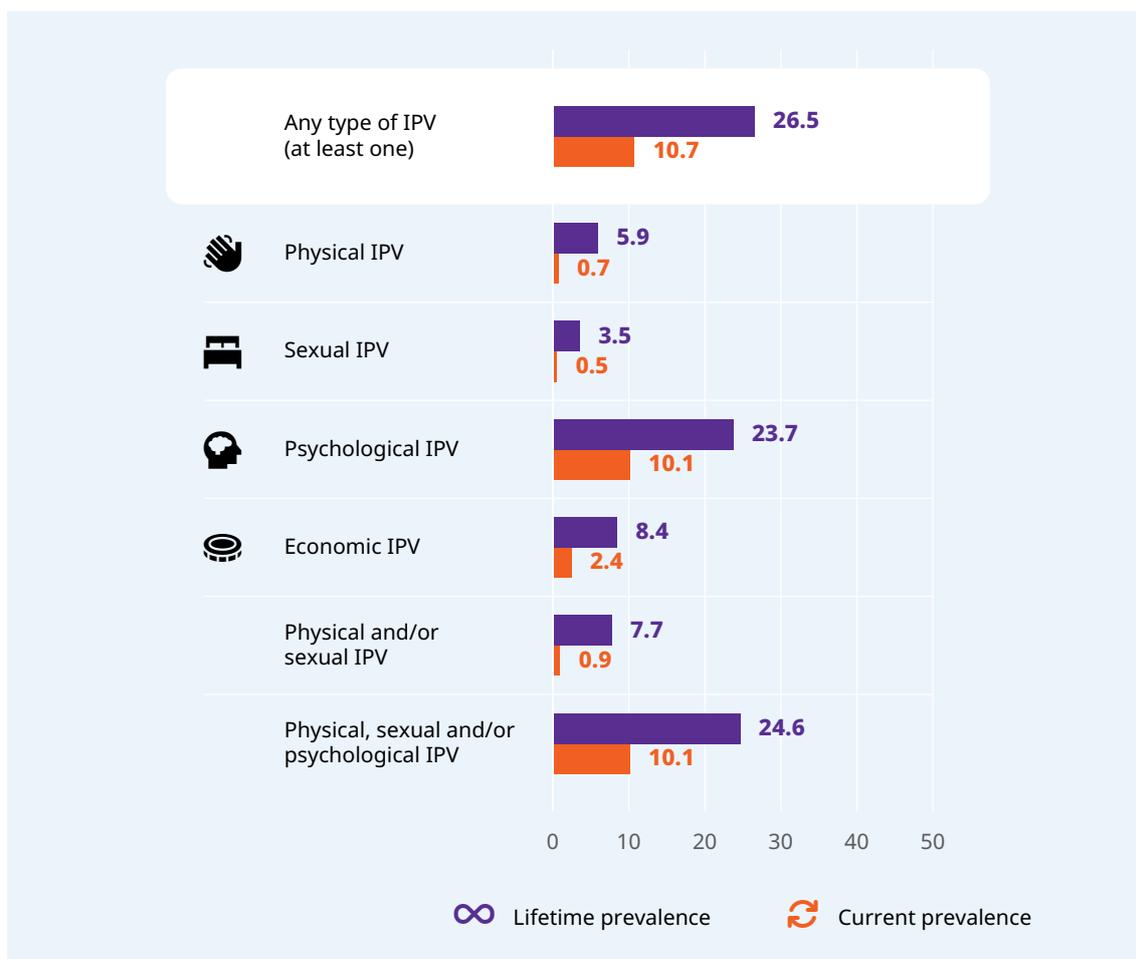
6.1 Prevalence of intimate partner violence

Figure 6.1 shows that 26.5 per cent of ever-partnered women have ever experienced IPV by a male partner (one or more of the four different types of 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 (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.

In terms of current experiences of IPV, 10.7 per cent of ever-partnered women have experienced one or more of the four different types of IPV in the past 12 months. More specifically, 0.9 per cent have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV in the past 12 months, while 10.1 per cent have experienced physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV.

Notably, 38.2 per cent of women reported that they told no one about their experiences of IPV (**Figure 8.1**); thus, the extent of underreporting of lifetime and current IPV is likely very high, even in this survey.

FIGURE 6.1. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by type of IPV



Note: See Table B.30.

In keeping with SDG Indicator 5.2.1, data were analysed to explore the proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 and older subjected to physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months by age.

Figure 6.2 shows that women aged 15–24 were most likely to experience physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV in the past 12 months (18.8 per cent). In terms of age, women under the age of 55 were more likely than women aged 55 and older to experience physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV by a current or former intimate partner.

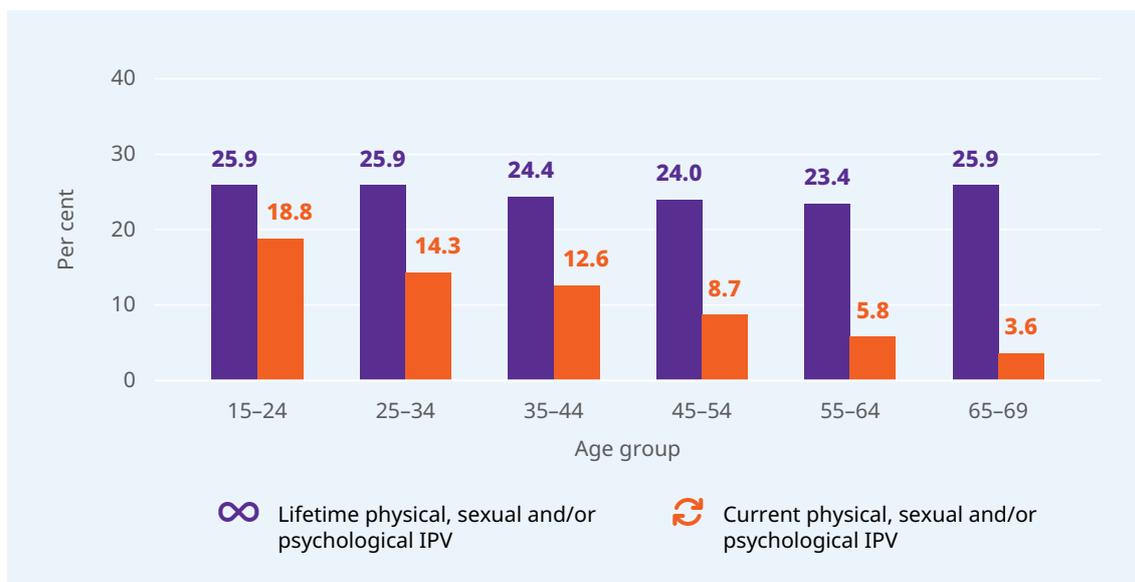
SDG Indicator 5.2.1 in Georgia

TARGET 5-2



10.1 per cent of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 and older were subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months

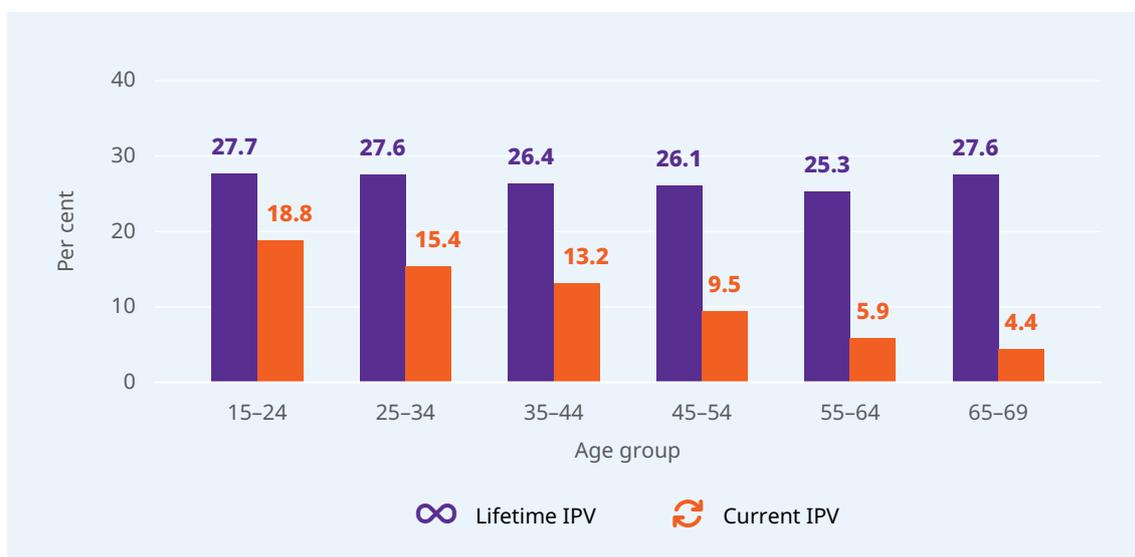
FIGURE 6.2. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV, by age group



Note: See Table B.31.

In terms of all types of IPV,³ women aged 15-44 were more likely to experience IPV in the past 12 months (current) than older women. These current prevalence rates were above the national prevalence rate for current IPV (10.7 per cent). In keeping with global trends, the prevalence of current IPV is lowest among women aged 65-69 (4.4 per cent) (Figure 6.3).

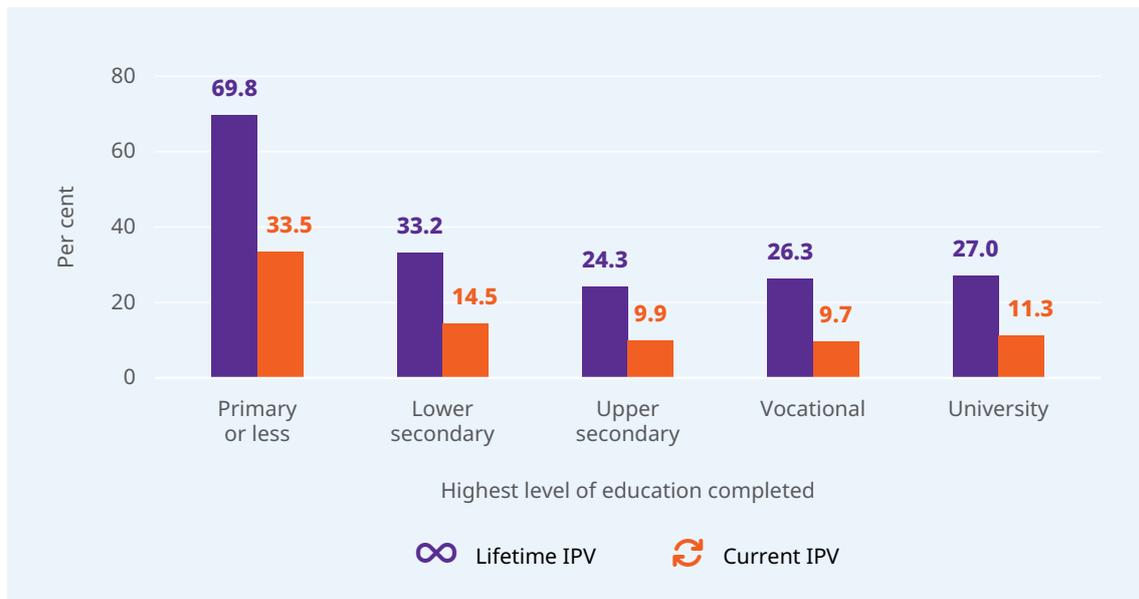
FIGURE 6.3. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by age group



Note: See Table B.32.

The lifetime prevalence of IPV was highest among women with a primary education or less; nearly 7 out of 10 of them (69.8 per cent) had ever experienced IPV, and nearly one out of three (33.5 per cent) had experienced current IPV. In addition, 33.2 per cent of women with a lower secondary education had ever experienced IPV. This is higher than the prevalence of lifetime IPV among women with an upper secondary (24.3 per cent) or higher education (26.3 per cent for women with a vocational education and 27.0 per cent for women with a university education) (Figure 6.4).

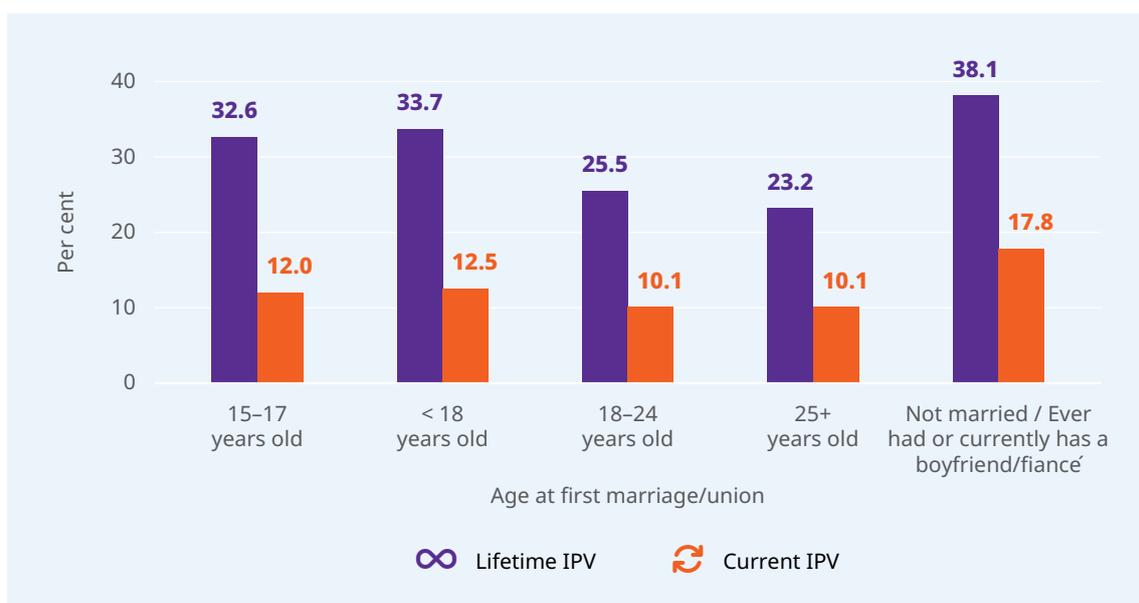
FIGURE 6.4. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by level of education



Note: See Table B.32.

Global trends have shown that women who enter into their first marriage/union before the age of 18 are at increased risk of experiencing IPV. **Figure 6.5** shows that two in five women who entered into their first marriage/union by the age of 15 and nearly one out of three women before the age of 18 have ever experienced IPV (41.3 per cent and 33.7 per cent, respectively). This is significantly higher than the prevalence of lifetime IPV among women who entered into their first marriage/union between the ages of 18 and 24 (25.5 per cent) or aged 25 and older (23.2 per cent). This same pattern holds true for the prevalence of current IPV. Dating violence is also high, with 38.1 per cent of women reporting lifetime IPV and 17.8 per cent reporting current IPV by their boyfriend/fiancé.

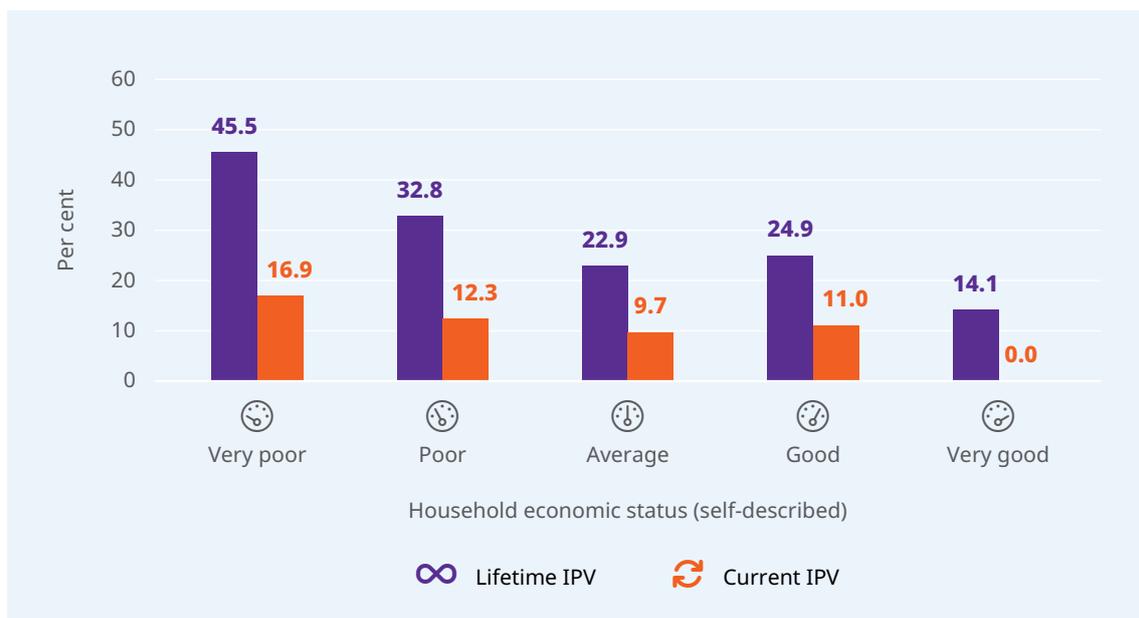
FIGURE 6.5. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by age at first marriage/union



Note: See Table B.32.

Globally, research has found that IPV transcends socioeconomic status, affecting women from all levels of income, education and occupation, yet poverty and its associated stressors increase the risk of IPV: the lower the household income, the higher the reported IPV rates.⁴ In keeping with global trends, **Figure 6.6** shows that women from households that reported themselves to be very poor had higher prevalence rates of lifetime and current IPV. More than two in five women from very poor households (45.5 per cent) have ever experienced IPV; this is nearly twice as high as women from households with a self-described average or good economic status. It is also notable that women from households that reported to be very poor were more likely to report experiencing IPV in the past 12 months, compared to women from average or good economic status households.

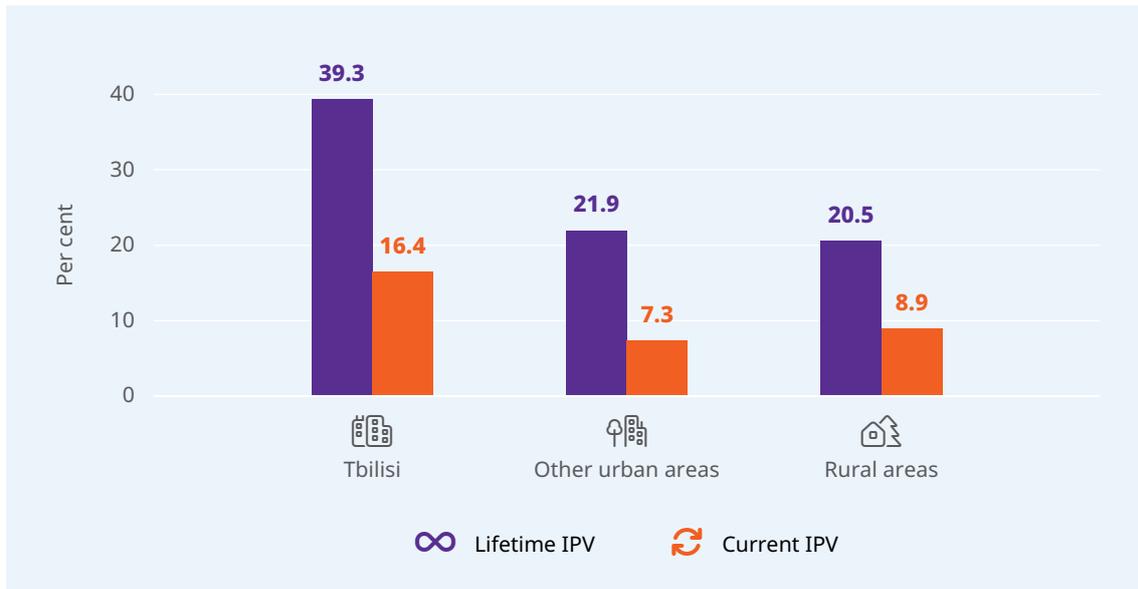
FIGURE 6.6. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by household economic status



Note: See Table B.32.

Figure 6.7 shows that women living in Tbilisi (39.9 per cent) were more likely to report experiences of IPV in their lifetime than women in other urban areas (21.9 per cent) or rural areas (20.5 per cent). It is also notable that women living in Tbilisi were more likely than women in other urban areas to report experiencing current IPV (16.4 per cent and 7.3 per cent, respectively).

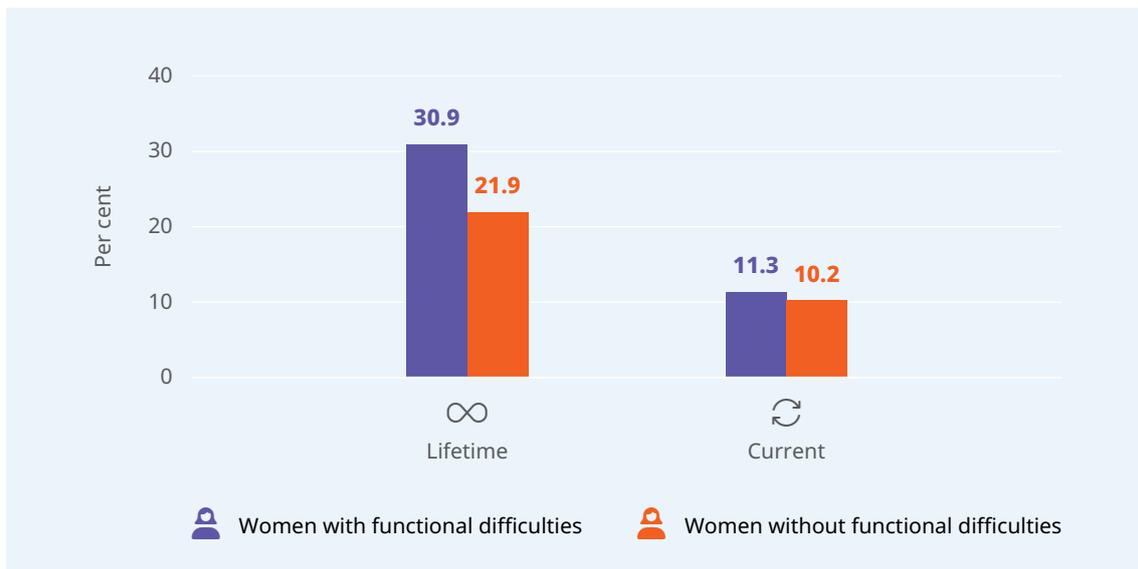
FIGURE 6.7. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by settlement type



Note: See Table B.32.

Figure 6.8 shows that women who reported having at least one functional difficulty (indicating “some difficulty”, “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all”) are more likely to have experienced IPV during their lifetime (30.9 per cent) than those women who did not report any functional difficulty (21.9 per cent). Differences in current IPV prevalence rates are less pronounced.

FIGURE 6.8. Percentage of ever-partnered women who experienced any type of IPV, by functional difficulty



Note: See Table B.33.

6.2 Intimate partner physical violence

The lifetime prevalence of physical IPV refers to the percentage of ever-partnered women who reported being hit, slapped, kicked, beaten, burned, or either threatened or injured with a weapon by a partner at least once in their lifetime. The lifetime prevalence of physical partner violence was 5.9 per cent, whereas the current prevalence was 0.7 per cent. Acts of physical partner violence that women more commonly experience include being slapped or having something thrown at them that could hurt them (4.9 per cent) and being pushed, shoved or having their hair pulled (4.0 per cent). Among women who experienced physical IPV, 85.3 per cent reported that it occurred at the hands of their current/most recent husband/partner, while 14.7 per cent identified the perpetrator as their previous husband/partner (Table 6.1).

TABLE 6.1. Prevalence of physical IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Physical IPV (at least one of the actions below)	5.9	0.7
Slapped you or threw something at you that could hurt you	4.9	0.6
Pushed you, shoved you or pulled your hair	4.0	0.4
Hit you with his fist or with something else that could hurt you	1.6	0.3
Kicked you, dragged you or beat you up	1.3	0.1
Choked you on purpose	0.6	0.1
Threatened you with or used a gun, knife or other weapon against you	0.5	0.1
Cut or stabbed you on purpose	0.2	0.0
Burned you on purpose	0.1	0.0
Perpetrators of the physical violence	 Lifetime prevalence N = 182	
 Current/most recent husband/partner	85.3	
 Previous husband/partner	14.7	

Note: See Table B.34.

The survey data suggest that women with functional difficulty (indicating “some difficulty”, “a lot of difficulty” or “cannot do at all”) are more likely to experience lifetime physical violence by their intimate partner than women without functional difficulty (7.1 per cent and 4.6 per cent, respectively) (see Table B.33).

The qualitative data revealed that some women experienced severe forms of physical violence, including near-death experiences, which led them to seek help. Women described being physically attacked with items, such as knives, hammers, wood, axes, metal rods and even guns. Some women even reported being rescued by their neighbours. Women described being hit, kicked, punched, pushed and slapped. They even reported that their husband/partner hit them in the face so that they would isolate themselves and hide their injuries. Many women hid their injuries even from health workers. One VAW survivor explained: *“The police took me to [forensic] examination so that the doctor could check me. Somehow I felt ashamed to completely take off my clothes [in front of] that doctor. I only showed the doctor what was on the surface that could easily be visible, but I had bruises on my entire body, around my core and lungs.”*

Women described experiencing repeated acts of physical violence for a variety of reasons, including unprovoked reasons, such as their husband’s/partner’s jealousy of them. Women who experienced physical violence were often controlled by their husband/partner, even when completing daily tasks outside the home, such as grocery shopping and taking the children to school. Failure to fulfil their daily tasks or to complete them on time would often result in acts of physical violence; thus, women often tried to correct their behaviour and obey their husband/partner to avoid physical abuse for not meeting his expectations.

Women spoke about the added layer of vulnerability if their abusive husband/partner was a police officer. One VAW survivor explained: *“He was a policeman, and he could do anything; that was my impression. I had to defend myself.”* In such cases, women are often reluctant or discouraged from seeking help, particularly if their husband/partner is able to use his administrative resources to stalk the woman—and use his connections to avoid being charged with domestic violence.

“We had argued the day before. He was choking me; he had never abused me this way before—never. He locked the children in their room so they could not see all of this, but our older daughter could sneak in, and that was the time when I looked death in the eyes. I got very scared because I did not want to die, especially when the children were around. No matter how bad you feel, you do not want to die because of your children. [...] After, I collected my clothes and left.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“He would sit in front of me with a knife in his hands. He would tell me, ‘First, I would gouge your eyes out. Next, I would cut your throat. I will make you bleed in front of your children.’ Tell me how I could not be afraid of such a man; I was very scared.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.3 Physical violence during pregnancy

This study also assessed physical violence during pregnancy. The WHO 'Intimate Partner Violence During Pregnancy' report notes that physical violence during pregnancy is detrimental to the health of both the mother and the child and is "associated with fatal and non-fatal adverse health outcomes for the pregnant woman and her baby due to the direct trauma of abuse to a pregnant woman's body, as well as the physiological effects of stress from current or past abuse on fetal growth and development."⁵ Women were asked whether they had experienced violence during pregnancy and whether these violent acts involved being punched or kicked in the abdomen.

The study found that 1.2 per cent of ever-partnered women who were ever pregnant experienced physical violence while pregnant. Among them, 70.3* per cent reported that they experienced physical violence during only one of their pregnancies, whereas 14.8* per cent experienced physical violence during two pregnancies and 14.9* per cent during three pregnancies. More than half of women (59.7 per cent) reported that the physical violence occurred during their most recent/last pregnancy (**Table 6.2**).

More than one out of three women who experienced physical violence during pregnancy reported being punched or kicked in the abdomen while they were pregnant (36.3* per cent). All women reported that it was their husband/partner and father of the child who physically beat them when they were pregnant, and 85.9* per cent reported that this same person hit/beat them before they were pregnant. It is notable that 20.0* per cent of women reported that the physical violence worsened (i.e. became more frequent or severe) when they were pregnant, whereas 41.9* per cent of women reported that the physical violence did not worsen but remained the same as before they were pregnant. One third (33.3* per cent) reported that the physical violence was less frequent or not as severe as it was before their pregnancy.

TABLE 6.2. Prevalence of physical violence during pregnancy (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who were ever pregnant N = 2,789
Was there ever a time when you were pushed, slapped, hit, kicked or beaten by any of your husbands/partners while you were pregnant?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	1.2
<input type="checkbox"/> No	98.8
In how many pregnancies were you pushed, slapped, hit, kicked or beaten?	
Experience physical violence in pregnancy N = 34	
<input checked="" type="radio"/> ① One pregnancy	70.3*
<input type="radio"/> ② Two pregnancies	14.8*
<input type="radio"/> ③ Three pregnancies	14.9*

	 Ever-partnered women who were ever pregnant N = 2,789
Did this happen in your most recent/last pregnancy?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	59.7*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	39.1*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know	1.2*
Were you ever punched or kicked in the abdomen while you were pregnant?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	36.3*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	63.7*
During the most recent pregnancy in which you were beaten, was the husband/partner who did this to you the father of the child?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	100.0*
Had the same person also hit or beat you before you were pregnant?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	85.9*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	11.7*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know	2.4*
Compared to before the pregnancy, did the beatings get less, stay about the same or get worse (more frequent or severe) while you were pregnant?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Got less	33.3*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Stayed about the same / No change	41.9*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Got worse	20.0*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know	4.8*

Note: See Table B.35.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

The qualitative data revealed that some women suffered miscarriages because of physical violence during pregnancy. In addition to experiencing physical violence, women also experienced emotional abuse during pregnancy and were even kicked out of their homes by their husbands/partners. One VAW survivor spoke about how her husband/partner “told me at 4 or 5 a.m. to leave the house. I was kicked out of the house when I was pregnant because I was emotional and cried about my mother’s letter that my godmother gave me. He said, ‘Why should I listen to your cry?’ And he kicked me out.” Some abusive husbands/partners even accused women of being unfaithful so that they could avoid responsibility for the costs of the pregnancy and childcare.

“The physical abuse started after one month of marriage. I was physically abused only during my first pregnancy, but unfortunately the psychological abuse continued. I asked my husband why he behaved this way, and he said because I should be afraid of him as a man.” (IDI with VAW survivor, ethnic minority)

“My child was 40 days old. I was holding the baby and—I don’t know what happened, why he got angry—he hit me. I will never forget, I was holding a baby and he was hitting me. When I think about it even now, I start crying. I was holding a baby and he was hitting me.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.4 Intimate partner sexual violence

The lifetime prevalence of sexual IPV refers to the percentage of ever-partnered women who reported being forced to have sexual intercourse when they did not want to or being forced to perform any sexual act that they did not want to do at least once in their lifetime. The lifetime prevalence of sexual IPV was 3.5 per cent, whereas the current prevalence was 0.5 per cent. Acts of sexual partner violence that women more commonly experience include being forced to have sexual intercourse when they did not want to (2.8 per cent) and having sexual intercourse when they did not want to because they were afraid of what their husband/partner might do if they refused (1.4 per cent). Among women who experienced sexual IPV, 87.1 per cent reported that it was perpetrated by their current/most recent husband/partner, while 10.6 per cent identified the perpetrator as their previous husband/partner (Table 6.3).

TABLE 6.3. Prevalence of sexual IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Sexual IPV (at least one of the actions below)	3.5	0.5
Ever forced you to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to (e.g. by threatening you or holding you down)	2.8	0.4

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Ever had sexual intercourse you did not want to because you were afraid of what your husband/partner might do if you refused	1.4	0.0
Ever forced you to do anything sexual that you did not want to do or that you found degrading or humiliating	0.7	0.1
Perpetrators of the sexual violence	 Lifetime prevalence N = 96	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		87.1
 Previous husband/partner		10.6
 Both		0.9
 Refused / No answer		1.4

Note: See Table B.36.

The survey data show that women with functional difficulty are more likely to experience lifetime sexual violence by their intimate partner (4.3 per cent) than women without functional difficulty (2.8 per cent) (see Table B.33).

In the qualitative component, very few VAW survivors shared personal stories of sexual violence because of the shame and stigma associated with experiencing sexual violence. One VAW survivor explained: *“I never told anyone that he abused me sexually. After so long, I am sharing this for the first time.”* Among the few VAW survivors who spoke about sexual violence at the hands of their husbands/partners, they indicated that the sexual violence was often coupled with physical violence.

“He was violent and hitting me until I would start bleeding, and I will tell you that he would force me [to have] sexual intercourse; I am a victim of [sexual] violence. Now I am telling you this story and you might think I am a crazy person, but I can freely tell you this story because now it is not hard for me [to talk about it], but I had hard times and I was suffering.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“There were moments of choking, punching. When he was choking me, I told him God would not forgive him. He forced me to take a shower so I could feel better, and then he sexually abused me. I was destroyed.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.5 Intimate partner psychological violence

In line with the Eurostat definition, psychological violence combines emotional abuse and controlling behaviours. The lifetime prevalence of psychological violence was 23.7 per cent, whereas the current prevalence was 10.1 per cent. This section discusses emotional abuse and controlling behaviour separately.

6.5.1 Emotional abuse by an intimate partner

The lifetime prevalence of emotional abuse refers to the percentage of ever-partnered women who reported being insulted, made to feel stupid or worthless, belittled or humiliated, and threatened or intimidated or having their personal property or belongings destroyed. The lifetime prevalence of emotional IPV was 12.6 per cent, whereas the current prevalence was 3.2 per cent. Acts of emotional IPV that women more commonly experience include being insulted or made to feel bad about themselves (9.7 per cent), spoken to in a way that made them feel stupid or worthless (6.5 per cent), purposely made to feel scared or intimidated (4.7 per cent) and belittled or humiliated in front of other people (4.4 per cent). Among women who experienced emotional IPV, 88.7 per cent reported that it was perpetrated by their current/most recent husband/partner, while 10.8 per cent identified the perpetrator as their previous husband/partner (**Table 6.4**).

TABLE 6.4. Prevalence of emotional IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Emotional IPV (at least one of the actions below)	12.6	3.2
Insulted you or made you feel bad about yourself	9.7	2.3
Spoke to you in a way that made you feel stupid or worthless	6.5	1.6
Said or did things to scare or intimidate you on purpose (e.g. by looking at you, yelling or smashing things)	4.7	0.7
Belittled or humiliated you in front of other people	4.4	0.7
Destroyed things that are important to you, such as your personal property, belongings or pets	3.7	0.4

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Verbally threatened to hurt you or someone you cared about	3.2	0.7
Threatened to post or distribute intimate or sexually explicit images of you without your consent	0.1	0.1
Perpetrators of the emotional IPV	 Lifetime prevalence N = 388	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		88.7
 Previous husband/partner		10.8
 Both		0.4
 Refused / No answer		0.2

Note: See Table B.37.

6.5.2 Controlling behaviours

Intimate partner violence, and in particular emotional abuse, is closely linked to controlling behaviours, such as persistent jealousy and accusations of infidelity, acts to restrain access to friends and family, and monitoring communications with others.⁶ Women were asked about the types of controlling behaviours, if any, displayed by their male partners. Nearly one out of five ever-partnered women (18.8 per cent) have been subjected to at least one controlling behaviour by a male partner in their lifetime, whereas the current prevalence was 8.3 per cent (**Table 6.5**).

Controlling behaviours that women more commonly experience include having their husband/partner insist on knowing where they are at all times (15.1 per cent) and getting jealous or angry if they speak with another man (9.2 per cent). Among women who experienced controlling behaviours, 93.0 per cent reported that it was perpetrated by their current/most recent husband/partner, while 5.2 per cent identified the perpetrator as their previous husband/partner.

TABLE 6.5. Prevalence of controlling behaviours experienced by ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Controlling behaviours (at least one of the actions below)	18.8	8.3
Insisted on knowing where you are at all times	15.1	7.0
Got jealous or angry if you spoke with another man	9.2	2.6
Stopped you from seeing or meeting your female friends	5.0	1.3
Regularly monitored your telephone for phone calls, SMS messages and/or social media posts to see who you are communicating with and how often	3.0	1.5
Was often suspicious that you are unfaithful	2.6	0.5
Restricted your contact with your family, including parents, siblings or other relatives	2.2	0.3
Used mobile technology to check where you are	0.7	0.3
Stopped you from getting health care for yourself without his permission	0.4	0.1
Perpetrators of controlling behaviours	 Lifetime prevalence N = 563	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		93.0
 Previous husband/partner		5.2
 Both		0.5
 Don't know		0.8
 Refused / No answer		0.5

Note: See Table B.38.

The survey data suggest that women with functional difficulty are more likely to experience psychological IPV (27.2 per cent) than women without functional difficulty (20.1 per cent). Moreover, 14.7 per cent of ever-partnered women with functional difficulties report lifetime emotional abuse by their partner, and 21.1 per cent report controlling behaviour; these prevalence rates are considerably higher than those for women without functional difficulty (10.4 per cent and 16.4 per cent, respectively) (see Table B.33).

The qualitative data revealed that, for many VAW survivors, psychological violence began early in their relationship and included isolating and restrictive behaviours by their husband/partner. For instance, many VAW survivors spoke about not being allowed to interact with friends or to leave the house—or even to take pictures.

“My friends were not allowed to visit me. My bridesmaid, my best friend—if they would come over, he would forbid me from opening the doors. He would tell me, ‘Don’t open the doors. Pretend you are not at home.’” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“I would see my closest friends only two or three times in two years after I started a relationship with him. He would not prohibit it directly, but he would tell me about the daily tasks that I had to complete. He would say, ‘Who would take care of the kids?’ Basically, I stopped any interactions with my friends and relatives, even texting.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

Humiliation, blame and manipulation were also common forms of psychological violence. Some husbands/partners even accused them of being ‘crazy’ for reacting to the violence and abuse they were experiencing—and even for not accepting their husbands’/partners’ infidelity. Women spoke about being humiliated in front of others, including their children. Psychological violence diminished women’s self-esteem and sense of self-worth, in addition to making them even more dependent on their husbands/partners. Some women reported living in constant psychological terror that involved repeated threats and humiliation, as well as being blamed for their own victimization. In some cases, they were convinced that they deserved the violence as a means to correct their behaviour.

Women spoke about being threatened. Some husbands/partners threatened to harm or kill them and to take their children away from them. Such threats even continued after the husbands/

partners had restraining orders issued against them and/or were in prison; in such cases, women lived in constant fear. One VAW survivor explained: *“He is calling me from prison at least once a month to threaten me. He tells me that when he is freed from prison, he will kill me, he will not let me live. [...] I do not deserve to be killed.”* Similarly, another VAW survivor explained: *“There is no guarantee that he won’t kill me. One day, he might kill me in the street. He might not forgive me for putting him in jail.”*

“It all started with this. [...] He would tell me: ‘You are stupid. You do not have any brains.’ Everything started with those words. ‘You are stupid. You look ugly.’” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“The violence was psychological. He was destroying me psychologically. He was telling me that I was crazy. He would beat me, hit me, and once, he beat me because of his lover. He beat me very hard.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“In front of everyone, he would humiliate me if I asked anything. He would say: ‘You don’t understand anything. You are nothing without me.’ He started manipulating my children. He was telling them: ‘Your mother is no one. Your mother does not understand anything.’” (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.6 Intimate partner economic abuse

The lifetime prevalence of intimate partner economic abuse refers to the percentage of ever-partnered women who reported being prohibited from getting a job, going to work and earning money, being refused access to money needed for household expenses when the money is available, and having their earnings taken from them against their will or having their money controlled. The lifetime prevalence of economic abuse was 8.4 per cent, whereas the current prevalence was 2.4 per cent. Acts of intimate partner economic abuse that women more commonly experience include being prohibited from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generating projects (5.8 per cent) and having one's husband/partner refuse to give them the money needed for household expenses, even when he had money for other things, such as alcohol and cigarettes (3.5 per cent). Among women who experienced economic abuse, 91.5 per cent reported that it was perpetrated by their current/most recent husband/partner, while 7.4 per cent identified the perpetrator as their previous husband/partner (**Table 6.6**).

TABLE 6.6. Prevalence of economic IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Economic IPV (at least one of the actions below)	8.4	2.4
Prohibits you from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generating projects	5.8	1.6
Refuses to give you money you needed for household expenses, even when he has money for other things, such as alcohol and cigarettes	3.5	0.7
Takes your earnings from you against your will or controls your money	1.6	0.4
Perpetrators of economic abuse	 Lifetime prevalence N = 263	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		91.5
 Previous husband/partner		7.4
 Refused / No answer		1.2

Note: See Table B.39.

The qualitative data revealed that economic IPV rarely happens in isolation from other forms of IPV. VAW survivors linked their experiences of economic violence to traditional ideas of masculinity, where the man is considered the head of the household and the financial provider for the family. Some men used economic violence to demonstrate their dominance and power in their marriage and family. For instance, they limited women's access to basic necessities, such as food and hygiene products, as well as other domestic items and leisure activities, such as spending time with friends.

VAW survivors also spoke about how their husbands/partners forbid or restricted them from working and helping to provide for the family; yet, at the same time, they were requested to provide financial support for domestic necessities. Some women were physically abused because their requests for basic necessities were perceived as threatening, as they were perceived as questioning their husband's/partner's abilities to fulfil his roles and responsibilities as the breadwinner or provider for the family.

In addition, some VAW survivors explained that when they were able to work outside of the home and contribute to the family's income, their husbands/partners often found it threatening and thus abused them for doing so. Husbands/partners restricted their access to their earned income (pay), and some even gained legal power over their property or family business. There were also cases in which women were the sole breadwinners in the family and their husbands physically abused them if their income was not sufficient to meet the household needs. One VAW survivor explained, "I was working during night shifts as a nanny, earning this money with my own sweat and blood, and I knew that when I was back home, he would beat me and take all my money." Another VAW survivor explained, "I was working in the shop as a consultant; no one would restrict me from working, as both [my father-in-law and husband] wanted me to work so they could take my pay."

"I even was not allowed to do laundry without permission. I had to beg my husband or my mother-in-law for feminine hygiene products." (IDI with VAW survivor)

"My husband would prohibit anything that was related to money. When my classmates got together in a restaurant, I could not join [them]. He did not give me money for travel or other expenses related to this gathering. [...] I was begging him for weeks to buy playdough for our kid." (IDI with VAW survivor)

"When I was asking for basic things for the children, he would beat me immediately, [like] when the children needed shoes for school. [...] I did not have the right to work or do something [to earn money and support the family]." (IDI with VAW survivor)

"He would have issues about money. He would say, 'I bring in the money and you make it disappear; there is no food.' If I told him that I could start working, he would reply: 'Why would you start working? I am the man here and I have to work.'" (IDI with VAW survivor)

"When I was working, I would do anything—groceries, topping up his mobile for him, anything. [...] He would extort money from me [in the amount of] GEL 300–400; [he would] borrow it and never return it." (IDI with VAW survivor)

"He sold everything we had at home. It was the first time I started working. I could not see my salary: he would take it away from me and gamble." (IDI with VAW survivor, ethnic minority)

"I was working and earning GEL 30 a day, and he would take all that money from me. He would beat me to death if I did not give him that money. He would gamble and lose, and he would beat me again, blaming me for his losses." (IDI with VAW survivor)

VAW survivors also discussed how their husbands/partners exploited them for financial gain and emotionally manipulated them in return for their attention and affection. Some husbands/partners regularly extorted women for their money, which they then spent on alcohol and gambling. Women also spoke about how their husbands/partners stole from them, damaged their possessions and controlled their property. Any signs of resistance by women resulted in an escalation to physical violence. Women who left such economically abusive relationships often left without any money, and some left with large amounts of debt.

"I was earning a lot, and I never could have imagined that I would end up with nothing and start everything from zero." (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.7 Fear of husband/partner

The majority of ever-partnered women had no fear of their current/most recent husband/partner (92.7 per cent). Only 2.3 per cent of ever-partnered women reported being afraid of their current or most recent partner, and 4.7 per cent of women reported that they were afraid of their husband/partner in the past but are no longer afraid. Among women who reported being afraid of their current/most recent husband/partner, 18.8 per cent reported that they were afraid most/all of the time, 30.4 per cent were afraid many times, and 48.4 per cent were afraid sometimes (**Table 6.7**).

TABLE 6.7. Ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner (percentage)

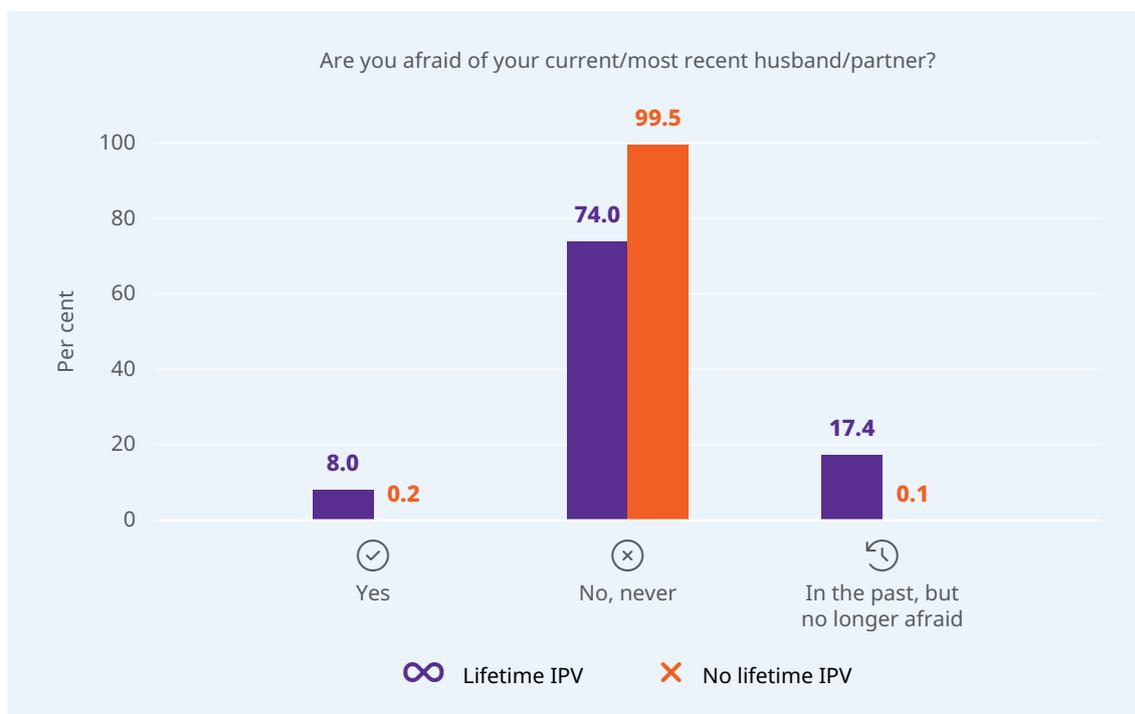
	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
Are you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	2.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No, never	92.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> In the past, but no longer afraid	4.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know / Don't remember	0.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.1

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
How often are/were you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?		N = 203
 Sometimes		48.4
 Many times		30.4
 Most/all of the time		18.8
 Don't know / remember		1.7
 Refused / No answer		0.8

Note: See Table B.40.

Figure 6.9 shows that ever-partnered women who experienced at least one of the four different types of IPV—physical, sexual, psychological and/or economic violence—in their lifetime were far more likely to report that they are afraid of their current/most recent husband/partner (8.0 per cent) or were afraid of their husband/partner in the past but are no longer afraid (17.4 per cent), compared to women who had no lifetime experiences of IPV (0.2 per cent and 0.1 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 6.9. Ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

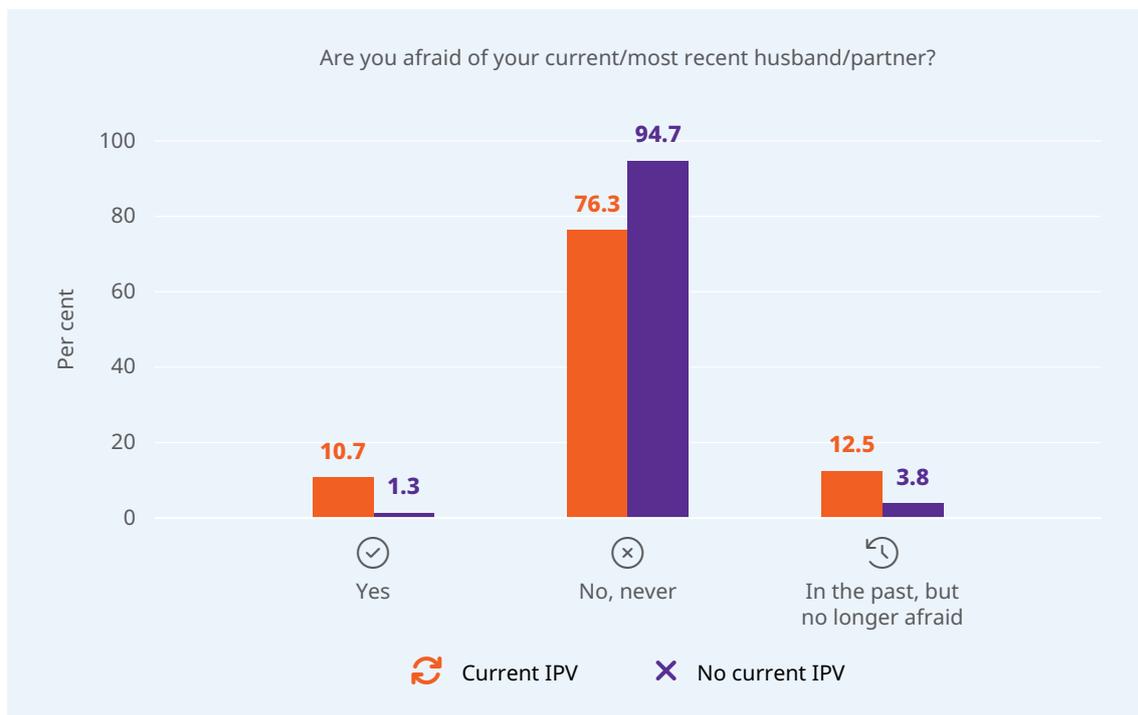


Note: See Table B.41.

The majority of women with lifetime experiences of IPV were fearful of their current/most recent husband/partner sometimes (48.4 per cent), many times (31.3 per cent) or most/all of the time (19.3 per cent) (see Table B.41).

Similarly, **Figure 6.10** shows that ever-partnered women who experienced at least one of the four different types of IPV—physical, sexual, psychological and/or economic violence—in the past 12 months (current) were far more likely to report that they are afraid of their current/most recent husband/partner (10.7 per cent) or that they were afraid of their husband/partner in the past but are no longer afraid (12.5 per cent), compared to women who were not currently experiencing IPV (1.3 per cent and 3.8 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 6.10. Ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner, by current IPV (percentage)

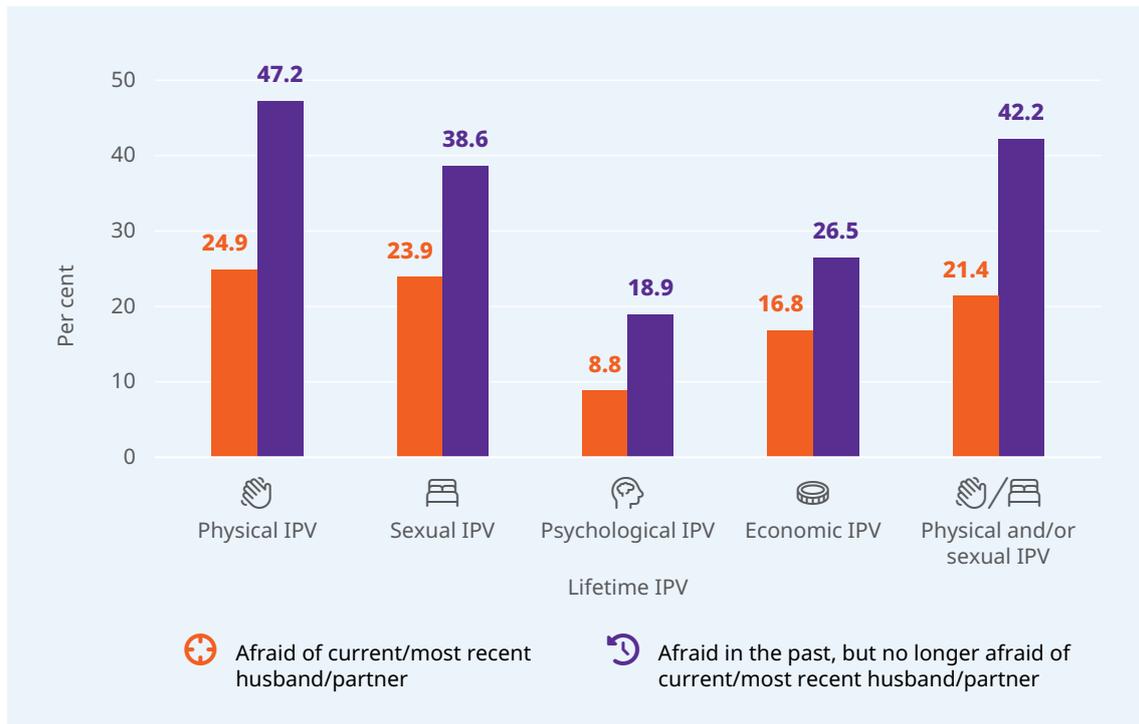


Note: See Table B.42.

The majority of women currently experiencing IPV were fearful of their current/most recent husband/partner many times or most/all of the time (47.9 per cent) or sometimes (52.1 per cent) (see Table B.42).

Figure 6.11 shows that the proportion of ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner (in the present or past) varied by the type of IPV they experienced. It is notable that women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence were most likely to be afraid of their current/most recent husband/partner, compared to women who experienced psychological violence or economic abuse.

FIGURE 6.11. Ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner, by type of lifetime IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.43.

6.8 Men's alcohol use and IPV

All men were asked about their alcohol use in the past 12 months, including how often they drank alcohol and how often they were drunk. **Figure 6.12** shows that 78.4 per cent of men reported that they drank alcohol in the past 12 months; only 21.6 per cent never drank alcohol in the past 12 months. More specifically, 40.6 per cent reported that they drank alcohol less than once a month, 26.1 per cent drank one to three times a month, 10.1 per cent drank one to twice a week, and 1.6 per cent drank every day or nearly every day.

FIGURE 6.12. Men's alcohol use in the past 12 months (percentage)

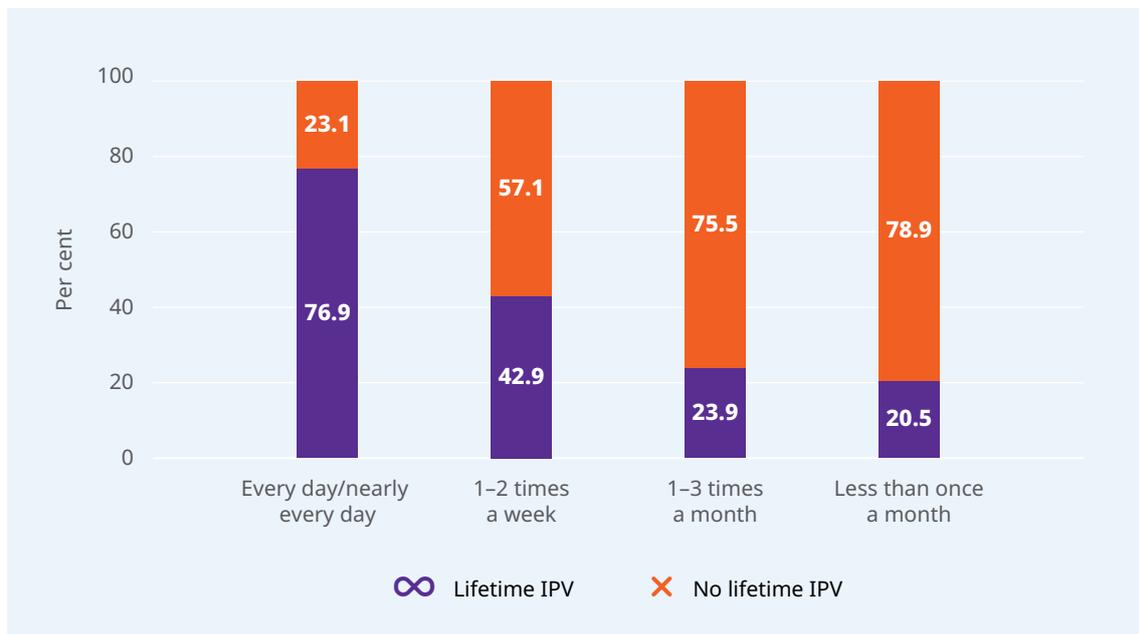


Note: See Table B.44.

In line with these findings, the women’s survey found that 82.2 per cent of ever-partnered women reported that their husbands/partners drank alcohol in the past 12 months. More specifically, 46.9 per cent reported that their husbands/partners drank alcohol less than once a month, 21.4 per cent drank one to three times a month, 10.6 per cent drank once or twice a week, and 3.3 per cent drank every day or nearly every day (see Table B.45).

Figure 6.13 shows that ever-partnered women with husbands/partners who used alcohol every day or nearly every day in the past 12 months were most likely to experience lifetime IPV (76.9 per cent). In fact, women whose husbands/partners drank every day or nearly every day were more than three times as likely to experience IPV as women whose husbands/partners drank alcohol only one to three times a month (23.9 per cent) or less than once a month (20.5 per cent). Women whose husbands/partners used alcohol less than once a month are least likely to experience IPV.

FIGURE 6.13. Husband’s/partner’s alcohol use, by lifetime IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.46.

Figure 6.14 shows that more than half of men reported being drunk less than once a month (56.5 per cent), whereas 24.9 per cent were drunk once a month and 5.8 per cent were drunk at least one to three times. Very few men reported being drunk four or more days a week (most days).

FIGURE 6.14. Men's drunkenness in the past 12 months (percentage)

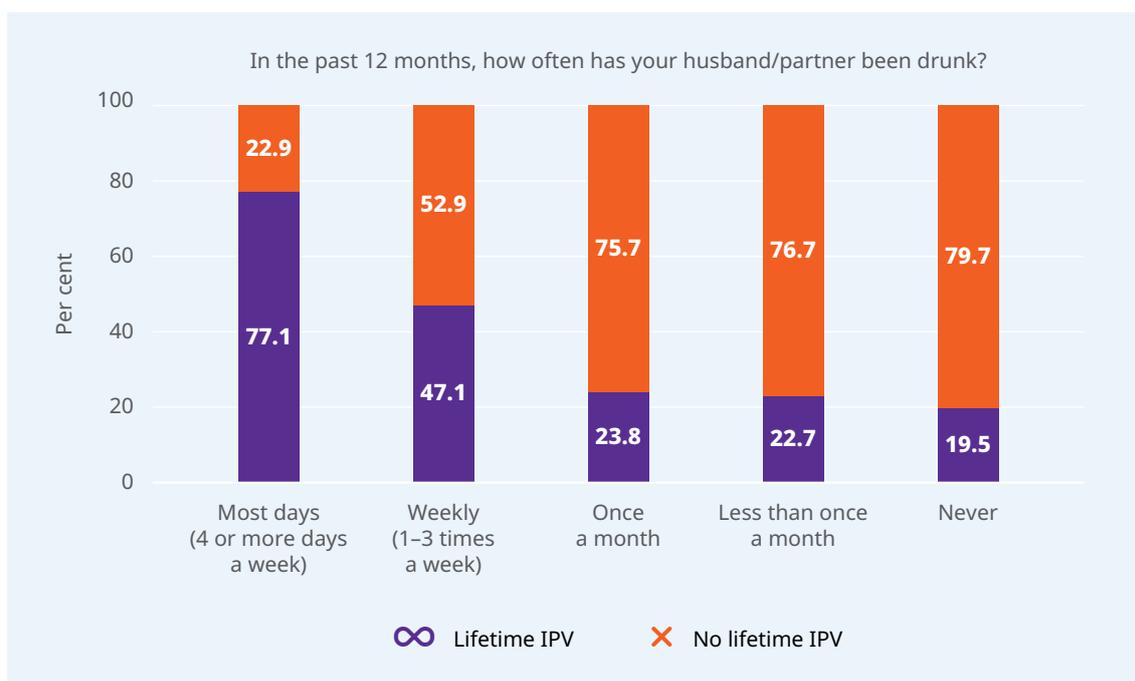


Note: See Table B.44.

In line with these findings, the women's survey found that among ever-partnered women who reported that their husbands/partners drank alcohol in the past 12 months, 90.3 per cent reported seeing their husband/partner drunk in the past 12 months. More specifically, 56.9 per cent of women saw their husband/partner drunk less than once a month, 21.2 per cent saw him drunk once a month, 9.3 per cent saw him drunk on a weekly basis (1-3 times a week), and 2.9 per cent reported that their husband/partner was drunk on most days (four or more days a week) (see Table B.45).

Figure 6.15 shows that women whose husbands/partners were drunk most days (four or more days a week) in the past 12 months were most likely to experience lifetime IPV (77.1 per cent). In fact, women whose husbands/partners were drunk most days were almost twice as likely to experience lifetime IPV as women whose husbands/partners were drunk on a weekly basis (1-3 times a week) (47.1 per cent) and three times more likely to experience lifetime IPV as women whose husbands/partners were drunk once a month (23.8 per cent). It is notable that women whose husbands/partners were never drunk in the past 12 months were least likely to experience lifetime IPV (19.5 per cent).

FIGURE 6.15. Husband's/partner's drunkenness, by lifetime IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.46.

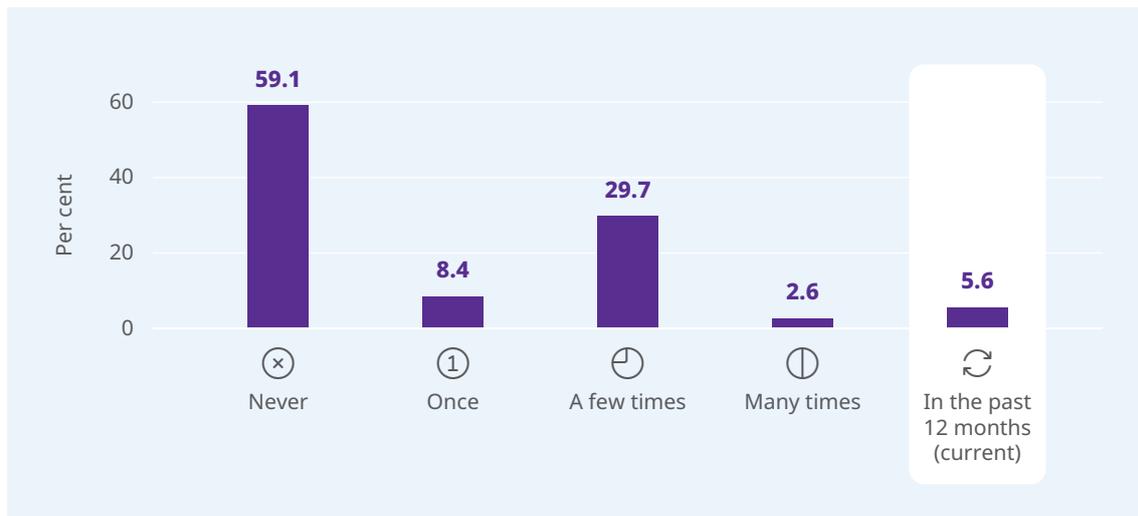
Some IPV survivors were also referring to alcohol use while sharing their stories. Some of them even used their husband's/partner's alcohol use to justify his use of violence. Women also spoke about how family, friends and neighbours were even scared of their husband/partner when he drank alcohol because he had a difficult personality. Their husband's/partner's alcohol use and abuse sometimes limited women from seeking help for IPV because they were aware that others preferred not to intervene when their husband/partner was drinking alcohol.

"He [was abusive] mostly when he was drunk, [but] there were cases when he would beat me while sober and then justify his behaviour by saying, 'See, I beat you when I am sober.' For example, 'You deserve to be beaten up'—he would tell me this drunk or sober, but more systematically he would beat me when he was drunk at home." (IDI with VAW survivor)

6.9 Men's involvement in physical fights with other men and its impact on IPV

All men were asked about their involvement in physical fights since the age of 15. This included whether they were ever injured in a physical fight with another man and the type of injuries they endured, as well as whether they ever injured another man in a physical fight. **Figure 6.16** shows that 40.7 per cent of men reported ever being in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15, and 29.7 per cent were in a fight a few times. In addition, 5.6 per cent were in a physical fight in the past 12 months (current). Men aged 15–24 were far more likely (18.9 per cent) to be a physical fight in the 12 months prior to the survey than men aged 25–34 (3.5 per cent) and men aged 35 and above (fewer than 1 per cent).

FIGURE 6.16. Men’s involvement in physical fights with other men since the age of 15 (lifetime and current) (percentage)



Note: See Table B.47.

Table 6.8 shows that among men who were ever in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15, 19.4 per cent injured another man. Among those who injured another man, 59.0 per cent injured another man several times (2–5 times), whereas 36.2 per cent injured another man only once in a physical fight. Very few men injured another man many times in a physical fight (1.3 per cent).

TABLE 6.8. Men who injured another man when in a physical fight (percentage)

		Men (aged 15–69) who were ever in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15 N = 451
Have you ever injured another man when you were in a physical fight?		
✓	Yes	19.4
✗	No	79.8
?	Don't know/remember	0.3
–	Refused / No answer	0.5
Since the age of 15, how many times did you injure another man when you were in a physical fight?		N = 95
①	Once	36.2
②⑤	Several times (2–5 times)	59.0
⑤+	Many times (more than 5 times)	1.3
?	Don't know/remember	3.5

Note: See Table B.48.

Table 6.9 shows that among men who were ever in a physical fight with another man, 17.5 per cent reported that they were injured. Among those who were injured, 54.7 per cent were injured several times (2–5 times), and 44.4 per cent were injured only once. The majority of men who were injured had scratches, abrasions or bruises (81.8 per cent). One third (34.4 per cent) also suffered cuts, punctures or bites. Far fewer men suffered deep wounds, cuts or gashes (10.4 per cent), sprains or dislocations (9.5 per cent), head injuries/concussions (7.8 per cent) or other injuries. Only 2.7 per cent of men reported a permanent injury that caused disability or disfigurement.

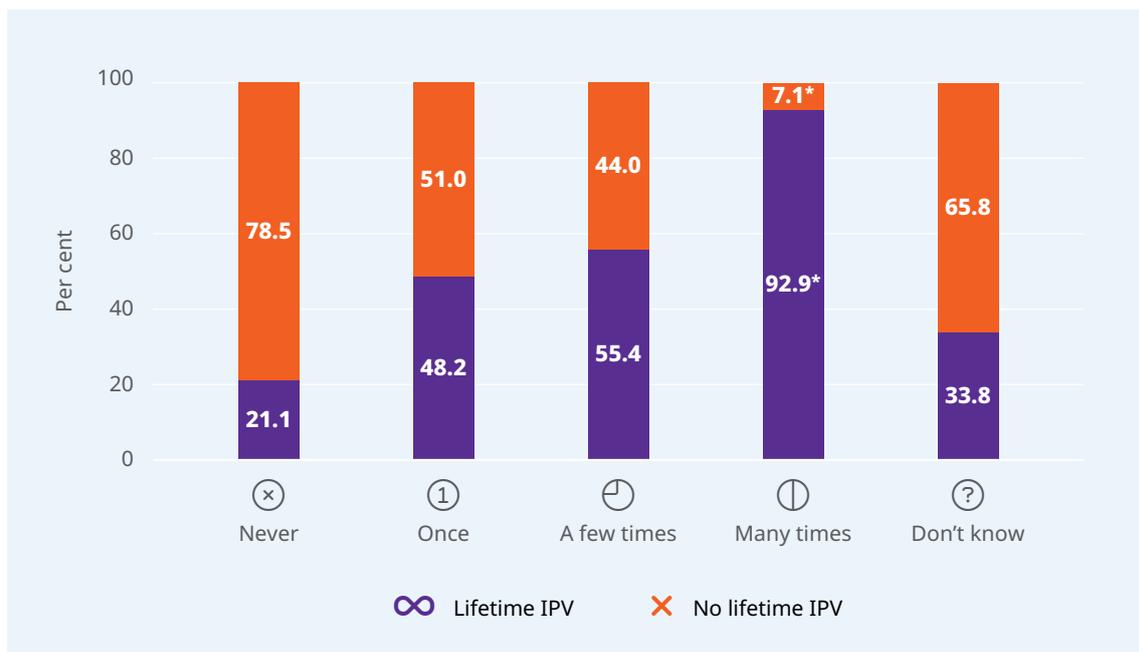
TABLE 6.9. Men who were injured in a physical fight (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) who were ever in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15 N = 451
 Since the age of 15, have you ever been injured in a physical fight with another man?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	17.5
<input type="checkbox"/>	No	82.0
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.5
Since the age of 15, how many times were you injured in a physical fight with another man?		N = 90
<input type="radio"/>	Once	44.4
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Several times (2–5 times)	54.7
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know/remember	0.9
Type of injuries		
	Scratches, abrasions or bruises	81.8
	Cuts, punctures or bites	34.4
	Deep wounds, cuts or gashes	10.4
	Sprains or dislocations	9.5
	Head injuries or concussions	7.8
	Broken teeth	5.6
	Ruptured eardrum or eye injuries	5.2
	Fractures or broken bones	3.0
	Permanent injury that caused disability or disfigurement	2.7
	Abdominal injuries or internal injuries	1.1

Note: See Table B.49.

The women's survey found that 13.1 per cent of ever-partnered women reported that their husband/partner had been involved in physical fights with other men (see Table B.50). **Figure 6.17** shows that a husband's/partner's involvement in physical fights with other men is a risk factor for women experiencing IPV. In particular, women whose husbands/partners were in a physical fight with another man many times were most likely to experience lifetime IPV (92.9* per cent). Even women who reported that their husbands/partners had been in a physical fight with another man at least once were more than twice as likely to experience lifetime IPV as women whose husbands/partners had never been in a physical fight with another man.

FIGURE 6.17. Husband's/partner's involvement in physical fights with other men, by lifetime IPV (percentage)



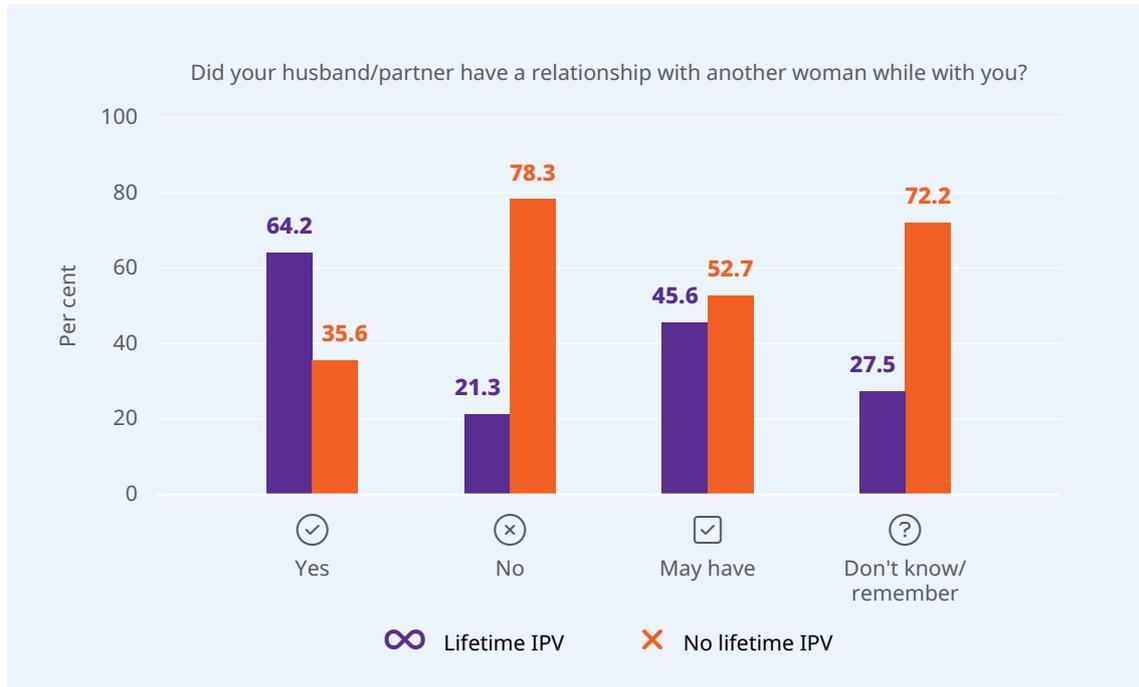
Note: See Table B.51.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

6.10 Husband's/partner's involvement in extramarital relationships

This study found that 7.0 per cent of ever-partnered women reported that their husband/partner had a relationship with another woman while with them, and 5.9 per cent reported that their husband/partner may have had extramarital relationships with other women (see Table B.52). **Figure 6.18** shows that women whose husbands/partners were involved in extramarital relationships were more likely to experience lifetime IPV (64.2 per cent). Women whose husbands/partners were involved in extramarital relationships were nearly three times more likely to experience lifetime IPV than women whose husbands/partners did not have extramarital relationships (21.3 per cent). Even women who thought that their husbands/partners may have had an extramarital relationship were nearly two times more likely to experience lifetime IPV (45.6 per cent) than women whose husbands/partners did not have extramarital relationships (21.3 per cent).

FIGURE 6.18. Husband's/partner's involvement in extramarital relationships, by lifetime IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.53.

6.11 Intergenerational intimate partner violence

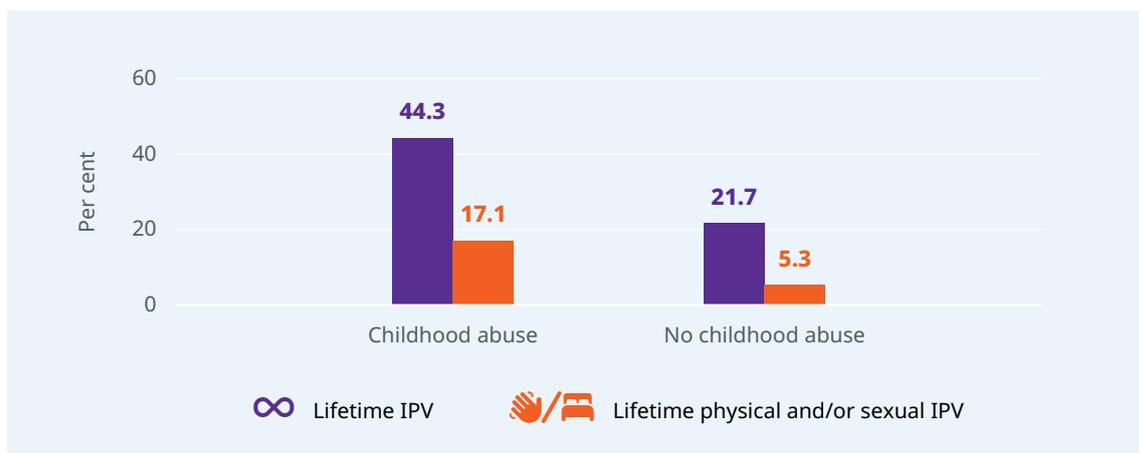
Existing research has shown that exposure to violence as a child is positively correlated with the risk of IPV. This exposure could be witnessing violence, particularly domestic violence, as a child or experiencing violence in childhood. This survey asked women whether they or their partners had ever witnessed their mothers being a victim of IPV when they were children (before the age of 18) and whether they and their partner had been beaten during childhood. In this study, women were also asked whether they had ever been humiliated as children in order to test the association between emotional abuse and IPV experiences.

6.11.1 Women's exposure to domestic violence in childhood

This study found that 19.7 per cent of women experienced physical and/or emotional abuse in childhood (before the age of 18) by someone in their family. More specifically, 18.0 per cent of women experienced child physical abuse and 5.5 per cent experienced child emotional abuse before the age of 18 by a family member. The most common form of physical abuse was being slapped or spanked (17.2 per cent), and the most common form of emotional abuse was being continuously cursed at or humiliated by a family member (4.7 per cent). It was also found that 9.6 per cent of women witnessed their mother experiencing IPV in their childhood. More specifically, 9.4 per cent of women witnessed their mother being continuously cursed at or humiliated by their father or her husband/partner, while 3.1 per cent witnessed their mother being hit by their father or her husband/partner (see Table B.54).

This study also explored the relationship between ever-partnered women’s experiences of child abuse and IPV in adulthood. **Figure 6.19** shows that women who reported physical or emotional abuse in childhood were nearly twice as likely to have experienced lifetime IPV (44.3 per cent) than women with no childhood abuse experience (21.7 per cent). In addition, women who experienced physical or emotional abuse in childhood were more than three times more likely to have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV in their lifetime (17.1 per cent) than women with no childhood abuse experience (5.3 per cent). In contrast, women who had not been abused physically or emotionally in their childhood are least likely to report IPV or especially physical and/or sexual IPV (77.8 per cent and 94.7 per cent, respectively, reported having no such IPV experience).

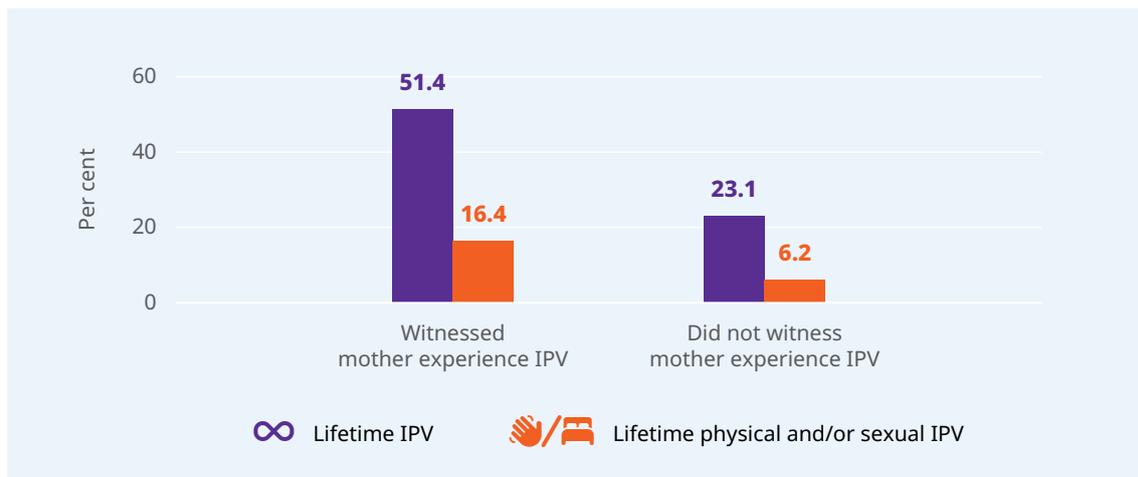
FIGURE 6.19. Percentage of women who experienced IPV, by their experience of childhood abuse



Note: See Table B.55.

There is also a relationship between women witnessing their mother’s IPV experience in their childhood and women experiencing IPV themselves in adulthood. **Figure 6.20** shows that ever-partnered women who witnessed their mother experience IPV when they were a child were more than twice as likely to have experienced lifetime IPV (51.4 per cent) than women who did not witness their mother experience IPV (23.1 per cent). In addition, women who witnessed their mother experience IPV when they were a child were nearly three times as likely to have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (16.6 per cent) than women who did not witness their mother experience IPV when they were a child (6.2 per cent). Notably, women who did not witness their mother experience IPV when they were a child were least likely to report their own IPV experience or especially physical or sexual IPV (76.4 per cent and 93.8 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 6.20. Percentage of women who experienced IPV, by their mother’s experience of IPV



Note: See Table B.56.

6.11.2 Men’s exposure to violence in childhood

Men were asked about their experiences with bullying in childhood (before the age of 18), including whether they were bullied or bullied others. This study found that 4.3 per cent of men reported that they were bullied by others before the age of 18 (i.e. repeatedly bullied, teased, harassed or beat up in school or in the neighbourhood in which the man grew up), and 4.9 per cent reported that they actually bullied others (i.e. repeatedly bullied, teased, harassed or beat up others in school or in the neighbourhood in which the man grew up) (see Table B.57). Being bullied and bullying others is not mutually exclusive; in fact, 40.9 per cent of men who reported that they were bullied by others also reported that they bullied others.

Moreover, men were asked about their exposure to domestic violence in childhood (before the age of 18), including their experiences of physical and emotional child abuse and witnessing their mother experience IPV. **Table 6.10** shows that 25.1 per cent of men experienced physical and/or emotional abuse in childhood (before the age of 18) by someone in their family. More specifically, 22.3 per cent of men experienced child physical abuse, and 6.1 per cent experienced child emotional abuse before the age of 18 by a family member. The most common form of physical abuse was being slapped or spanked (21.5 per cent), and the most common form of emotional abuse was being continuously cursed at or humiliated by a family member (4.1 per cent). It was also found that 4.0 per cent of men witnessed their mother experiencing IPV in their childhood. More specifically, 3.9 per cent of women witnessed their mother being continuously cursed at or humiliated by their father or her husband/partner, and 0.5 per cent witnessed their mother being hit by their father or her husband/partner.

TABLE 6.10. Percentage of men exposed to violence and abuse as a child (before the age of 18)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Child physical and/or emotional abuse by anyone in their family	25.1
Child physical violence by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	22.3
Slapped or spanked you (with a hand)	21.5
Hit or beat you with a hard object, like a belt, stick, broom or other item	1.8
Hit or beat you (with a fist)	1.4
Kicked or dragged you	0.2
Child emotional abuse by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	6.1
Continuously cursed at or humiliated by someone in your family	4.1
Threatened to kick you out of the home	2.5
Witnessed mother experiencing IPV	4.0
Witnessed mother continuously cursed at or humiliated by your father or her husband/partner	3.9
Witnessed mother hit by your father or her husband/partner	0.5

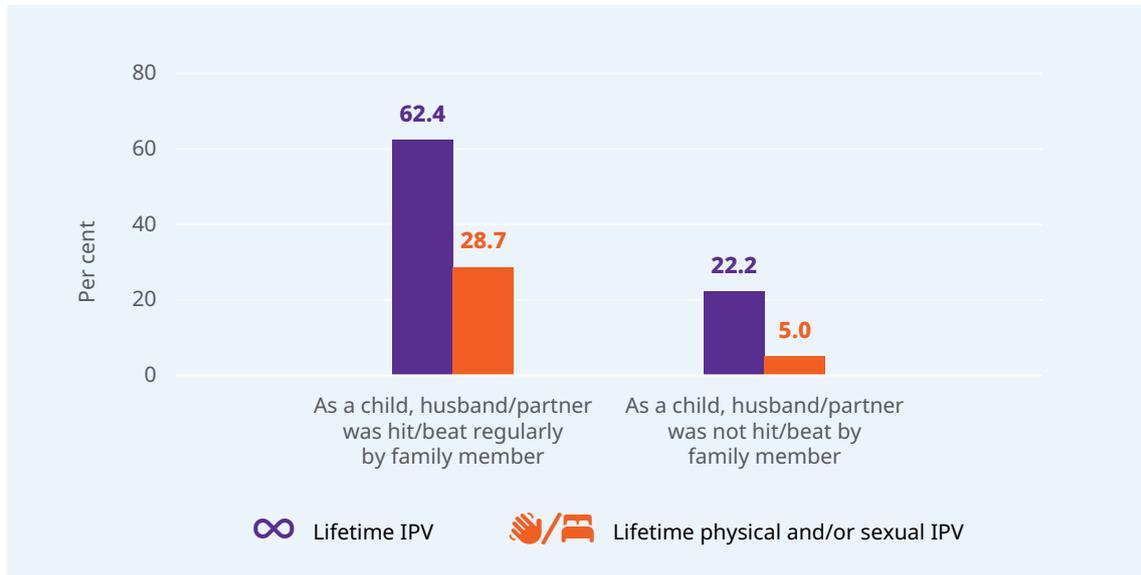
Note: See Table B.58.

The women’s survey found that 4.1 per cent of ever-partnered women reported that when their current/most recent husband/partner was a child (before the age of 18), his mother was hit/beat by her husband/partner. In addition, 4.4 per cent of women reported that their current/most recent husband/partner was hit/beat regularly as a child by someone in his family (see Table B.59).

This study explored the relationship between husbands’/partners’ experiences of physical abuse in childhood and women’s experiences of IPV in adulthood. **Figure 6.21** shows that women who reported that their husband/partner was regularly hit/beat by someone in his family during childhood were almost three times more likely to have experienced IPV in their lifetime (62.4 per cent) than women who did not report that their husband/partner was regularly hit/beat by someone in his family during childhood (22.2 per cent). In addition, women who reported that their husband/partner was regularly hit/beat by someone in his family during childhood were more than five times more likely to have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (28.7 per cent) than women who did not report that their husband/partner was regularly hit/beat by someone in his family during childhood (5.0 per cent). In contrast, women who did not report that their husband/partner was regularly hit/beat by someone

in his family during childhood were least likely to report lifetime IPV or lifetime physical or sexual IPV (77.2 per cent reported no IPV, and 95.0 per cent reported no physical and/or sexual IPV).

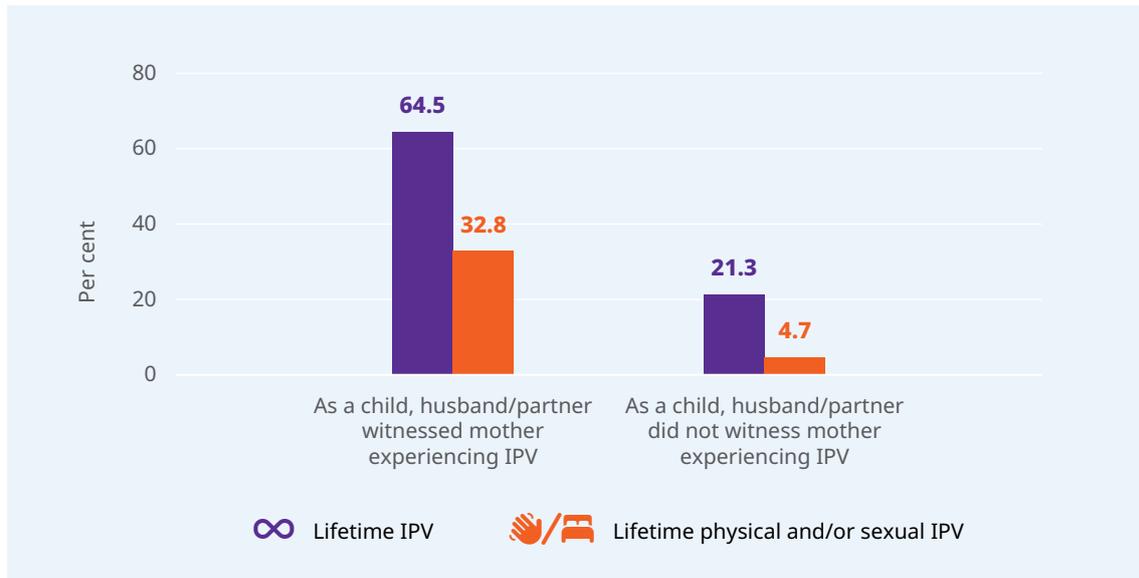
FIGURE 6.21. Percentage of women who experienced IPV, by their husband’s/partner’s experiences of child abuse



Note: See Table B.60.

This study also found that men exposed to domestic violence in childhood are at increased risk of being a perpetrator of IPV in adulthood. **Figure 6.22** shows that women who reported that as a child their husband/partner witnessed his mother experience IPV were about three times more likely to experience lifetime IPV (64.5 per cent) than women who did not report that as a child their husband/partner witnessed his mother experience IPV (21.3 per cent). In addition, women who reported that as a child their husband/partner witnessed his mother experience IPV were about seven times more likely to have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV themselves in their lifetime (32.8 per cent) than women who did not report that as a child their husband/partner witnessed their mother experience IPV (4.7 per cent).

FIGURE 6.22. Percentage of women who experienced IPV, by their husband's/partner's exposure to domestic violence in childhood

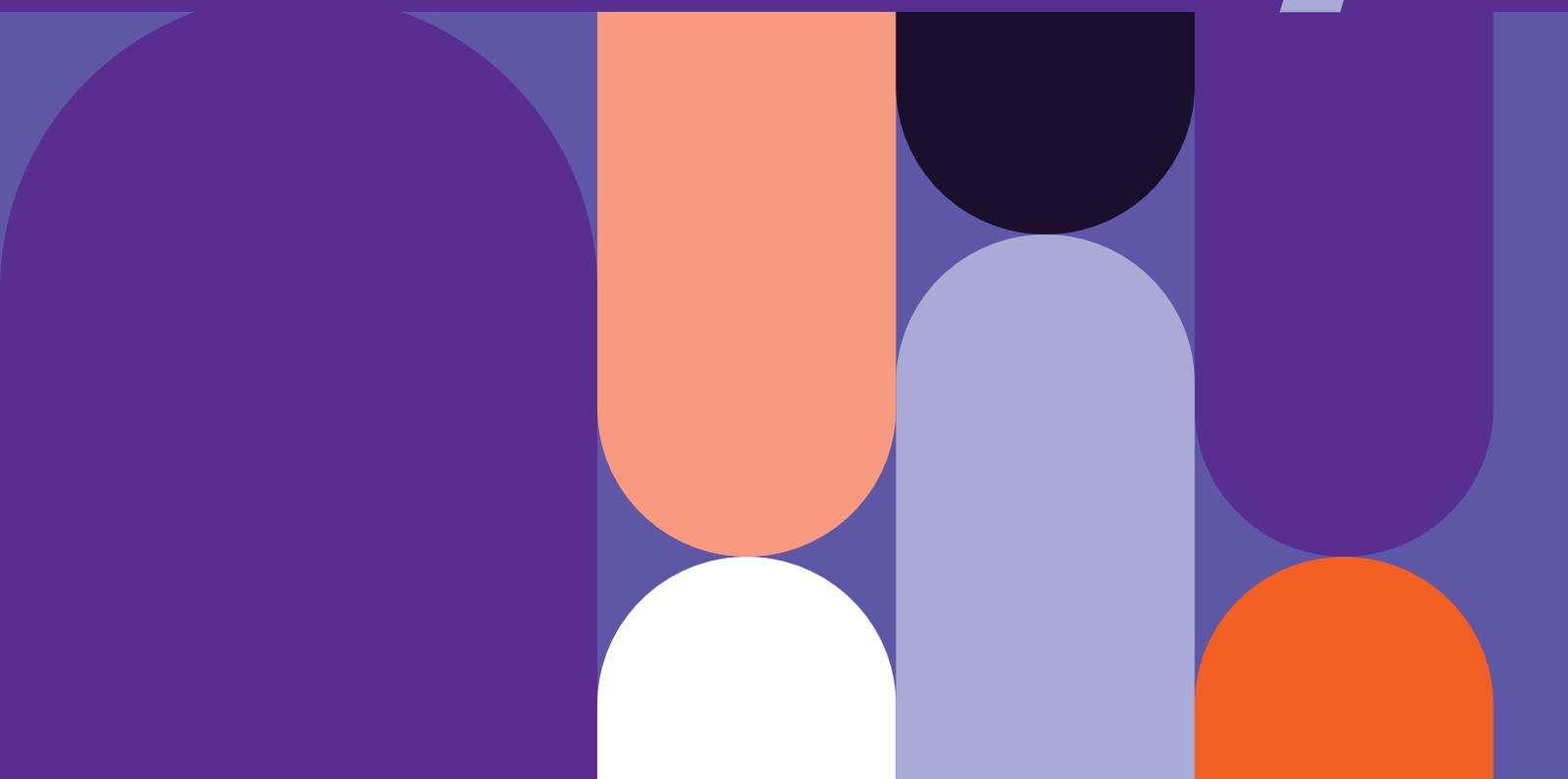


Note: See Table B.61.

These findings are aligned with prior research that has shown that men who physically or sexually assault their intimate partners generally have particular characteristics. They are more likely to have used alcohol or recreational drugs, witnessed violence between their parents, experienced child abuse and/or were raised with strong patriarchal values.⁷

**IMPACTS OF INTIMATE
PARTNER VIOLENCE ON
WOMEN'S HEALTH AND
WELL-BEING AND THAT
OF THEIR CHILDREN**

7

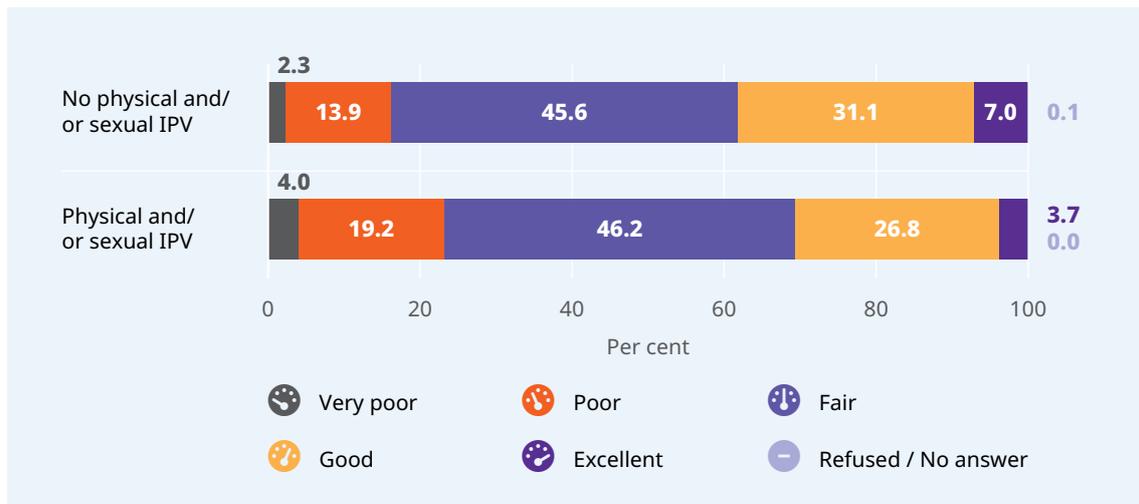


This chapter examines the impacts of IPV on women’s health and well-being as reported by women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by their husbands/partners. It presents data on how IPV affects women physically and psychologically, including violence-related injuries and the long-term emotional impact of IPV on women. In addition, it examines the economic impacts of IPV on women and the ways in which women believe that the violence they experienced has affected their lives. The second section examines children’s exposure to violence in their homes and the impacts of violence on their well-being.

7.1 Women’s physical health

Physical and sexual violence affects women’s physical health and well-being in critical ways. Women were asked to assess the general state of their health. **Figure 7.1** shows that ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were more likely to report their health as very poor (4.0 per cent) or poor (19.2 per cent) than women who did not experience physical and/or sexual violence (2.3 per cent and 13.9 per cent, respectively). Accordingly, women who did not experience physical and/or sexual violence were more likely to report their health as good (31.1 per cent) or excellent (7.0 per cent) than women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence (26.8 per cent and 3.7 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 7.1. Distribution of ever-partnered women, by their perceived health status and their experiences of physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.62.

It is well documented that women who suffer physical and/or sexual violence are more likely to suffer traumatic health consequences from this abuse. Existing research on the health consequences of IPV reveals that women who have suffered IPV are more likely to have a chronic medical condition and to spend more time in bed than women who have never experienced IPV.¹ In Australia, IPV has been ranked as a leading contributor to death, disability and illness among women 18–44 years of age.²

The 2022 National VAW Survey found that 19.1 per cent of ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were injured. Among women who were ever injured, 85.8* per cent reported that it was at the hands of their current/most recent husband/partner and 12.0* per cent reported that it was their previous husband/partner, while 2.3* per cent of women reported that it was

both their current/most recent and previous husband/partner. In addition, 28.0* per cent of women reported being injured by their husband/partner only once, 41.6* per cent were injured 2–5 times, and 30.4* per cent were injured more than five times. Moreover, 8.8* per cent of women reported that these injuries had happened in the past 12 months (Table 7.1).

TABLE 7.1. Injuries among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
Have you ever been injured as a result of physical and/or sexual IPV?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	19.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	80.6
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.4
Who injured you? Was it your current or most recent husband/partner? Or any other husband/partner that you may have had before? Or both?		Ever experienced IPV-related injuries N = 49
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Current/most recent husband/partner	85.8*
<input type="checkbox"/>	Previous husband/partner	12.0*
<input type="checkbox"/>	Both	2.3*
In your life, how many times have you been injured by any of your husbands/partners?		
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once	28.0*
<input type="checkbox"/>	Several times (2–5 times)	41.6*
<input type="checkbox"/>	Many times (more than 5 times)	30.4*
Has this happened in the past 12 months?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	8.8*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	91.2*

Note: See Table B.63.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

The data show that among women who have experienced IPV-related injuries, more than three out of four (78.5* per cent) experienced scratches, abrasions or bruises, and more than one out of three (35.6* per cent) experienced cuts, puncture wounds or bites. In addition, some women experienced head injuries or concussions (16.9* per cent), fractures or broken bones (16.5* per cent), sprains or

dislocations (16.1* per cent) and/or a ruptured eardrum or eye injuries (13.9* per cent). Far fewer women experienced deep wounds, cuts or gashes (9.8* per cent), abdominal or internal injuries (8.1* per cent), burns (7.5* per cent), broken teeth (6.5* per cent) and/or a miscarriage (4.0* per cent). In addition, 3.2* per cent reported that the IPV resulted in permanent injuries that caused disability or disfigurement (see Table B.64).

Table 7.2 shows that 13.6 per cent of ever-partnered women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV reported that they were hurt badly enough by their husband/partner that they needed health care. Among these women, 72.6* per cent reported that they were hurt badly enough that they needed health care once, while 27.4* per cent needed health care at least two to four times. In addition, only 43.3* per cent of women received health care for their injuries, while 43.1* per cent did not receive any health care.

TABLE 7.2. Healthcare needs of ever-partnered women injured by physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
In your life, were you ever hurt badly enough by a husband/partner that you needed health care (even if you did not receive it)?		
	Yes, got health care	10.3
	Yes, but did not get health care	3.4
	Yes, but did not need health care	84.7
	Don't know / Don't remember	1.3
	Refused / No answer	0.4
How many times did you need health care because you were hurt badly by your husband/partner?		N = 35
	1 time	72.6*
	2-4 times	27.4*
Did you ever receive health care for this injury?		
	Yes	43.3*
	No	43.1*
	Don't know / Don't remember	9.1*
	Refused / No answer	4.5*

Note: See Table B.65.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

Among ever-partnered women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV, only 8.2 per cent reported that they were unable to perform household chores and/or take care of their children due to their injuries, while 4.3 per cent were unable to work. In addition, 1.1 per cent of women reported that their injuries resulted in them losing their job or source of income (see Table B.66).

When women were asked to assess the general state of their health, they were also asked to report what health difficulties they were experiencing. Women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence reported a high prevalence of long-term health problems. **Table 7.3** shows that women who have ever experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were twice as likely to have a lot of difficult seeing, even while wearing glasses (8.8 per cent), and to have a lot or some difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid (15.9 per cent), compared to women who have experienced no physical and/or sexual IPV (4.6 per cent and 7.2 per cent, respectively). In addition, women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence were more likely to have some or a lot of difficulties walking or climbing stairs (41.3 per cent) than women who had no history of physical and/or sexual IPV (27.8 per cent). It is also notable that women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were more likely to have difficulties remembering or concentrating (29.2 per cent) than women who have not experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (18.2 per cent).

Women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were also more likely to have a lot or some difficulties using their hands and fingers, such as picking up small objects or opening or closing containers or bottles (13.2 per cent), as well as with self-care, such as washing or dressing themselves (5.4 per cent), compared to women who have not experienced such violence (7.4 per cent and 2.1 per cent, respectively).

TABLE 7.3. Functional difficulties among ever-partnered women, by their experience of physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	Did not experience physical and/or sexual IPV N = 2,745
6d Has difficulty seeing, even while wearing glasses		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.0
 A lot of difficulty	8.8	4.6
 Some difficulty	26.8	27.1
 No difficulty	64.4	68.2
6e Has difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid		
 A lot of difficulty	1.4	0.6
 Some difficulty	14.5	6.7
 No difficulty	84.1	92.8

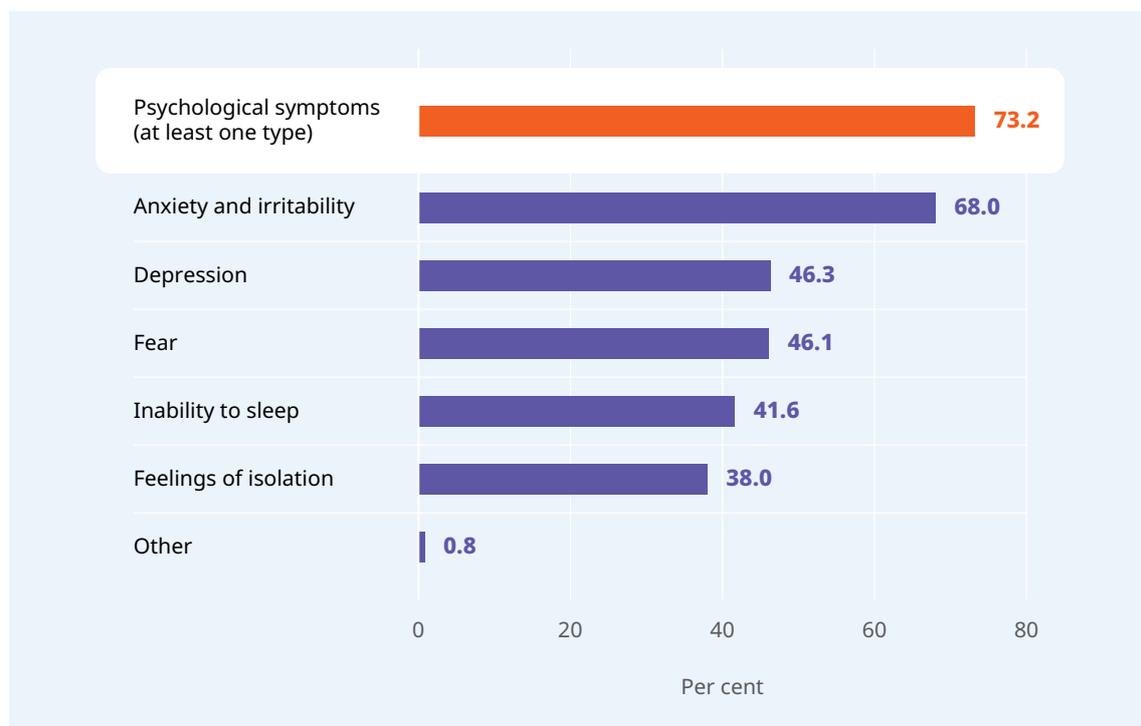
	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	Did not experience physical and/or sexual IPV N = 2,745
 Has difficulty walking or climbing stairs		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.1
 A lot of difficulty	12.9	6.5
 Some difficulty	28.4	21.3
 No difficulty	58.7	72.1
 Has difficult remembering or concentrating		
 A lot of difficulty	3.9	1.5
 Some difficulty	25.3	16.6
 No difficulty	70.8	81.8
 Has difficulty using hands and fingers, such as picking up small objects or opening or closing containers or bottles		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.0
 A lot of difficulty	3.1	0.8
 Some difficulty	10.1	6.5
 No difficulty	86.8	92.6
 Has difficulty with self-care, such as washing or dressing themselves		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.0
 A lot of difficulty	1.3	0.2
 Some difficulty	4.2	1.9
 No difficulty	94.6	97.9
 Has difficulty communicating, such as understanding or being understood by others		
 A lot of difficulty	0.0	0.1
 Some difficulty	2.3	1.5
 No difficulty	97.7	98.4

Note: See Table B.67.

7.2 Women's mental health

Physical and sexual violence also has long-term psychological effects on women. Existing research has found that women who reported experiencing IPV at least once in their life also reported having significantly more emotional distress, suicidal thoughts and suicide attempts.³ The data show that in Georgia, women who have suffered physical and/or sexual IPV often experience psychological pain. The study found that nearly three out of four women (73.2 per cent) experience one or more psychological symptoms as a result of experiencing physical and/or sexual IPV (**Figure 7.2**). More specifically, two out of three ever-partnered women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV experienced anxiety and irritability (68.0 per cent). In addition, 46.3 per cent were depressed, 46.1 per cent were fearful, 41.6 per cent were unable to sleep, and 38.0 per cent felt isolated.

FIGURE 7.2. Psychological health of ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)



Note: See Table B.68.

It is important to understand that the relationship between each of these psychological symptoms is very strong, which shows that women often experience a multitude of psychological symptoms as a result of physical and/or sexual IPV that can seriously impact not only their psychological health and well-being but also their physical health. **Table 7.4** shows that among women who were fearful as a result of experiencing physical and/or sexual IPV, as many as 94.4 per cent also had anxiety and irritability, 71.7 per cent were depressed, 68.5 per cent were unable to sleep, and 60.6 per cent felt isolated. Being depressed as a result of experiencing IPV was also strongly associated with having anxiety and irritability (92.2 per cent), being unable to sleep (75.1 per cent), feeling isolated (73.0 per cent) and being fearful (71.4 per cent). Likewise, among women who felt isolated as a result of the physical and/or sexual IPV, 92.2 per cent had anxiety and irritability, 89.0 per cent experienced depression, 79.0 per cent were unable to sleep, and 73.6 per cent were fearful. These patterns and correlations exist between each of these psychological symptoms.

TABLE 7.4. Relationships between psychological symptoms of physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	Total	Also experienced				
		Anxiety and irritability	Fear	Depression	Inability to sleep	Feelings of isolation
Anxiety and irritability	68.0		64.0	62.7	56.1	51.5
Fear	46.1	94.4		71.7	68.5	60.6
Depression	46.3	92.2	71.4		75.1	73.0
Inability to sleep	41.6	91.8	76.1	83.7		72.2
Feelings of isolation	38.0	92.2	73.6	89.0	79.0	

The qualitative data revealed that IPV survivors spoke about how surviving IPV has left them with a sense of strength and a desire to fight for their lives and for the well-being of their children. Although IPV survivors spoke about survival and resilience, they also explained that the violence they experienced has had long-lasting negative impacts on their physical and mental health, as well as their overall sense of well-being. Most VAW survivors spoke of having varying degrees of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and, in some cases, strong feelings of guilt and shame about the fact that their abusive husband/partner faced legal charges—and in some cases was sent to prison.

Women who experienced violence-related injuries spoke about needing medical treatment, and some suffered from long-term headaches, insomnia and eating disorders, among other negative consequences and conditions. They also spoke about how the IPV has led to feelings of low self-esteem, worthlessness, anxiety and depression—and a desire to isolate themselves.

“I tried to kill myself twice because [I have] so much stress. I have constant headaches, I have neurosis, [and] if I get nervous about anything, I start shaking [and] cannot stop. I get to the point that I start crying.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“I became disabled. I probably had to die before [the authorities] could treat this case more strictly. I got injured in my right arm, my heart was not injured, but my lung and arm are not functioning anymore.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“I lost many [relatives] because I put my children’s father in prison; this is still traumatic [for me]. My relatives would always say to me: ‘How can you raise three children? Who would marry you?’” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“I isolated myself. I don’t have any interaction with anyone. I had many more interactions before, but I stopped visiting others after all of this; it affected my pride [and] self-respect.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

Three of the 24 IPV survivors even spoke about having suicidal thoughts and attempting suicide on one or more occasions.

Some IPV survivors did not want to interact with anyone other than their children. The desire to self-isolate was linked, in part, to feelings of guilt and victim-blaming. Too often, victims of IPV are blamed by others, including friends and family, for their own victimization, and some even blame themselves, especially when their abusive husbands/partners have been sentenced to prison. Victim-blaming and feelings of guilt can make it difficult for IPV survivors to interact with and keep connections with friends and family, especially the husband's family.

IPV survivors also described feelings of shame for not being able to fight back and escape the abusive relationship; as a result, some stopped taking care of themselves. Even after leaving their abusive relationship, some women explained how they struggled to reconnect with themselves and to feel a sense of stability and security.

"I thought I could not do anything. I thought I was incapable, uneducated, a nobody; I could not do anything. I thought everyone knew everything [about what happened to me]; when I was walking outside, my head was down [and] I was messy. I do not mean unclean, but I would not do my nails or dye my hair." (IDI with VAW survivor)

7.3 Suicidal thoughts and attempts

Table 7.5 shows that 16.8 per cent of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV also thought about purposely hurting themselves or ending their life, even if they did not act upon it. Only 8.8 per cent reported that they purposely hurt themselves or tried to end their life. In addition, among women who have ever had suicidal thoughts, 46.9* per cent reported that they told someone that they had suicidal thoughts or acted to purposely hurt themselves or end their lives, yet only 18.2* per cent received help from a trained professional (e.g. doctor, psychologist, psychiatrist) for their suicidal thoughts or actions.

TABLE 7.5. Suicidal tendencies among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212
Have you ever thought about purposely hurting yourself or ending your life, even if you did not act on it?		
✓	Yes	16.8
✗	No	82.5
⊖	Refused / No answer	0.7

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212
Have you ever purposely hurt yourself or tried to end your life?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		8.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		90.5
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.7
Did you ever tell anyone that you had these thoughts/ actions to purposely hurt yourself or end your life?		Had suicidal thoughts N = 36
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		46.9*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		53.1*
Have you ever received help from a trained professional (e.g. doctor, psychologist, psychiatrist) for these thoughts/actions to purposely hurt yourself or end your life?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		18.2*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		81.8*

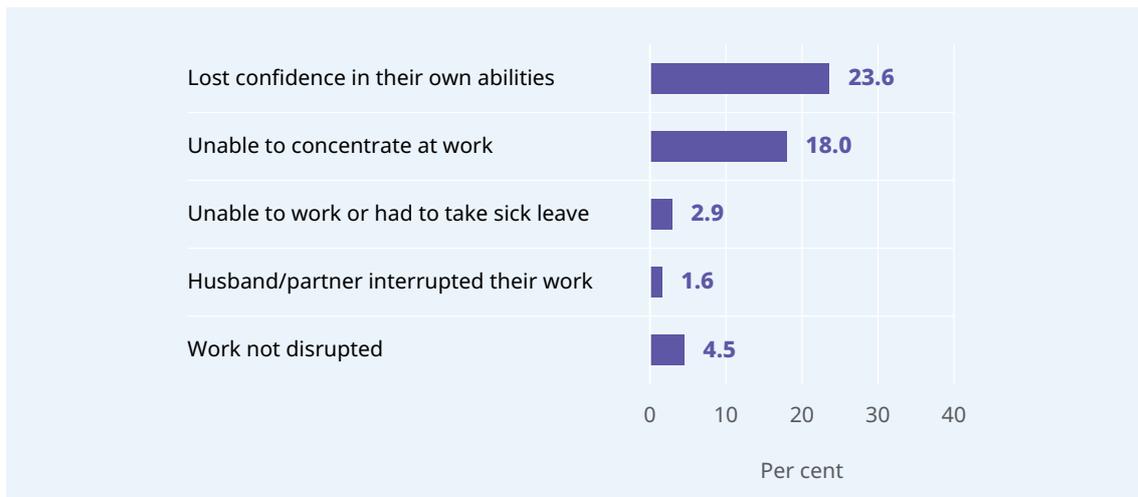
Notes: See Table B.69.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

7.4 Economic impacts of intimate partner violence

Among ever-partnered women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV, 23.6 per cent reported that they were unable to concentrate on their work, 18.0 per cent reported that the violence caused them to lose confidence in their own abilities, and 4.5 per cent reported that the violence they experienced disrupted their work. Only 2.9 per cent of women said that the violence left them unable to work because they needed sick leave, while 1.6 per cent reported that their husband/partner interrupted their work (**Figure 7.3**).

FIGURE 7.3. Economic impacts of physical and/or sexual IPV on women’s work (percentage)



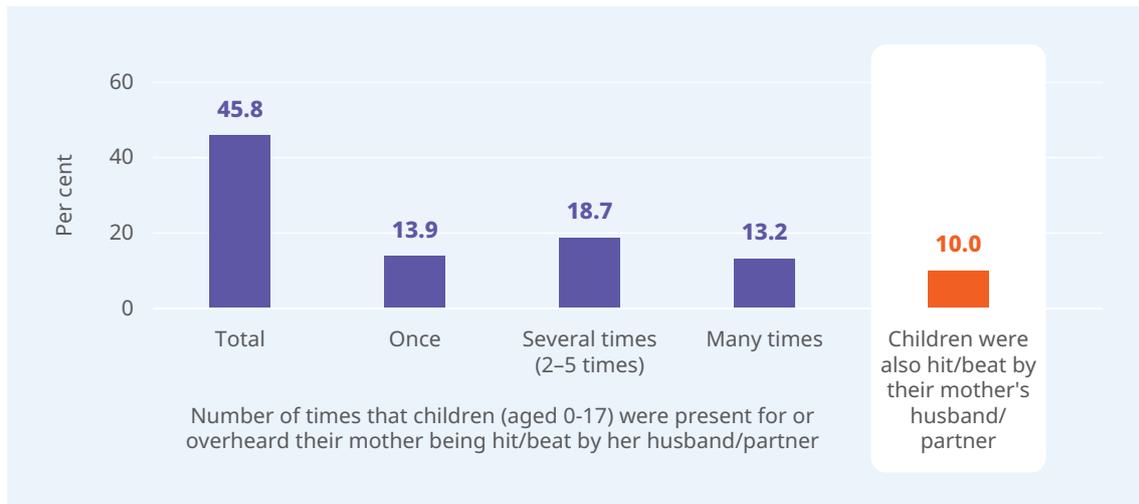
Note: See Table B.70.

The qualitative data revealed that among those IPV survivors who worked outside of the home or owned a business, they often had to go to work with bruises from the violence and tried to hide them. Some IPV survivors even experienced physical violence in front of their co-workers, which made them feel ashamed. In some cases, women had to stay away from work for weeks as they healed. Most IPV survivors who were interviewed were not allowed to work outside of the home, so they did not experience disruptions to their work or at the workplace. However, they did speak about not being physically able to complete daily household tasks due to their injuries and physical pain.

7.5 Impacts of intimate partner violence on children

Exposure to IPV has been linked to a variety of mental health problems and adverse outcomes in children. Children exposed to IPV have been shown to suffer from post-traumatic stress, anxiety and depression in childhood and as adults.⁴ **Figure 7.4** shows that 45.9 per cent of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual IPV reported that their children (aged 0–17) were present or overheard the beatings. More specifically, nearly one out of three battered women (31.9 per cent) reported that their children were repeatedly exposed to this violence against their mothers (18.7 per cent several times and 13.2 per cent many times). In addition, 10.0 per cent of women reported that their children were also hit/beat by their husband/partner (i.e. direct victims of violence).

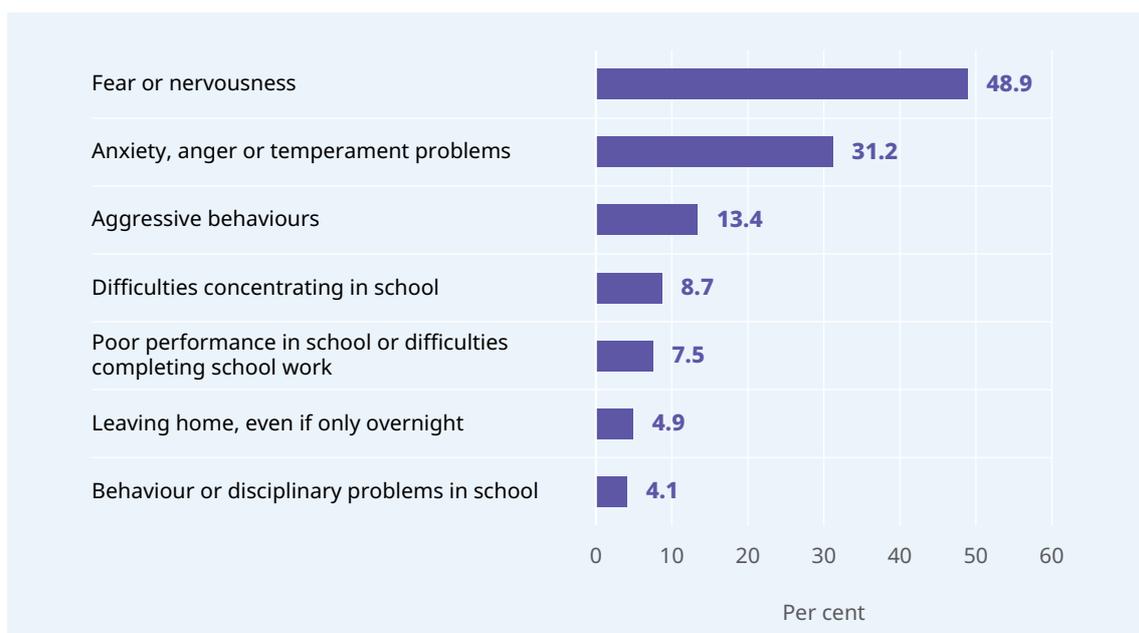
FIGURE 7.4. Children’s exposure, as victims and witnesses, to IPV against their mothers (percentage)



Note: See Table B.71.

Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV were also asked about the well-being of their children and whether their children had any issues or problems as a result of being exposed to IPV. **Figure 7.5** shows that almost every second woman who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (48.9 per cent) reported that their children were fearful or nervous, while nearly one out of three women (31.2 per cent) reported that their children had anxiety, anger or temperament problems. Moreover, 13.4 per cent of women reported that because of the exposure to IPV, their children exhibited aggressive behaviours. In addition, 8.7 per cent reported that their children had difficulties concentrating in school, 7.5 per cent reported that their children performed poorly in school or had difficulties completing their schoolwork, and 4.1 per cent reported that their children had behaviour or disciplinary problems in school.

FIGURE 7.5. Impacts of IPV against women on their children aged 0-17 (percentage)



Note: See Tables B.71 and B.72.

The qualitative data revealed that the children of women who experienced IPV were impacted both physically and emotionally, as both direct and indirect victims of IPV. Some children even witnessed their fathers commit severe acts of violence against their mothers. As a result of being exposed to domestic violence, children suffered anxiety and nightmares, and some children exhibited aggressive behaviours, similar to those of their father (i.e. learned behaviours).

“He would aggressively attack me, trying to choke me. The children were screaming. [...] I don’t remember exactly, but I remember he was looking for a knife. He was saying he would cut my throat. [...] My oldest son was screaming, ‘Run, mom, run,’ [and] when I looked back, I saw that another child was standing behind [him] and crying.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

IPV survivors explained how their husbands/partners often manipulated their children and threatened to take the children away from their mother. Some abusive husbands/partners would not even allow the children to see their mother; as a result of the abuse, the children experienced constant psychological distress. Women reported that most of their children suffered from PTSD, even though they received professional psychological help, such as psychotherapy.

IPV survivors also spoke about how the violence has impacted their children’s school attendance and academic performance, as well as their interactions with their peers. Some younger children even had developmental delays that were reportedly linked to stress. Children would often miss school, including kindergarten, because their mothers were unable to take them to school due to their serious physical injuries.

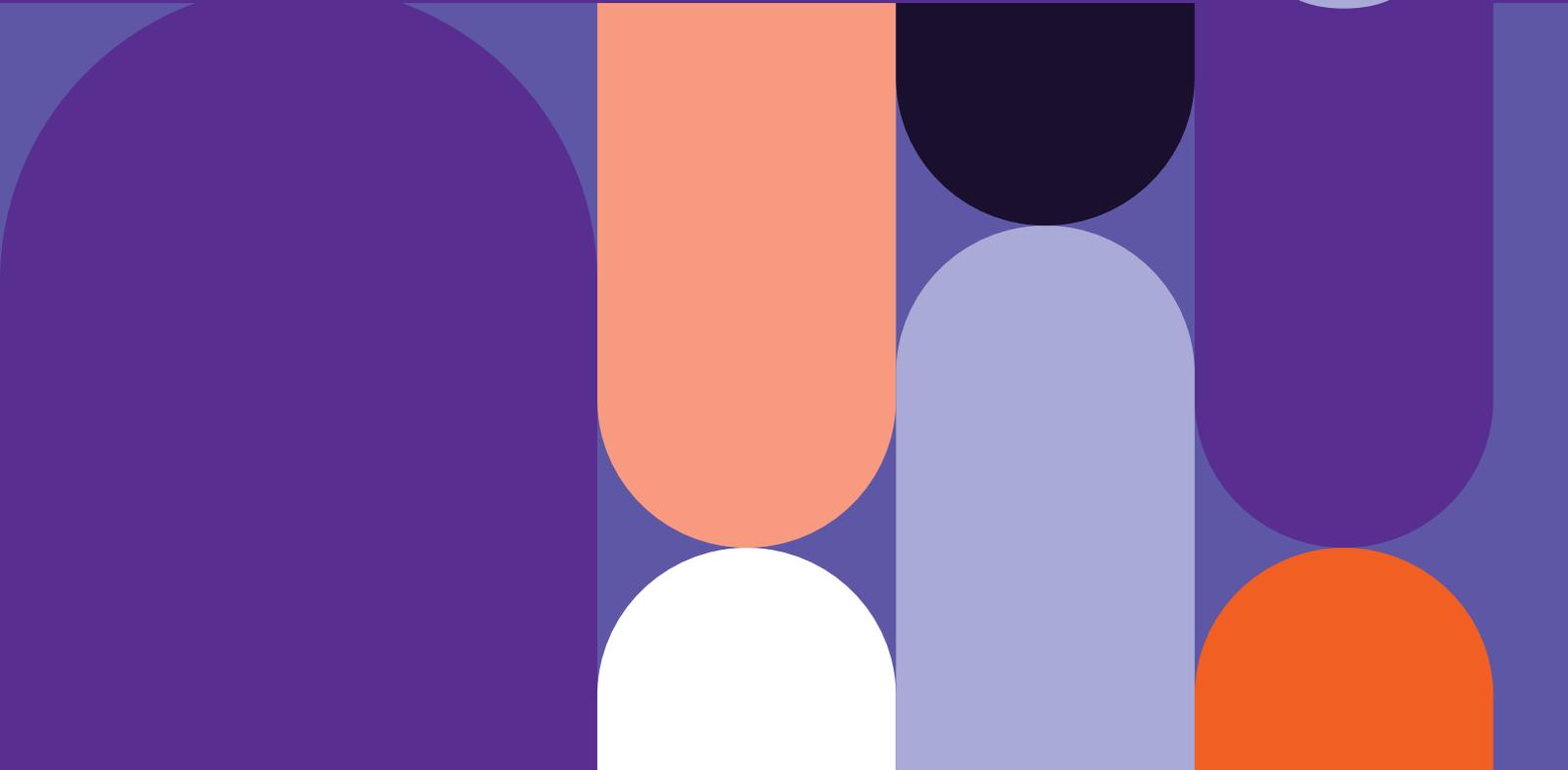
The qualitative data also revealed that IPV survivors do not always understand how IPV actually impacts their children, and some believed that because their children were not direct victims of the violence, they were not impacted by it. Some women even believed that they should stay with their abusive husband/partner for the sake of the children while not realizing the harmful effects of domestic violence on children, even if they are not direct victims. One IPV survivor explained: *“I was suffering because of my children. [...] I was raised without a father, and I knew what it is like not to have a father, and I did not want the same for my children.”*

For some IPV survivors, it was the impact that the violence was having on their children, including near-death experiences, that led them to call the police and seek help for domestic violence. Women spoke about finally seeking help once they realized that their children were in direct danger of being harmed. One IPV survivor explained: *“He would lock the child in the bathroom. [...] He would force the child to buy wine, and if the child replied, ‘I cannot go, I am ashamed’, he would verbally abuse the child.”*

The data and findings in this chapter reaffirm that violence suffered by women in intimate relationships has long-term implications for the well-being of women themselves and their children. These data establish that IPV has grave consequences for women’s physical and psychological health and well-being and that of their children. Women who are abused have poorer general health and are more likely to suffer from depression and to even consider suicide. Most profound is the danger that IPV poses to the children of abused women, including their physical and psychological health and well-being as well as their academic performance, which can have long-term impacts on their opportunities in life.

**WOMEN'S RESPONSES TO
AND COPING STRATEGIES
FOR INTIMATE PARTNER
VIOLENCE**

8

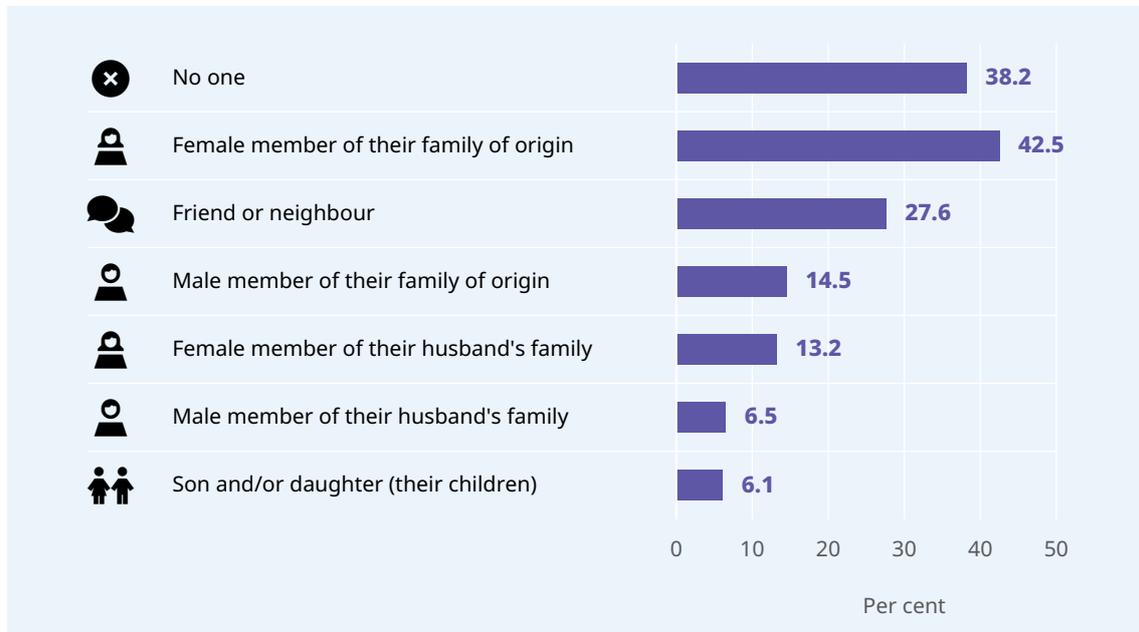
The bottom half of the page features an abstract graphic design. It consists of several overlapping shapes: a large dark purple semi-circle on the left, a vertical orange rounded rectangle in the center, a black semi-circle on the right, a light purple rounded rectangle below the black one, a white rounded rectangle at the bottom center, and an orange rounded rectangle at the bottom right. The background is a solid dark purple.

This chapter explores the coping strategies adopted by ever-partnered women in Georgia who have been subjected to physical and/or sexual IPV. Women were asked a series of questions to investigate whether they told anyone about the violence, whom they told, where they sought help, whether they received help and whether they ever retaliated or left the home as a result of the violence.

8.1 Disclosure and help-seeking

More than one third of women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV remained silent: 38.2 per cent told no one about the violence (**Figure 8.1**). Among those who told someone about the violence, the majority told a female member of their family of origin (42.5 per cent), while 27.6 per cent confided in a friend or neighbour. Far fewer women told a male member of their own family (14.5 per cent), a female member of their husband's family (13.2 per cent), a son and/or daughter (their children, 6.5 per cent) or a male member of their husband's family (6.1 per cent).

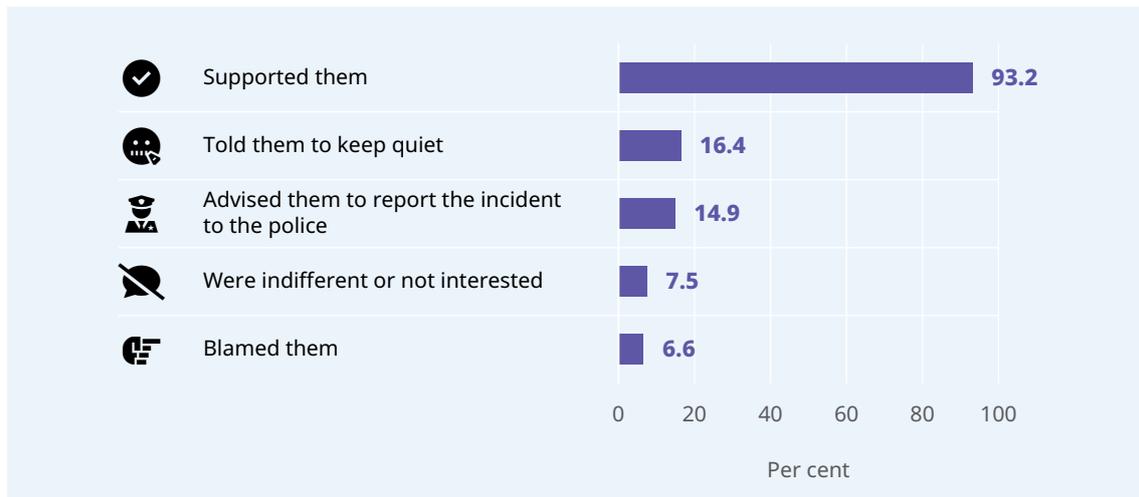
FIGURE 8.1. Family and friends that battered women told about the IPV they experienced (percentage)



Note: See Table B.73.

Figure 8.2 shows that the majority of women who told a family member, friend or neighbour about their experiences of IPV reported that the majority of those individuals supported them (93.2 per cent). Some women, however, reported that their family, friends and/or neighbours told them to keep quiet (16.4 per cent), were indifferent or not interested in hearing about the IPV (7.5 per cent) and/or blamed them (6.6 per cent). Only 14.9 per cent of women said that the individuals they told advised them to report the incident to the police.

FIGURE 8.2. Responses of family and friends to women telling them about IPV they experienced (percentage)



Note: See Table B.73.

Figure 8.3 shows that only 22.8 per cent of women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV sought help from a formal organization/individual. Only 11.8 per cent of women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV told the police, while 5.1 per cent called '112'. Moreover, 8.0 per cent told a religious leader, and 4.9 per cent told a health worker, such as a doctor or nurse.

FIGURE 8.3. Formal organizations/individuals from which battered women sought help for IPV (percentage)



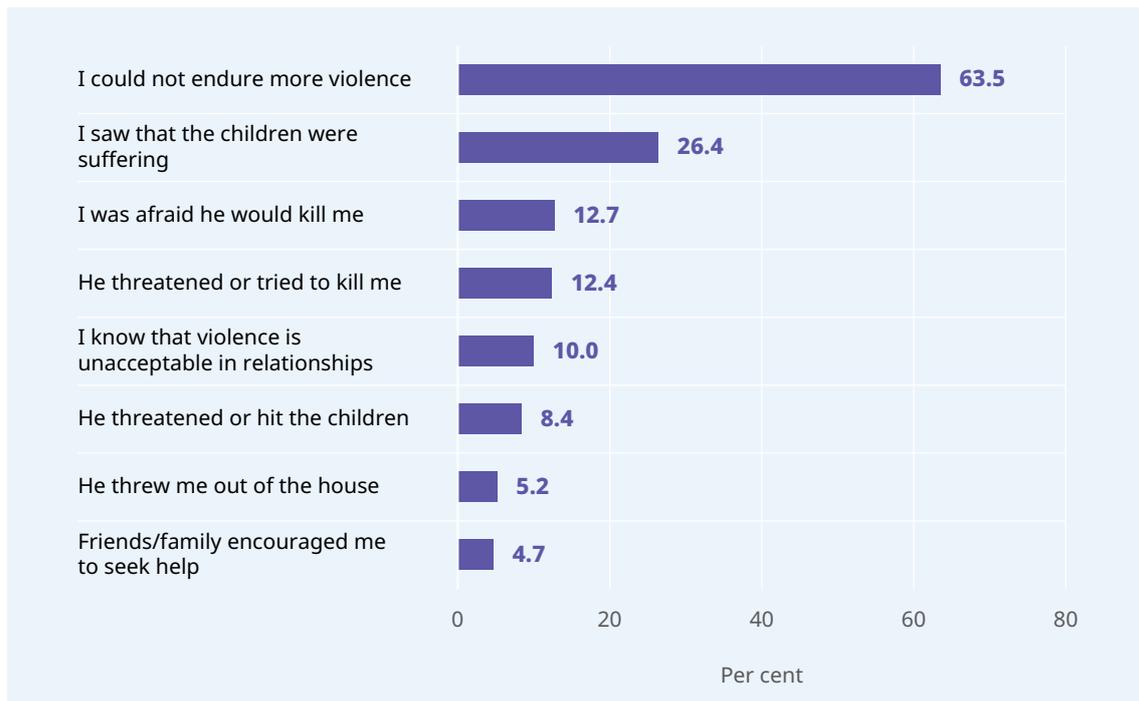
Note: See Table B.74.

Women who experience physical and/or sexual IPV have found several ways to cope with and challenge this violence. Although 38.2 per cent of women remain silent and do not tell anyone about the abuse, the majority tell their family, friends and neighbours about their experiences of IPV. Although they speak to members of their personal support system, most women do not seek help from formal institutions or agencies that can provide this help. The data suggest that women who experience IPV-related injuries are more likely to seek help from the police when they are severely injured. Although only 11.8 per cent of battered women sought help from the police, only 30.1* per cent among them were very satisfied with the police response, whereas nearly every second woman (50.5* per cent) reported being only somewhat satisfied with the police response and 19.4* per cent were not satisfied (see Table B.74). Social service institutions and women’s groups were not places where women chose to seek help for physical and/or sexual IPV. Instead, women turned to their own personal networks—family, friends and neighbours—for assistance. Further analysis revealed that there were no differences in women’s help-seeking behaviours from formal organizations or agencies based on their age, level of education or settlement type.

8.2 Reasons for seeking help

Although few in number, among the ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help from formal organizations and/or individuals, the majority sought help because they could not endure any more violence (63.5 per cent). In addition, 26.4 per cent of battered women sought help because they saw their children suffering, 12.7 per cent were afraid that their husband/partner would kill them, and 12.4 per cent reported that their husband/partner had threatened or tried to kill them (Figure 8.4).

FIGURE 8.4. Battered women's reasons for seeking help (percentage)



Note: See Table B.75.

The qualitative data revealed that IPV survivors who seek help often consider their own safety and well-being, as well as that of their children. They also consider their economic and housing situation and how they will be able to survive on their own without their husband/partner, particularly if their husband/partner is the sole economic provider in the family. Leaving a violent marriage/relationship is difficult for many women, especially when children are involved; thus, it often takes women numerous years to find the courage and strength to leave an abusive relationship. Too often, many women spend years trapped in violent relationships, where they try to manage and cope with the violence and keep their family together.

Several IPV survivors spoke about how they were rescued by neighbours and strangers. One IPV survivor explained: "I was running away from him. He was about to kill me—he was about to strike me with an axe when my neighbour called the police. He was running after me, and I was running barefoot." IPV survivors also spoke about getting

"There are so many women like me—alone, with no hope. [...] When women escape violence, we should not [ask] them, 'Where you have been for the past five years?' but the opposite. We should encourage them: 'Finally you dared to escape.'" (IDI with VAW survivor)

help and protection from the police, particularly when their husband/partner was attempting to kill them. One IPV survivor explained: “He was running after me with a knife in his hands. I called the police, and a neighbour rescued me; otherwise, I would be dead now.” Another IPV survivor talked about her escape: “He was hitting me inside his car, and when I tried to escape from the car [onto the street], a bystander called the police. He asked for support [from the police]; I was in a terrible condition. The police came, and he was arrested in half an hour.”

“It is important to disseminate information on TV so that [women know] they should not suffer from violence: ‘If someone abuses you, call the police on this number. The State will protect you; the system will protect you.’ [...] This information should be disseminated every day through TV channels.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

Some IPV survivors decided to leave their abusive marriage/relationship only after they received information about the support services that were available to them. For these reasons, IPV survivors maintained that it is crucial that information about support services are readily available to women.

Marginalized women spoke about the need to ensure not only that information about services are easily accessible to them but also that support services are able to accommodate the needs of women from different segments of society. This includes ensuring that support services are available to women in rural and remote areas, as well as able to accommodate women with functional difficulties and ethnic minority and migrant women. This often requires ensuring that services are accessible to persons with functional difficulties, including those who require special accommodations (e.g. ramps, sign language), and ethnic minority and migrant women who require language and religious accommodations. Service providers also need to be able to accommodate LGBTQI women and to address same-sex IPV.

8.3 Reasons for not seeking help

Among the battered women who did not seek help from formal organizations/agencies or individuals for physical and/or sexual IPV, their reasons for not doing so were numerous. **Table 8.1** shows that 44.8 per cent reported not seeking help because the situation was not serious enough to complain about, while 25.2 per cent did not want to bring shame to their family. Moreover, 15.0 per cent of battered women reported not seeking help because they did not know where to ask for help and 14.0 per cent were embarrassed, ashamed or afraid that they would not be believed. In addition, 10.8 per cent believed that it would not help or knew other women who were not helped.

TABLE 8.1. Battered women’s reasons for not seeking help (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and never sought help N = 177
What were the reasons that you did not tell anyone or seek help for what your husband/partner was doing to you?		
The situation was not serious enough to complain about		44.8
Didn’t want to bring shame to my family		25.2
Didn’t know where to ask for help		15.0
Embarrassed, ashamed or afraid they would not believe me		14.0
Believed it would not help / Know other women who were not helped		10.8
Afraid of being threatened and the consequences or more violence		6.2
Afraid of divorce or the relationship ending		5.7
Afraid of losing my children		3.7
Think they will blame me		3.0
Think there is no reason to complain / Violence is normal		2.1
Afraid he would kill himself because he threatened to do so		0.8
Other		2.7

Note: See Table B.76.

The qualitative data revealed that culturally women are expected to suffer in silence and remain patient and hopeful in situations of IPV, and IPV survivors were aware of this. IPV survivors spoke about how this culture of ‘suffering in silence’ is a major problem when it comes to combating IPV. Battered women often fear what others might say or think if they speak out or seek help. Women often fear that they will be criticized and judged by family, friends and others in their community; thus, they avoid seeking help or reporting the violence to the police.

“I would not tell my mother if she did not notice. I of course would not tell my brother. I would not tell my poor sister, nor my friends. I am a person who doesn’t talk much. If I live with this man, I will not talk; I don’t like talking.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

“Everyone blamed me in the village, as a wife who imprisoned her husband. No one asked why [I] imprisoned him. [...] No one understood me, and everyone started throwing stones at me [and blaming me].” (IDI with VAW survivor)

Some women even believed that they deserved the violence and accepted their fate in silence, with hopes that one day the violence would end and their relationship would improve. Many women even remained in the violent relationship after their husband/partner threatened to kill them or take their children away. In such situations, women tried to avoid their abusers by hiding at their neighbour's place and spending nights away from home—and even climbing and hiding in a tree.

“Everyone knew: my family members knew, the neighbours knew, his family members knew, everyone knew.” (IDI with VAW survivor)

Because many victims of IPV lack economic independence and have no means to support themselves and their children, they often remain trapped in violent relationships. This is particularly the reality for women who do not work outside of the home and have no personal savings. Some women also reported that their relatives faced economic difficulties; thus, their relatives encouraged them to stay in the abusive marriage/relationship. Too often, women felt that everyone knew about the violence but that no one could do anything to give them support because they too were afraid or did not have the economic means to do so.

8.4 Reported IPV to the police

Only 11.8 per cent of battered women sought help from the police. Among these few, 67.4* per cent said that they reported the most recent incident of IPV to the police (see Table B.77).

The qualitative data revealed that women from marginalized groups who experience violence often avoid the police for fear of being discriminated against by police officers; rather, they are more likely to seek help from civil society groups that focus on protecting their rights. For instance, LBTQI women described governmental service providers, such as the police, as homophobic.

8.5 Restraining and protective orders

Among battered women who sought help from a formal organization/agency or individual, only one out of four (24.6 per cent) reported that they sought or applied for a restraining order from the police (Table 8.2).

TABLE 8.2. Battered women who sought or applied for a restraining order from the police (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 54
 Did you seek or apply for a restraining order from the police?		
 Yes		24.6
 No		75.4

Notes: See Table B.78.

Table 8.3 shows that only 14.4 per cent of battered women sought or applied for a protective order from the courts.

TABLE 8.3. Battered women who sought or applied for a protective order from the courts (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 54
 Did you seek or apply for a protective order from the courts?		
 Yes		14.4
 No		85.6

Notes: See Table B.79.

8.6 Barriers and challenges accessing victim support services

The qualitative component of the study was used to explore barriers and challenges accessing victim support services, as well as gaps in support services across the country. The findings presented in this section are based on the findings of the qualitative component of the study and the qualitative data.

8.6.1 Availability and accessibility of victim support services

Some women are more vulnerable to violence, not only because they are at higher risk of being subjected to violence but also because they have less access to victim support services. Availability of and access to victim support services can vary greatly depending upon where a VAW survivor lives (i.e. geographic location) and her access to financial resources, as well as individual demographics and circumstances. For instance, shelters and crisis centres are available in only some regions of Georgia. At the same time, a VAW survivor can be placed in any of the State and non-State shelters if needed, but they are not necessarily placed in the shelter of their choice. This creates problems for some VAW survivors who must commute to work while staying in the shelter or whose children must then attend schools to which they do not belong.

“The challenge is that those who live in Tbilisi want to be allocated to the Tbilisi shelters, since their work is here and their children go to schools located in the Tbilisi area, while women living in the regions want to stay in the same region. There are cases in which women do not want to stay in the same region where they became the subject of violence. Still, in most cases, it is critical for survivors to get services where they live.” (KII with government service provider)

Victim support services should be available and accessible to all VAW survivors, regardless of their backgrounds or circumstances. This includes making sure that victim support services are accessible

to women with functional difficulties, ethnic minority and migrant women, and LGBTQI women. Even though shelters might be available for women with functional difficulties, service providers pointed out that some women with functional difficulties might not be allowed to access a shelter if the shelter cannot accommodate their special needs. One government service provider explained that for women with functional difficulties, *“service provision is mostly focused on physical accessibility; however, the shelters cannot provide any further services related to their health issues.”* It is also important to ensure that victim support services are affordable for all individuals needing them.

8.6.2 Visibility of victim support services

There was a lack of awareness about available victim support services in Tbilisi, as well as other cities and villages across the country. This lack of awareness was often linked to a lack of awareness-raising, outreach and advertising by service providers. Respondents reported that they often came to know about existing support services from television and social media. Key stakeholders pointed out that the visibility of existing support services was a problem in 2017 too—and remains a problem in Georgia today. Despite awareness-raising campaigns and activities, the general public still lacks information about support services available in their cities and villages.

“I believe that the most important in-service provision is to inform society about existing services. We’ve had many cases where we provided information on existing services to potential beneficiaries that appeared to be a surprise to them. Thus, a sizeable amount of the population, maybe half of them, do not have information on what type of services the State is providing, or in some cases, they might have information on shelters only. Still, information about all other available services is not known to them.” (KII with NGO service provider)

8.6.3 Availability of legal protections and assistance

The most widely available services are legal protections and assistance, such as protective orders, restraining orders and the Witness and Victim Coordinator Service. Simply because these legal protections and assistance are available, however, does not mean that they are fully functioning and meeting the needs of VAW survivors. The qualitative data revealed that initially the police were reluctant to issue restraining orders; however, over time this has not been as much of an issue. Today, in most cases, restraining orders are issued even if the VAW survivor attempts to withdraw her complaint after the police arrive on scene. The fact that the Ministry of Internal Affairs’ Human Rights Protection Department monitors the issuing of restraining orders has helped to improve the issuing of these orders. Still, however, many service providers, especially NGO service providers, reported that VAW survivors face challenges with getting restraining orders issued. A more recent barrier to emerge is that police are using a ‘who calls first’ approach. In domestic violence cases, the ‘who calls first’

“The dynamics of the restraining orders have been changed. Nowadays, the police issue orders in many cases. However, there is another tendency: the restraining orders are issued for those who called first to the emergency hotlines, and the cases are not thoroughly investigated.” (KII with NGO service provider)

approach means that the person who calls the police first is considered the victim. Perpetrators who have knowledge of the 'who calls first' approach use it to their advantage to avoid being charged with domestic violence. The responsibility then shifts to victims of domestic violence having to prove that they are the actual victim and not the perpetrator of domestic violence in a court of law.

8.6.4 Financial assistance for VAW survivors

Some municipalities occasionally provide financial assistance to VAW survivors for housing; however, in practice, access to government services ends after a VAW survivor leaves a domestic violence shelter. Even in cases where financial assistance is available, it is unreliable and requires bureaucratic procedures that many VAW survivors cannot meet. The qualitative data revealed that many VAW survivors worry about housing, particularly after their time at a domestic violence shelter comes to an end.

“Local municipality programmes are very fragmented; they are not available in all municipalities, and where they are available, they differ in terms of bureaucratic procedures. Some of them request a home address for registration [purposes], which could be problematic for survivors and create barriers for them. All of this impacts the effectiveness of those programmes in local municipalities.” (KII with government service provider)

8.6.5 GBV perpetrator behavioural correction programme

Perpetrator programmes in Georgia have been extensively growing in the country, with many important steps taking place. These programmes exist mainly in prison and probation sectors, as well as in the community on a lower scale (through the work led by two women's NGOs). The legislative framework for perpetrator work has also already been developed. Georgia has developed a perpetrator programme that can be applied both in prison and during probation, and it has invested in the sustainability of such programmes and the training of the professionals engaged in delivering them. Existing NGOs provide services in the community, based on project funds. The main identified gaps are focused in the area of survivor safety-oriented work, to ensure partner contact and support as well as structured risk assessments and management, while further steps should be made to ensure the quality of perpetrator programmes countrywide.¹

More recently, in 2019, a GPS electronic monitoring system for high-risk violent offenders was introduced as a protection measure. The system tracks the location of both the offender as well as the victim and notifies the victim and law enforcement when the offender comes within a certain distance of the victim. The tool's goals vary, including ensuring the safety of the survivor without depriving the liberty of the perpetrator.

Civil society's criticism in Georgia towards the police has been the absence of enforcement mechanisms for restraining orders, with several women being killed with restraining orders in force. The GPS monitoring system has been intended to provide such a mechanism in high-risk cases. As a result, upon issuance of a restraining order, and subject to the victim's consent, the police requests approval for the use of GPS tracking from the trial courts. Upon the court order, the perpetrator will be equipped with an ankle bracelet device that can only be removed by the police, while the victim is provided with a mobile phone-sized device, so that both parties can be alerted if they come in the vicinity of each other.

With EU and UN Women support, the servers, software, relevant infrastructure and maintenance services of the GPS monitoring system, along with 100 sets of tracking devices (ankle bracelets and survivor devices), have been procured and handed over to the MIA. Relevant staff of the MIA and the LEPL 112 Emergency Service have been trained. The legislative amendments establishing this initiative were drafted with EU and UN Women support and were based on the international best practices; the amendments entered into force in September 2020. Due to the fact that the system has proven useful, upon the request of the MIA, an additional 250 sets of the tracking devices were procured by EU/UNOPS for the MIA. According to the Chief Prosecutor's Office, a bill is being drafted on the application of the tracking devices within the criminal justice system for defendants in VAWG/DV cases, where pretrial detention has not been used as a restraining measure. Even though the utilization of the system has been low in the beginning, it has been steadily increasing over the past couple of years (used in 16 cases in 2022, compared to 15 in 2021).²

8.7 Other protection measures taken by women

8.7.1 Leaving home

Women are not passive victims of IPV. In addition to seeking help from others, women actively attempt to address IPV in multiple other ways. One way is to leave or attempt to leave their abusive relationship. The decision to leave (and women's success in doing so) is influenced by several factors outside of the women's own motivations, including the circumstances of the abuse and their evaluations of the options available to them.³

Research that focused on women's responses to IPV had found that women go through a process to remove themselves from abusive relationships. It is often not an immediate or one-off effort that leads to the end of the relationship; rather, researchers have identified a four-phase process of terminating an abusive intimate relationship. This process includes binding, enduring, disengaging and recovering phases, through which a woman passes as she interrogates, rationalizes and makes sense of her experience of IPV.⁴

- ▶ Binding phase – Women rationalize or ignore the violence.
- ▶ Enduring phase – Women move to enduring the violence as it worsens, recognizing it as wrong but not yet being able to take an active stance against it.
- ▶ Disengage phase – Women eventually disengage and actively resist the violence, seeking a way out of the relationship.
- ▶ Recovery phase – Women leave their abusive relationship and move into a new phase of life.

For many women, leaving an abusive intimate relationship is one of the last responses to IPV. In many cases, women return, sometimes to leave again, and can repeat this process of leaving and returning multiple times. This study found that among women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV, more than half (59.4 per cent) indicated that they never left home, whereas more than one third of battered women left home because of IPV (37.1 per cent), even if only overnight. Among those women who left home, the majority did so multiple times. More specifically, 36.0 per cent of battered women left home 2–3 times, 20.0 per cent left 4–9 times, and 18.0 per cent left 10–15 times. Generally, women who left home because of IPV left an average of four times (**Table 8.4**).

Women who indicated that they left home were asked to state the reason why they left the most recent/last time they did. The majority of women reported that they left home because they could no longer endure the violence (82.3 per cent). The experiences of women underscore the complexities women face when trying to cope with and terminate abusive intimate partner relationships.

TABLE 8.4. Women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV who left home and their reasons for leaving (percentage)

 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	
Have you ever left home, even if only overnight, because of IPV?	
✔ Yes	37.1
✘ Never	59.4
⊘ Not applicable	1.9
⊖ Refused / No answer	1.6
How many times did you ever leave home because of IPV	
Ever left home N = 86	
1 time	26.0
2–3 times	36.0
4–9 times	20.0
10–15 times	18.0

 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	
What were the reasons why you left home the last time?	
I could not endure more violence	82.3
I was encouraged by friends/family	9.1
I saw that the children were suffering	6.2
I was thrown out of the house	5.6
He threatened or tried to kill me	4.1
He threatened or hit the children	2.4
I was afraid he would kill me	2.7
No particular reason	2.4
Other	3.7

Note: See Table B.80.

8.7.2 Using physical force as self-defence

Some women actively resist violence in their intimate relationships by fighting back in self-defence. Ever-partnered women who had ever experienced physical and/or sexual violence (lifetime) were asked whether they ever used physical force to fight back and defend themselves when their husband/partner was physically violent. More than one third of battered women reported that they did fight back physically to defend themselves (36.4 per cent). Among the women who fought back, 30.4 per cent reported that the violence stopped and 23.9 per cent reported the violence became less, whereas 21.0 per cent reported that the violence became worse when they fought back physically to defend themselves. It is notable that 22.9 per cent of battered women reported that fighting back to defend themselves did not change or affect their husband's use of physical violence against them (**Table 8.5**).

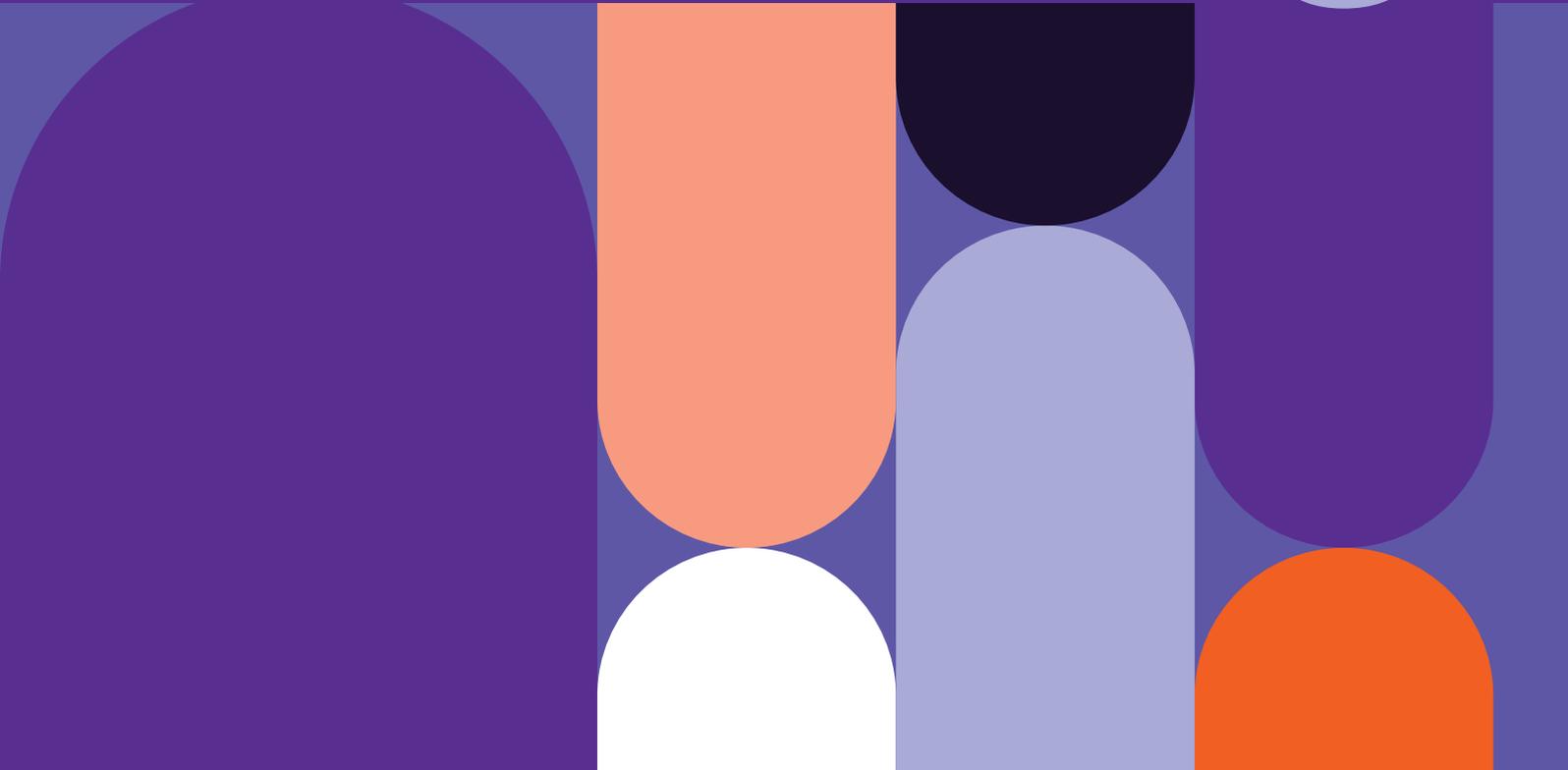
TABLE 8.5. Women’s use of self-defence against their husband/partner (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who ever experienced lifetime physical IPV N = 182
During the times that your husband/partner was hitting/beating you, did you ever fight back physically to defend yourself? Or during the times that your husband/partner got physical with you in another way, did you ever fight back physically to defend yourself?		
✔	Yes	36.4
✘	Never	62.5
?	Don't know / Don't remember	0.6
-	Refused / No answer	0.5
What was the effect on the violence at that time when you fought back?		Ever fought back physically N = 66
-	No change/effect	22.9
↑	Violence became worse	21.0
↓	Violence became less	23.9
	Violence stopped	30.4
?	Don't know / Don't remember	1.8

Note: See Table B.81.

NON-PARTNER VIOLENCE

9

The bottom half of the page features a series of overlapping, rounded rectangular shapes in various colors: purple, orange, black, and white. These shapes are arranged in a way that they appear to be layered on top of each other, creating a sense of depth and movement. The colors are consistent with the top section, with the purple being the background color and the other colors providing contrast.

This chapter presents the study findings on non-partner physical and sexual violence against women since the age of 15 (lifetime) and in the past 12 months (current). Women’s experiences of child sexual abuse by non-partners is also explored. Non-partner sexual violence was measured by asking respondents whether any male persons other than their husband/partner ever used physical violence against them and attempted to or succeeded at forcing them into sexual intercourse. Forced sex includes threatening them, holding them down or putting them in a situation where they could not say no. These questions were asked of all women in the survey, including those who have never had a husband/partner.

9.1 Non-partner physical violence

Table 9.1 shows that 6.5 per cent of women aged 15–69 reported that since the age of 15, they had experienced at least one form of non-partner physical violence listed in the table, and only 0.5 per cent had experienced non-partner physical violence in the past 12 months (current). The most common forms of non-partner physical violence experienced by women were being pushed or having their hair pulled (4.1 per cent) and being slapped, hit, beat, kicked or hurt in any other way (3.0 per cent).

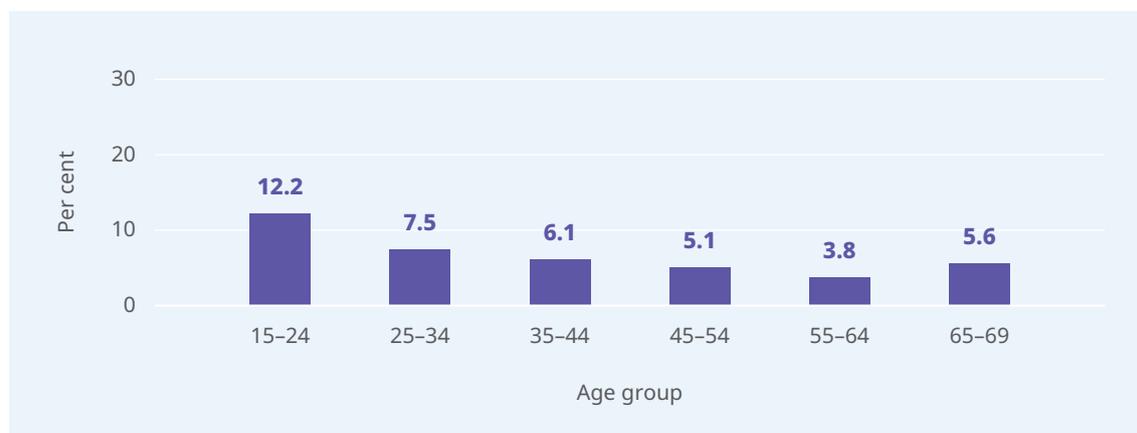
TABLE 9.1. Women’s experience of non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, other than by a husband/partner (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Non-partner physical violence since age 15 (at least one form)	6.5	0.5
Pushed you or pulled your hair	4.1	0.3
Slapped, hit, beat, kicked or did anything else to hurt you	3.0	0.1
Threw something at you	1.7	0.2
Choked you	0.5	0.0
Threatened you with or actually used a gun, knife or other weapon against you	0.4	0.0
Burned you on purpose	0.1	0.0

Note: See Table B.82.

Figure 9.1 shows that women aged 15–24 were more likely to have experienced non-partner physical violence since the age of 15 (12.2 per cent) than women aged 25 and older. It is notable that with age, the proportion of women who have had such experience decreases, but increases after age 65.

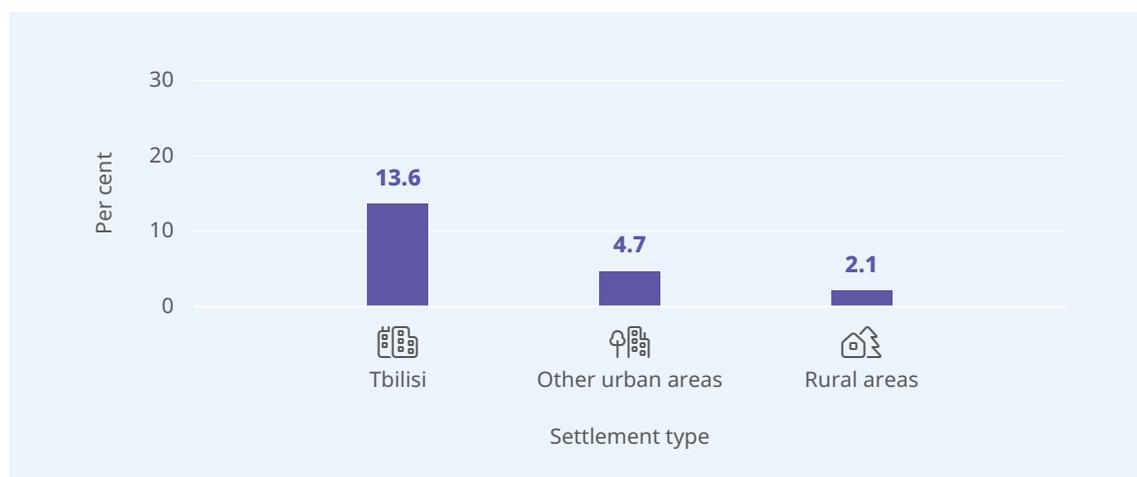
FIGURE 9.1. Lifetime non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, by age group (percentage)



Note: See Table B.83.

Figure 9.2 shows that women in Tbilisi (13.6 per cent) were more likely than women in other urban areas (4.7 per cent) and rural areas (2.1 per cent) to report ever experiencing non-partner physical violence since the age of 15.

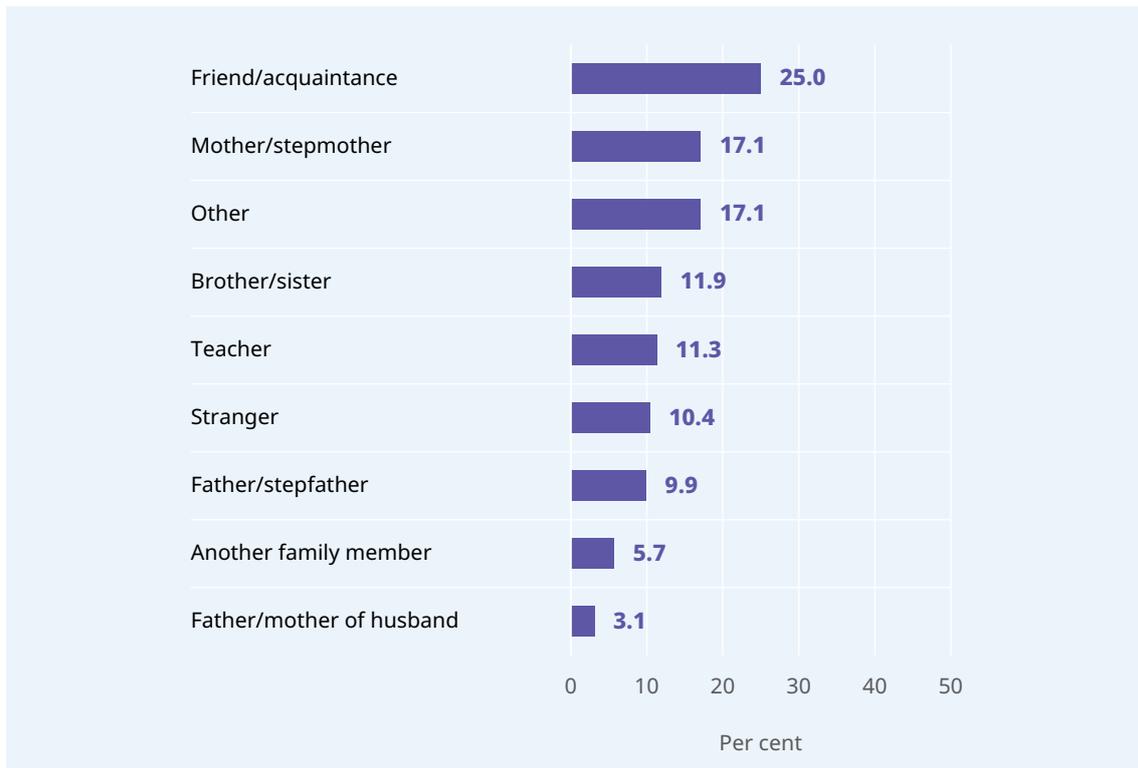
FIGURE 9.2. Lifetime non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, by settlement type (percentage)



Note: See Table B.83.

Among women who had ever experienced non-partner physical violence, one out of four (25.0 per cent) reported that the perpetrator was a friend/acquaintance, and 17.1 per cent reported that it was their mother or stepmother (**Figure 9.3**). Although few in number, some women reported that the perpetrator of the non-partner physical violence was their brother or sister (11.9 per cent), a teacher (11.3 per cent), a stranger (10.4 per cent) or other person (17.1 per cent in total).

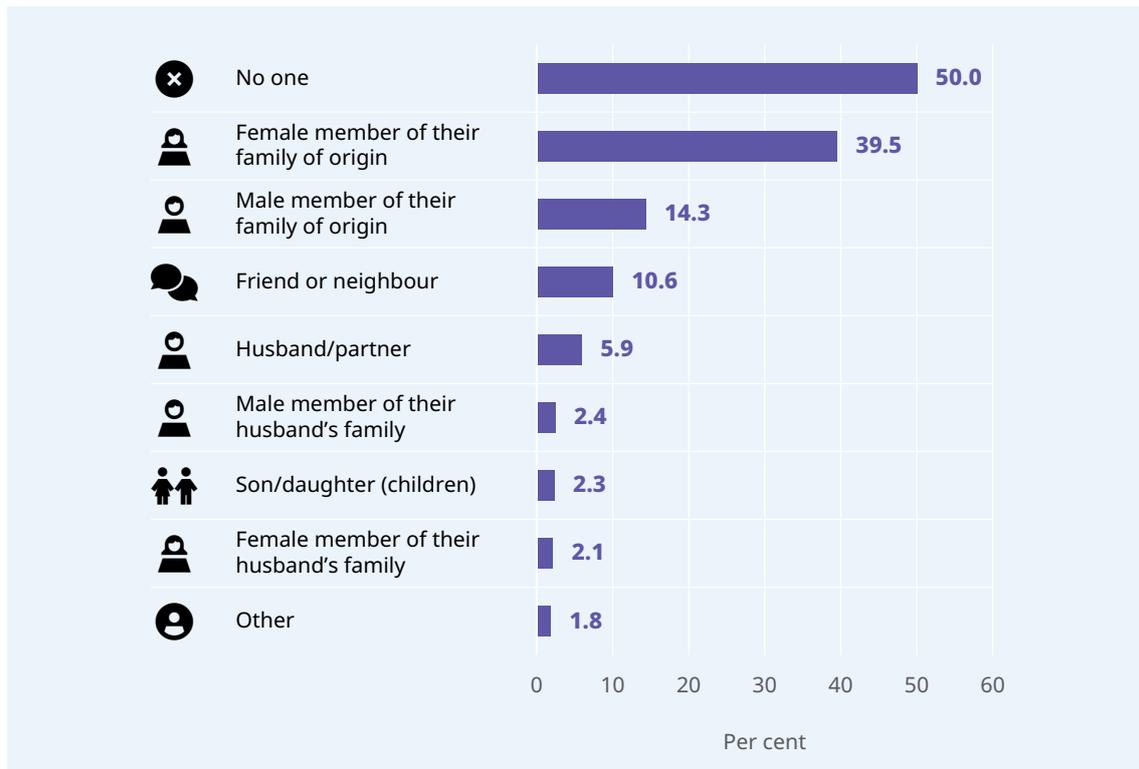
FIGURE 9.3. Perpetrators of non-partner physical violence since the age of 15 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.84.

Half of the women who experienced non-partner physical violence since the age of 15 remained silent and told no one about the violence (**Figure 9.4**). Among those who experienced non-partner physical violence, they most often told a female member of their own family (39.5 per cent). Far fewer women told a male member of their own family (14.3 per cent) or a friend or neighbour (10.6 per cent).

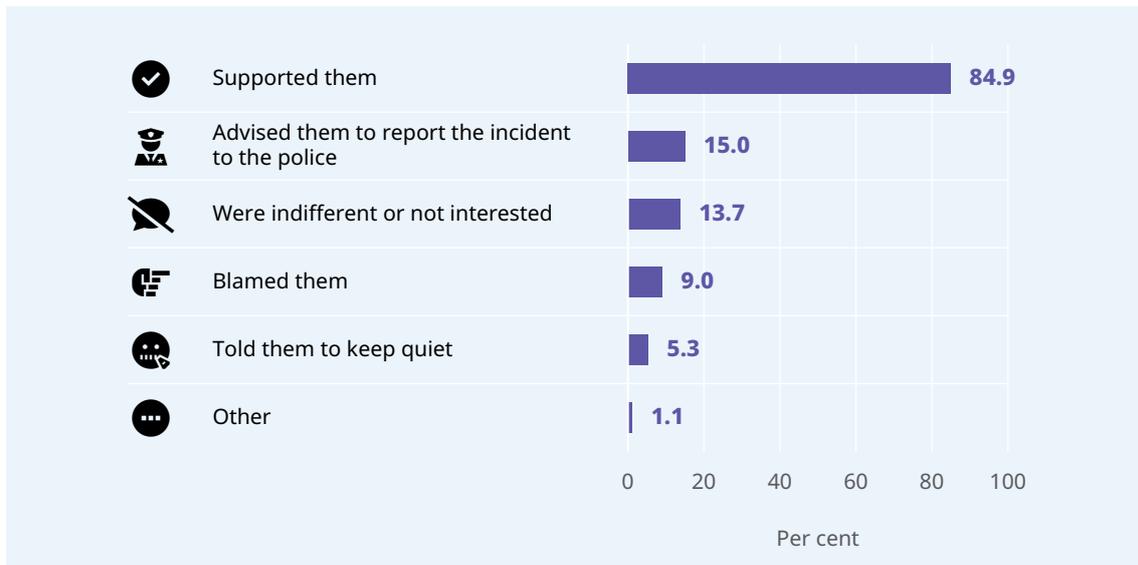
FIGURE 9.4. Who women victims told about the non-partner physical violence they experienced since age 15 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.85.

Figure 9.5 shows that the majority of women who told someone about their experiences of non-partner physical violence reported that the majority of those individuals supported them (84.9 per cent). Only 15.0 per cent of women reported that their family, friends and/or neighbours advised them to report the incident to the police. At the same time, however, some women reported that their family, friends and/or neighbours were indifferent or not interested (13.7 per cent), blamed them for their own victimization (9.0 per cent) and/or told them to be quiet (5.3 per cent).

FIGURE 9.5. Responses of family and friends to women telling them about non-partner physical violence they experienced (percentage)



Note: See Table B.85.

Among women who experienced non-partner physical violence, only 9.0 per cent said that they reported the most recent incident to the police (see Table B.86).

9.2 Non-partner sexual violence

Only 1.5 per cent of women aged 15–69 experienced at least one of the four types of non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime (**Table 9.2**). More specifically, 1.3 per cent of women experienced attempted forced sexual intercourse that was unwanted, 0.2 per cent of women had ever experienced forced sexual intercourse, and 0.1 per cent were forced to have sex when they were too drunk or drugged. The share of women who reported experiencing non-partner sexual violence in the past 12 months (current prevalence) was 0.0 per cent. It is important to bear in mind, however, that nearly every second woman (49.8* per cent) reported that they told no one about their experiences of non-partner sexual violence.

SDG Indicator 5.2.2 in Georgia

TARGET 5-2



0.0 per cent of women and girls aged 15 or older were subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months

TABLE 9.2. Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 (lifetime) (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 (at least one of the 4 types)	1.5
Someone attempted, but DID NOT succeed to force you to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to, for example, by holding you down or putting you in a situation where you could not say no	1.3
Were forced into sexual intercourse that was not wanted (e.g. by threatening you, holding you down or putting you in a situation where you could not say no)	0.2
Were forced to have sex when you were too drunk or drugged to refuse	0.1
Were forced or persuaded to have sex against your will with more than one man at the same time	0.0

Note: See Table B.87.

The average age of women who reported experiencing sexual violence from non-partner was about 19*. More than one third (38.1* per cent) of these women reported that the perpetrator was a stranger. Some women reported that the perpetrator was a friend/acquaintance (20.5* per cent), someone they recently met (16.7* per cent), someone at work (8.6* per cent) or another person (18.8* per cent).

Among women who experienced sexual violence from non-partner, about half (49.8* per cent) reported that they told no one about the sexual violence, whereas 31.8* per cent told a female member of their own family. Among women who told someone, 21.3* per cent told a friend or neighbour, and 19.6* per cent told a male member of their own family (see Table B.88).

9.3 Child sexual abuse before the age of 18

The survey explored sexual violence in childhood by asking women whether before the age of 18, someone had ever touched them sexually against their will or made them do something sexual that they did not want to do. Due to the highly sensitive nature of the question, respondents were given a card that displayed pictures of a happy face and a sad face. Respondents were then asked to privately put a mark below the sad face if, before they were 18 years old, someone had touched them sexually against their will or made to do something sexual that they did not want to do. If it had never happened, they were asked to put a mark below the happy face. Respondents were also instructed to fold the paper and place it in an envelope. This method was proved more reliable for measuring child sexual abuse in the 2017 National VAW Survey in Georgia and in other VAWG surveys.

Figure 9.6 shows that 8.5 per cent of women reported experiencing sexual violence in childhood before 18 years of age, specifically that someone had ever touched them sexually against their will or made them do something sexual that they did not want to do. Women aged 15–24 were more likely to report experiencing child sexual abuse (13.5 per cent) than women 25 years of age and older.

FIGURE 9.6. Women who experienced child sexual abuse, by age group (percentage)



Note: See Table B.89.

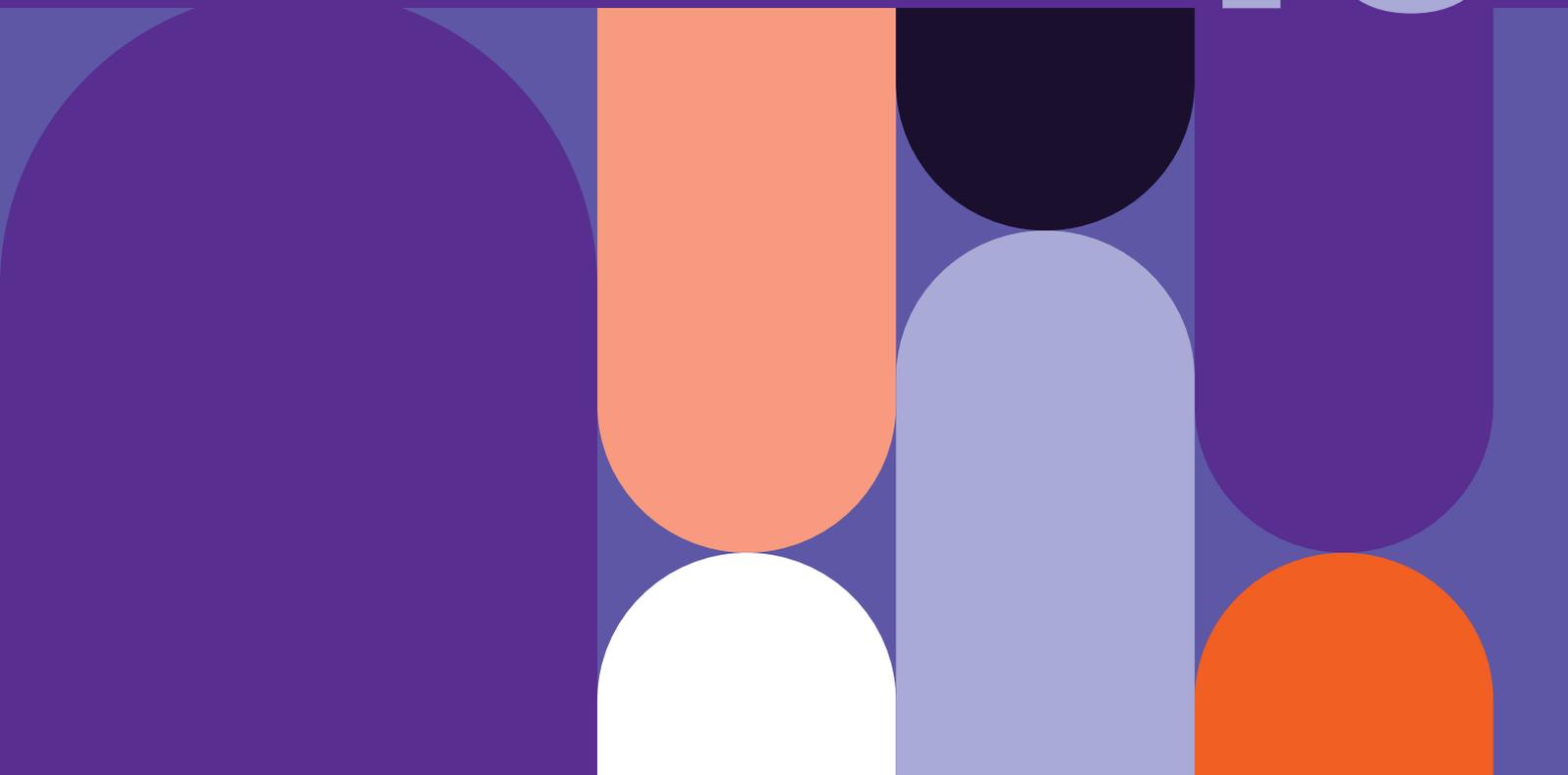
It is notable that women with a primary education or less or a lower secondary education were more likely to report experiencing child sexual abuse (15.8* per cent and 13.7 per cent, respectively) than women with an upper secondary education or higher. In addition, women from poor and very poor households were more likely to report experiencing child sexual abuse (12.6 per cent and 10.3 per cent, respectively) than women from households with a good economic status (7.5 per cent). In addition, women from Tbilisi were more likely to report experiencing child sexual abuse (12.2 per cent) than women from other urban areas (7.0 per cent) and rural areas (6.6 per cent) (see Table B.89).

This study found that women who experienced child sexual abuse were much more likely to have experienced non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 (11.0 per cent) than women who were not sexually abused as a child (0.6 per cent).

It is well documented in existing research that child sexual abuse can increase a person’s risk of future victimization. In the United States of America, prior research has found that females exposed to child sexual abuse are 2–13 times at greater risk of experiencing sexual violence in adulthood and two times at greater risk of experiencing non-sexual IPV.¹

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

10



Sexual harassment is unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical harassment of a sexual nature that constitutes a breach of the principle of equal treatment between men and women; thus, it is recognized as a form of sex discrimination, sexual abuse and VAWG.¹ This chapter focuses on women's experiences of sexual harassment, including:

- ▶ Physical forms of harassment – unwelcome touching, hugging or kissing.
- ▶ Verbal forms of harassment – sexually suggestive, offensive comments or jokes; intrusive, offensive questions about one's private life; intrusive, offensive comments about a woman's physical appearance.
- ▶ Non-verbal forms of harassment – receiving or being shown offensive, sexually explicit pictures, photos or gifts; somebody indecently exposing themselves.
- ▶ Cyberharassment – receiving unwanted, offensive, sexually explicit emails or SMS messages; inappropriate, offensive advances on social networking websites or in Internet chat rooms.²

It is important to bear in mind that estimating the prevalence of sexual harassment is based on a combination of women's personal experiences and the subjective meaning attached to what might be considered unwanted and offensive conduct. Research has shown that women differ in their perceptions of what behaviour constitutes sexual harassment.³ Women's perceptions of sexual harassment can be influenced by the level of awareness and information that women possess regarding their legal rights and the laws related to sexual harassment, gender equality and non-discrimination on the grounds of sex, as well as the social and cultural values supportive of gender equality and non-discrimination based on sex.⁴ To minimize culturally determined variations in subjective interpretations of sexual harassment, this survey did not ask respondents about sexual harassment as an issue per se; rather, women were asked about experiencing specific unwanted and offensive acts.

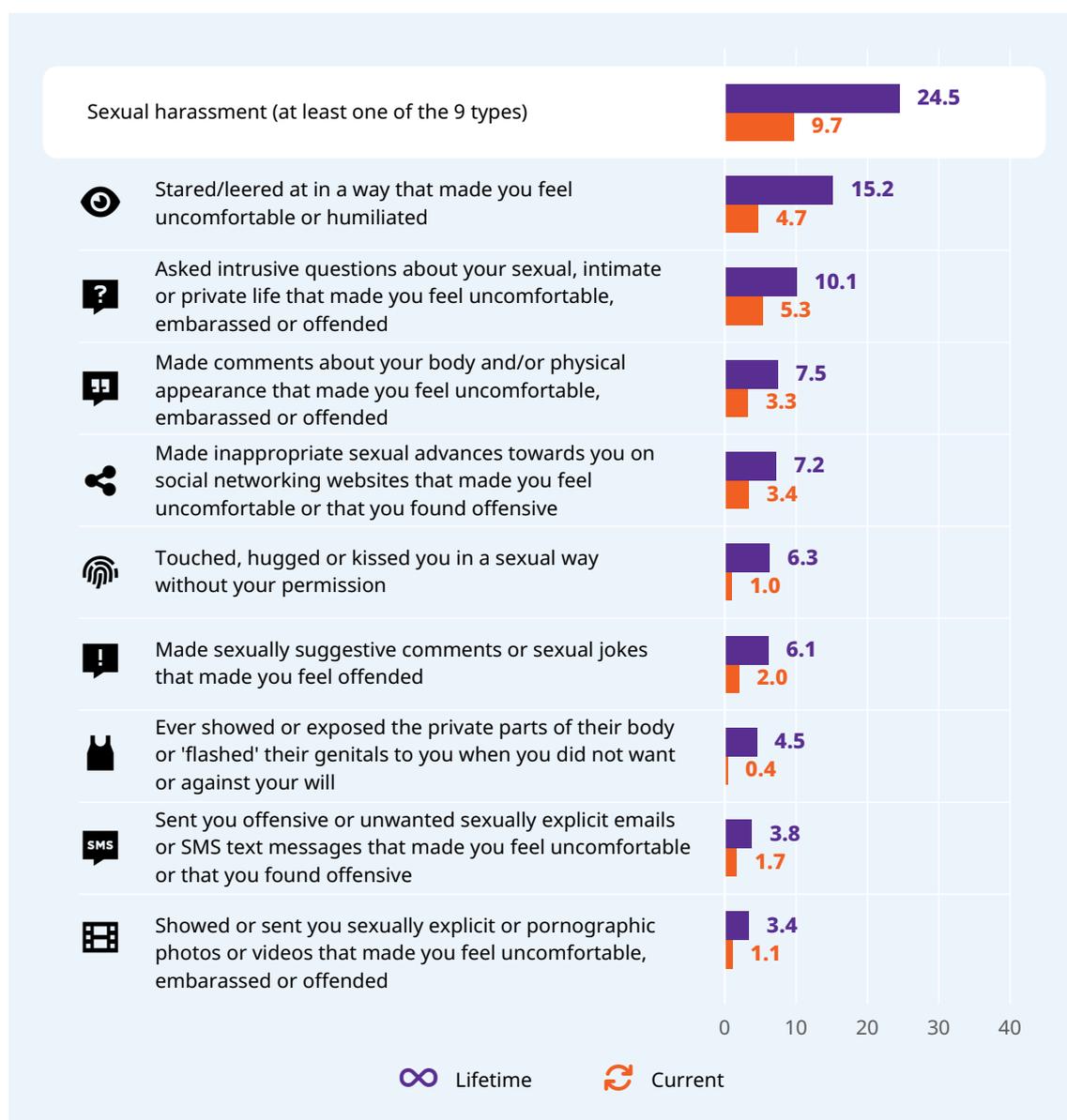
This chapter presents the findings on women's lifetime experiences of sexual harassment and in the past 12 months (current), including the specific forms of sexual harassment they have experienced. It also reveals who the perpetrators of sexual harassment are, the places where sexual harassment occurs and whether women experienced sexual harassment in childhood (before the age of 15 and before 18 years of age) and/or in adulthood. It also explores the relationship between women's age and level of education and their lifetime experiences of sexual harassment. Finally, this chapter presents the findings on women's experience of online sexual coercion and extortion, as well as the steps they have taken to protect themselves from online sexual coercion and extortion.

10.1 Women's experiences of sexual harassment

Figure 10.1 shows that 24.5 per cent of women experienced sexual harassment in their lifetime, and 9.7 per cent experienced sexual harassment in the past 12 months (current). The most common type of sexual harassment experienced by women was being stared or leered at in a way that made them feel uncomfortable or humiliated (lifetime, 15.2 per cent; current, 4.7 per cent), followed by being asked intrusive questions about their sexual, intimate or private life that made them feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended (lifetime, 10.1 per cent; current, 5.3 per cent) and having someone make comments about their body and/or physical appearance that made them feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended (lifetime, 7.5 per cent; current, 3.3 per cent). The other forms of sexual harassment happened less often.

It is notable that only 35.3 per cent of women who experienced sexual harassment considered the unwanted behaviours listed in **Figure 10.1** to be sexual harassment, whereas nearly two out of three (63.5 per cent) did not consider these unwanted behaviours, actions or contacts to be sexual harassment (see Table B.90).

FIGURE 10.1. Women aged 15–69 who experienced sexual harassment (percentage)



Note: See Table B.90.

10.1.1 Differences in women's experiences of sexual harassment

Figure 10.2 shows that women aged 15–24 were most likely to ever experience sexual harassment (45.1 per cent), followed by women aged 25–34 (31.3 per cent) and 35–44 (23.9 per cent). As women age, their experiences of sexual harassment decrease. Women aged 15–24 were about three times more likely to experience sexual harassment than women aged 55 and older. In addition, women aged 25–34 were nearly twice as likely to experience sexual harassment than women aged 55 and older.

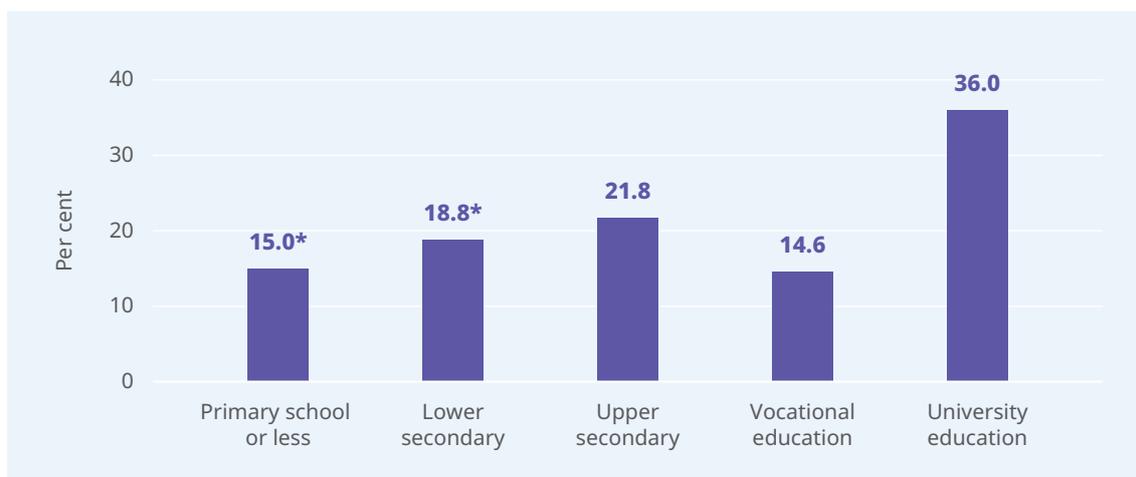
FIGURE 10.2. Women who ever experienced sexual harassment (lifetime), by age group (percentage)



Note: See Table B.91.

Figure 10.3 shows that women with a university education were most likely to ever experience sexual harassment (36.0 per cent). Women with a university education were much more likely to experience sexual harassment than women with a vocational education (14.6 per cent), upper secondary education (21.8 per cent), lower secondary education (18.8* per cent) or primary education or less (15.0* per cent).

FIGURE 10.3. Women who ever experienced sexual harassment (lifetime), by level of education (percentage)

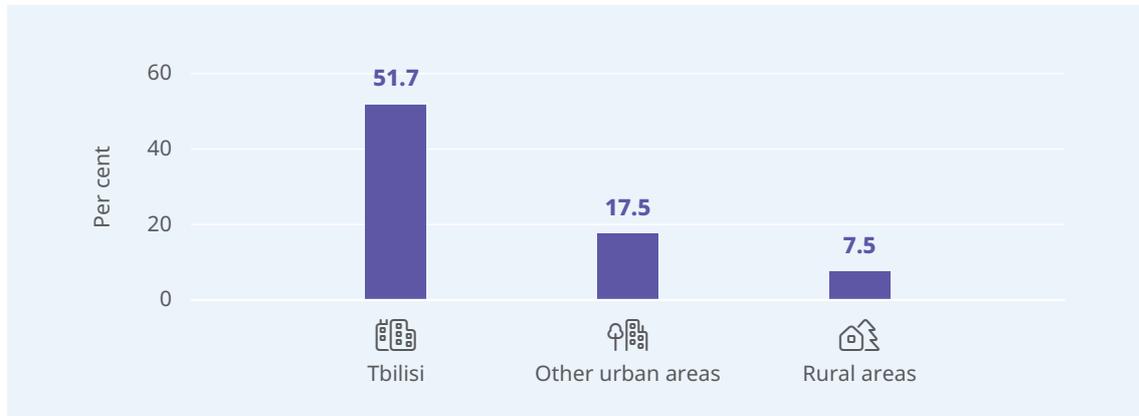


Note: See Table B.91.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

Figure 10.4 shows that women living in Tbilisi were much more likely to experience sexual harassment (51.7 per cent) than women living in other urban areas (17.5 per cent) and rural areas (7.5 per cent).

FIGURE 10.4. Women who ever experienced sexual harassment (lifetime), by settlement type (percentage)

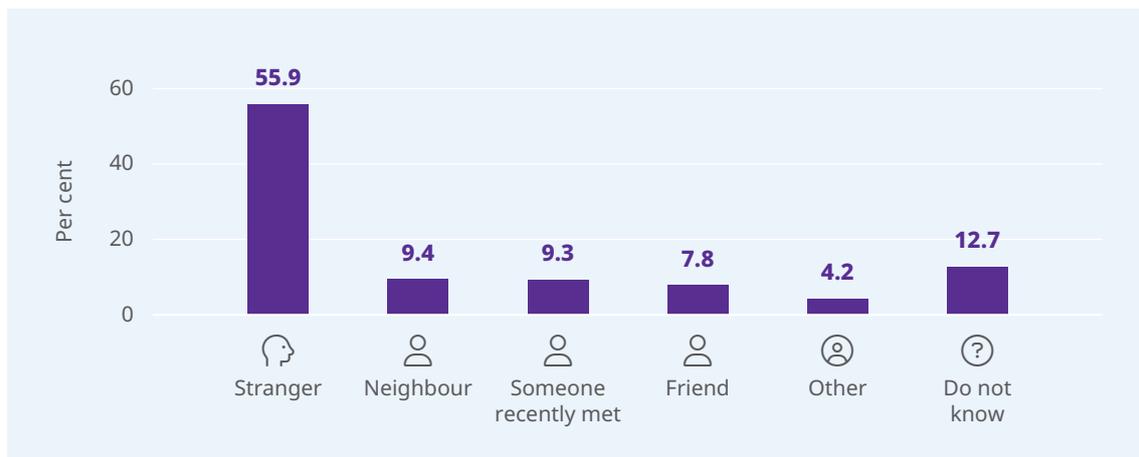


Note: See Table B.91.

10.2 Perpetrators of sexual harassment

Women who experienced sexual harassment in their lifetime were asked whether they knew the person who committed the most recent incident of sexual harassment. **Figure 10.5** shows that the majority of women reported that the person who sexually harassed them was a stranger (55.9 per cent). Some women reported that they did not know who harassed them (12.7 per cent), whereas others reported that it was a neighbour (9.4 per cent), someone they recently met (9.3 per cent), a friend (7.8 per cent) or another person (4.2 per cent).

FIGURE 10.5. Perpetrators of sexual harassment against women (percentage)



Note: See Table B.92.

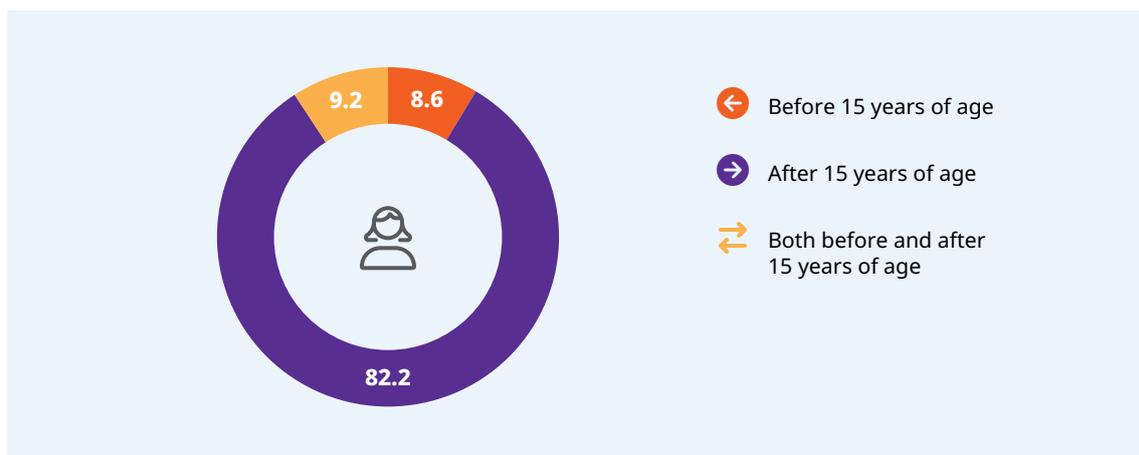
10.3 Places where sexual harassment occurs

The majority of women reported that the sexual harassment occurred on the street or in an alley (41.2 per cent) or in public transport (28.0 per cent). Although fewer in number, women also reported experiencing sexual harassment at schools/universities, in the workplace, at their own or another person’s home/garden and in other public spaces (see Table B.92).

10.4 Sexual harassment in childhood and adulthood

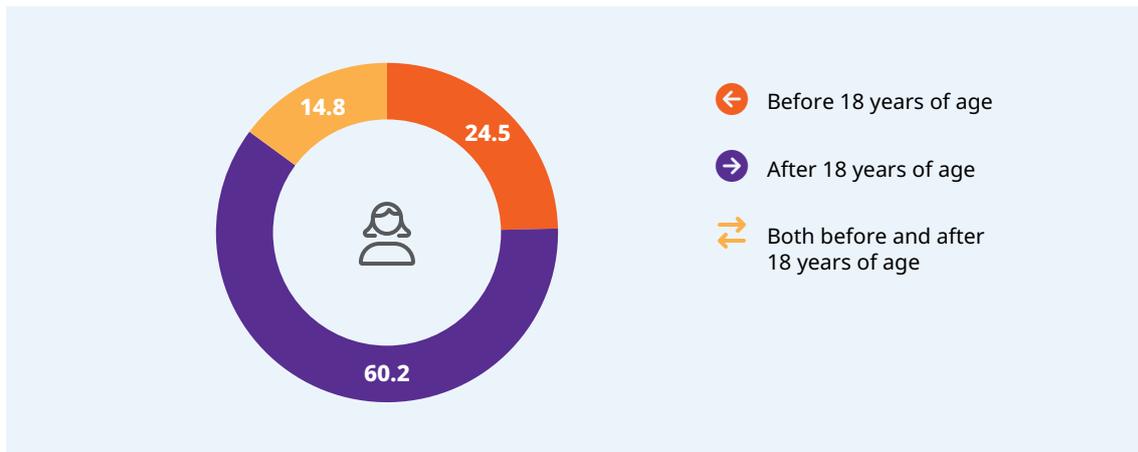
Women were asked to recall when the sexual harassment occurred, particularly whether it occurred before and/or after 15 and 18 years of age. Among women who were sexually harassed, only 8.6 per cent reported that the harassment occurred before the age of 15 (Figure 10.6), and 24.5 per cent reported that they were sexually harassed before the age of 18 (Figure 10.7). The majority of women reported that the sexual harassment occurred in adulthood, after the age of 18 (60.2 per cent). It is notable, however, that 14.8 per cent of women reported that they were sexually harassed both before and after 18 years of age (in both childhood and adulthood).

FIGURE 10.6. Sexual harassment before and after 15 years of age (percentage)



Note: See Table B.93.

FIGURE 10.7. Sexual harassment before and after 18 years of age (percentage)



Note: See Table B.93.

10.5 Experiences of sexual harassment in relation to other forms of violence

Table 10.1 shows that there is a strong relationship between sexual harassment and other forms of violence and abuse experienced by women in childhood and adulthood. More specifically, women who experienced physical and/or emotional child abuse before the age of 18 were nearly twice as likely to experience sexual harassment in their lifetime (43.3 per cent) than women who did not experience physical and/or emotional abuse (19.7 per cent). In addition, women who experienced child sexual abuse before the age of 18 were about twice as likely to experience sexual harassment (52.7 per cent) than women who did not experience child sexual abuse (21.7 per cent).

TABLE 10.1. Percentage of women who experienced sexual harassment, by other forms of violence and abuse (lifetime)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300 Sexual harassment during lifetime
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18	
No physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18	19.7
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18	43.3
Child sexual abuse before age 18	
No child sexual abuse before age 18	21.7
Child sexual abuse before age 18	52.7

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
	Sexual harassment during lifetime
Lifetime non-partner physical violence	
No lifetime non-partner physical violence	21.4
Lifetime non-partner physical violence	69.3
Lifetime non-partner sexual violence	
No lifetime non-partner sexual violence	23.8
Lifetime non-partner sexual violence	77.3
Lifetime IPV	Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
No lifetime IPV	16.4
Lifetime IPV	36.4

Note: See Table B.94.

The data also reveal that women who ever experienced IPV were more likely to experience sexual harassment (36.4 per cent) than women who did not experience IPV (16.4 per cent). It is also notable that women who ever experienced non-partner physical violence were more than three times more likely to experience sexual harassment (69.3 per cent) than women who did not experience non-partner physical violence (21.4 per cent). In addition, women who ever experienced non-partner sexual violence were more than three times more likely to experience sexual harassment (77.3 per cent) than women who did not experience non-partner sexual violence (23.8 per cent).

10.6 Online sexual coercion and extortion

Women were also asked about their experiences of online sexual coercion and extortion, such as:

- ▶ Someone pressuring them to send, share or post sexually suggestive explicit images or messages
- ▶ Someone posting or distributing or threatening to post or distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of them without their consent
- ▶ Someone telling them that if they do not send the extortionist money, then the extortionist will post or distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of them without their consent

Very few women reported experiencing online sexual coercion in their lifetime (0.5 per cent) or in the past 12 months (0.1 per cent) (**Table 10.2**).

TABLE 10.2. Women’s experiences of online sexual coercion and extortion (percentage)

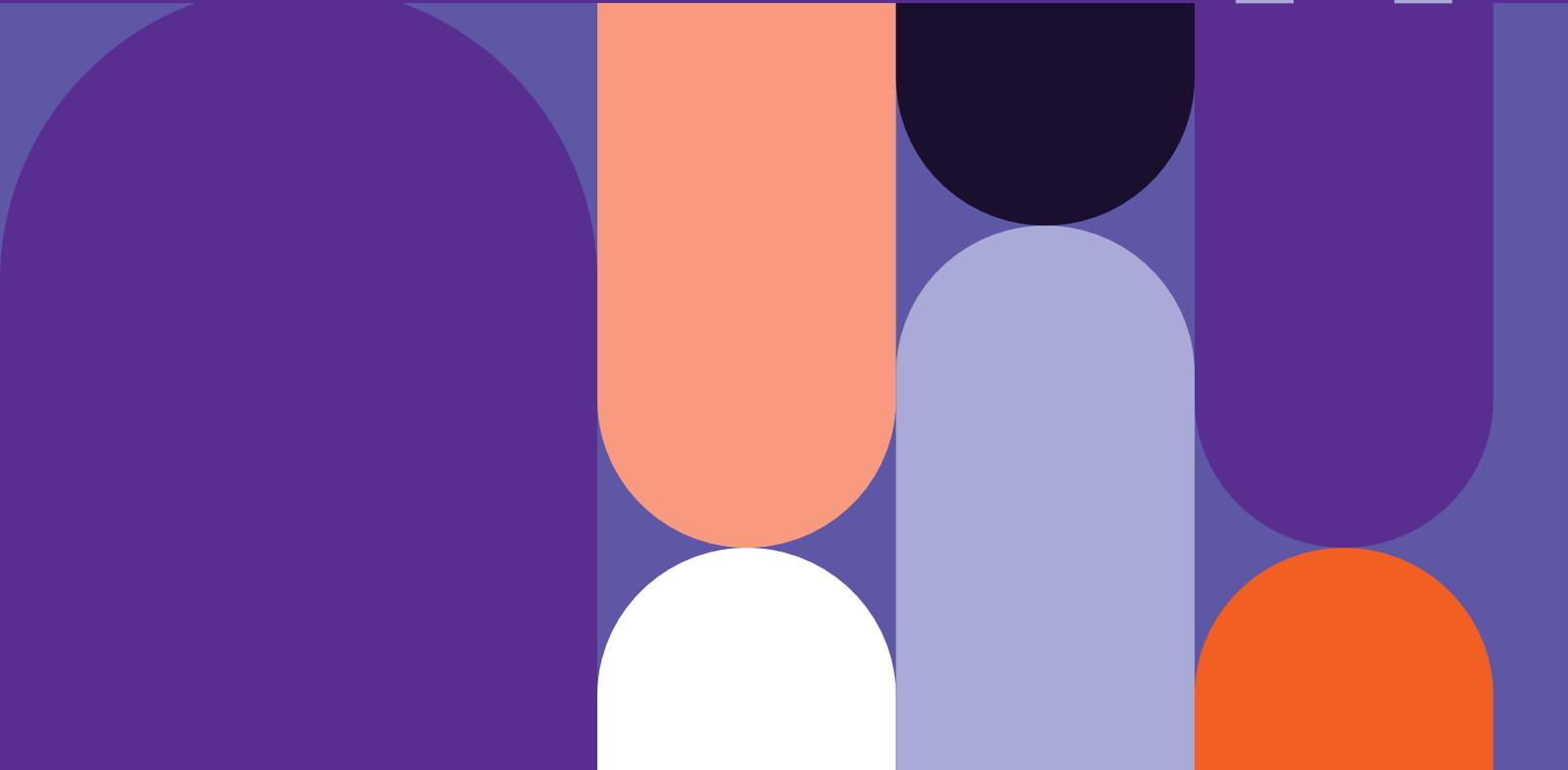
	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Online sexual coercion and extortion (at least one of the 3 types)	0.5	0.1
Someone pressured you to send, share or post sexually suggestive or explicit images or messages	0.3	0.1
Someone posted or distributed or threatened to post or distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of you without your consent	0.1	0.0
Someone told you that if you did not send them money, they would post/distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of you without your consent	0.0	0.0

Note: See Table B.95.

The qualitative data revealed that violence in online spaces is perceived as an issue that is getting more and more severe as the digital world takes up a bigger space in the everyday lives of people. Respondents specifically mentioned blackmailing and exposing personal information as issues. As one man explained: *“In some cases, men use nude photos of women to blackmail and manipulate them. This is also a common form of violence because women suffer moral damage in this process”* (FGD with men, aged 18–29, urban).

STALKING

11



Stalking is a crime of power and control and generally refers to harassing or threatening behaviour that an individual repeatedly engages in, such as following a person, appearing at a person's home or place of business, making harassing phone calls, leaving written messages or objects, or vandalizing a person's property. These actions may or may not be accompanied by a threat of serious harm and may or may not be precursors to an assault or murder.¹ The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe defines stalking as a "repetition of acts intruding into a person's life which increase in intensity over time. There are many ways in which such an intrusion can take place. One of them, called 'cyberstalking', is persistent and threatening intrusion online. Stalking causes distress, anxiety or fear. It is a form of violence in itself but can lead to other forms of violence, including murder."²

In general, stalking behaviours may include persistent patterns of leaving or sending the victim unwanted items or gifts that may range from seemingly romantic to bizarre, including following or lying in wait for the victim, damaging or threatening to damage the victim's property, defaming the victim's character and/or harassing the victim via the Internet by posting personal information or spreading rumours about them.³ Stalking may involve acts which are individually innocuous but, when combined, are intended to undermine the victim's sense of safety.⁴ Stalking is most often committed by people known to the victim or with whom the victim has had a prior relationship, such as a current/former intimate husband/partner or an acquaintance; however, some women are stalked by strangers.⁵

Stalking can be carried out in person or via electronic mechanisms, namely cyberstalking. Cyberstalking involves the pursuit, harassment or contact of others in an unsolicited fashion initially via the Internet, social media and/or email.⁶ Cyberstalking can intensify on social media and in chat rooms, where stalkers can systematically flood their target's inbox with obscene, hateful and/or threatening messages and images. Cyberstalkers may also assume the identity of their victim by posting information (fictitious or not) and soliciting responses from their social media network or the cybercommunity. Cyberstalkers may also use information acquired online to further intimidate, harass and threaten their victim. Although cyberstalking does not involve physical contact with a victim, it is still a serious crime.⁷ The Council of Europe Istanbul Convention calls on States Parties to the Convention to criminalize the intentional conduct of repeatedly engaging in threatening conduct that is directed at another person and causes the victim to fear for their safety.

This chapter presents the findings on women's experience of stalking by intimate partners and non-partners in their lifetime and in the past 12 months (current), including the specific forms of stalking experienced. It also explores the perpetrators of stalking (stalkers) and whether they were known to the victims. This chapter also explores whether the stalking occurred in childhood and/or adulthood and the duration and frequency of stalking, as well as whether victims of stalking sought help from the police and, if so, how the police responded. Finally, this chapter also asked women about some of the steps they have taken to prevent stalking.

11.1 Women's experiences of stalking

Figure 11.1 shows that 8.5 per cent of women aged 15–69 experienced stalking behaviours in their lifetime and 1.6 per cent in the past 12 months (current). The most common types of stalking behaviours experienced were having someone repeatedly loiter or wait for them outside of their home, workplace or school (4.2 per cent) and having someone repeatedly follow or spy on them (4.1 per cent). Although fewer in number, some women also reported experiencing each of the other

types of stalking behaviours listed in **Figure 11.1**. Among the women who experienced stalking in their lifetime, 46.9 per cent experienced only one stalking behaviour, 32.1 per cent experienced two, 12.8 per cent experienced three, and 8.6 per cent experienced four or more of the eight stalking behaviours listed in **Figure 11.1**. It is notable that only 42.5 per cent of women considered these unwanted contacts or harassing behaviours to be stalking.

FIGURE 11.1. Women’s experiences of stalking (lifetime and current) (percentage)

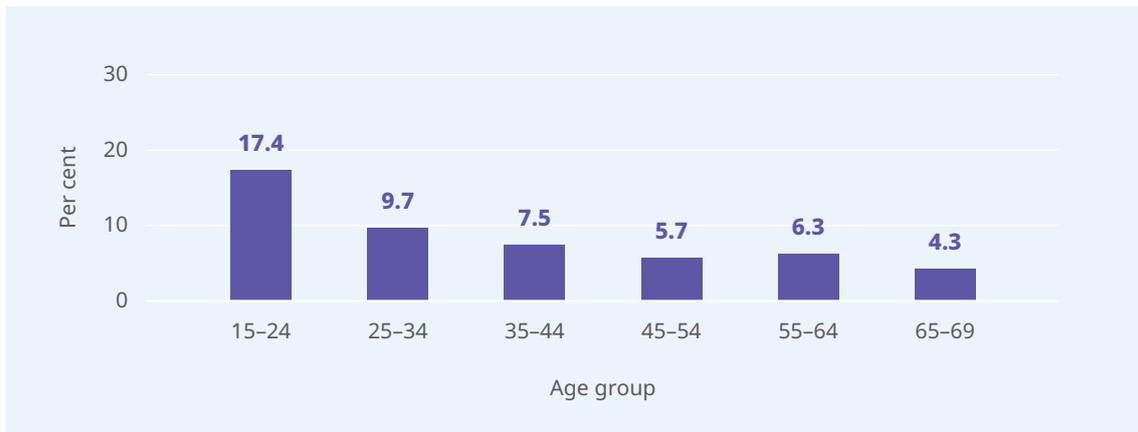


Note: See Table B.96.

11.1.1 Differences in women’s experiences of stalking

Figure 11.2 shows that women aged 15–24 were most likely to ever experience stalking (17.4 per cent), followed by women aged 25–34 (9.7 per cent). As women age, their experiences of stalking decrease. Women aged 15–24 were about two times more likely to experience stalking than women aged 35–44 (7.5 per cent) and about four times more likely than women aged 65–69 (4.3 per cent).

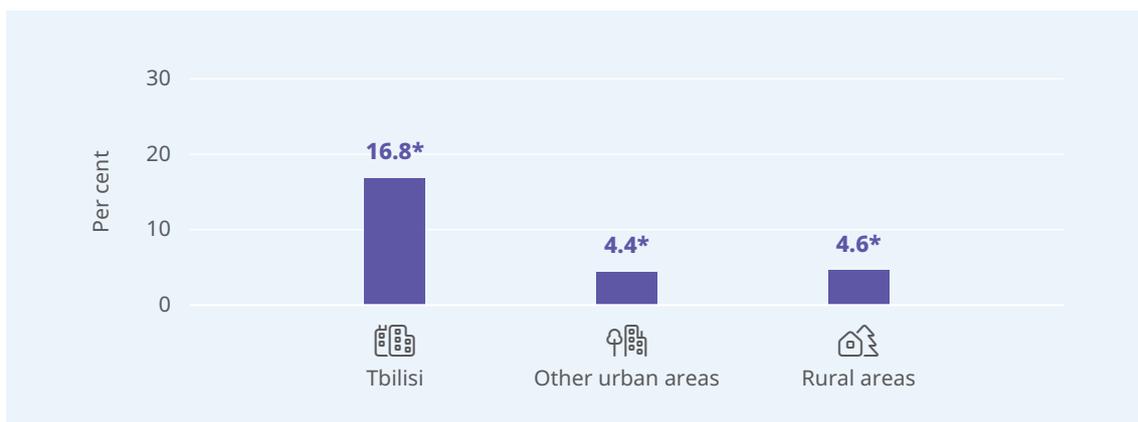
FIGURE 11.2. Women who ever experienced stalking (lifetime), by age group (percentage)



Note: See Table B.97.

Figure 11.3 shows that women living in Tbilisi were more likely to experience stalking (16.8 per cent) than women in other urban areas (4.4* per cent) and women in rural areas (4.6* per cent).

FIGURE 11.3. Women who ever experienced stalking (lifetime), by settlement type (percentage)



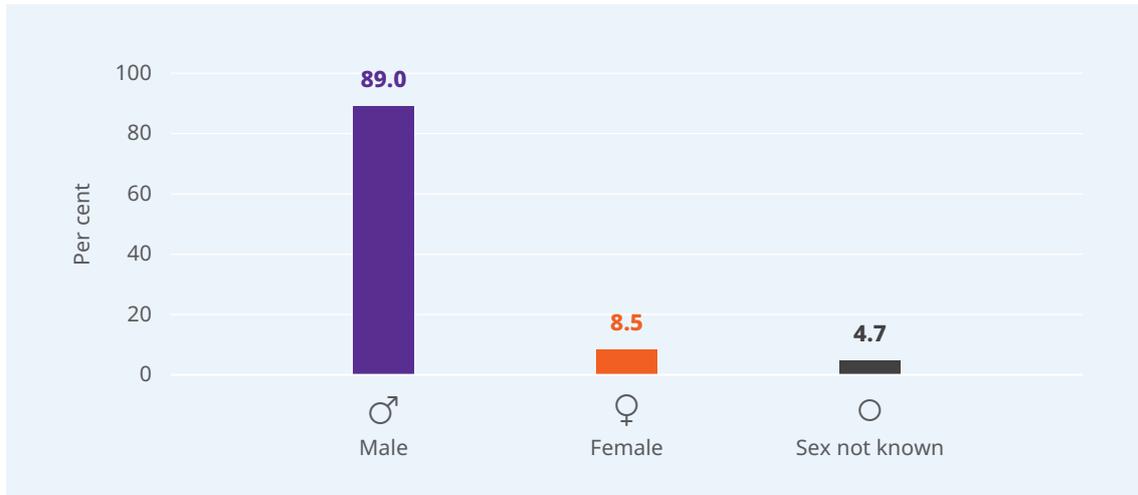
Note: See Table B.97.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

11.2 Stalkers (perpetrators)

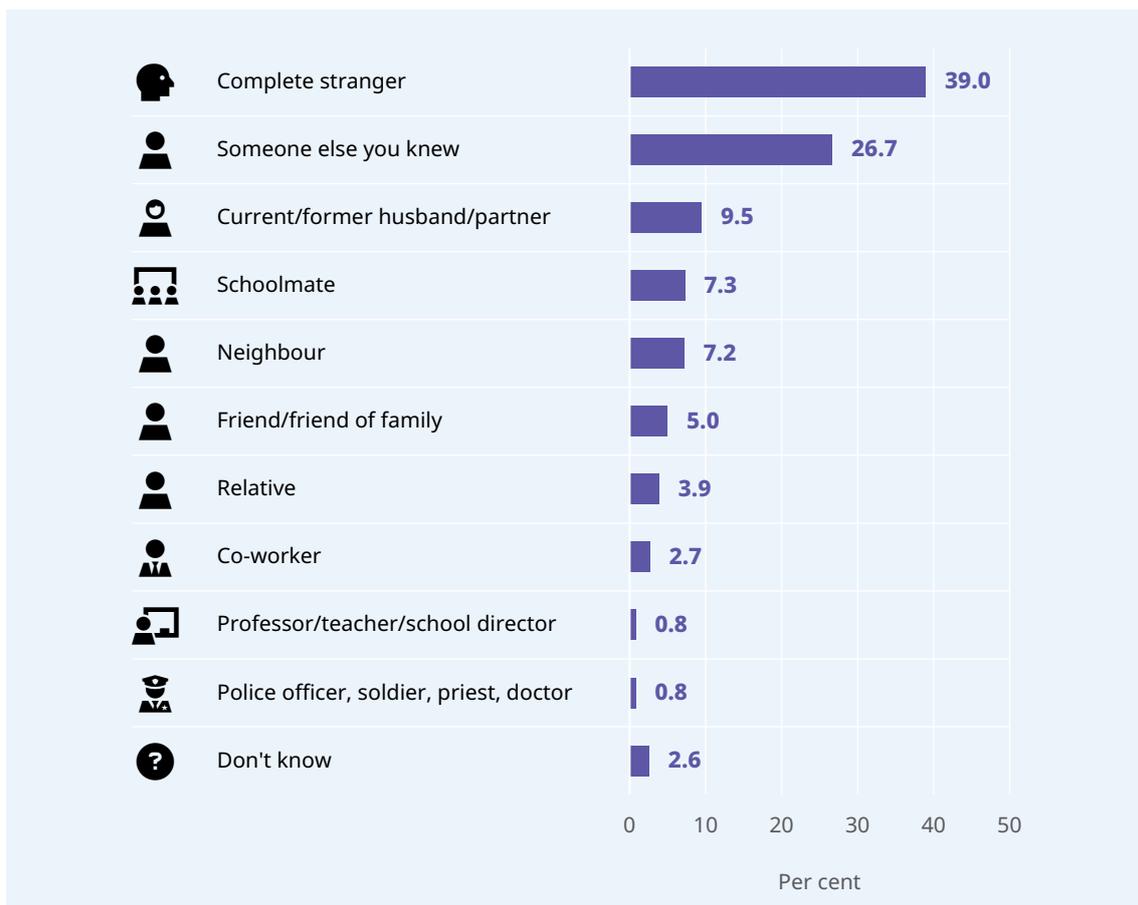
Among women who experienced stalking, the majority reported that the stalker was male (89.0 per cent); 4.7 per cent did not know the sex of their stalker (**Figure 11.4**). **Figure 11.5** shows that 39.0 per cent reported that the stalker was a stranger, whereas 26.7 per cent of women reported knowing their stalker. More specifically, 9.5 per cent of women reported that their stalker was a current/former husband/partner, 7.3 per cent identified a schoolmate, 7.2 per cent a neighbour, 5.0 per cent a friend/friend of the family, 2.7 per cent a co-worker, and 0.8 per cent identified a professor, teacher or school director. Some women did not know who their stalker was (2.6 per cent).

FIGURE 11.4. Stalkers (perpetrators), by sex (percentage)



Note: See Table B.98.

FIGURE 11.5. Perpetrator's relationship to the victim (percentage)

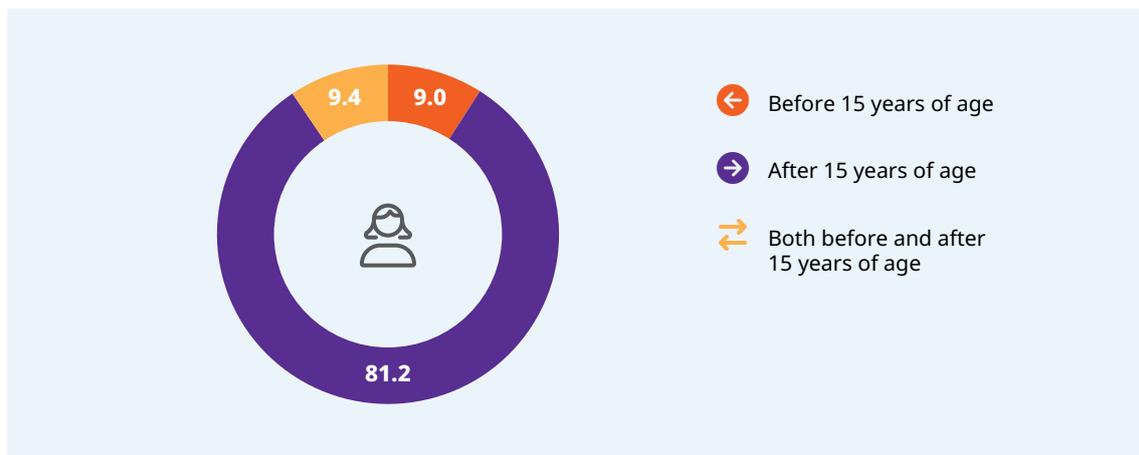


Note: See Table B.98.

11.3 Stalking in childhood and adulthood

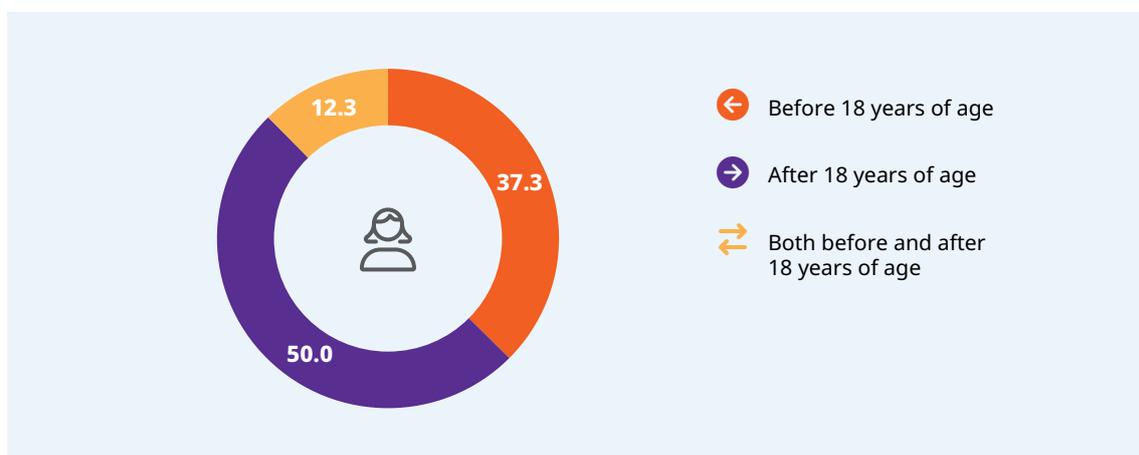
Women were asked to recall when the stalking occurred, particularly whether it occurred before and/or after 15 and 18 years of age. Among women who were stalked, 9.0 per cent reported the stalking occurring before the age of 15 (**Figure 11.6**), while 37.3 per cent reported that they were stalked before the age of 18 (**Figure 11.7**). Every second woman reported that the stalking occurred in adulthood, after the age of 18 years (50.0 per cent). It is notable, that 12.3 per cent of women reported being stalked both before and after 18 years of age.

FIGURE 11.6. Stalking before and after age 15 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.99.

FIGURE 11.7. Stalking before and after age 18 (percentage)

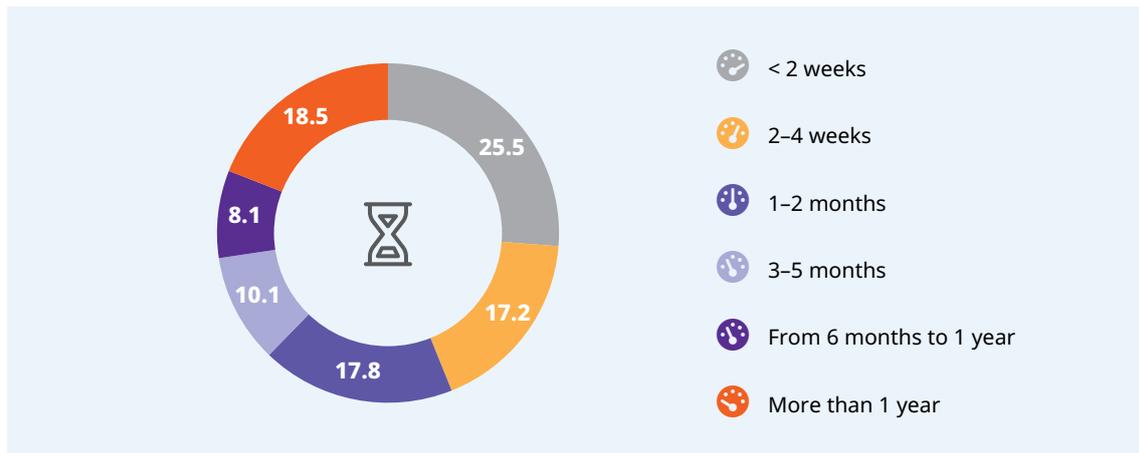


Note: See Table B.99.

11.4 Length of time and frequency of stalking

Women who were stalked were asked for how long they experienced stalking behaviours. **Figure 11.8** shows that 42.7 per cent of women reported that the stalking occurred for a month or less: 25.5 per cent reported that it occurred for less than two weeks and 17.2 per cent for a few weeks (2–4 weeks). In addition, 27.9 per cent reported the stalking occurring for at least 1–5 months and 8.1 per cent for 6–12 months, whereas 18.5 per cent reported that the stalking occurred for more than one year.

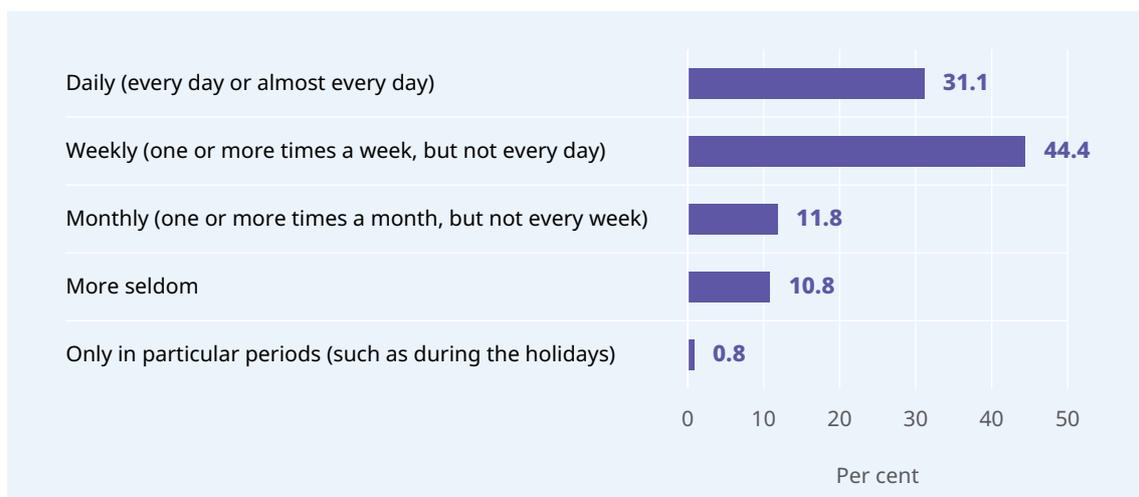
FIGURE 11.8. Length of time the stalking occurred (percentage)



Note: See Table B.100.

In addition to the length of time, it is also important to understand how often the stalking behaviours occurred. **Figure 11.9** shows that the majority of women reported that the stalking behaviours occurred on a regular basis. More specifically, 31.1 per cent of women reported that the stalking occurred daily (every day or almost every day), and 44.4 reported that it occurred on a weekly basis (one or more times a week, but not every day). In addition, 11.8 per cent of women reported that the stalking occurred on a monthly basis (one or more times a month, but not every week).

FIGURE 11.9. Frequency of stalking (percentage)



Note: See Table B.100.

11.5 Steps taken to prevent further stalking

Women who experienced stalking were asked whether they took some specific steps to prevent further stalking. It should be noted that the list of steps taken to prevent stalking was not all inclusive; thus, women may have taken other steps that were not measured in the survey. **Table 11.1** shows that 18.4 per cent of stalking victims reported that they changed their telephone number or email address or closed their social media accounts, while 12.1 per cent of women stopped going out alone or changed their route to get to work, school or university. In addition, some stalking victims took something with them to protect themselves, such as scissors, a knife or pepper spray (9.3 per cent). Some of them changed their job, school or university or stopped working/studying (6.2 per cent) altogether, while some even moved or changed their home/apartment or place of residence. Very few stalking victims, if any, contacted a victim support centre or asked for help from a lawyer. Only 4.6 per cent of women reported the stalking behaviours they experienced to the police (see Table B.101).

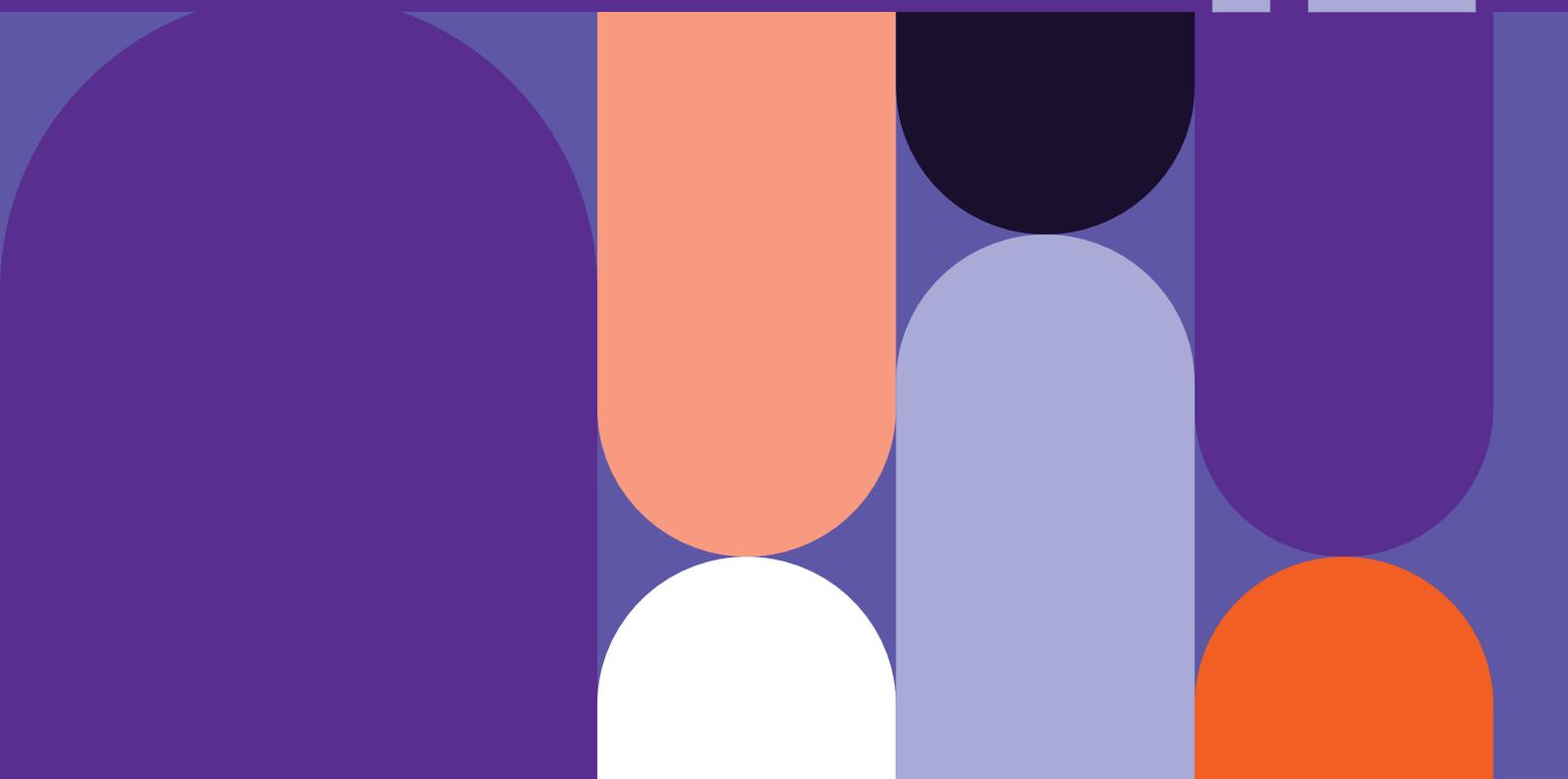
TABLE 11.1. Steps taken (not inclusive) by victims to prevent further stalking

	 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
As a consequence of what happened, did you do any of the following?	
 Change your telephone number, email address or closed your social media account (e.g. Facebook, Twitter)	18.4
 Stopped going out alone or changed your route to get to work/school/university	12.1
 Took something with you to protect yourself, such as scissors, a knife or pepper spray	9.3
 Changed your job/school/university or stopped working/studying	6.2
 Changed your place of residence	5.3
 Moved or changed your home/apartment	5.2
 Contacted a victim support centre or asked for help from a lawyer	1.1

Note: See Table B.102.

**WOMEN'S AND MEN'S
PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL
NORMS AND ATTITUDES
TOWARDS GENDER ROLES
AND VIOLENCE AGAINST
WOMEN**

12



This chapter presents information on social norms and attitudes related to gender roles and VAW. A complex mix of sociocultural factors shape how women are treated in all societies; thus, understanding how both women and men view social norms related to VAW, as well as their own attitudes towards gender roles and VAW, is an important first step in designing interventions to address issues of gender equality and VAW.

Respondents were asked to confirm the existence of specific social norms within their city/village related to IPV against women and the rape/sexual assault of women, as well as respondents' perception of the pervasiveness of these forms of VAW. Respondents were also asked to indicate their agreement with the provided statements about women's and men's roles in the family and their obligations to their partners. Some of the statements reflect traditional patriarchal attitudes towards the role of women, while other statements convey respondents' positive attitudes towards gender equality. Among these statements were those exploring the circumstances under which VAW is acceptable, women's and men's beliefs about whether a woman may refuse to have sex with her husband, and how authority is or is not shared in the home. All respondents were asked these questions, regardless of their experiences of violence or their marital/union status.

12.1 The power of social norms

It is important to understand the difference between social norms and attitudes. In general, **social norms** are widely held or shared beliefs about what is typical and appropriate in a social group, and they include beliefs about what other people think should be done. However, social norms may or may not be based on an accurate understanding of the attitudes and beliefs of others. While a social norm is a shared belief, an **attitude** is a tendency to evaluate a person, belief or behaviour with some degree of favour or disfavour.¹ Attitudes are unlikely to direct behaviour for the majority of people in a social group, particularly when social norms contradict the attitudes. In comparison, **behaviours** are what someone actually does. Although beliefs and behaviours are linked, it is often a social norm that will influence a behaviour and vice versa: a behaviour can influence a social norm. While social norms, attitudes and behaviours are not mutually exclusive, they often reinforce one another. For instance, over time, what an individual does because of social norms or expectations can become internalized and adhered to because of internal motivations to belong, regardless of what others think.²

Social group identity often has a powerful influence on individual attitudes and behaviours as individuals strive to belong and fit in with relevant social groups. Individuals often adapt and conform to the social norms of a group, but in some cases, individuals face pressure to conform to the social norms; thus, social groups may sanction members who deviate from the groups' social norms and standards. Sanctioning typically occurs through shaming and ostracism.³

Conformity to the social norms and standards of a social group is a basic feature of human psychology; thus, it is important to understand the power of social norms, which shape people's public and private lives. Social norms often function like laws that are socially and informally enforced by members of the social group.⁴ In a desire to belong, individuals may conform to social norms in their external behaviours but privately disagree with the social norms—and thus hold individual attitudes that contradict the social norms.⁵

The power of social norms related to VAWG

A man's perception that men in his community do not hit their wives is likely to constrain him from abusing his wife. If he were to hit his wife, he might invite community disapproval or isolation. However, social norms not only work to constrain behaviour but also license behaviour. The perception that rape is common in a man's community might license him to force his wife to have sex with him, with the understanding that he will not experience any social sanctions. He might even experience social approval for forcing his wife to have sex. These examples demonstrate how positive and negative behaviours are enforced through social norms and through the constraining and licensing forces of social sanctioning.

Source: Paluck et al. 2010.

There is no one definition of social norms; rather, there are numerous definitions that differ across disciplines and theoretical perspectives. However, there is general agreement that social norms have important components, as follows:

- 1) **Social norms are shared beliefs about others.** This includes beliefs about what others in a group 'actually do' (i.e. typical behaviour) and what others in a group think others 'ought to do' (i.e. appropriate behaviour). These beliefs shape the 'social expectations' of people within a group.⁶
- 2) **Because social norms are shared beliefs about others, these beliefs can sometimes be incorrect.** On the one hand, people may mistakenly think that behaviours are more typical than they actually are, while on the other hand, the majority of a group may privately reject a behaviour but still adhere to the behaviour because they incorrectly assume that everybody else thinks it is appropriate (i.e. pluralistic ignorance).⁷ Pluralistic ignorance can account for dysfunctional group behaviours, such as VAWG, which are sustained over time when individuals do not realize the extent of private support for overturning the social norm. Thus, pluralistic ignorance can account for the endurance of harmful practices, such as the forced and early marriage of girls, even after many individuals in the social group are aware that the practice is harmful to girls and women.⁸
- 3) **Social norms exist within reference groups/networks.** A reference group/network is the group of people important to an individual when he/she is making decisions. Reference groups/networks can be concentrated and located within the physical proximity of the individual making the decision, or they can be dispersed and distant.⁹
- 4) **Social norms are maintained, in part, by approval and disapproval within the reference group/network.** Persons who violate social expectations within a reference group/network are likely to be sanctioned or punished by the group, whereas persons who comply may be rewarded. Sanctions can range from direct punishment to loss of opportunities, shunning and ostracism.¹⁰ The desire to conform to the social expectations of a reference group/network, coupled with the threat of sanctions, means that social norms can be more persuasive and significant in some situations. Thus, the norms to comply with certain expected behaviours can override legal prohibitions (e.g. IPV against women is still common in many countries where the practice is illegal).

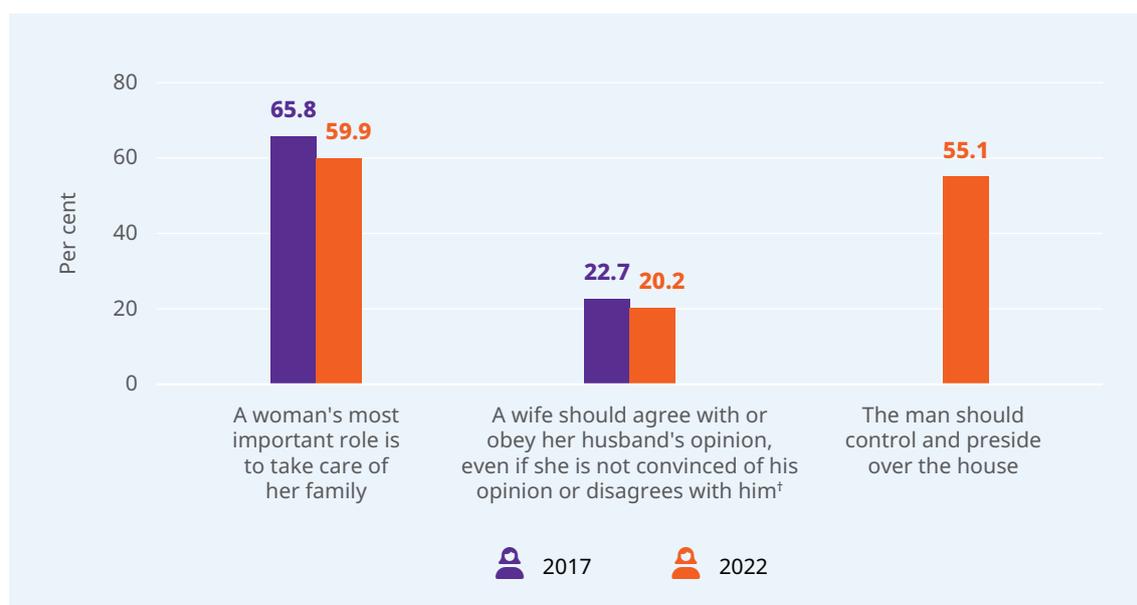
It is important to understand that social norms are distinct from individual beliefs and attitudes because an individual may have personal beliefs and attitudes that differ from the social norms of the reference group/network. For instance, an individual may hold personal beliefs and attitudes that do not support wife abuse (e.g. a husband does not have the right to hit/beat his wife), but these beliefs or attitudes may conflict with the social norms that an individual perceives in his/her local community (e.g. men should use violence to discipline and control their wives, particularly for behaviours that transgress behavioural expectations of women and girls).¹¹

In general, social norms are perceptions of a group's typical or desired behaviours. Individuals can often misperceive social norms, and their perceptions of the social norms can be exaggerated, outdated or even wrong. Still, however, incorrectly perceived social norms can have a strong influence on an individual's attitudes and behaviours because it is the perception of the social norm that influences an individual's attitudes and behaviours.¹² This chapter is important because it reveals the social norms and attitudes towards gender roles and violence against women.

12.2 Women's and men's attitudes towards gender roles

Figure 12.1 shows that 59.9 per cent of women believe that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family; this is down from 65.8 per cent of women who held this belief in the 2017 National VAW Survey. In addition, 20.2 per cent believed that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him; this is down from 22.7 per cent of women who held this belief in 2017. Moreover, 55.1 per cent of women believe that the man should control and preside over the house; this question was not asked in the 2017 National VAW Survey.

FIGURE 12.1. Women's attitudes towards gender roles, 2017 and 2022 (percentage who agree with the statement)

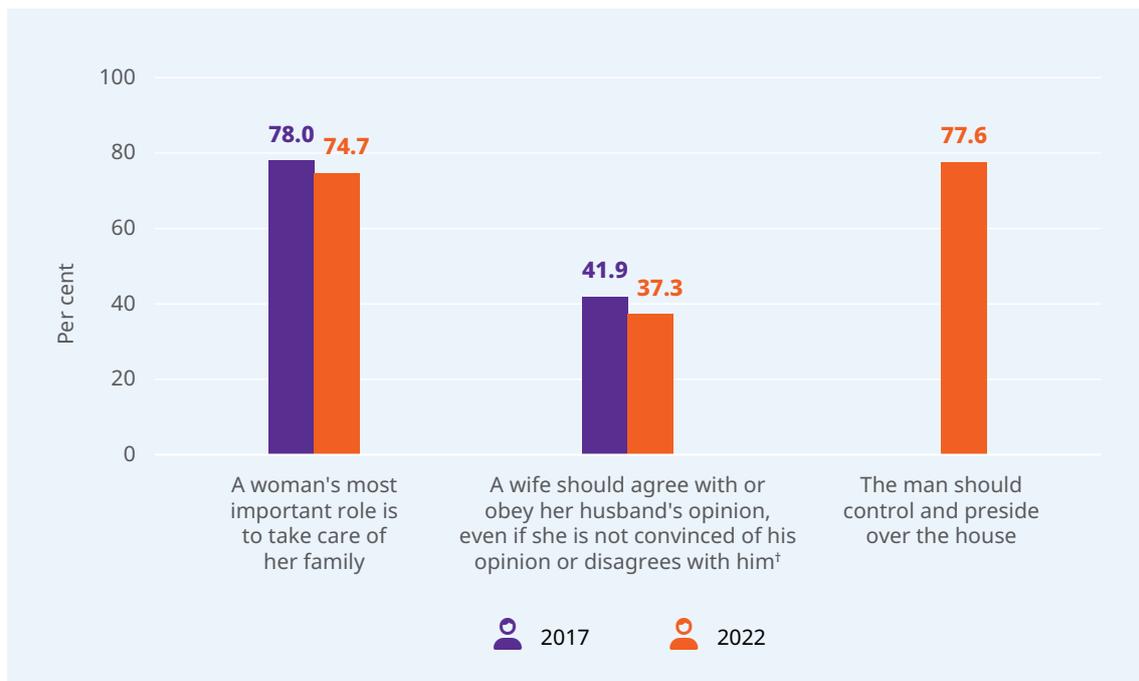


Note: See Table B.103.

[†] In the 2017 survey, the formulation was slightly different: "A wife should obey her husband even if she disagrees."

Figure 12.2 shows that about three out of four men (74.7 per cent) believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family; this is down from 78.0 per cent of men who held this belief in the 2017 survey. In addition, more than one out of three men (37.3 per cent) believe that a wife should agree with or obey her husband’s opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him, down from 41.9 per cent in 2017. Moreover, 77.6 per cent of men believe that the man should control and preside over the house; this question was not asked in the 2017 survey.

FIGURE 12.2. Men’s attitudes towards gender roles, 2017 and 2022 (percentage who agree with the statement)



Note: See Table B.104.

[†] In the 2017 survey, the formulation was slightly different: “A wife should obey her husband even if she disagrees.”

During the FGDs, men often used conservative ideas and language to speak about gender and gender roles, as defined by religion.

“I will repeat my view of women. First of all, it is important that a family be created with gender equality and love. Also, [it is important], as the Bible says, that a woman must obey a man, and a man must respect a woman.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, urban)

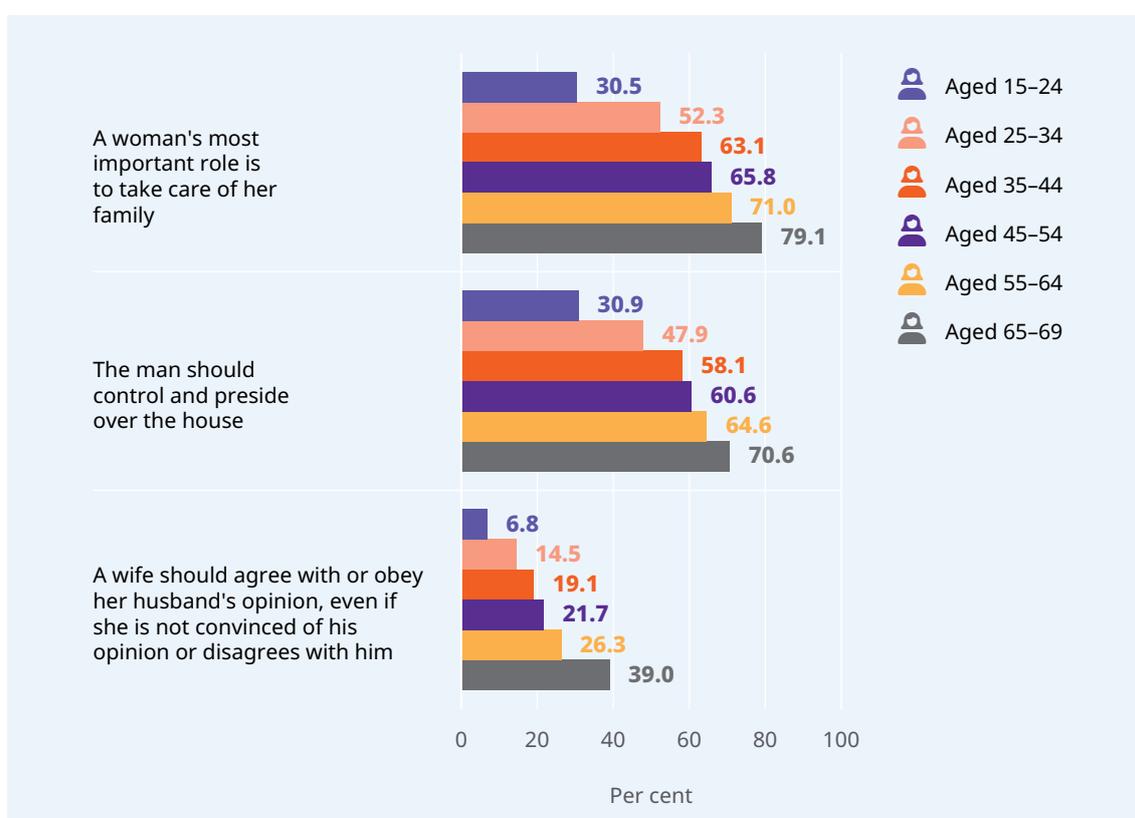
“When there is mutual respect in the family, there cannot be equality. For me, equality is not acceptable. A Christian woman knows that a man is a woman’s head, and a man’s head is Christ. [When that is the case], everything will be fine.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, rural)

12.2.1 Differences in women’s and men’s attitudes towards gender roles

By age

Figure 12.3 reveals that women aged 15–24 were least likely to believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family (30.5 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (30.9 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband’s opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (6.8 per cent). In older age groups, women’s attitudes towards women’s and men’s roles in the family are more patriarchal.

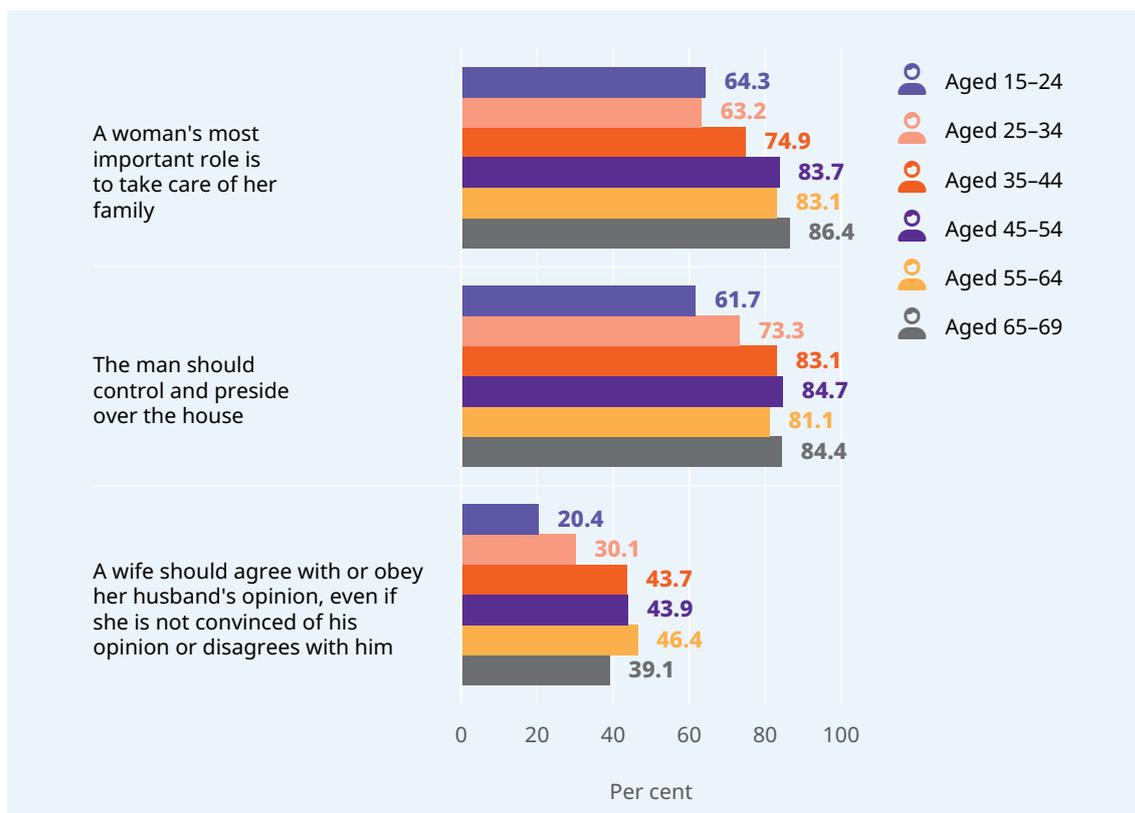
FIGURE 12.3. Women’s attitudes towards gender roles, by age group (percentage who agree with the statement)



Note: See Tables B.105–B.107.

Figure 12.4 shows that there are notable differences in men’s attitudes towards gender roles by age. In particular, men aged 15–24 and 25–34 were least likely to believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family (64.3 per cent and 63.2 per cent, respectively), compared to men aged 35 and older. Men aged 15–24 were also least likely to believe that the man should control and preside over the house (61.7 per cent). In addition, men aged 15–24 were least likely to believe that a wife should agree with or obey her husband’s opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (20.4 per cent). Like women, in older age groups, men’s attitudes towards gender roles are more conservative and patriarchal.

FIGURE 12.4. Men’s attitudes towards gender roles, by age group (percentage who agree with the statement)

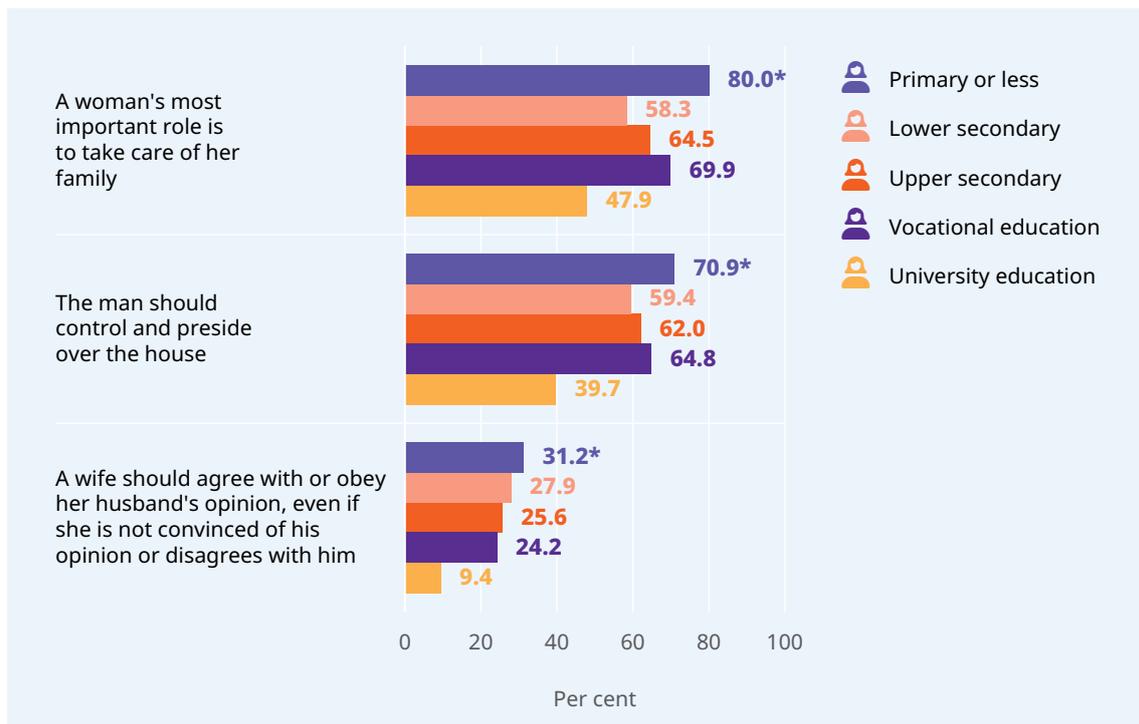


Note: See Tables B.108–B.110.

By level of education

Further analysis also revealed that women with a university education were least likely to believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family (47.9 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (39.7 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband’s opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (9.4 per cent). A notable proportion of highly educated women believe that a woman’s most important role is to take care of her family (47.9 per cent) and that the man should control and preside over the house (39.7 per cent). Women with less than a university education are most likely to hold more patriarchal attitudes towards women’s and men’s roles in the family (**Figure 12.5**).

FIGURE 12.5. Women's attitudes towards gender roles, by level of education (percentage who agree with the statement)

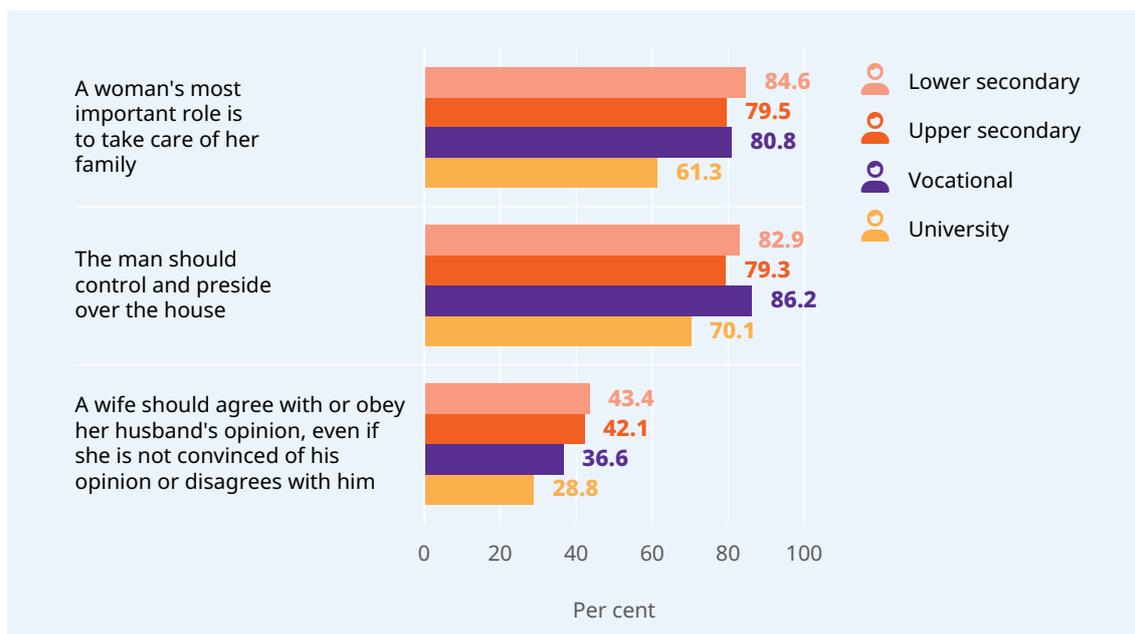


Note: See Tables B.105–B.107.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

Figure 12.6 shows that men with a university education were least likely to believe that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family (61.3 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (70.1 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (28.8 per cent).

FIGURE 12.6. Men's attitudes towards gender roles, by level of education (percentage who agree with the statement)

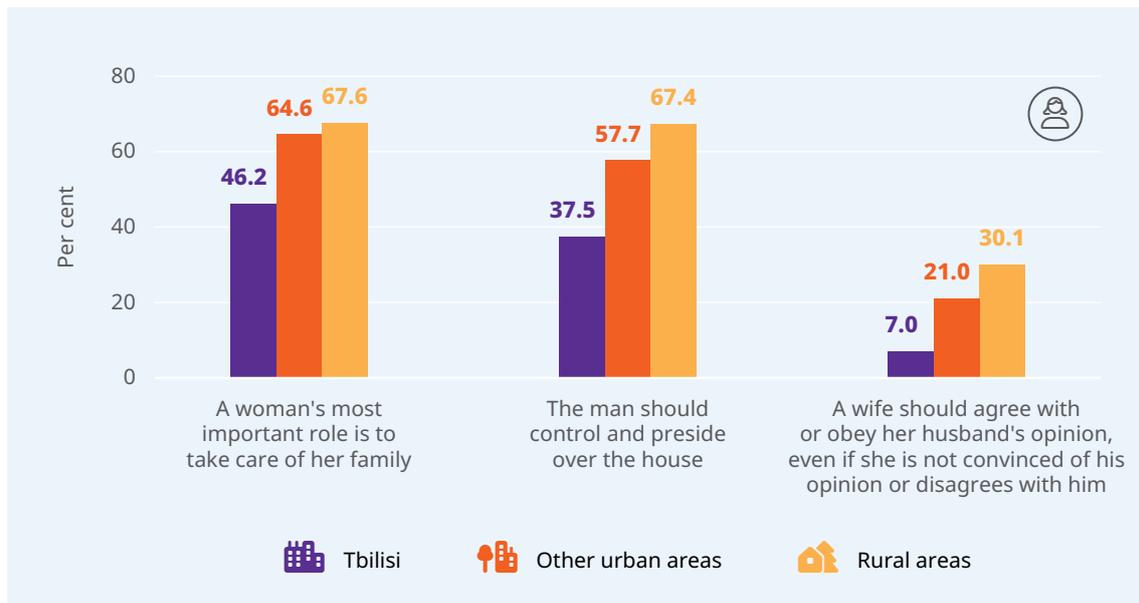


Note: See Tables B.108–B.110. The number of men with a primary education or less was too small to report in this figure.

By settlement type

Figure 12.7 shows that women living in rural areas were far more likely to believe that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family (67.6 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (67.4 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (30.1 per cent), compared to women living in Tbilisi and other urban areas. Still, however, every third woman living in Tbilisi and every second woman living in other urban areas believe that the man should control and preside over the house. It is notable that there were significant differences in attitudes among women living in Tbilisi versus other urban areas. In particular, women in Tbilisi were less likely to believe that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family (46.2 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (37.5 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (7.0 per cent), compared to women in other urban areas (64.6 per cent, 57.7 per cent and 21.0 per cent, respectively).

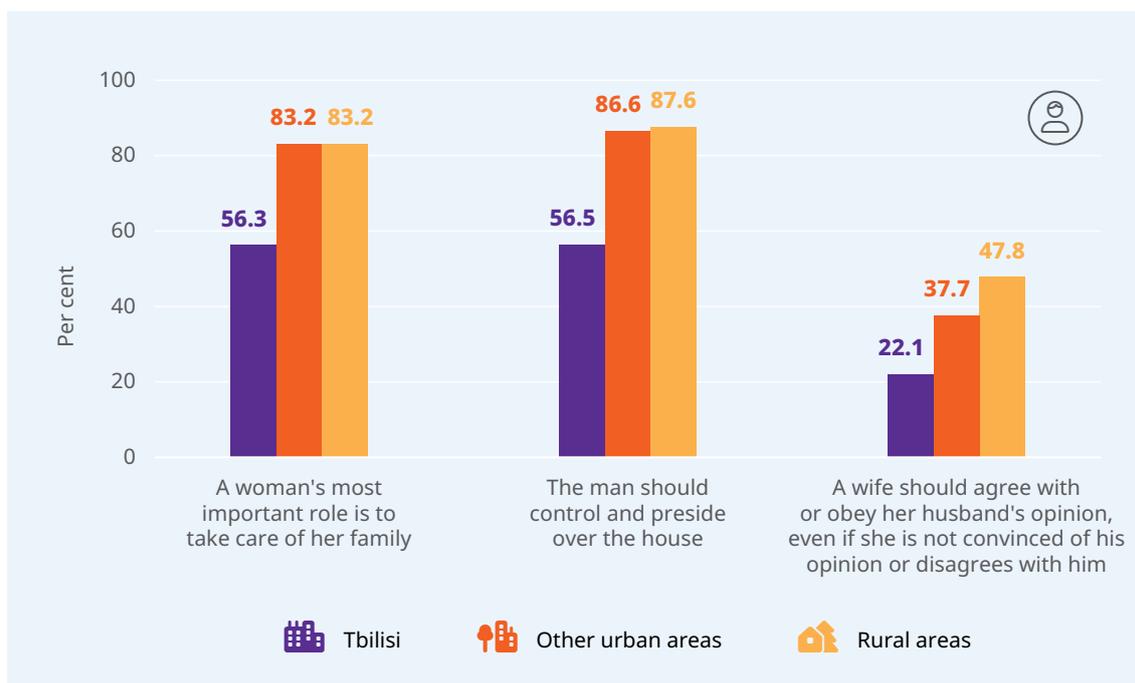
FIGURE 12.7. Women's attitudes towards gender roles, by settlement type (percentage who agree with the statement)



Note: See Tables B.105–B.107.

Figure 12.8 shows that men living in rural areas were more likely to believe that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family (83.2 per cent), that the man should control and preside over the house (87.6 per cent) and that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him (47.8 per cent), compared to men living in urban areas and Tbilisi. It is also notable that men living in Tbilisi were far less likely to hold these attitudes towards gender roles than men who reside in other urban areas.

FIGURE 12.8. Men’s attitudes towards gender roles, by settlement type (percentage who agree with the statement)



Note: See Tables B.108–B.110.

12.2.2 Results of qualitative data collection

The qualitative data revealed that women recognized the importance of gender equality but struggled to explain how and why gender equality is important and what gender equality actually looks like in Georgia. Instead, many women held conservative ideas about gender and gender roles, which they sometimes defined around religion.

In Georgian society, gender roles are still rigidly defined and reinforced; in turn, this contributes to gender inequality in society. Unsurprisingly, therefore, respondents explained that women are expected to adhere to gender roles that prioritize family and marriage, as well as caring for others over their own needs and desires. Women are also expected to be submissive and deferential to men. In other words, women are considered “*man’s second half*,” as one respondent remarked. Obedience is still considered a quality that women should possess, whereas women’s

“In Adjara, especially in the highlands of Adjara, being a woman means not being an individual. It means giving up what is truly yours—[giving up] your desires, dreams and goals. You should give priority to cooking, washing and everything related to family and household chores. Everyone and everything else is a priority over you, and your needs are always in the background.” (FGD with women, aged 18–29, urban)

independence is perceived as a characteristic that puts women’s dignity and family image at risk. Some women defined these expectations as a so-called ‘life script’ for women; the main components of the life script are that it is necessary for girls to complete school and that—although entering university is desirable and working is good—getting married and having children is mandatory.

In contrast to women, men are expected to be strong, aggressive and dominant—and to be the breadwinner and leader in the family. FGD participants agreed that there are high expectations placed upon Georgian men to maintain their power and to fulfil their responsibilities as men. In rural areas, some respondents linked being a true man to *“Georgianity and Christianity.”* Societal norms related to gender put a great deal of pressure on men to conform to rigid gender role expectations, as revealed in phrases such as *“a man should keep his place”* and *“a man should act manly.”* When a Georgian man does not abide by these gender roles, societal reactions can be strong and forceful, and they can include ridicule, bullying and exclusion from the community. As one woman explained: *“A man who does not keep his word? For me, this person does not exist anymore”* (FGD with women, aged 30 and above, rural).

Some respondents felt that men’s ability to fulfil societal expectations related to gender has become more difficult in recent years, given the increase in gender equality and women’s advancements in society. These respondents perceived today’s Georgian women as less dependent and more competitive with men, compared to the women of the past. Given this recognition, some women in rural areas felt that if a man cannot fulfil his expectations related to gender, as defined by society, it is a woman’s obligation to help him be ‘manly’. As one woman explained, *“If a man does not meet [expectations], a woman must play a big part in changing the man and creating an atmosphere so that this man can feel and understand what a true man should be”* (FGD with women, aged 30 and above, rural).

Marriage and motherhood were central to the discussions on gender role expectations for Georgian women, yet this was not the case for men. Marriage for men was considered important but only when a man reaches a certain level of personal development and financial independence, whereas for women, personal development and independence were not a prerequisite to getting married. More often than not, the primary reason why women get an education is so that they can educate their children; but for some women, getting married is a good solution or alternative if they are unable to pursue a higher education.

In Georgian society, especially in rural areas, women’s worth is still measured in relation to their family, including taking care of family and having respect for family. Women are also considered responsible for the image and reputation of the family; this was framed as ‘the power of women’ in the qualitative data. For instance, during one FGD with rural women, the participants discussed that even if a man lies to or betrays a woman, she should be clever and strong enough not to *“break down and [that she should] keep the family [together] until the end.”*

Ultimately, strict traditional gender roles lead to unequal gender relations in the family, including in decision-making. The qualitative data revealed women’s belief that since men are the head of the family, final decisions should be made by men—but in consultation with their wife. Yet the home is typically considered women’s domain; thus, unpaid domestic and care work is women’s responsibility

“Many people believe that if [a girl] fails her university entrance exams, it is okay, because she will get married and her husband will take care of her. You have to enter university; otherwise, you feel pressure from society [to get married].” (FGD with women, aged 18–29, rural)

“It is crucial for a woman to be diplomatic. She should know when to speak, when to whisper and what to share or not share. She should know when it is worth doing the impossible and when to take the heaviest physical burden. First, a woman should be [devoted to] family. If she is good in her family, she will also be good for society.” (FGD with women, aged 30 and above, rural)

and remains largely invisible. However, when a man participates in domestic and care work, it quickly becomes visible and respected. For instance, during the COVID-19 pandemic, some men became more engaged in some household chores and care work because they spent more time at home.¹³

“My husband and I have been married for 20 years; we have two children. Even today, I put away their slippers, socks and sweaters every day. They only help me when they are in the mood. I mostly do all the household chores alone.” (FGD with women, aged 30 and above, Tbilisi)

“Why does society think that men doing household chores is them doing women a favour? Me, as a woman, I wash dishes and clean the house every day. Do I do this as a favour to my husband? No! This should not be considered as a favour; this should be considered as everyday chores for both the woman and the man.” (FGD with women, aged 18–29, rural)

12.3 Women’s and men’s perceptions of social norms related to intimate partner violence against women

A large proportion of both women and men in Georgia believe that there are community-level social norms that are supportive of spousal violence and blame women for their own victimization. Specifically, **Figure 12.9** shows that 61.8 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all of the people in their city/village believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (23.8 per cent reported all or most people and 38.0 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 57.5 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should tolerate some degree of violence to keep her family together (19.2 per cent reported all or most people and 38.3 per cent reported about half of the people).

It is also notable that 44.3 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should be embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her (12.5 per cent reported all or most people and 31.8 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 46.2 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that when a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (11.6 per cent reported all or most people and 34.6 per cent reported about half of the people).

FIGURE 12.9. Women’s perceptions of social norms related to spousal violence against women (percentage)

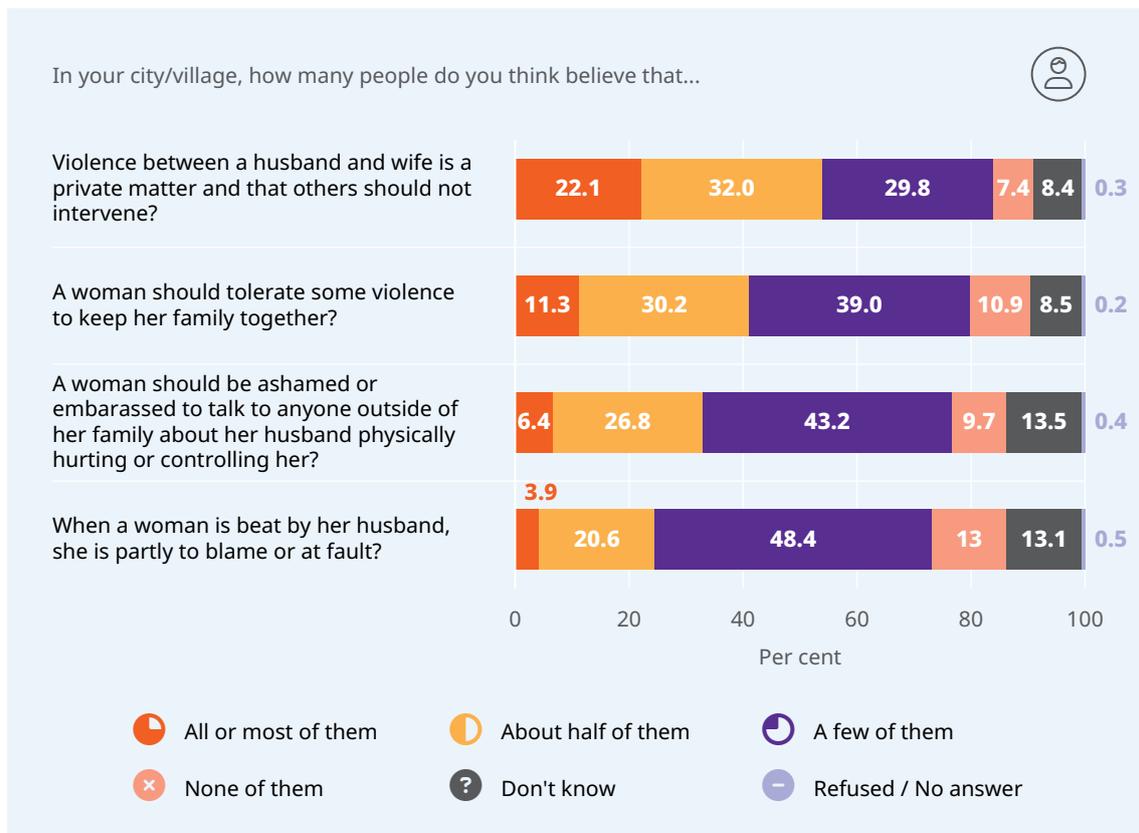


Note: See Table B.111.

Like women, a large proportion of men believe that there are community-level social norms that are supportive of spousal violence and blame women for their own victimization. **Figure 12.10** shows that 54.1 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (22.1 per cent reported all or most people and 32.0 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 41.5 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (11.3 per cent reported all or most people and 30.2 per cent reported about half of the people).

It is also notable that 33.2 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should be embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her (6.4 per cent reported all or most people and 26.8 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 24.5 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that when a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (3.9 per cent reported all or most people and 20.6 per cent reported about half of the people).

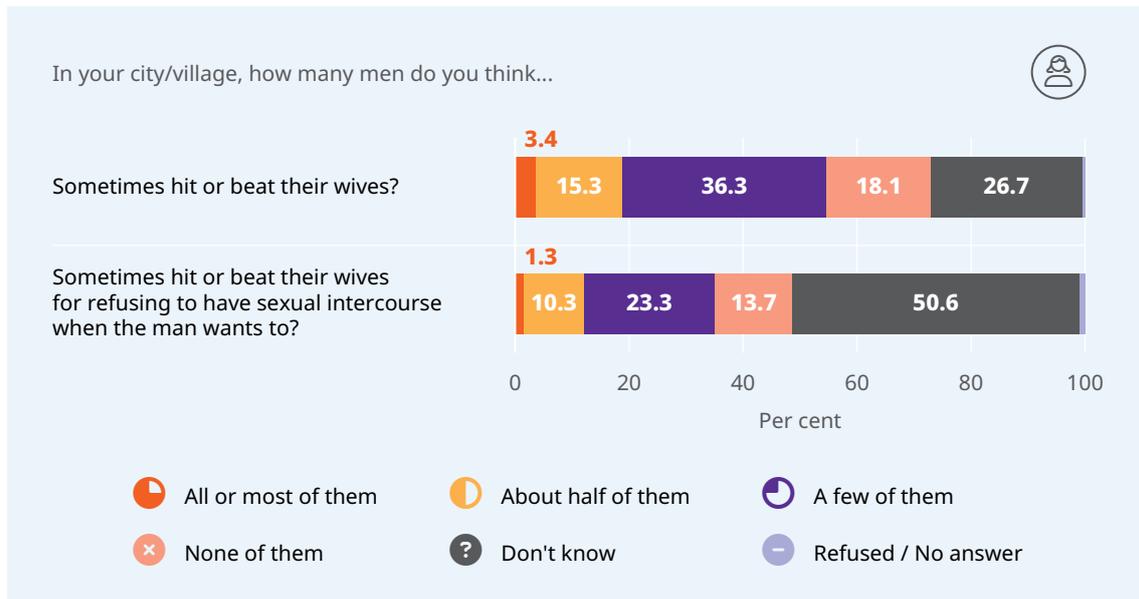
FIGURE 12.10. Men’s perceptions of social norms related to spousal violence against women (percentage)



Note: See Table B.112.

Figure 12.11 shows that 18.7 per cent of women believed that half or most/all men in their city/village sometimes hit or beat their wives (3.4 per cent reported all or most men and 15.3 per cent reported about half of them), whereas 18.1 per cent believed that no men in their city/village do this and 26.7 per cent did not know. In addition, 11.6 per cent of women believed that half or most/all men in their city/village sometimes hit or beat their wives for refusing to have sexual intercourse when the man wants to (1.3 per cent reported all or most men and 10.3 per cent reported about half of them), whereas 13.7 per cent believed that no men in their city/village do this and 50.6 per cent did not know. It is notable that as many as 50.6 per cent of women did not know how many men hit or beat their wives for refusing to have sexual intercourse when the man wants to.

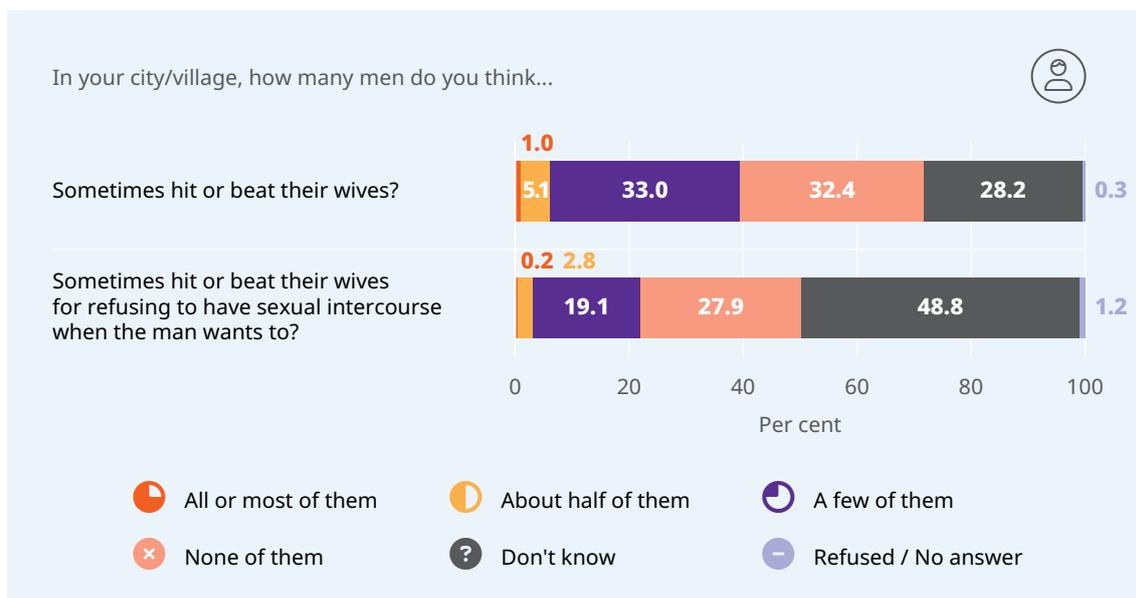
FIGURE 12.11. Women's perceptions of the proportion of men who commit acts of spousal violence against women (percentage)



Note: See Table B.113.

Figure 12.12 shows that only 6.1 per cent of men believed that half or most/all men in their city/village sometimes hit or beat their wives (1.0 per cent reported all or most men and 5.1 per cent reported about half of them), whereas 32.4 per cent of men believed that no men in their city/village hit or beat their wives and 28.2 per cent did not know. In addition, only 3.0 per cent of men believe that half or most/all men in their city/village sometimes hit or beat their wives for refusing to have sexual intercourse when the man wants to (0.2 per cent reported all or most men and 2.8 per cent reported about half of them), whereas 27.9 per cent of men believed that no men in their city/village did this and 48.8 per cent did not know. It is interesting that fewer men than women think that the men in their city/village hit or beat their wives.

FIGURE 12.12. Men’s perceptions of the proportion of men who commit acts of spousal violence against women (percentage)

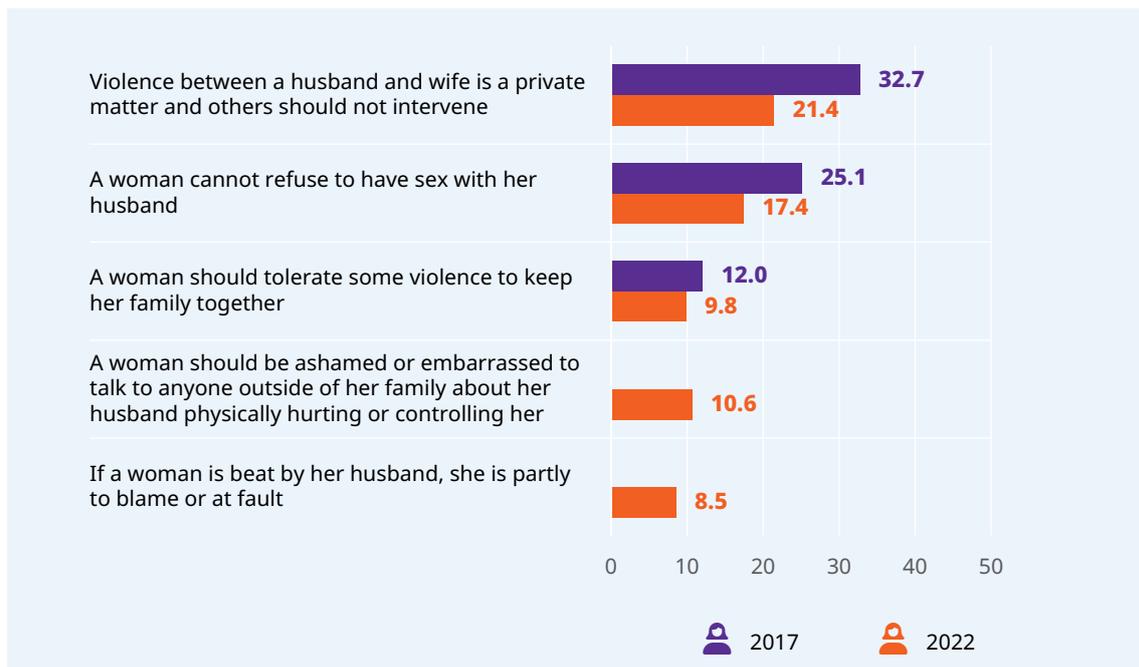


Note: See Table B.114.

12.4 Women’s and men’s attitudes that are supportive of intimate partner violence against women

Despite women’s perceptions that there are social norms supportive of spousal violence against women in their city/village, women were less inclined to hold personal attitudes that are supportive of such violence. In fact, 21.4 per cent of women believed that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (down from 32.7 per cent in 2017), and 17.4 per cent believed that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (down from 25.1 per cent in 2017). In addition, only 10.6 per cent of women believed that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her, 9.8 per cent of women believed that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (down from 12.0 per cent in 2017), and 8.5 per cent believed that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (**Figure 12.13**). Not all five questions were asked in the 2017 National VAW Survey.

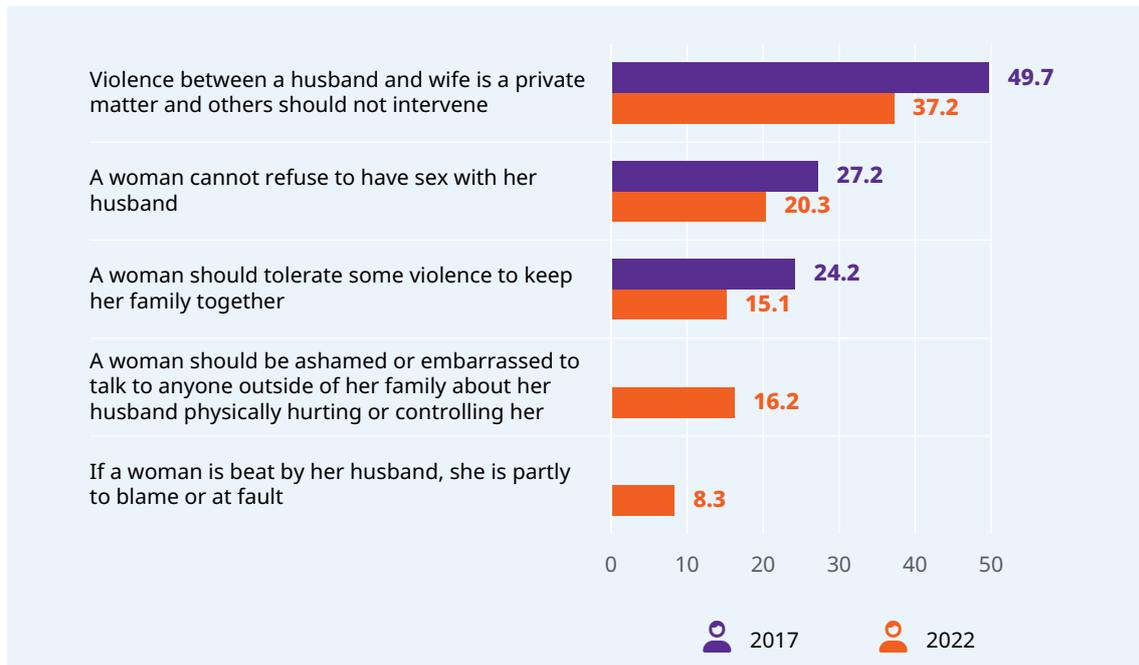
FIGURE 12.13. Women’s support of spousal violence against women, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.115.

Despite men’s perceptions of social norms related to spousal violence against women in their city/village, more than one out of three men (37.2 per cent) held the view that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (down from 49.7 per cent in 2017). In addition, 20.3 per cent of men held the view that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (down from 27.2 per cent in 2017). At the same time, only 16.2 per cent of men believed that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of their family about their husband physically hurting or controlling them, 15.1 per cent of men thought that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (down from 24.2 per cent in 2017), and 8.3 per cent thought that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (**Figure 12.14**). Not all five questions were asked in the 2017 National VAW Survey.

FIGURE 12.14. Men’s support of spousal violence against women, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.116.

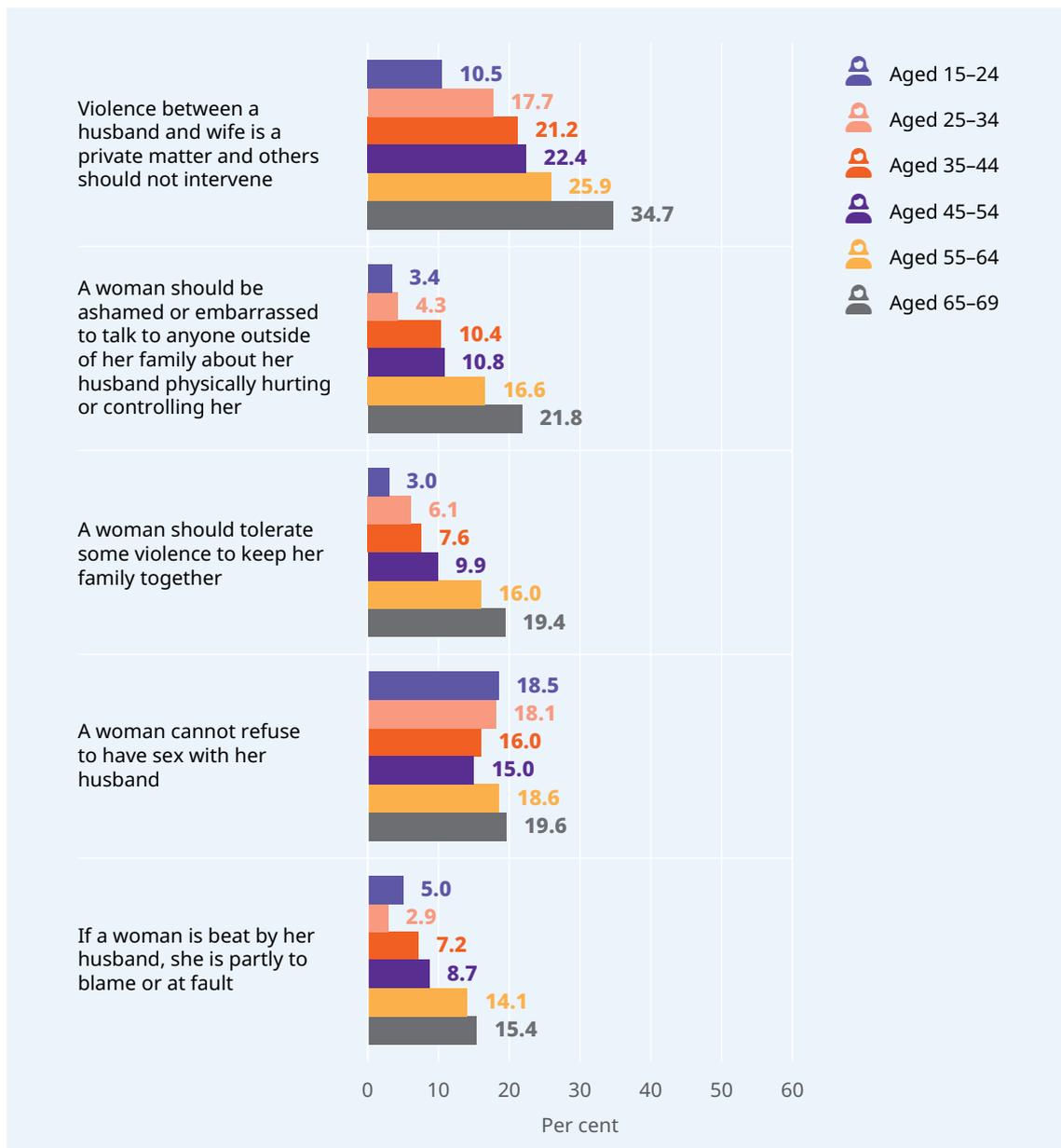
12.4.1 Differences in women’s and men’s attitudes supportive of IPV against women

By age

Figure 12.15 shows that women aged 15–24 were least likely to believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (10.5 per cent), that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her (3.4 per cent) and that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (3.0 per cent). Women in older age groups are more likely to hold attitudes that are supportive of spousal violence against women.

In addition, the figure shows that women aged 55–64 and 65–69 were more likely to believe that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (18.6 per cent and 19.6 per cent, respectively). Women aged 15–24 and 25–34 were least likely to believe that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (5.0 per cent and 2.9 per cent, respectively). Women in older age groups are more likely to believe that a woman is partly to blame or at fault if she is beat by her husband.

FIGURE 12.15. Women’s support of spousal violence against women, by age group (percentage)

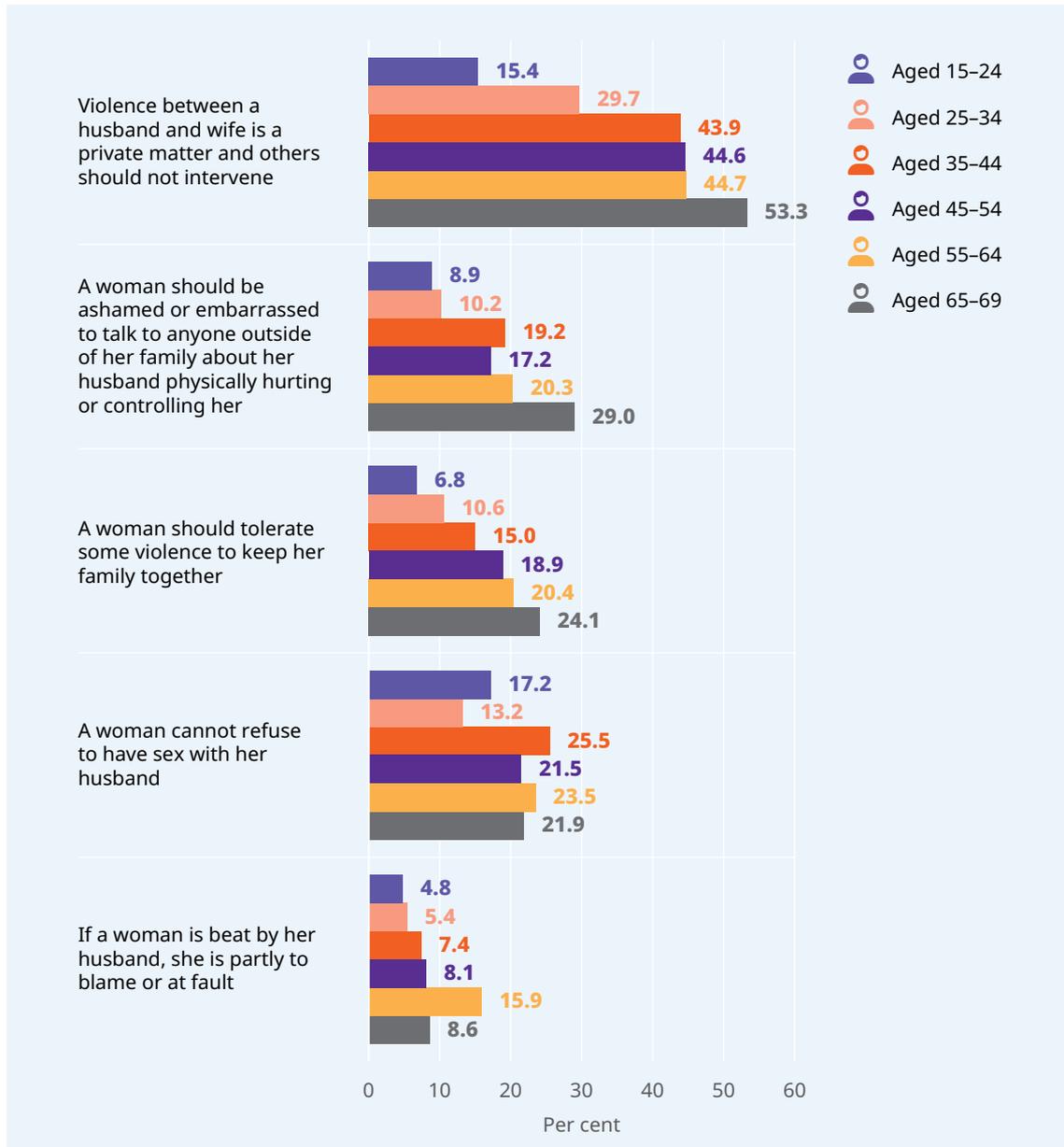


Note: See Tables B.117–B.121.

Figure 12.16 shows that men aged 15–24 and 25–34 were least likely to hold attitudes supportive of IPV, compared to men over the age of 35. In fact, only 15.4 per cent of men aged 15–24 believed that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene. However, men aged 35 and older were about three times more likely than men aged 15–24 to believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene. In addition, only 8.9 per cent of men aged 15–24 believed that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her, whereas men aged 35 and older were about twice as likely to hold this attitude. Finally, only 6.8 per cent of men aged 15–24 believed that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together, whereas men aged 35–44 were about twice as likely to hold this attitude (15.0 per cent), and men aged 45 and older were about three times more likely to hold this view.

In addition, the figure shows that men aged 15–24 and 25–34 were least likely to believe that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (17.2 per cent and 13.2 per cent, respectively). Men aged 55–64 are most likely to believe that a woman is partly to blame or at fault if she is beat by her husband.

FIGURE 12.16. Men’s support of spousal violence against women, by age group (percentage)



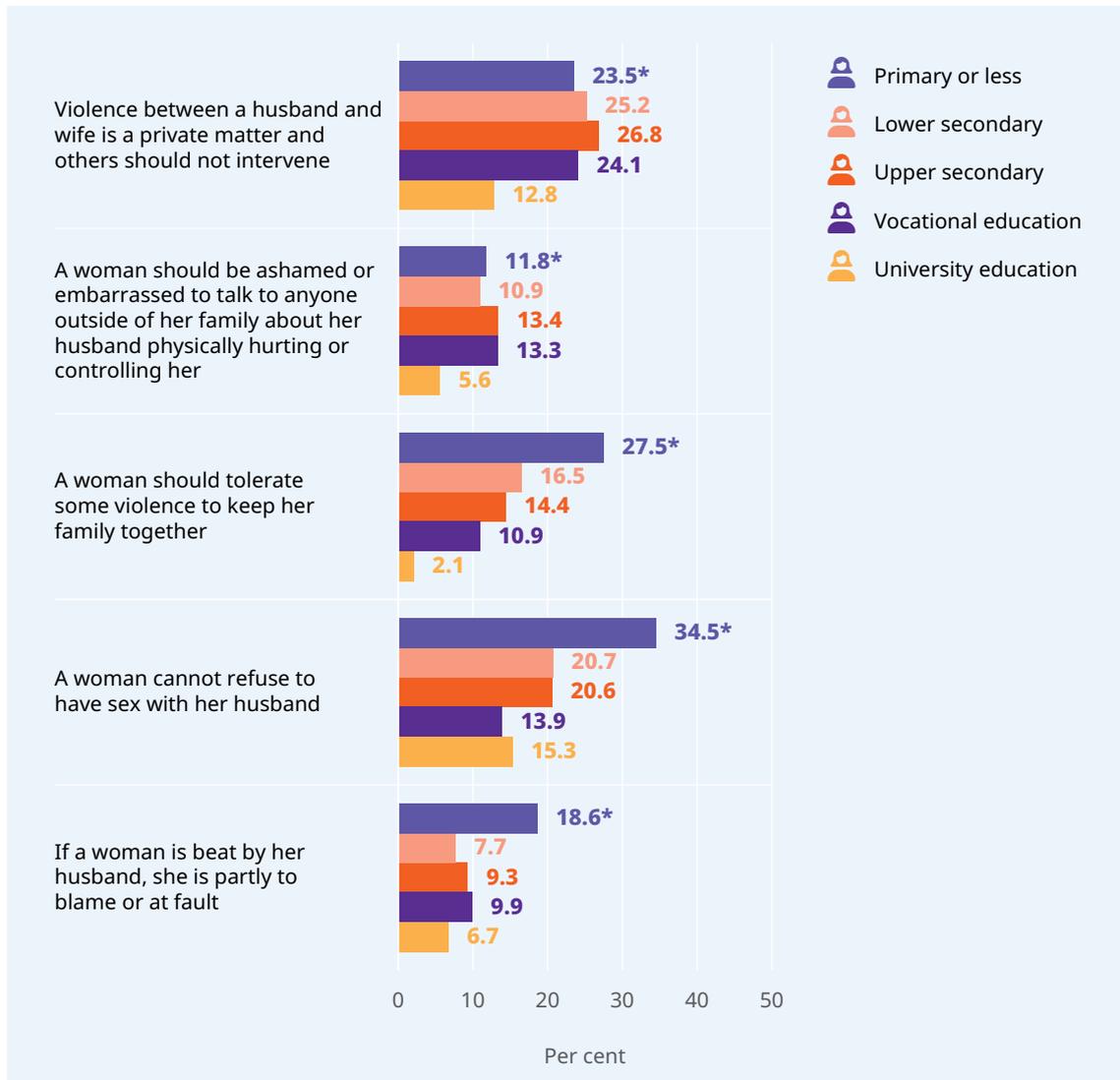
Note: See Tables B.122–B.126.

By level of education

Further analysis revealed that women with a university education were least likely to believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (12.8 per cent), that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her (5.6 per cent) and that a woman should tolerate

some violence to keep her family together (2.1 per cent). In comparison, women with a secondary education or less were most likely to believe that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together and that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (**Figure 12.17**).

FIGURE 12.17. Women's support of spousal violence against women, by level of education (percentage)

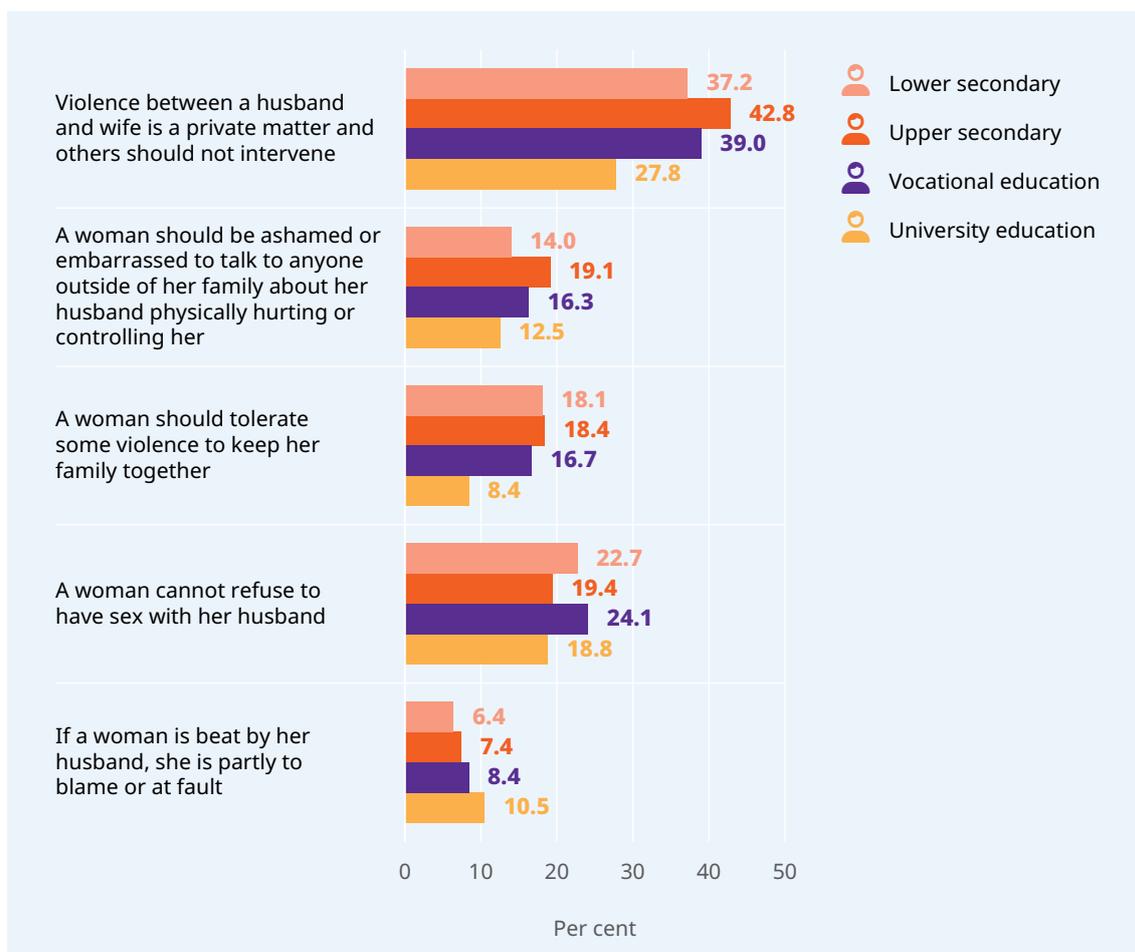


Note: See Tables B.117–B.121.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

In addition, the data revealed that men's level of education made little difference in their belief that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband. However, the greater a man's level of education, the more likely he is to believe that a woman is partly to blame or at fault if she is beat by her husband. Moreover, men with a university education are least likely to agree that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and others should not intervene and that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (**Figure 12.18**).

FIGURE 12.18. Men’s support of spousal violence against women, by level of education (percentage)



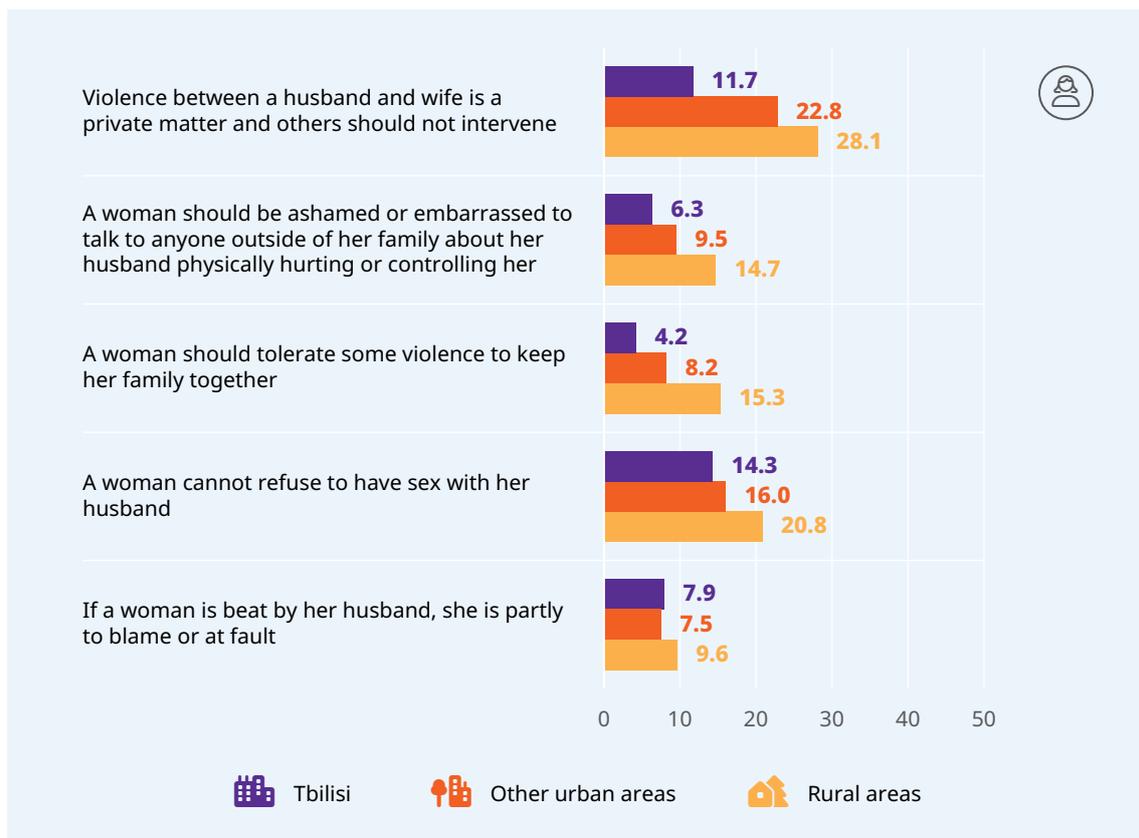
Note: See Tables B.122–B.126. The number of men with a primary education or less was too small to report in this figure.

By settlement type

Figure 12.19 shows that women living in rural areas are more likely to believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (28.1 per cent), that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her (14.7 per cent) and that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (15.3 per cent), compared to women living in Tbilisi (11.7 per cent, 6.3 per cent and 4.2 per cent, respectively) and other urban areas (22.8 per cent, 9.5 per cent and 8.2 per cent, respectively).

The figure also shows that women living in rural areas were more likely to believe that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (20.8 per cent) and that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault (9.6 per cent), compared to women living in Tbilisi (14.3 per cent and 7.9 per cent, respectively) and other urban areas (16.0 per cent and 7.5 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 12.19. Women’s support of spousal violence against women, by settlement type (percentage)

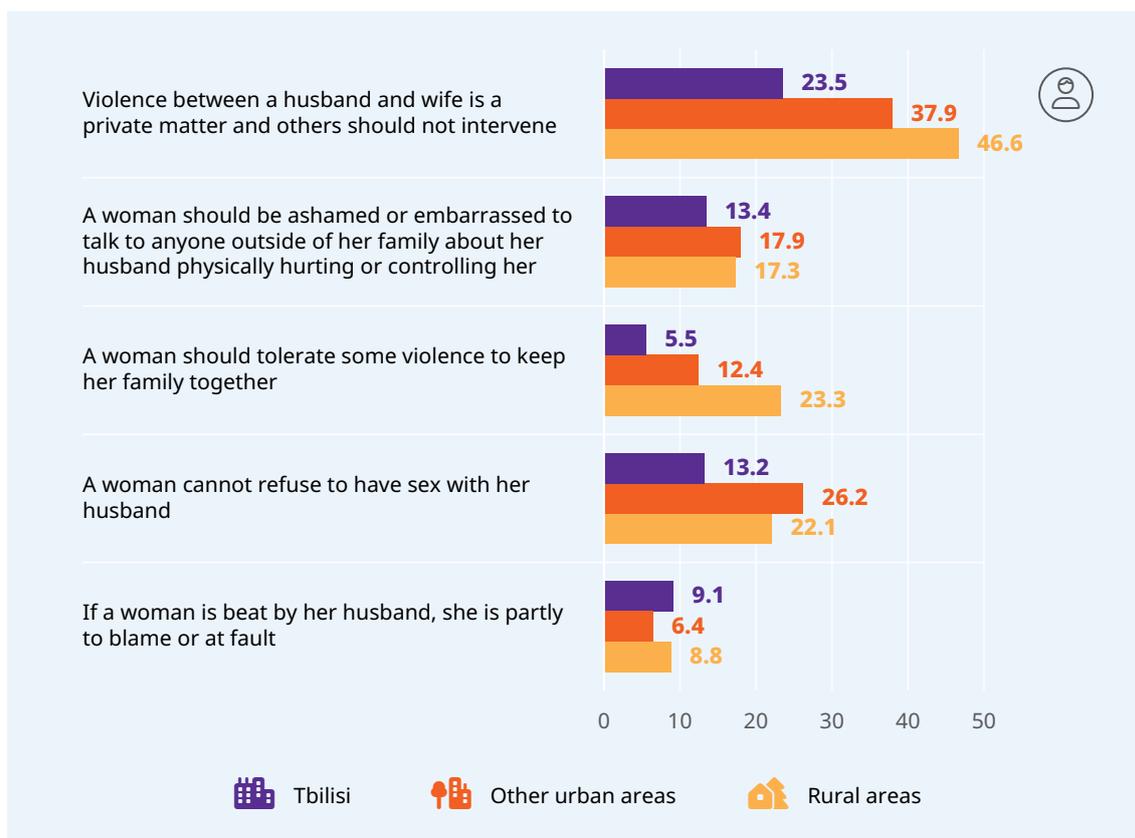


Note: See Tables B.117–B.121.

Figure 12.20 reveals that, like women, men’s attitudes towards IPV differ by settlement type. Namely, men in rural areas were more likely to believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene (46.6 per cent), compared to men in Tbilisi (23.5 per cent) and in other urban areas (37.9 per cent). In addition, men in rural areas were more likely to believe that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together (23.3 per cent) than men in Tbilisi (5.5 per cent) and in other urban areas (12.4 per cent).

The data also reveal that men living in Tbilisi were less likely to believe that a woman cannot refuse to have sex with her husband (13.2 per cent) than men in other urban areas (26.2 per cent) and in rural areas (22.1 per cent). However, men in urban areas other than Tbilisi were least likely to believe that a woman is partly to blame or at fault if she is beat by her husband (6.4 per cent), compared to men living in Tbilisi (9.1 per cent) or in rural areas (8.8 per cent).

FIGURE 12.20. Men’s support of spousal violence against women, by settlement type (percentage)



Note: See Tables B.122–B.126.

12.4.2 Justifiable reasons for wife abuse

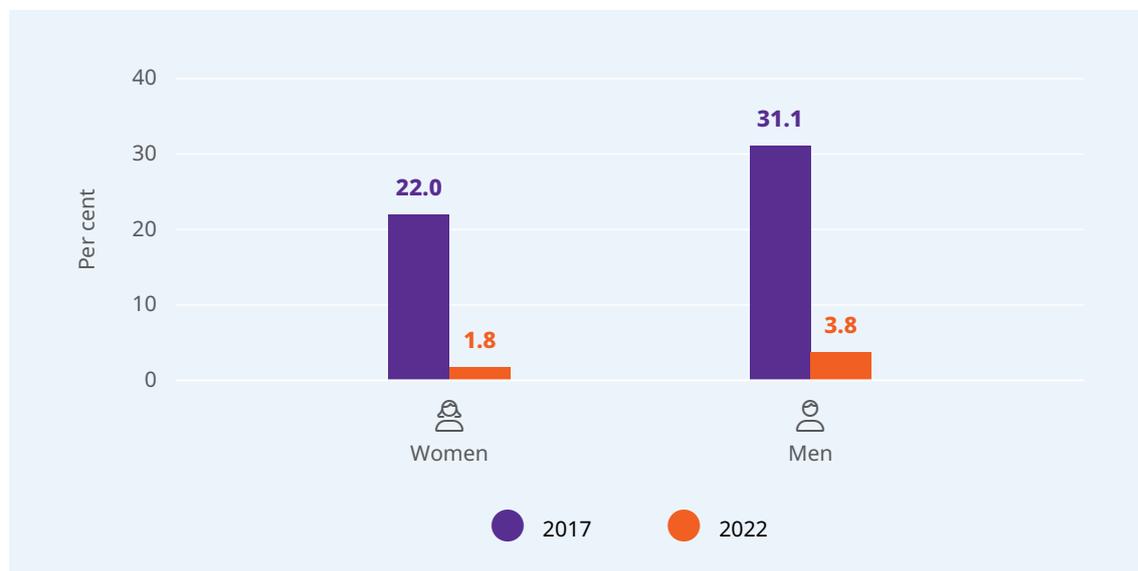
In many societies, it is believed that there are ‘justifiable reasons’ for intimate partner domestic violence, particularly when women do not live up to the expectations of their gender roles (e.g. when a wife burns the food, neglects the children, argues with her husband, goes out without telling him or refuses to have sex with him). In these supposedly justifiable circumstances, women are blamed for their own victimization, making it difficult for them to speak out and seek help to receive protection from their abusive husbands/partners. Cross-cultural research reveals that in many societies, both men and women, young and old, subscribe to cultural attitudes and social norms that justify wife-beating.¹⁴ In Georgia, however, only 1.8 per cent of women believed that there are justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife (see Table B.127).

In comparison, the 2017 National VAW Survey found that 22 per cent of women agreed that a husband has the right to beat his wife under at least one of the listed justifications, such as if she goes out without telling him, neglects the children, argues with him or disobeys him, refuses to have sex with him or burns the food, or if he finds out she has been unfaithful.¹⁵ In 2017, women most commonly agreed that wife-beating was justified if her husband finds out she has been unfaithful (20 per cent) and if she neglects the children (10 per cent).

This study found that very few men (3.8 per cent) believed that there are justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife (see Table B.128). Notably, the share of men who think that there are

justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife was much higher in 2017 (31.1 per cent). This marked change in women's and men's beliefs over time is presented in **Figure 12.21**.

FIGURE 12.21. Respondents who believe that there are justifiable reasons for a husband to hit or beat his wife, by gender, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



Note: See Tables B.127 and B.128.

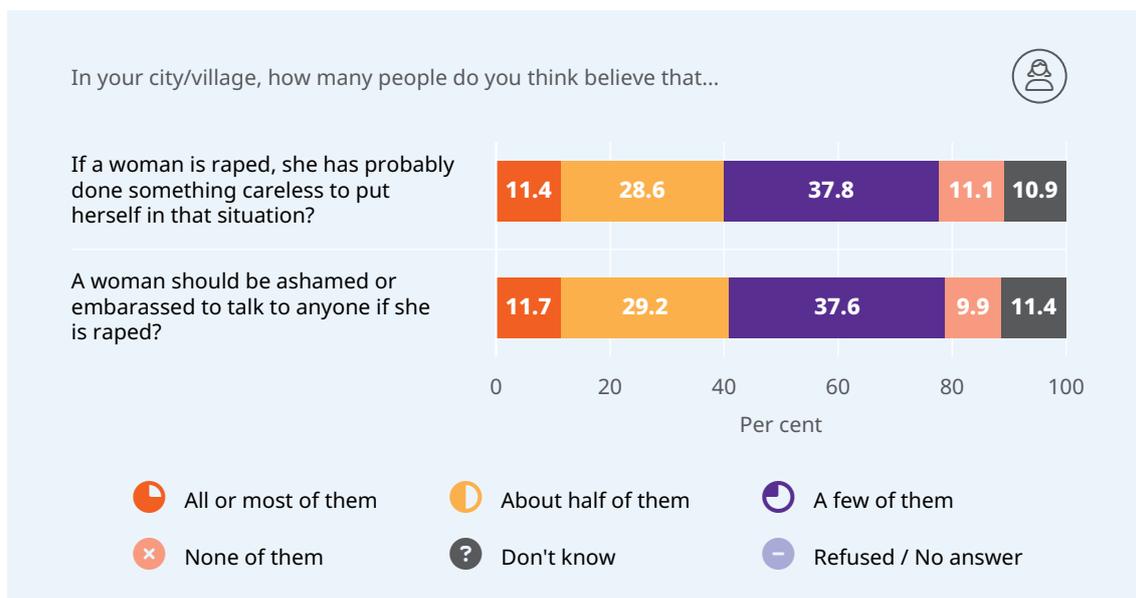
The qualitative research confirms that women are sometimes blamed for triggering violence by not compromising their needs and instead contradicting their husbands, which, in some respondents' opinion, makes some cases of violence legitimate.

"Sometimes, a woman can be the reason why violence is directed towards her. With her words and actions, she might make a man beat her. [...] If a woman does not provoke you, why would you beat her without a reason? I think that, in such situations, women are the more violent [persons]." (FGD with men, aged 18–29, rural)

12.5 Women's and men's perceptions of social norms related to sexual violence against women

A notable proportion of both women and men believe that there are community-level social norms that are supportive of sexual violence against women. Specifically, **Figure 12.22** shows that 40.0 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that if a woman is raped, she has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation (11.4 per cent reported all or most people and 28.6 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 40.9 per cent of women perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped (11.7 per cent reported all or most people and 29.2 per cent reported about half of the people).

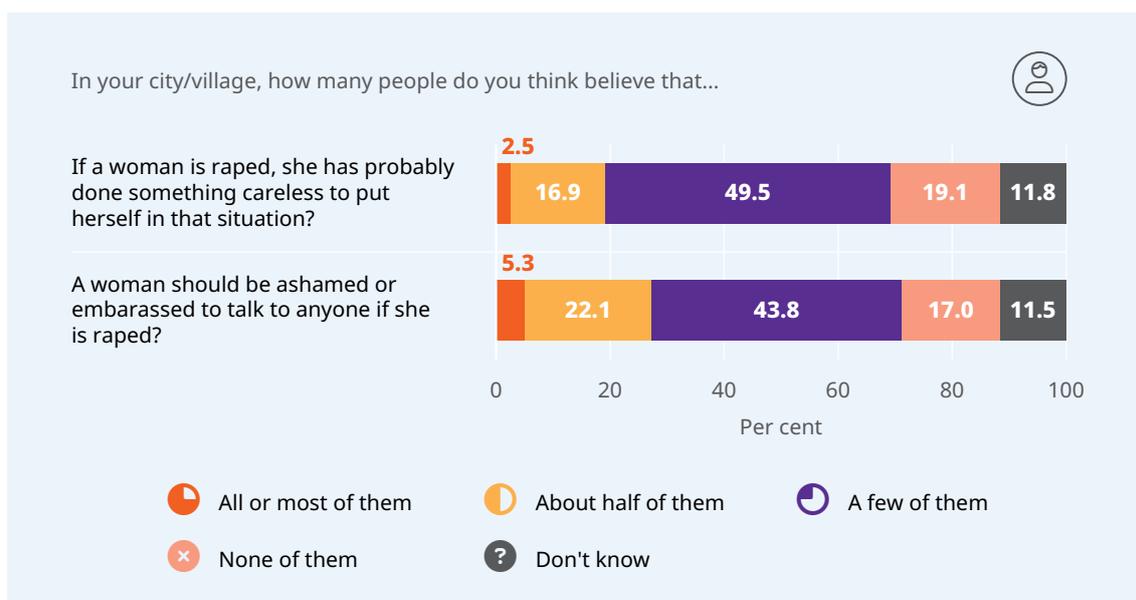
FIGURE 12.22. Women's perceptions of social norms related to sexual violence against women (percentage)



Note: See Table B.129.

As for men, **Figure 12.23** shows that 19.4 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that if a woman is raped, she has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation (2.5 per cent reported all or most people and 16.9 per cent reported about half of the people). In addition, 27.4 per cent of men perceived that half or most/all people in their city/village believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped (5.3 per cent reported all or most people and 22.1 per cent reported about half of the people).

FIGURE 12.23. Men's perceptions of social norms related to sexual violence against women (percentage)



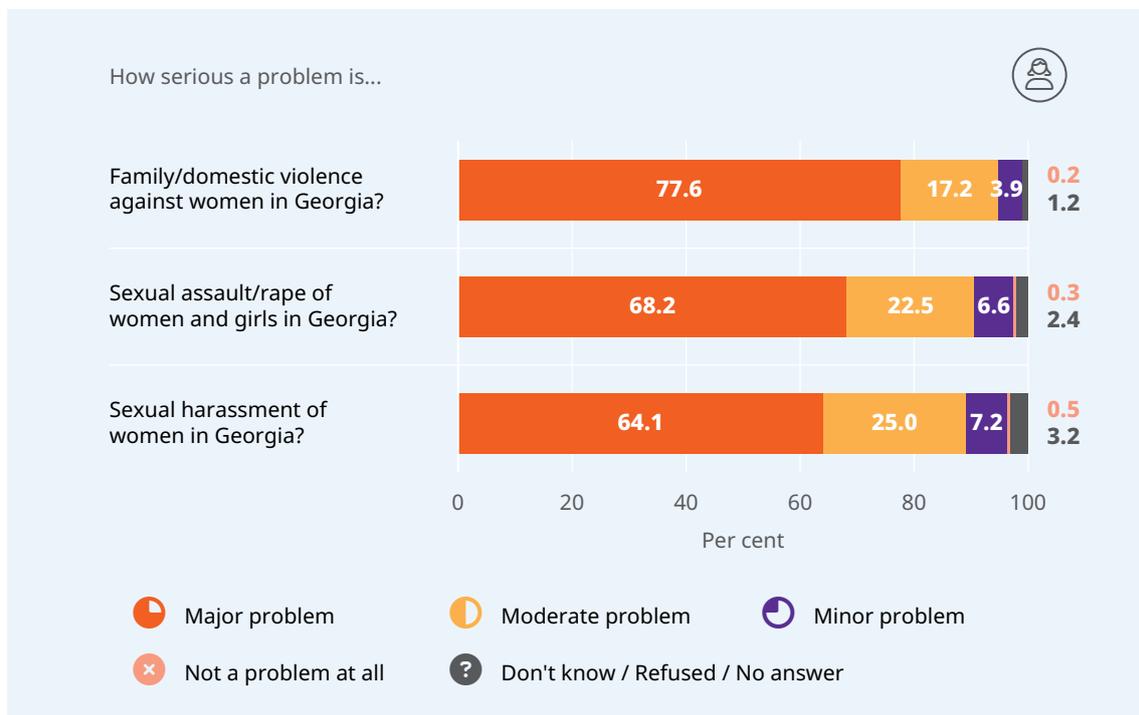
Note: See Table B.130.

The qualitative data revealed that women believed that sexual violence against women should be a crime, and they recognized that women who are survivors of sexual violence are often stigmatized and excluded from Georgian society. One respondent explained, “When a woman is sexually abused, it is equally difficult to accept her in society as [it is to accept] the person who committed the crime.” This analogy indicates that being the victim of sexual abuse brings as much shame as being the perpetrator of sexual violence. For these reasons, women and girls who experience sexual violence often experience shame, stigmatization and isolation. They are often blamed for their own victimization and are critiqued for their appearance, lifestyles and behaviours in certain situations. Being the victim of sexual violence can also negatively impact a woman’s ability to marry. One respondent explained, “She can’t be anybody’s fiancée, as she already has a bad reputation.”

12.6 Perceived seriousness of violence against women and girls

The majority of women perceived that VAWG is a major problem in Georgia. Specifically, **Figure 12.24** shows that three quarters of women (77.6 per cent) believed that family/domestic violence against women is a major problem in the country. In addition, women considered sexual assault and the rape of women and girls as well as the sexual harassment of women as major problems in the country (68.2 per cent and 64.1 per cent, respectively).

FIGURE 12.24. Women’s perceived seriousness of VAWG (percentage)

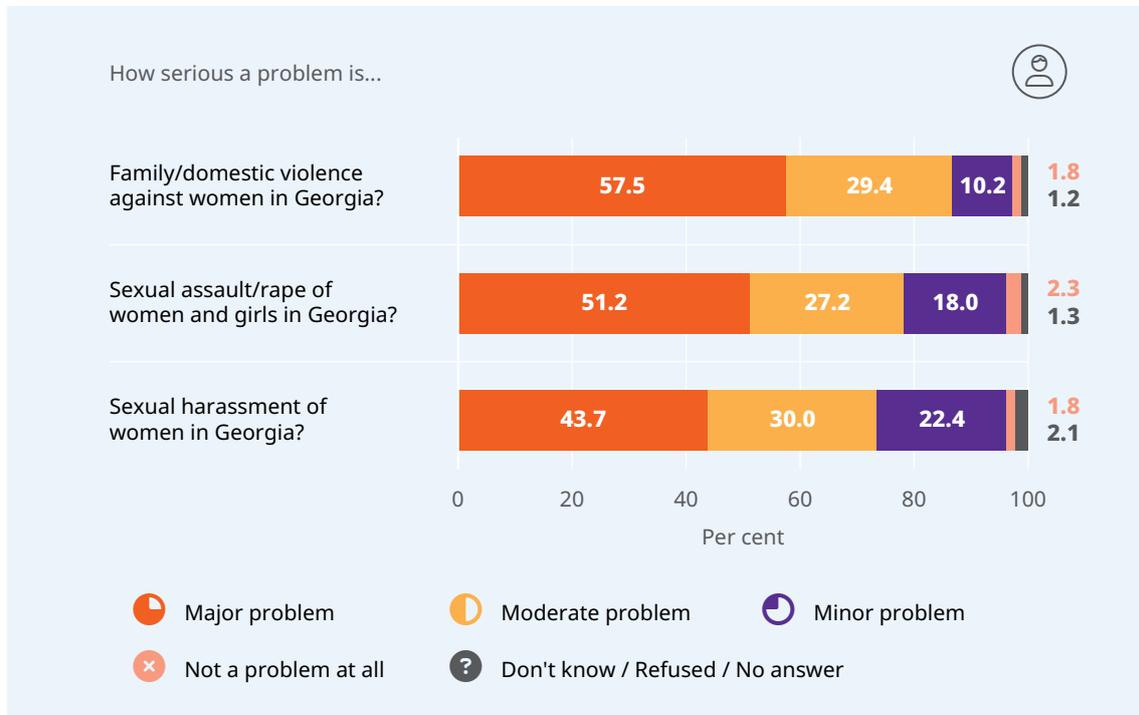


Note: See Table B.131.

A large proportion of men also perceived that VAWG is a major problem in Georgia. **Figure 12.25** shows that more than half of men (57.5 per cent) believed that family/domestic violence against women is a major problem in the country. In addition, men considered sexual assault and the rape

of women and girls as well as the sexual harassment of women as major problems in the country (51.2 per cent and 43.7 per cent, respectively). Overall, however, men were less likely than women to perceive VAWG as a major problem.

FIGURE 12.25. Men’s perceived seriousness of VAWG (percentage)



Note: See Table B.132.

The qualitative data revealed that VAW was recognized as a widespread problem, both globally and in Georgia; however, respondents were mainly unable to understand that gender inequalities contribute to VAW. Some respondents indicated that VAW is still a normalized practice in Georgia, especially in rural areas, while others identified VAW as a so-called ‘artificial problem’. In some rural areas, FGD respondents went so far as to link VAW to ‘Western liberal propaganda’, which is not tolerated in these groups, as Western liberalism is perceived to be in opposition to the Georgian Orthodox Church.

“I cannot distinguish violence against women from violence against men. The mere fact that we have heard more often about violence against women doesn’t mean that we should make such a distinction. For me, it is violence against a human, and it should be condemned in general.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, Tbilisi)

“Since the beginning of time, there has been a cult of women in Georgia; women have been respected. This problem [of violence against women] is artificially invented by the Western liberal press to disparage our Church and our traditions. They are propagating that we are an underdeveloped nation.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, rural)

Compared to men, women seemed to be more sensitive to and understanding of the problem of VAW. When discussing places where VAW occurs, women recognized that VAW can happen in any space but identified the home—“where the door is closed”—as a common place where VAW occurs, because men perceive the home as their space to control. Women also identified the workplace and public transport as spaces where women are at higher risk of experiencing violence and harassment.

Women also emphasized the harm of psychological violence, even over other forms of violence. One woman explained, “Nobody can tell you to tolerate beatings, but they will tell you to tolerate psychological abuse.” Women were also aware of other forms of violence, such as economic abuse, whereas men were less inclined to discuss psychological and economic violence.

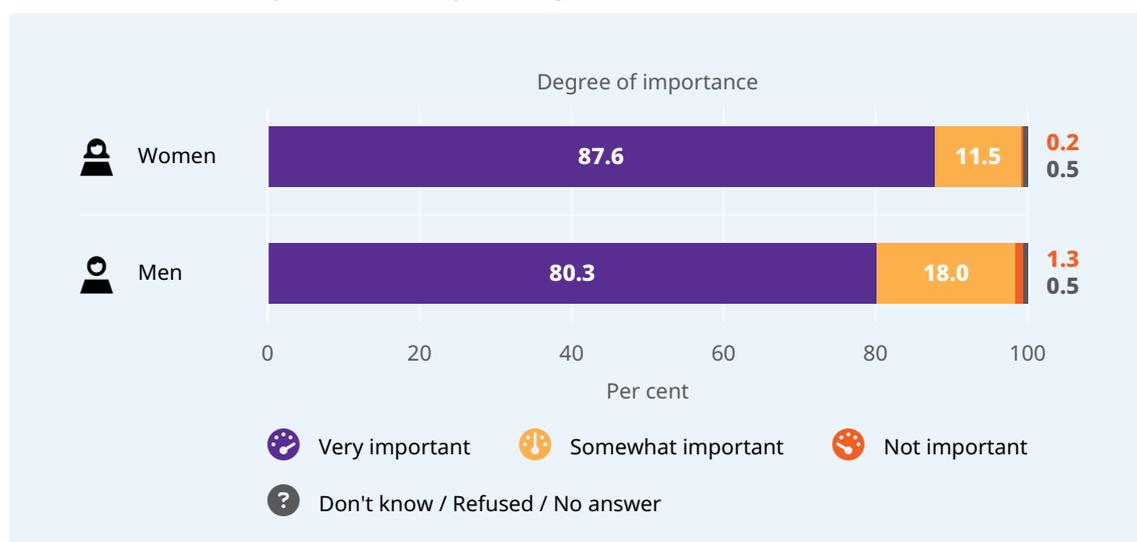
During the FGDs, women mentioned sexual harassment as one of the most widespread problems in Georgian society. Women shared personal stories of sexual harassment, even reporting wearing specific types of clothing to avoid experiencing sexual harassment in public spaces. In contrast, the qualitative data revealed that men did not perceive the sexual harassment or stalking of women to be a form of abuse.

“Let’s say a man stares at a woman and the woman takes measures, such as calls the police. In my opinion, it should not be considered as violence. It is an undignified behaviour but not violence. [...] Staring cannot be [a form of] violence, [and] threatening cannot be [a form of] violence unless it is followed by imminent danger.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, Tbilisi)

12.7 Importance of laws related to violence against women

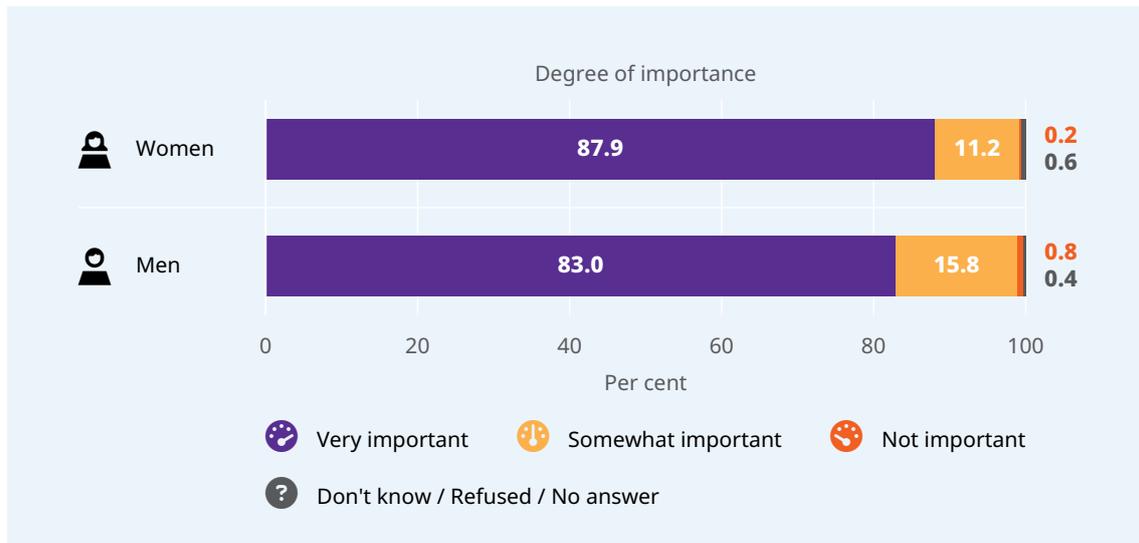
As **Figure 12.26** and **Figure 12.27** show, the majority of women believe that it is very important that Georgia has laws that protect women and girls from violence in their marriage and families (87.6 per cent) and from sexual assault and rape (87.9 per cent). In contrast, fewer men believe that it is very important that Georgia has laws that protect women and girls from violence in their marriage and families (80.3 per cent) and from sexual assault and rape (83.0 per cent).

FIGURE 12.26. Respondent’s attitudes supportive of laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from violence in their marriage and families (percentage)



Note: See Tables B.133 and B.134.

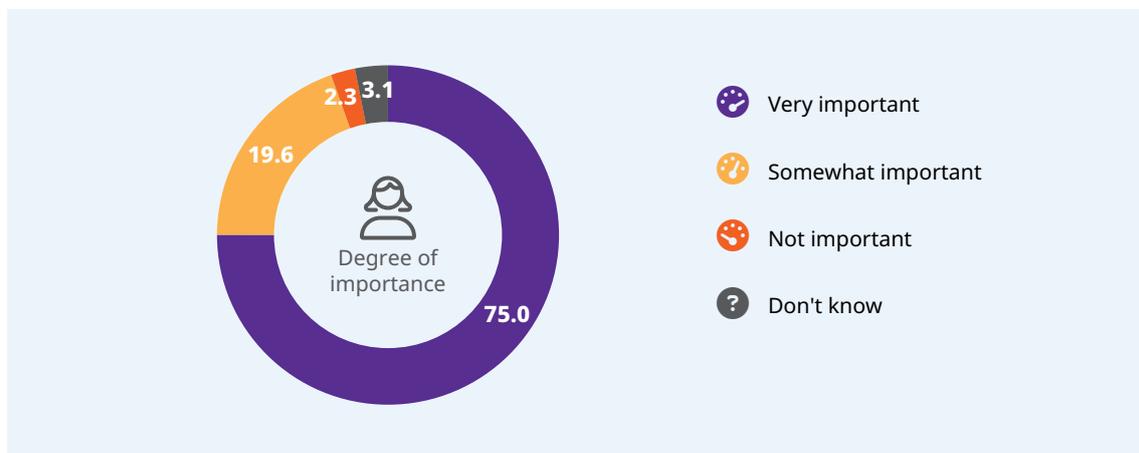
FIGURE 12.27. Respondent's attitudes supportive of laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from sexual assault and rape (percentage)



Note: See Tables B.133 and B.134.

Figure 12.28 shows that three out of four women (75.0 per cent) believe that it is very important that health workers routinely ask women who have certain injuries whether their injuries were caused by violence or abuse from a husband/partner.

FIGURE 12.28. Women's attitudes towards health workers routinely asking women who have certain injuries whether their injuries were caused by violence/abuse from a husband/partner (percentage)



Note: See Table B.133.

With respect to the protection of girls, both the Civil Code and the Criminal Code of Georgia criminalize the early or forced marriage of girls under the age of 18. The qualitative data revealed that although respondents did not support early marriage and considered it to be a negative and harmful practice, they did not consider early marriage to be a form of VAWG. The most common discussion related to early marriage focused on how early marriage contributes to a higher risk of divorce and a lack of personal and professional development for girls who marry early. At the same time, some respondents considered early marriage a solution to difficult situations, such as problems in families or girls not

being able to continue their education. Some respondents thought that early marriage might even be beneficial and could help to improve the country's demographic situation.

“I had a student in my class from a very troubled family. She didn't feel comfortable in her family because no one cared about her, and she was oppressed. After completing the ninth grade, she got married. The boy turned out to be very good; I think she got very lucky. Since then, eight or nine years have passed, and she lives happily with her husband; they have three children. I am sure she would be in big trouble if she hadn't gotten married. I think it is very personal, but when someone has such a problem in the family, in such situations, I support early marriage.” (FGD with men, aged 30 and above, urban)

12.8 Awareness of support services for women survivors of violence

Figure 12.29 shows that nearly two thirds of women (65.1 per cent) were aware that there are shelters in Georgia for women who experience violence in the home/family and rape/sexual assault (up from 61.7 per cent in 2017). Yet only 50.1 per cent of women were aware that there is a hotline ('116 006') that women who experience violence can call (down from 76.8 per cent in 2017), and only 34.4 per cent were aware that there are crisis centres where VAW survivors can access support services (down from 38.0 per cent in 2017). In addition, only 16.8 per cent of women were aware that there is a national campaign specific to Georgia to end domestic violence; this question was not asked in the 2017 National VAW Survey.

FIGURE 12.29. Women's awareness of initiatives in Georgia for VAW survivors, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.135.

Figure 12.30 shows that 41.4 per cent of men were aware that there are shelters in Georgia for women who experience violence in the home/family and rape/sexual assault (up from 31.6 per cent in 2017), and 44.7 of men were aware that there is a hotline ('116 006') that women can call if they experience violence (down from 71.0 per cent in 2017). Yet only 27.2 per cent were aware that there are crisis centres where VAWG survivors can access support services (down from 48.8 per cent in 2017), and 20.6 per cent of men were aware that there is a national campaign specific to Georgia to end domestic violence.

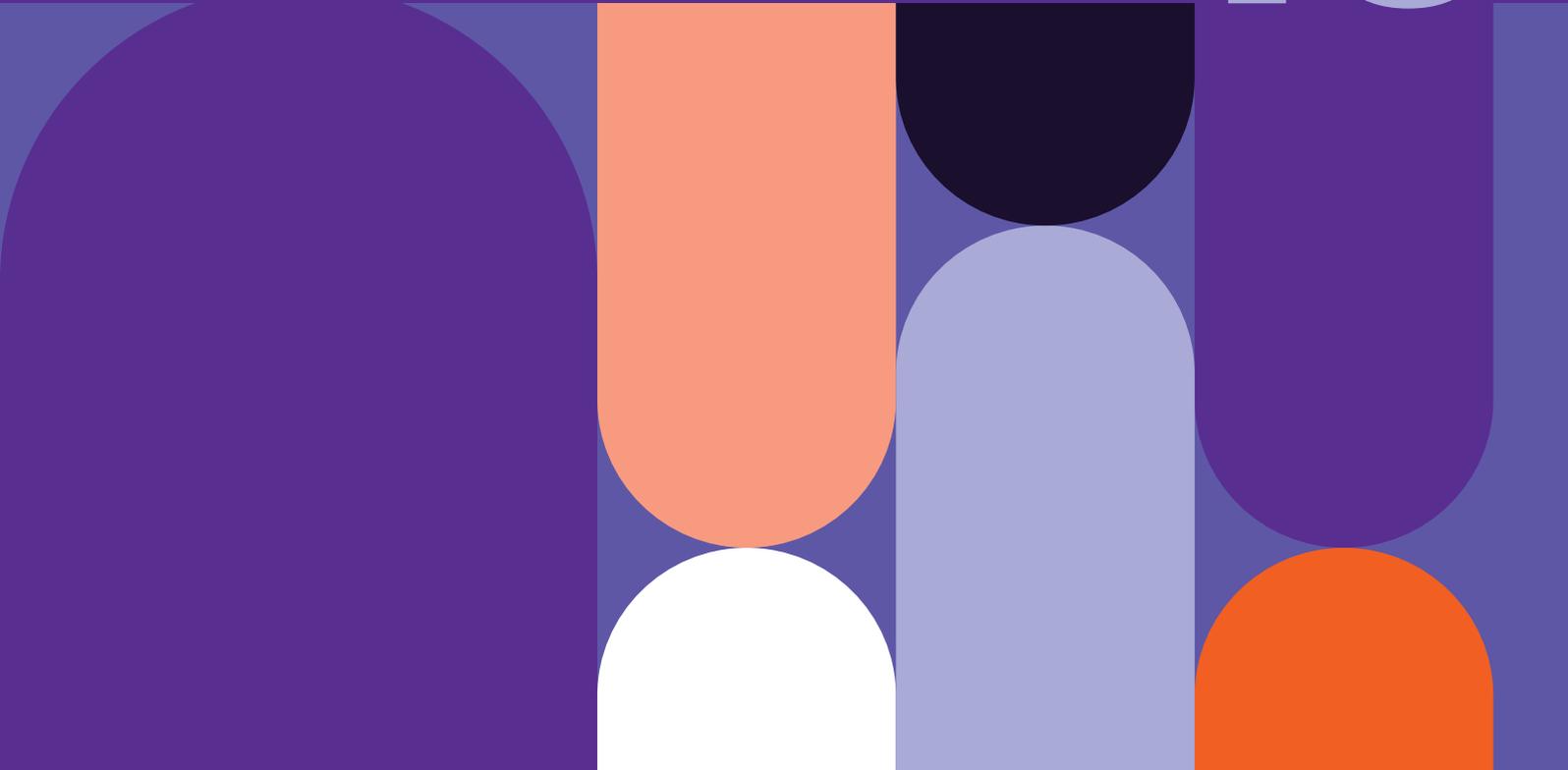
FIGURE 12.30. Men's awareness of initiatives in Georgia for VAW survivors, 2017 and 2022 (percentage)



Note: See Table B.136.

CONCLUSIONS

13

The bottom half of the page features a series of overlapping, rounded rectangular shapes. From left to right, there is a large purple shape, an orange shape, a black shape, a light purple shape, a dark purple shape, and an orange shape. These shapes are layered, creating a sense of depth and movement.

This study is the second nationwide survey on VAW in Georgia applying international standards to data collection on VAW, particularly intimate partner and non-partner violence, including sexual harassment and stalking. The use of the WHO and FRA models, and the standardized questionnaire with globally accepted indicators, allows us to not only compare these results with other countries but also periodically repeat the study in order to monitor changes over time. In this study, some notable enhancements or improvements were made to the Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey and the Men's Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire; however, these changes led to some challenges when it came to comparing the data and findings with those from the 2017 National Study on VAW in Georgia.

Together, the survey and qualitative data provide important information on women's experiences of violence across sociodemographic groups and areas, as well as allow for a more comprehensive understanding of the factors that are related to VAW and some of the issues that drive this form of victimization of women in Georgia. The study also represents a significant step in filling data gaps that have hampered efforts to combat VAW in Georgia.

This report provides evidence that VAW in Georgia is widespread, as 18.2 per cent of women experienced any type of VAW measured in the survey during the past 12 months: sexual harassment, 9.7 per cent; stalking, 1.6 per cent; non-partner sexual violence (since the age of 15), 0.0 per cent; non-partner physical violence (since the age of 15), 0.5 per cent; and IPV, 9.3 per cent. If we analyse the prevalence of lifetime violence, we can see that the figures are much higher: 50.1 per cent of women experienced one or more of the seven types of VAW measured in the survey. More specifically, 8.5 per cent of women experienced child sexual abuse before the age of 18; 19.7 per cent experienced child physical and/or emotional abuse before the age of 18; 24.5 per cent of women experienced sexual harassment; 8.5 per cent experienced stalking; 1.5 per cent experienced non-partner sexual violence (since the age of 15); 6.5 per cent experienced non-partner physical violence (since the age of 15); and 22.9 per cent experienced IPV.

The data show that some groups of women are victimized by intimate partners and non-partners at a far higher rate than others, as certain sociodemographic characteristics heighten women's vulnerabilities to intimate partner and non-partner violence. At particular risk are women with lower levels of education (e.g. primary education or less), women who are married before the age of 18 and/or women living in rural areas.

Although the survey found many interesting, statistically significant relationships across sociodemographic groups and between areas, the absence of these relationships also tells a story about the universality of women's experiences of VAW. In some situations, age, education, marital/union status and area of residence (rural versus urban areas, or Tbilisi versus other urban areas) made no difference to women's experiences of VAW. Thus, women across all groups are equally vulnerable to experiencing VAW.

IPV affects women's physical and mental health, as well as that of their children. IPV also increases the likelihood that the children of battered women will face difficulties in school (e.g. concentration and academic performance) and be at greater risk of dropping out of school at an early age. The findings of this study also support international work on polyvictimization and intergenerational violence. The data show that women often experience multiple forms of violence in their lifetime, which often starts in childhood and continues into adulthood. Moreover, women exposed to violence in childhood have a higher rate of experiencing violence in adulthood, whether it is intimate partner and/or non-partner violence, than women who do not experience violence in childhood. This study also links exposure

to domestic violence in childhood to experiences of IPV in adulthood, which confirms the reality of intergenerational violence.

The majority of women who experience IPV do not seek help, although the majority tell someone about their experiences of violence. Mainly, only in severe cases do women tend to go to the police or the health system, and rarely do they use the available formal social services. When women seek help, they typically turn to their own informal social network of family, friends and neighbours. Formal criminal justice institutions, such as the police and the courts, are not seen as places from which to seek assistance.

The level of non-partner violence is low in Georgia, yet almost one in every four women in the study experienced sexual harassment. The data show that women are more likely to suffer physical violence at the hands of their intimate partners and to experience sexual harassment from non-partners. In the majority of cases, non-partner perpetrators are known to the victim.

The findings in this study also indicate that women and men show a high degree of tolerance and acceptance towards the use of VAW in relationships, and they hold inequitable views on gender and gender relations. It is notable, however, that very few women and men believe that there are justifiable reasons for hitting/beating one's wife, which is a change from the 2017 National VAW Survey. This finding may reflect a broader sociocultural change in the acceptance of spousal violence against women in the context of marriage.

Compared to international data on VAW, the rates of intimate partner and non-partner violence reported by women in Georgia are lower than the average rates across Europe. However, gender attitudes in Georgia appear to be more conservative than in other parts of Europe, which might indicate an underreporting of the prevalence of VAW. There also might be underreporting of exposure to child abuse and domestic violence in childhood, compared to the rates of child abuse and exposure to domestic violence found in other countries across Europe.

Ultimately, ending VAW in Georgia requires changing behaviours, beliefs, and the social norms and structures that reinforce gender inequalities and normalize VAW. Gender roles that maintain women's subordinate position within the household underpin the normalization of VAW. Within domestic spheres, VAW is often used by perpetrators as a tool to maintain men's power over the family unit. This highlights the importance of working with men and boys, along with women and girls, to promote gender equality. The findings in this study also highlight the need for legislation and policies that aim to prevent and respond to VAW, in all of its forms, and to ensure that VAW survivors have access to essential services, including health care, social services, protection and justice.

ANNEX A: SURVEY RESPONSE RATES

Women's health and life experiences survey

Household sample and response rate

Table A.1 shows that a total of 7,137 households were sampled for the Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey, of which 4,330 households were interviewed, resulting in a response rate of 60.7 per cent (households that responded out of the total households sampled). Moreover, 13.7 per cent of households refused to participate in the survey, while no one was home at 18.2 per cent of households sampled. Only 3.4 per cent of houses were non-existent, destroyed or not found, and 1.6 per cent of houses were not used as dwellings.

TABLE A.1. Household sample and response rate for the Women's Health and Life Experiences Survey

	N	Percentage
 Households that responded (interview completed)	4,330	60.7
 Households that did not respond (interview not completed)	2,807	39.3
Household refused to be interviewed	980	13.7
Nobody was home	1,298	18.2
House was non-existent at the address / House was destroyed/ not found	246	3.4
House was not used for living in	112	1.6
Other	171	2.4
Total households sampled	7,137	100.0

Women's individual response rate

Table A.2 shows that women's individual response rate was 76.2 per cent (individual interviews completed out of the total households that responded). More specifically, 18.2 per cent of households had no eligible women; 3.0 per cent had eligible women in the household, but the selected woman was not home; and only 2.6 per cent of selected women refused to be interviewed.

TABLE A.2. Women’s individual response rate

	N	Percentage
 Individual interviews completed	3,300	76.2
 Individual interviews not completed (only Household Questionnaire completed)	1,030	23.8
No eligible women in the household	789	18.2
Eligible women in the household, but selected woman was not home	130	3.0
Eligible women in the household, but selected woman refused to be interviewed	111	2.6
Total households that responded	4,330	100.0

Men’s life experiences survey questionnaire

Household sample and response rate

Table A.3 shows that a total 2,506 households were sampled for the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire, of which 1,480 households were interviewed, resulting in a response rate of 59.1 per cent (households that responded out of the total households sampled). Moreover, 20.5 per cent of households refused to participate in the survey, while no one was home at 12.9 per cent of households sampled. Only 3.8 per cent of houses were non-existent, destroyed or not found, and 3.1 per cent of houses were not used as dwellings.

TABLE A.3. Household sample and response rate for the Men’s Life Experiences Survey Questionnaire

	N	Percentage
 Households that responded (interview completed)	1,480	59.1
 Households that did not respond (interview not completed)	1,026	40.9
Household refused to be interviewed	513	20.5
Nobody was home	324	12.9
House was non-existent at the address / House was destroyed/ not found	96	3.8
House was not used for living in	78	3.1
Other	15	0.6
Total households sampled	2,506	100.0

Men's individual response rate

Table A.4 shows that men's individual response rate was 74.6 per cent (individual interviews completed out of the total households that responded). More specifically, 21.8 per cent of households had no eligible men; 1.6 per cent had eligible men in the household, but the selected man was not home; and only 2.0 per cent of selected men refused to be interviewed.

TABLE A.4. Men's individual response rate

	N	Percentage
 Individual interviews completed	1,104	74.6
 Individual interviews not completed (only Household Questionnaire completed)	376	25.4
No eligible men in the household	323	21.8
Eligible men in the household, but selected man was not home	23	1.6
Eligible men in the household, but selected man refused to be interviewed	30	2.0
Total households that responded	1,480	100.0

ANNEX B: ACCOMPANYING DATA TABLES

TABLE B.1. Survey respondents, by sex, age group, ethnic group, education and settlement type (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Age group		
15–24	14.7	17.0
25–34	18.3	19.6
35–44	19.3	19.9
45–54	18.1	18.3
55–64	20.5	18.1
65–69	9.1	7.1
Ethnic group		
Georgian	88.2	87.0
Armenian	3.7	4.8
Azerbaijani	5.2	6.5
Other	2.8	1.8
Highest level of education completed		
Primary school or less	1.0	0.4
Lower secondary school	8.5	8.5
Upper secondary school	34.7	46.0
Vocational education	22.8	15.2
University education	32.9	29.8
Don't know	0.1	–
Settlement type		
 Tbilisi	32.5	31.5
 Other urban areas	26.2	24.7
 Rural areas	41.3	43.9

TABLE B.2. Women's and men's earnings and employment status (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15-69) N = 1,104
Earnings	Do you earn money by yourself?	Did you work or earn money in the past 12 months?
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	61.2	75.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	36.9	24.2
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	1.9	-
Employment status		
Employee	34.3	42.6
Employer	0.7	1.0
Business owner / Self-employed	8.3	26.0
Works in family business	2.2	2.0
Not employed, looking for work (worked before)	4.7	6.9
Not employed, looking for work (never worked before)	1.4	2.5
Not employed and not looking for work	2.4	2.9
Homemaker (not employed)	23.0	2.4
Pensioner	14.0	4.1
Student	8.0	8.1
Person with disability/long-term illness	0.8	1.4
Other	0.2	0.1

TABLE B.3. Main source of household income (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Respondent	19.6	51.3
Respondent's parents	12.8	21.6
Respondent and spouse/partner equally	15.2	16.4
Spouse/partner	36.6	4.0
Other members of the household	11.0	5.8
Other persons outside the household	2.2	0.9
Spouse's/partner's parents	2.6	–

TABLE B.4. Women's spending power (percentage)

	 Currently married/living with male partner and earns money N = 1,396
Are you able to spend the money you earn as you wish, or do you have to give all or part of the money to your husband/partner?	
 My own choice	97.7
 Give all or part of it to my husband/partner	2.2
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.0
 Refused / No answer	0.1
Would you say that the money that you bring into the household is more than what your husband/partner contributes, less than what he contributes, or about the same as he contributes?	
 More than what my husband/partner contributes	16.9
 Less than what my husband/partner contributes	43.8
 About the same	38.5
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.3
 Refused / No answer	0.5

TABLE B.5. Men’s stress and strains related to work and income earnings (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Frequently stressed or depressed because of not having enough income	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	30.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	69.4
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.2
Frequently stressed or depressed because of not having enough work	
Employed men N = 781	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	22.6
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	77.1
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.3
Spend most of your time out of work or looking for work	
Unemployed men N = 168	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	41.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	58.7
Feel ashamed to face your family because you are out of work	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	40.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	59.0
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	1.0
Considered leaving your family because you are/were out of work	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	12.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	87.9
Sometimes drink or stay away from home when can’t find work	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	7.9
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	92.1

TABLE B.6. Women’s and men’s property and land ownership, by type and degree of ownership (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 Land (construction or agriculture)		
Yes, own by myself	8.7	18.3
Yes, own with others	39.4	44.0
No, do not own	52.0	37.6
 House, apartment or building		
Yes, own by myself	15.6	21.4
Yes, own with others	52.9	62.7
No, do not own	31.5	15.9
 Business, shop or company		
Yes, own by myself	2.6	4.4
Yes, own with others	3.9	5.1
No, do not own	93.5	90.5
 Cars, trucks		
Yes, own by myself	7.8	31.2
Yes, own with others	23.1	19.2
No, do not own	69.0	49.6
 Livestock, poultry or bees (e.g. cows, horses, pigs, foals, chickens, etc.)		
Yes, own by myself	4.4	7.3
Yes, own with others	25.8	26.2
No, do not own	69.8	66.5
 Savings in the bank		
Yes, own by myself	5.9	3.3
Yes, own with others	1.4	0.7
No, do not own	92.6	96.0

TABLE B.7. Women's and men's marital status (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 Total never-partnered population	13.7	29.9
 Total ever-partnered population	86.3	70.1
Currently married, living together with a spouse/partner	63.4	59.4
Currently married, not living together with a spouse/partner	3.2	4.8
Living with a partner, not married	0.1	0.2
Previously married	16.2	3.0
Previously lived with a partner, but not married	0.3	0.3
Ever had/currently have a boyfriend/girlfriend or fiancé(e) (without being married or having lived with a partner)	3.2	2.4

TABLE B.8. Women's and men's age at the time of their first marriage/cohabitation, by type of marriage and number of marriages (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a man N = 2,904	 Ever-partnered men (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a woman N = 826
Age at the time of first marriage/cohabitation		
< 15 years old	0.5	1.1
15–17 years old	14.0	42.6
< 18 years old	14.5	56.3
18–24 years old	60.0	–
25+ years old	25.4	–
Don't know	0.0	–
Refused / No answer	0.1	–

	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a man N = 2,904	 Ever-partnered men (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a woman N = 826
Type of marriage		
 Civil marriage	81.7	81.3
 Religious marriage	42.9	49.2
 Neither civil nor religious marriage	11.2	10.8
 Other	0.4	–
 Refused / No answer	0.0	–
Number of times married or lived together with a partner		
 1 time	96.1	93.6
 2 times	3.6	6.1
 3–4 times	0.3	0.3

TABLE B.9. Women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before age 18 (percentage)

	 Women (aged 20–24) N = 49
Age at the time of your first marriage/cohabitation with a man ^a	
< 18 years old	22.0*
18–24 years old	76.0*
Refused / No answer	2.0*

^a The category “< 15 years old” has been suppressed from the table due to the lack of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.10. Ever-partnered women's and men's spouse selection (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a man N = 2,904	 Ever-partnered men (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a woman N = 826
Who chose your current/most recent spouse/partner?		
Respondent and spouse/partner chose together	71.5	48.7
Respondent chose	3.5	41.8
Spouse/partner chose	12.8	3.3
Spouse's/partner's family chose	8.1	0.1
Respondent's family chose	2.1	4.6
Other	1.9	1.4
Refused / No answer	0.1	0.1
Were you asked whether you wanted to marry your husband?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	89.1	n/a
<input type="checkbox"/> No	8.5	n/a
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't remember	0.3	n/a
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer / Not applicable	2.1	n/a

TABLE B.11. Ever-partnered women's and men's living arrangements (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a man N = 2,904	 Ever-partnered men (aged 15–69) who were ever married or ever lived with a woman N = 826
With spouse/partner only	48.5	42.3
With spouse's/partner's family	43.0	2.8
With own family of origin	7.5	53.7
With both your spouse's/partner's family and your own family of origin	0.9	0.5
Refused / No answer	0.1	0.7

TABLE B.12. Children aged 0–17 in the household (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 Households with children aged 0–17	54.6	46.3
Number of children aged 0–4 in the household		
① None	81.2	83.8
① One child	14.4	13.0
②③ Two to three children	4.2	3.1
④⑤ Four to five children	0.1	0.1
⊖ Refused / No answer	0.1	–
Number of children aged 5–9 in the household		
① None	76.1	79.3
① One child	17.7	16.1
②③ Two to three children	6.1	4.6
⊖ Refused / No answer	0.0	–
Number of children aged 10–14 in the household		
① None	74.5	80.1
① One child	18.6	16.0
②③ Two to three children	6.9	3.9
⊖ Refused / No answer	0.0	–
Number of children aged 15–17 in the household		
① None	85.2	85.8
① One child	13.2	13.2
②③ Two to three children	1.5	1.0
⊖ Refused / No answer	0.1	–

TABLE B.13. Ever-partnered women's and men's marital experiences (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women whose latest partnership ended (aged 15–69) N = 681	 Ever-partnered men whose latest partnership ended (aged 15–69) N = 44
How the latest partnership ended		
Divorced	23.2	19.3*
Separated / Broken up	12.4	55.8*
Spouse/partner died	64.2	24.9*
Refused / No answer	0.2	–
	 Ever-partnered women whose latest partnership ended in divorce or separation N = 223	 Ever-partnered men whose latest partnership ended in divorce or separation N = 28
Which person initiated the divorce/separation		
Respondent	57.0	8.1*
Spouse/partner	15.8	42.7*
Both (respondent and spouse/partner)	23.5	46.5*
Other	2.8	2.7*
Refused / No answer	0.8	–

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.14. Women’s contact with their family of origin (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Do any members of your family of birth live close enough that you can easily see or visit them?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	43.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	37.3
	Live with family of origin	19.2
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.0
How often do you see or talk to a member of your family of origin?		
	Daily	55.4
	At least once a week	22.1
	At least once a month	13.8
	At least once a year	5.1
	Never or hardly ever	3.3
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2
When you need help or have a problem, can you usually count on members of your family of birth for support?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	80.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	18.2
<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know	0.9
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2

TABLE B.15. Household economic situation (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300	 Men (aged 15-69) N = 1,104
Sufficiency of the household's income to cover the household's daily needs		
 Income is higher than our basic needs	2.4	6.5
 Income is equal to the cost of our basic needs	80.5	71.3
 Income is less than our basic need	16.9	21.5
 Don't know	0.2	0.3
 Refused / No answer	0.0	0.5
Perceived economic situation of the household		
 Very poor	4.1	3.4
 Poor	26.2	22.1
 Average	65.5	70.3
 Good	4.0	3.7
 Very good	0.1	0.2
 Refused / No answer	0.1	0.2

TABLE B.16. Women's perceived overall health and decision-making about their health care (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300
In general, would you describe your overall health as excellent, good, fair, poor or very poor?	
 Excellent	9.6
 Good	32.2
 Fair	42.5
 Poor	13.3
 Very poor	2.3
 Refused / No answer	0.1

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Who usually makes decisions about your health care?		
 I do		74.5
 My husband/partner		1.3
 Both (my husband/partner and I)		19.7
 Another person		4.5
 Refused / No answer		0.0

TABLE B.17. Women with functional difficulties, by type of functional difficulty (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Women who reported having at least one functional difficulty		48.4
 Have difficulty seeing, even if wearing glasses?		
 No difficulty		69.4
 Some difficulty		26.0
 A lot of difficulty		4.6
 Cannot see at all		0.0
 Have difficulty walking or climbing stairs?		
 No difficulty		73.7
 Some difficulty		19.9
 A lot of difficulty		6.4
 Cannot do it at all		0.1
 Have difficulty remembering or concentrating?		
 No difficulty		82.3
 Some difficulty		16.1
 A lot of difficulty		1.6

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
 Have difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid(s)?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	No difficulty	92.7
<input type="radio"/>	Some difficulty	6.6
<input type="radio"/>	A lot of difficulty	0.6
 Have difficulty using your hands and fingers, such as picking up small object (e.g. button, pencil) or opening/closing containers or bottles?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	No difficulty	93.0
<input type="radio"/>	Some difficulty	6.1
<input type="radio"/>	A lot of difficulty	0.9
<input type="radio"/>	Cannot do it at all	0.0
 Have difficulty with self-care, such as washing or dressing yourself?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	No difficulty	97.7
<input type="radio"/>	Some difficulty	1.9
<input type="radio"/>	A lot of difficulty	0.3
<input type="radio"/>	Cannot do it at all	0.0
 Have difficulty communicating (e.g. understanding or being understood by others)?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	No difficulty	98.4
<input type="radio"/>	Some difficulty	1.6
<input type="radio"/>	A lot of difficulty	0.1

TABLE B.18. Women's sexual experiences (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Have you ever had sexual intercourse?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	84.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Have not had sex yet	15.3
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.3
How would you describe the first time you had sexual intercourse?	
Women who have ever had sex N = 2,933	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Wanted to have sex	95.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Did not want to have sex, but it happened anyway	3.8
<input type="checkbox"/> Forced to have sex	0.3
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know	0.1
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.2

Note: The average age of the respondents the first time they had sexual intercourse was 22.0 years old.

TABLE B.19. Women's pregnancies (percentage)

	 Ever-pregnant women N = 2,789
1 pregnancy	12.4
2–3 pregnancies	41.4
4–6 pregnancies	31.8
7–10 pregnancies	9.5
11+ pregnancies	4.9

Note: The average number of pregnancies was 4.3.

TABLE B.20. Number of children born alive and pregnancy losses (percentage)

	 Ever-pregnant women N = 2,789
How many children have you given birth to that were alive when they were born?	
<input type="radio"/> None	2.4
<input type="radio"/> 1 child	18.9
<input type="radio"/> 2-3 children	71.7
<input type="radio"/> 4 children and more	6.9
Have you ever had a pregnancy that ended in a miscarriage, stillbirth or abortion?	
Miscarriage	26.1
Stillbirth	5.5
Abortion	44.1

TABLE B.21. Family planning or contraception use and decision-making by women who have ever had sex (percentage)

	 Women who have ever had sex N = 2,933
Do you use or have you used any method of family planning or contraception?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes, I currently use it	14.4
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes, I used it in the past	26.7
<input type="checkbox"/> No, I never used it	58.7
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.2
Has your husband/partner ever refused contraception use?	Ever-partnered women who have ever had sex N = 2,929
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	5.7
<input type="checkbox"/> No	90.1
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know/remember	1.9
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	2.3

	 Women who have ever had sex N = 2,933
Who decided to use family planning or contraception?	Ever used contraceptives N = 1,162
I decided	44.2
Mainly my husband/partner decided	2.3
Shared decision between me and my husband/partner	52.5
My father-in-law or mother-in-law	0.0
Refused / No answer	0.9
What is the <u>main reason</u> for using family planning or contraception (last time)?	
My husband/partner pressured me	0.5
To delay pregnancy	33.2
I don't want any more children	62.8
Other	3.0
Don't know / Don't remember	0.4
Refused / No answer	0.2
What is the <u>main reason</u> for not using family planning or contraception?	Never used contraception N = 1,765
I want to have children	44.9
The method has health side effects	30.3
My husband disagrees / He pressured me	0.6
Pressure from my husband's parents	0.1
Use of contraceptives is against my religion	1.9
Other	12.4
Don't know / Don't remember	7.4
Refused / No answer	2.4

TABLE B.22. Family planning or contraception use and decision-making by women who are currently married/cohabitating (percentage)

		 Women aged 15–49 who are currently married or live with a partner N = 1,189
Who decides that you should have reproductive health care, such as if and when to visit a gynaecologist or OB/GYN?		
 I decide		67.7
 Mainly my husband/partner decides		2.9
 Shared decision between me and my husband/partner		29.1
 Other		0.2
 Refused / No answer		0.2
Can you refuse to have sexual intercourse with your husband/partner?		Ever-partnered women who have ever had sex N = 987
 Yes		81.9
 No		16.1
 Don't know		1.0
 Refused / No answer		1.0
Who decides to use family planning or contraception?		Women who used family planning or contraception N = 588
 I decided		41.0
 Mainly my husband/partner decided		2.8
 Shared decision between me and my husband/partner		55.2
 Other		0.9

TABLE B.23. Husband's/partner's refusal to have children (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who have ever had sex N = 2,929
Did it ever happen that you wanted to have children and your husband/partner disagreed?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		2.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		97.4
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.1
Did you break from your husband's/partner's decisions and get pregnant anyway?		N = 83
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		51.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		48.1
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.9
What is the main reason for accepting your husband/partner's decision to not have children, and not violating it?		N = 41
My husband hit, threatened me with a divorce and/or pressured me		30.7*
Pressured from my husband's parents		2.9*
Other		57.0*
Refused / No answer		9.5*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.24. Ever-partnered women's ability to refuse sexual intercourse with their husband/partner (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who have ever had sex N = 2,929
Can you refuse sexual intercourse with your husband/partner if you do not want to have sex?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		80.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		17.6
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know		0.9
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		1.2

TABLE B.25. Reproductive health care decision-making (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Who decides that you should have reproductive health care, such as if and when to visit a gynaecologist or OB/GYN?	
 I decide	75.9
 Mainly my husband/partner decides	1.8
 Shared decision between me and my husband/partner	18.6
 Other	2.8
 Refused / No answer	0.9

TABLE B.26. Experiences of violence against women and girls (lifetime and current) (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime	 Current (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	0.0
Non-partner physical violence since the age of 15	6.5	0.5
Any type of intimate partner violence (IPV)	22.9	9.3
 Physical IPV	5.1	0.6
 Sexual IPV	3.0	0.4
 Psychological IPV	20.5	8.7
 Economic IPV	7.2	2.1

TABLE B.27. Women’s feelings of safety walking alone (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
How safe do you feel walking alone in your area/neighbourhood?	
 Very safe	58.4
 Fairly safe	32.5
 A bit unsafe	7.1
 Very unsafe	1.3
 I never walk alone after dark	0.7
 Don't know	0.0
 Refused / No answer	0.0

TABLE B.28. Relationship between women’s current experiences of violence and feelings of safety walking alone (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Current violence	 No current violence
How safe do you feel walking alone in your area/neighbourhood?		
 Very safe	37.7	63.0
 Fairly safe	41.6	30.4
 A bit unsafe	16.5	5.0
 Very unsafe	3.7	0.8
 I never walk alone after dark	0.5	0.7
 Don't know	0.0	0.1
 Refused / No answer	0.0	0.0

TABLE B.29. Experiences of violence against women with and without functional difficulties (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	Women with functional difficulties	Women without functional difficulties
Any type of violence	54.7	45.8
Child sexual abuse before the age of 18	9.3	7.8
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before the age of 18	22.5	17.2
Sexual harassment	24.2	24.8
Stalking	8.7	8.3
Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15	2.1	1.0
Non-partner physical violence since the age of 15	7.7	5.5
Any type of IPV	28.2	17.9

TABLE B.30. Prevalence of intimate partner violence (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Any type of IPV (at least one)	26.5	10.7
 Physical IPV	5.9	0.7
 Sexual IPV	3.5	0.5
 Psychological IPV	23.7	10.1
 Emotional abuse	12.6	3.2
 Controlling behaviours	18.8	8.3
 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

TABLE B.31. 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
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^a		
15–17 years old	29.9	11.2
< 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/fiancé	38.1	17.8

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime physical, sexual, and/or psychological IPV N = 747	 Current physical, sexual, and/or psychological IPV N = 270
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

^a The category “< 15 years old” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.32. Prevalence of IPV, by age group, education, age at first marriage, household economic status and settlement type (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime IPV N = 806	 Current IPV N = 288
Age group		
15–24	27.7	18.8
25–34	27.6	15.4
35–44	26.4	13.2
45–54	26.1	9.5
55–64	25.3	5.9
65–69	27.6	4.4
Highest level of education completed		
Primary school or less	69.8	33.5
Lower secondary school	33.2	14.5
Upper secondary school	24.3	9.9
Vocational education	26.3	9.7
University education	27.0	11.3
Don't know	38.1	0.0
Age at first marriage/union ^a		
15–17 years old	32.6	12.0
< 18 years old	33.7	12.5
18–24 years old	25.5	10.1
25+ years old	23.2	10.1
Not married / Ever had or currently has a boyfriend/fiance´	38.1	17.8

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime IPV N = 806	 Current IPV N = 288
Household economic status (self-described)		
 Very poor	45.5	16.9
 Poor	32.8	12.3
 Average	22.9	9.7
 Good	24.9	11.0
 Very good	14.1	0.0
Settlement type		
 Tbilisi	39.3	16.4
 Other urban areas	21.9	7.3
 Rural areas	20.5	8.9

^a The category “< 15 years old” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.33. Prevalence of IPV, by disability (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women (aged 15–69) N = 2,976			
	 Lifetime IPV		 Current IPV	
	Women with functional difficulties	Women without functional difficulties	Women with functional difficulties	Women without functional difficulties
Any type of IPV (at least one)	30.9	21.9	11.3	10.2
 Physical violence	7.1	4.6	0.7	0.7
 Sexual violence	4.3	2.8	0.3	0.7
 Psychological violence	27.2	20.1	10.5	9.7
 Emotional abuse	14.7	10.4	3.6	2.9
 Controlling behaviours	21.1	16.4	8.2	8.5
 Economic abuse	11.0	5.6	2.8	2.1
Physical and/or sexual IPV	9.3	6.1	0.7	1.1
Physical, sexual and/or psychological IPV	28.2	20.9	10.5	9.7

TABLE B.34. Prevalence of physical IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Physical IPV (at least one of the actions below)	5.9	0.7
Slapped you or threw something at you that could hurt you	4.9	0.6
Pushed you, shoved you or pulled your hair	4.0	0.4
Hit you with his fist or with something else that could hurt you	1.6	0.3
Kicked you, dragged you or beat you up	1.3	0.1
Choked you on purpose	0.6	0.1
Threatened you with or used a gun, knife or other weapon against you	0.5	0.1
Cut or stabbed you on purpose	0.2	0.0
Burned you on purpose	0.1	0.0
Perpetrators of the physical violence	 Lifetime prevalence N = 182	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		85.3
 Previous husband/partner		14.7

TABLE B.35. Prevalence of physical violence during pregnancy (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who were ever pregnant N = 2,789
Was there ever a time when you were pushed, slapped, hit, kicked or beaten by any of your husbands/partners while you were pregnant?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		1.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		98.8
In how many pregnancies were you pushed, slapped, hit, kicked or beaten?		Experience physical violence in pregnancy N = 34
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 1 One pregnancy		70.3*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 2 Two pregnancies		14.8*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 3 Three pregnancies		14.9*
Did this happen in your most recent/last pregnancy?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		59.7*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		39.1*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know		1.2*
Were you ever punched or kicked in the abdomen while you were pregnant?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		36.3*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		63.7*
During the most recent pregnancy in which you were beaten, was the husband/partner who did this to you the father of the child?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		100.0*
Had the same person also hit or beat you before you were pregnant?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		85.9*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		11.7*
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know		2.4*

Compared to before the pregnancy, did the beatings get less, stay about the same or get worse (more frequent or severe) while you were pregnant?	
↓ Got less	33.3*
≡ Stayed about the same / No change	41.9*
! Got worse	20.0*
? Don't know	4.8*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.36. Prevalence of sexual IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Sexual IPV (at least one of the actions below)	3.5	0.5
Ever forced you to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to (e.g. by threatening you or holding you down)	2.8	0.4
Ever had sexual intercourse you did not want to because you were afraid of what your husband/partner might do if you refused	1.4	0.0
Ever forced you to do anything sexual that you did not want to do or that you found degrading or humiliating	0.7	0.1
Perpetrators of the sexual violence	 Lifetime prevalence N = 96	
 Current/most recent husband/partner	87.1	
 Previous husband/partner	10.6	
 Both	0.9	
 Refused / No answer	1.4	

TABLE B.37. Prevalence of emotional IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Emotional IPV (at least one of the actions below)	12.6	3.2
Insulted you or made you feel bad about yourself	9.7	2.3
Spoke to you in a way that made you feel stupid or worthless	6.5	1.6
Said or did things to scare or intimidate you on purpose (e.g. by looking at you, yelling or smashing things)	4.7	0.7
Belittled or humiliated you in front of other people	4.4	0.7
Destroyed things that are important to you, such as your personal property, belongings or pets	3.7	0.4
Verbally threatened to hurt you or someone you cared about	3.2	0.7
Threatened to post or distribute intimate or sexually explicit images of you without your consent	0.1	0.1
Perpetrators of the emotional IPV	 Lifetime prevalence N = 388	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		88.7
 Previous husband/partner		10.8
 Both		0.4
 Refused / No answer		0.2

TABLE B.38. Prevalence of controlling behaviours experienced by ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Controlling behaviours (at least one of the actions below)	18.8	8.3
Insisted on knowing where you are at all times	15.1	7.0
Got jealous or angry if you spoke with another man	9.2	2.6
Stopped you from seeing or meeting your female friends	5.0	1.3
Regularly monitored your telephone for phone calls, SMS messages and/or social media posts to see who you are communicating with and how often	3.0	1.5
Was often suspicious that you are unfaithful	2.6	0.5
Restricted your contact with your family, including parents, siblings or other relatives	2.2	0.3
Used mobile technology to check where you are	0.7	0.3
Stopped you from getting health care for yourself without his permission	0.4	0.1
Perpetrators of controlling behaviours	 Lifetime prevalence N = 563	
 Current/most recent husband/partner	93.0	
 Previous husband/partner	5.2	
 Both	0.5	
 Don't know	0.8	
 Refused / No answer	0.5	

TABLE B.39. Prevalence of economic IPV among ever-partnered women (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Economic IPV (at least one of the actions below)	8.4	2.4
Prohibits you from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generating projects	5.8	1.6
Refuses to give you money you needed for household expenses, even when he has money for other things, such as alcohol and cigarettes	3.5	0.7
Takes your earnings from you against your will or controls your money	1.6	0.4
Perpetrators of economic abuse	 Lifetime prevalence N = 263	
 Current/most recent husband/partner		91.5
 Previous husband/partner		7.4
 Refused / No answer		1.2

TABLE B.40. Ever-partnered women who feared their husband/partner (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
Are you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?	
 Yes	2.3
 No, never	92.7
 In the past, but no longer afraid	4.7
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.2
 Refused / No answer	0.1

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
How often are/were you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?	N = 203
 Sometimes	48.4
 Many times	30.4
 Most/all of the time	18.8
 Don't know / Don't remember	1.7
 Refused / No answer	0.8

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.41. Women who feared their husband/partner, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime IPV	 No lifetime IPV
Are you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?		
 Yes	8.0	0.2
 No, never	74.0	99.5
 In the past, but no longer afraid	17.4	0.1
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.4	0.2
 Refused / No answer	0.2	0.0
How often are you afraid of him?		
 Sometimes	48.4	46.6
 Many times	31.3	0.0
 Most/all of the time	19.3	0.0
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.7	35.2
 Refused / No answer	0.3	18.2

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.42. Women who feared their husband/partner, by current IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Current IPV	 No current IPV
Are you afraid of your current/most recent husband/partner?		
 Yes	10.7	1.3
 No, never	76.3	94.7
 In the past, but no longer afraid	12.5	3.8
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.5	0.2
 Refused / No answer	0.0	0.1
How often are you afraid of him?		
 Sometimes	52.1	46.2
 Many times	28.3	31.5
 Most/all of the time	19.6	18.3
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.0	2.7
 Refused / No answer	0.0	1.3

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.43. Women who feared their husband/partner, by type of lifetime IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Afraid of current/most recent husband/partner	 Afraid in the past, but no longer afraid of current/most recent husband/partner
 Physical IPV	24.9	47.2
 Sexual IPV	23.9	38.6
 Psychological violence	8.8	18.9
 Emotional IPV	14.7	33.6
 Controlling behaviours	9.5	17.1
 Economic IPV	16.8	26.5
Physical and/or sexual IPV	21.4	42.2

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.44. Men's alcohol use and drunkenness in the past 12 month (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 In the past 12 months, how often did you drink alcohol?	
Every day or nearly every day	1.6
1–2 times a week	10.1
1–3 times a month	26.1
Less than once a month	40.6
Never	21.6
 In the past 12 months, how often have you been drunk?	N = 865
Most days (4 or more days a week)	0.2
Weekly (1–3 times a week)	5.8
Once a month	24.9
Less than once a month	56.5
Never	12.5

TABLE B.45. Husband's/partner's alcohol use and drunkenness in the past 12 months (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
<p><u>In the past 12 months</u>, how often has your husband/partner drank alcohol? IF MOST RECENT HUSBAND/PARTNER: When you were with your most recent husband/partner, how often did he drink alcohol?</p>		
Every day or nearly every day		3.3
1–2 times a week		10.6
1–3 times a month		21.4
Less than once a month		46.9
Never		17.3
Don't know / Don't remember		0.2
Refused / No answer		0.3
<p><u>In the past 12 months</u>, how often have you seen your husband/partner drunk? IF MOST RECENT HUSBAND/PARTNER: When you were with your most recent husband/partner how often did you see him drunk?</p>		N = 2,475
Most days (4 or more days a week)		2.9
Weekly (1–3 times a week)		9.3
Once a month		21.2
Less than once a month		56.9
Never		9.0
Refused / No answer		0.7

TABLE B.46. Husband's/partner's alcohol use, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	∞ Lifetime IPV	× No lifetime IPV
 How often husband/partner drinks alcohol		
Every day or nearly every day	76.9	23.1
1–2 times a week	42.9	57.1
1–3 times a month	23.9	75.5
Less than once a month	20.5	78.9
Never	25.8	73.7
 How often husband/partner is drunk		
	N = 2,475	
Most days (4 or more days a week)	77.1	22.9
Weekly (1–3 times a week)	47.1	52.9
Once a month	23.8	75.7
Less than once a month	22.7	76.7
Never	19.5	79.7

Notes: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV. The categories “Don’t know” and “Refused / No answer” are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.47. Men's involvement in physical fights (lifetime and current) (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
 Since the age of 15, have you ever been involved in a physical fight with another man?	
 Never	59.1
 Once	8.4
 A few times	29.7
 Many times	2.6
 Don't know/remember	0.1
 Refused / No answer	0.1
 Has this happened in the past 12 months?	N = 451
 Yes	5.6
 No	94.4

TABLE B.48. Men who injured another man when in a physical fight (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) who were ever in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15 N = 451
 Have you ever injured another man when you were in a physical fight?	
 Yes	19.4
 No	79.8
 Don't know/remember	0.3
 Refused / No answer	0.5
Since the age of 15, how many times did you injure another man when you were in a physical fight?	N = 95
 Once	36.2
 Several times (2–5 times)	59.0
 Many times (more than 5 times)	1.3
 Don't know/remember	3.5

TABLE B.49. Men who were injured in a physical fight (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) who were ever in a physical fight with another man since the age of 15 N = 451
 Since the age of 15, have you ever been injured in a physical fight with another man?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	17.5
<input type="checkbox"/>	No	82.0
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.5
Since the age of 15, how many times were you injured in a physical fight with another man?		N = 90
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once	44.4
<input type="checkbox"/>	Several times (2–5 times)	54.7
<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know/remember	0.9
Type of injuries		
	Scratches, abrasions or bruises	81.8
	Cuts, punctures or bites	34.4
	Deep wounds, cuts or gashes	10.4
	Sprains or dislocations	9.5
	Head injuries or concussions	7.8
	Broken teeth	5.6
	Ruptured eardrum or eye injuries	5.2
	Fractures or broken bones	3.0
	Permanent injury that caused disability or disfigurement	2.7
	Abdominal injuries or internal injuries	1.1

TABLE B.50. Husband's/partner's involvement in physical fights (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
 Since you have known your husband/partner, has he ever been involved in a physical fight with another man?		
	Never	79.7
	Once	4.8
	A few times	7.3
	Many times	0.9
	Don't know / Don't remember	7.0
	Refused / No answer	0.2

TABLE B.51. Husband's/partner's involvement in physical fights with other men, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
		∞ Lifetime IPV	× No lifetime IPV
 Since you have known your husband/partner, has he ever been involved in a physical fight with another man?			
	Never	21.1	78.5
	Once	48.2	51.0
	A few times	55.4	44.0
	Many times	92.9*	7.1*
	Don't know / Don't remember	33.8	65.8

Notes: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV. The category "Refused / No answer" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.52. Husband's/partner's involvement in extramarital relationships (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
 Has your current/most recent husband/partner had a relationship with any other women while with you?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	7.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	74.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	May have	5.9
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Don't know/remember	12.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2

TABLE B.53. Husband's/partner's involvement in extramarital relationships, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
		∞ Lifetime IPV	× No lifetime IPV
 Has your current/most recent husband/partner had a relationship with another women while with you?			
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	64.2	35.6
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	21.3	78.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	May have	45.6	52.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	27.5	72.2

Notes: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV. The category "Refused / No answer" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.54. Women exposed to violence and abuse as a child (before the age of 18) (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Child physical and/or emotional abuse by anyone in their family	19.7
Child physical violence by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	18.0
Slapped or spanked you (with a hand)	17.2
Hit or beat you with a hard object, like a belt, stick, broom or other item	2.3
Hit or beat you (with a fist)	2.0
Kicked or dragged you	0.7
Child emotional abuse by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	5.5
Continuously cursed at or humiliated by someone in your family	4.7
Threatened to kick you out of the home	2.0
Witnessed mother experiencing IPV	9.6
As a child, witnessed mother continuously cursed at or humiliated by your father or her husband/partner	9.4
As a child, witnessed mother hit by your father or her husband/partner	3.1

TABLE B.55. Women’s experiences of child abuse in the family, by lifetime IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Child physical and/or emotional abuse	No child physical and/or emotional abuse
Lifetime IPV		
 No	55.1	77.8
 Yes	44.3	21.7
Lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV		
 No	82.9	94.7
 Yes	17.1	5.3
 Lifetime physical IPV		
 No	85.5	96.2
 Yes	14.5	3.8
 Lifetime sexual IPV		
 No	92.3	97.6
 Yes	7.7	2.4
 Lifetime psychological IPV		
 No	59.3	80.2
 Yes	40.2	19.3
 Lifetime economic IPV		
 No	84.2	93.4
 Yes	15.8	6.6

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV, and 41 ever-partnered women refused to answer or answered “Don’t know” to questions about child physical and/or emotional abuse.

TABLE B.56. Women’s experiences of witnessing IPV against their mother (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	As a child, women witnessed their mother experience IPV	As child, women did not witness their mother experience IPV
Lifetime IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	48.4	76.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	51.4	23.1
Lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	83.6	93.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	16.4	6.2
 Lifetime physical IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	87.1	95.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	12.9	4.6
 Lifetime sexual IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	93.8	97.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	6.2	2.9
 Lifetime psychological IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	54.0	78.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	45.7	20.7
 Lifetime economic IPV		
<input type="checkbox"/> No	82.4	93.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	17.6	7.0

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV, and 78 ever-partnered women refused to answer or answered “Don’t know” to questions about their mother’s experience of IPV.

TABLE B.57. Men's experiences with bullying in childhood (before the age of 18) (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
When you were a child, were you repeatedly bullied, teased, harassed or beat up in school or in the neighbourhood in which you grew up? (i.e. bullied by others)	4.3
When you were a child, did you repeatedly bully, tease, harass or beat up others in school or in the neighbourhood in which you grew up? (i.e. bullied others)	4.9

TABLE B.58. Men exposed to violence and abuse as a child (before the age of 18) (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Child physical and/or emotional abuse by anyone in their family	25.1
Child physical violence by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	22.3
Slapped or spanked you (with a hand)	21.5
Hit or beat you with a hard object, like a belt, stick, broom or other item	1.8
Hit or beat you (with a fist)	1.4
Kicked or dragged you	0.2
Child emotional abuse by anyone in their family (at least one of the actions below)	6.1
Continuously cursed at or humiliated by someone in your family	4.1
Threatened to kick you out of the home	2.5
Witnessed mother experiencing IPV	4.0
Witnessed mother continuously cursed at or humiliated by your father or her husband/partner	3.9
Witnessed mother hit by your father or her husband/partner	0.5

TABLE B.59. Current/most recent husband's/partner's exposure to domestic violence (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976
When your current/most recent husband/partner was a child (before the age of 18), was his mother hit/beat by her husband/partner?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	4.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	78.4
	Parents did not live together	1.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	16.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2
When your current/most recent husband/partner was a child (before the age of 18), was he hit/beat regularly by someone in his family?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	4.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	80.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	15.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.1

TABLE B.60. Husband's/partner's experiences of child abuse, by women's lifetime IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976		
	 As a child, husband/ partner was hit/beat regularly by someone in his family	 As a child, husband/ partner was not hit/beat by someone in his family	 Don't know
Lifetime IPV			
 No	36.7	77.2	60.8
 Yes	62.4	22.2	39.0
Lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV			
 No	71.3	95.0	83.4
 Yes	28.7	5.0	16.6
 Lifetime physical IPV			
 No	75.5	96.1	88.6
 Yes	24.5	3.9	11.4
 Lifetime sexual IPV			
 No	85.8	98.0	91.3
 Yes	14.2	2.0	8.7
 Lifetime psychological IPV			
 No		80.0	64.1
 Yes	59.4	19.5	35.7
 Lifetime economic IPV			
 No	71.0	93.5	87.2
 Yes	29.0	6.5	12.8

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.61. Husband's/partner's exposure to domestic violence in childhood, by women's lifetime IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976			
		 As a child, husband/ partner witnessed mother experiencing IPV	 As a child, husband/ partner did not witness mother experiencing IPV	 Parents did not live together	 Don't know / Don't remember
Lifetime IPV					
 No		35.5	78.2	42.9*	60.0
 Yes		64.5	21.3	57.1*	39.6
Lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV					
 No		67.2	95.3	78.9*	85.3
 Yes		32.8	4.7	21.1*	14.7
 Lifetime physical IPV					
 No		71.2	96.5	81.8*	89.6
 Yes		28.8	3.5	18.2*	10.4
 Lifetime sexual IPV					
 No		83.4	98.1	92.9*	92.3
 Yes		16.6	1.9	7.1*	7.7
 Lifetime psychological IPV					
 No		39.8	80.8	42.9*	63.4
 Yes		60.2	18.6	57.1*	36.1
 Lifetime economic IPV					
 No		69.6	93.7	81.5*	88.2
 Yes		30.4	6.3	18.5*	11.8

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.62. Women’s overall health, by lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	 Lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	 No physical and/or sexual IPV N = 2,730
 In general, would you describe your overall health as excellent, good, fair, poor or very poor?		
 Excellent	3.7	7.0
 Good	26.8	31.1
 Fair	46.2	45.6
 Poor	19.2	13.9
 Very poor	4.0	2.3
 Refused / No answer	0.0	0.1

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.63. Injuries among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
Have you ever been injured as a result of physical and/or sexual IPV?	
 Yes	19.1
 No	80.6
 Refused / No answer	0.4
Who injured you? Was it your current or most recent husband/partner? Or any other husband/partner that you may have had before? Or both?	Ever experienced IPV-related injuries N = 49
 Current/most recent husband/partner	85.8*
 Previous husband/partner	12.0*
 Both	2.3*

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
In your life, how many times have you been injured by any of your husbands/partners?		
 Once		28.0*
 Several times (2-5 times)		41.6*
 Many times (more than 5 times)		30.4*
Has this happened in the past 12 months?		
 Yes		8.8*
 No		91.2*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.64. Types of injuries among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence and violence-related injuries N = 49
 Scratches, abrasions or bruises		78.5*
 Cuts, punctures or bites		35.6*
 Head injuries or concussions		16.9*
 Fractures or broken bones		16.5*
 Sprains or dislocations		16.1*
 Ruptured eardrum or eye injuries		13.9*
 Deep wounds, cuts or gashes		9.8*
 Abdominal injuries or internal injuries		8.1*
 Burns		7.5*
 Broken teeth		6.5*
 A miscarriage		4.0*
 Permanent injury that caused disability or disfigurement		3.2*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.65. Healthcare needs of ever-partnered women injured by physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
In your life, were you ever hurt badly enough by a husband/partner that you needed health care (even if you did not receive it)?		
 Yes, got health care		10.3
 Yes, but did not get health care		3.4
 Yes, but did not need health care		84.7
 Don't know / Don't remember		1.3
 Refused / No answer		0.4
How many times did you need health care because you were hurt badly by your husband/partner?		N = 35
 1 time		72.6*
 2-4 times		27.4*
Did you ever receive health care for this injury?		
 Yes		43.3*
 No		43.1*
 Don't know / Don't remember		9.1*
 Refused / No answer		4.5*

Note: "Per cent distribution of women who have ever had to spend any nights in a hospital due to their injuries" and "Per cent distribution of women who told a health worker the real cause of their injury" are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.66. Disruption to household chores, work and school among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
Did the injuries result in you being unable to...		
	Perform household chores and/or take care of your children?	8.2
	Work (i.e. missed days at work)?	4.3
	Go to school, college, university, etc. (i.e. missed days)?	0.6
Did your injuries result in you losing your job or source of income?		
	Yes	1.1
	No	98.2
	Refused / No answer	0.7

TABLE B.67. Functional difficulties among ever-partnered women, by their experience of physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	Did not experience physical and/or sexual IPV N = 2,745
 Has difficulty seeing, even while wearing glasses		
	Cannot do at all	0.0
	A lot of difficulty	8.8
	Some difficulty	26.8
	No difficulty	64.4
 Has difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid		
	A lot of difficulty	1.4
	Some difficulty	14.5
	No difficulty	84.1

	 Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
	Experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231	Did not experience physical and/or sexual IPV N = 2,745
 Has difficulty walking or climbing stairs		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.1
 A lot of difficulty	12.9	6.5
 Some difficulty	28.4	21.3
 No difficulty	58.7	72.1
 Has difficult remembering or concentrating		
 A lot of difficulty	3.9	1.5
 Some difficulty	25.3	16.6
 No difficulty	70.8	81.8
 Has difficulty using hands and fingers, such as picking up small objects or opening or closing containers or bottles		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.0
 A lot of difficulty	3.1	0.8
 Some difficulty	10.1	6.5
 No difficulty	86.8	92.6
 Has difficulty with self-care, such as washing or dressing themselves		
 Cannot do at all	0.0	0.0
 A lot of difficulty	1.3	0.2
 Some difficulty	4.2	1.9
 No difficulty	94.6	97.9
 Has difficulty communicating, such as understanding or being understood by others		
 A lot of difficulty	0.0	0.1
 Some difficulty	2.3	1.5
 No difficulty	97.7	98.4

Note: 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.68. Psychological health of ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence N = 231
Psychological symptoms (at least one type)	73.2
Anxiety and irritability	68.0
Depression	46.3
Fear	46.1
Inability to sleep	41.6
Feelings of isolation	38.0
Other	0.8

TABLE B.69. Suicidal tendencies among ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212
Have you ever thought about purposely hurting yourself or ending your life, even if you did not act on it?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	16.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	82.5
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.7
Have you ever purposely hurt yourself or tried to end your life?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	8.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	90.5
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.7

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212
Did you ever tell anyone that you had these thoughts/actions to purposely hurt yourself or end your life?	Had suicidal thoughts N = 36
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	46.9*
<input type="checkbox"/> No	53.1*
Have you ever received help from a trained professional (e.g. doctor, psychologist, psychiatrist) for these thoughts/actions to purposely hurt yourself or end your life?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	18.2*
<input type="checkbox"/> No	81.8*

Note: "Per cent distribution of women who have ever received help from a trained professional, by the satisfaction of the service" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.70. Economic impacts of physical and/or sexual IPV on women's work (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
In what ways did your husband's/partner's behaviour disrupt your work?	
Lost confidence in my own abilities	23.6
Unable to concentrate at work	18.0
Unable to work or had to take sick leave	2.9
Husband/partner interrupted my work	1.6
Work was disrupted	4.5

TABLE B.71. Children's exposure to IPV against their mothers and its impact on children leaving home (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212
During the times that you were hit or beaten by your husband/partner, were your children (under the age of 18) present or did they overhear you being beaten?		
<input type="radio"/>	Never	52.3
<input type="radio"/>	Once	13.9
<input type="radio"/>	Several times (2-5 times)	18.7
<input type="radio"/>	Many times / Most of the time	13.2
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	0.4
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	1.4
Were your children (aged 0-17) also hit/beat by your husband/partner?		
<input type="radio"/>	Never	90.0
<input type="radio"/>	Once	4.1
<input type="radio"/>	Several times (2-5 times)	4.6
<input type="radio"/>	Many times	1.3
Did your child (one or more of your children) ever leave home, even if only overnight, because of your husband's/partner's actions or behaviour?		
<input type="radio"/>	Yes	4.9
<input type="radio"/>	Never	91.5
<input type="radio"/>	Not applicable (not living together)	3.6

Note: "Per cent distribution of women whose children have ever left home because of women's husband's/partner's actions or behaviour, by frequency of time" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.72. Impacts of IPV against women on their children aged 0–17 (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and have children N = 212	Frequency		
		Rarely	Sometimes	Often
Did the following ever happen as a result of what your husband/partner did to you?				
Child was fearful or nervous	48.9	35.8	36.6	27.6
Child had anxiety, anger or temperament problems	31.2	25.3	35.9	38.8
Child exhibited aggressive behaviours	13.4	17.3*	40.1*	42.6*
Child had difficulties concentrating in school	8.7	14.6*	50.1*	35.3*
Child performed poorly in school or had difficulties completing their schoolwork	7.5	**	**	**
Child had behaviour or disciplinary problems in school	4.1	**	**	**

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

** Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.73. Family and friends that abused women told about the IPV they experienced and their responses (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
Did you ever tell anyone in your family about what happened to you? Anyone else, such as a friend or neighbour?	
 No one	38.2
 Female member of my family of origin	42.5
 Friend or neighbour	27.6
 Male member of my family of origin	14.5
 Female member of my husband's family	13.2
 Male member of my husband's family	6.5
 My son/daughter (my children)	6.1

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
How did they respond?	Told someone N = 147
 Supported me	93.2
 Told me to keep quiet	16.4
 Advised me to report the incident to the police	14.9
 Were indifferent or not interested	7.5
 Blamed me	6.6

TABLE B.74. Formal organizations/individuals from which battered women sought help for the IPV they experienced (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 231
Did you seek help from anyone else?	
 Police	11.8
 Religious leader	8.0
 Public Safety Command Centre 112	5.1
 Health worker (doctor/nurse)	4.9
 Lawyer or Legal Aid Service	4.4
 Court or judge	3.3
 Social service agency/organization	2.3
 Crisis centre for women/girls	2.3
 Shelter for women/girls	1.6
 Helpline ('116 006')	0.8
At least one help-seeking behaviour	22.8

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 231
Were you satisfied with the help or support police provided you	N = 27
<input checked="" type="radio"/> Very satisfied	30.1*
<input type="radio"/> Somewhat satisfied	50.5*
<input checked="" type="radio"/> Not satisfied	19.4*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.75. Battered women's reasons for seeking help (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 54
Why did you seek help?	
I could not endure more violence	63.5
I saw that the children were suffering	26.4
I was afraid he would kill me	12.7
He threatened or tried to kill me	12.4
I know violence is unacceptable in relationships	10.0
He threatened or hit the children	8.4
He threw me out of the home	5.2
Friends/family encouraged me to seek help	4.7

TABLE B.76. Battered women’s reasons for not seeking help (percentage)

		 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and never sought help N = 177
What were the reasons that you did not tell anyone or seek help for what your husband/partner was doing to you?		
The situation was not serious enough to complain about		44.8
Didn’t want to bring shame to my family		25.2
Didn’t know where to ask for help		15.0
Embarrassed, ashamed or afraid they would not believe me		14.0
Believed it would not help / Know other women who were not helped		10.8
Afraid of being threatened and the consequences or more violence		6.2
Afraid of divorce or the relationship ending		5.7
Afraid of losing my children		3.7
Think they will blame me		3.0
Think there is no reason to complain / Violence is normal		2.1
Afraid he would kill himself because he threatened to do so		0.8
Other		2.7

TABLE B.77. Battered women who reported the IPV to the police and the police response (percentage)

		 Women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help from the police N = 27
 Did you report the most recent incident to the police?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		67.4*
<input type="checkbox"/> No		32.6*

Note: “Per cent distribution of women who reported the incident to the police, by the police response” and “Per cent distribution of women whose husband/partner was arrested and convicted” are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.78. Battered women who sought or applied for a restraining order from the police (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 54
 Did you seek or apply for a restraining order from the police?	
 Yes	24.6
 No	75.4

Note: "Per cent distribution of women, by the police's decision about a restraining order" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.79. Battered women who sought or applied for a protective order from the courts (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV and sought help N = 54
 Did you seek or apply for a protective order from the courts?	
 Yes	14.4
 No	85.6

Note: "Per cent distribution of women, by the court decision about a protective order" is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.80. Women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV who left home and their reasons for leaving (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
Have you ever left home, even if only overnight, because of IPV?	
 Yes	37.1
 Never	59.4
 Not applicable	1.9
 Refused / No answer	1.6

	 Ever-partnered women who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV N = 231
How many times did you ever leave home because of IPV	Ever left home N = 86
1 time	26.0
2-3 times	36.0
4-9 times	20.0
10-15 times	18.0
What were the reasons why you left home the last time?	
I could not endure more violence	82.3
I was encouraged by friends/family	9.1
I saw that the children were suffering	6.2
I was thrown out of the house	5.6
He threatened or tried to kill me	4.1
He threatened or hit the children	2.4
I was afraid he would kill me	2.7
No particular reason	2.4
Other	3.7

TABLE B.81. Women's use of self-defense against their husband/partner (percentage)

	 Ever-partnered women who ever experienced lifetime physical IPV N = 182
During the times that your husband/partner was hitting/beating you, did you ever fight back physically to defend yourself? Or during the times that your husband/partner got physical with you in another way, did you ever fight back physically to defend yourself?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	36.4
<input type="checkbox"/> Never	62.5
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know / Don't remember	0.6
<input type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer	0.5

	 Ever-partnered women who ever experienced lifetime physical IPV N = 182
What was the effect on the violence at that time when you fought back?	Ever fought back physically N = 66
⊖ No change/effect	22.9
⬆ Violence became worse	21.0
⬇ Violence became less	23.9
⏹ Violence stopped	30.4
⊛ Don't know / Don't remember	1.8

TABLE B.82. Women's experience of non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, other than by a husband/partner (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Non-partner physical violence since age 15 (at least one form)	6.5	0.5
Pushed you or pulled your hair	4.1	0.3
Slapped, hit, beat, kicked or did anything else to hurt you	3.0	0.1
Threw something at you	1.7	0.2
Choked you	0.5	0.0
Threatened you with or actually used a gun, knife or other weapon against you	0.4	0.0
Burned you on purpose	0.1	0.0

TABLE B.83. Women’s experiences of lifetime non-partner physical violence since the age of 15, by age and settlement type (percentage)

	 Women who experienced non-partner physical violence N = 206
Age group	
15–24	12.2
25–34	7.5
35–44	6.1
45–54	5.1
55–64	3.8
65–69	5.6
Settlement type	
 Tbilisi	13.6
 Other urban areas	4.7
 Rural areas	2.1

TABLE B.84. Perpetrators of non-partner physical violence since the age of 15 (percentage)

	 Women who experienced non-partner physical violence N = 206
Friend/acquaintance	25.0
Mother/stepmother	17.1
Other	17.1
Brother/sister	11.9
Teacher	11.3
Stranger	10.4
Father/stepfather	9.9
Another family member	5.7
Father/mother of husband	3.1

TABLE B.85. Who women victims told about the non-partner physical violence and their responses (percentage)

		 Women who experienced non-partner physical violence N = 206
Did you tell a family member, friend or neighbour about this incident?		
 No one		50.0
 Female member of my own family		39.5
 Male member of my own family		14.3
 Friend or neighbour		10.6
 Husband/partner		5.9
 Male member of my husband's family		2.4
 Son/daughter (children)		2.3
 Female member of my husband's family		2.1
 Other		1.8
How did they respond?		Told someone about the violence N = 103
 Supported me		84.9
 Advised me to report the incident to the police		15.0
 Were indifferent or not interested		13.7
 Blamed me		9.0
 Told me to keep quiet		5.3
 Other		1.1

TABLE B.86. Women who reported non-partner physical violence to the police and the police response (percentage)

	 Women who experienced non-partner physical violence N = 206
 Did you report the most recent incident to the police?	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	9.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No	90.7

Note: "Per cent distribution of women who reported a non-partner physical violence incident to the police, by the police response" and "Per cent distribution of women whose non-partner perpetrator was arrested and convicted for physical violence" are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.87. Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 (lifetime) (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15 (at least one of the 4 types)	1.5
Someone attempted, but DID NOT succeed to force you to have sexual intercourse when you did not want to, for example, by holding you down or putting you in a situation where you could not say no	1.3
Were forced into sexual intercourse that was not wanted (e.g. by threatening you, holding you down or putting you in a situation where you could not say no)	0.2
Were forced to have sex when you were too drunk or drugged to refuse	0.1
Were forced or persuaded to have sex against your will with more than one man at the same time	0.0

TABLE B.88. Attempted forced sexual intercourse among women (aged 15–69) (percentage)

	Attempted forced sexual intercourse N = 38
Who performed these actions?	
Stranger	38.1*
Friend/acquaintance	20.5*
Another person	18.8*
Someone you recently met	16.7*
Someone at work	8.6*
Mother/stepmother	1.4*
Did you tell anyone in your family about this incident? Did you tell anyone else such as a friend or neighbour?	
 No one	49.8*
 Female member of my own family	31.8*
 Friend/neighbour	21.3*
 Male member of my own family	19.6*
 Husband/partner	6.1*

Note: “Per cent distribution of women who told anyone in their family about attempted forced sexual intercourse, by family members’ response”, “Per cent distribution of women, by reported attempted forced sexual intercourse” and “Per cent distribution of women who reported to the police attempted forced sexual intercourse, by the police response” are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.89. Women who experienced child sexual abuse, by age group, education, age at first marriage, household economic status and settlement type (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Before the age of 18, did someone ever touch you sexually against your will or make you do something sexual that you did not want to do (i.e. child sexual abuse)?	8.5
Age group	
15–24	13.5
25–34	9.3
35–44	6.1
45–54	7.0
55–64	7.7
65–69	8.9

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Highest level of education completed^a	
Primary school or less	15.8*
Lower secondary	13.7
Upper secondary	8.1
Vocational education	7.9
University education	7.8
Age at first marriage/union^b	
15–17 years old	9.0
< 18 years old	10.2
18–24 years old	6.1
25+ years old	7.3
Not married / Ever had or currently has boyfriend/fiance´	16.0
Household socioeconomic status	
 Very poor	10.3
 Poor	12.6
 Average	6.8
 Good	7.5
Settlement type	
 Tbilisi	12.2
 Other urban areas	7.0
 Rural areas	6.6

^a The category “Don’t know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

^b The category “< 15 years old” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.90. Women’s experiences of sexual harassment (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
Sexual harassment (at least one of the 9 types)	24.5	9.7
 Stared or leered at you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable or humiliated	15.2	4.7
 Asked you intrusive questions about your sexual, intimate or private life that made you feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended (other than your husband/partner)	10.1	5.3
 Made comments about your body and/or physical appearance that made you feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended (other than your husband/partner)	7.5	3.3
 Made inappropriate sexual advances to you on social networking websites, such as Facebook, WhatsApp or Viber, that made you feel uncomfortable or that you found offensive (other than your husband/partner)	7.2	3.4
 Touched, hugged or kissed in a sexual way without your permission, but did not try or force you to have sex of any kind, such as touching your breasts or private parts, without your permission (other than by your husband/partner)	6.3	1.0
 Made sexually suggestive comments or sexual jokes that made you feel offended	6.1	2.0
 Ever showed or exposed the private parts of their body or ‘flashed’ their genitals to you when you did not want or against your will (other than your husband/partner)	4.5	0.4
 Sent you offensive or unwanted sexually explicit emails or SMS text messages that made you feel uncomfortable or that you found offensive (other than your husband/partner)	3.8	1.7
 Showed or sent you sexually explicit or pornographic photos or videos that made you feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or offended (other than your husband/partner)	3.4	1.1

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Have you ever considered these unwanted behaviours, actions or contacts to be sexual harassment?	Ever experienced sexual harassment N = 790
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	35.3
<input type="checkbox"/> No	63.5
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know	1.2

TABLE B.91. Lifetime sexual harassment experienced by women, by age group, level of education and settlement type (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Age group	
15–24	45.1
25–34	31.3
35–44	23.9
45–54	17.9
55–64	14.7
65–69	14.3
Highest level of education completed ^a	
Primary school or less	15.0*
Lower secondary	18.8*
Upper secondary	21.8
Vocational education	14.6
University education	36.0
Settlement type	
 Tbilisi	51.7
 Other urban areas	17.5
 Rural areas	7.5

^a The category “Don't know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.92. Persons who committed sexual harassment and places where sexual harassment occurred (percentage)

		 Women who experienced sexual harassment N = 790
Person who committed the most recent incident of sexual harassment		
 Stranger		55.9
 Do not know		12.7
 Neighbour		9.4
 Someone you recently met		9.3
 Friend		7.8
 Other		4.2
 Don't remember		0.5
 Refused / No answer		0.2
Lifetime experience of sexual harassment		
 In the workplace (someone you work with, such as a co-worker or supervisor)		7.9
 In school or university by a teacher, professor or school director		4.8
 In school or university by a classmate or peer		11.3
 At a hospital or healthcare facility by a doctor, nurse or other health worker		1.1
 By a police officer or soldier		1.0
Places you experienced sexual harassment		
 Your own home/garden		7.1
 His home/garden		2.9
 Another person's home/garden		5.8
 Street/alley		41.2
 Car park		2.1
 Car		1.4

	 Women who experienced sexual harassment N = 790
Places you experienced sexual harassment	
 Workplace	2.7
 Nightclub, club, pool	4.0
 Rural area, forest, public park	1.7
 Other public premises, commercial or public non-residential premises	4.9
 School, college	2.3
 Institutional setting (including orphanage, care institution, shelter, prison)	0.3
 Public transport	28.0
 Other	14.2
 Don't know / Don't remember	1.5
 Refused / No answer	0.1

TABLE B.93. Experiences of sexual harassment in childhood and adulthood (percentage)

	 Women who experienced sexual harassment N = 790
Did the unwanted acts that you just told me about happen to you before you were 15 years of age or after you were 15 years of age?	
 Before 15 years of age	8.6
 After 15 years of age	82.2
 Both before and after 15 years of age	9.2
Did the unwanted acts that you just told me about happen to you before you were 18 years of age or after you were 18 years of age?	
 Before 18 years of age	24.5
 After 18 years of age	60.2
 Both before and after 18 years of age	14.8
 Don't know / Don't remember	0.5

TABLE B.94. Lifetime sexual harassment, by other forms of violence and abuse (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
		Lifetime sexual harassment
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18		
No physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18		19.7
Physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18		43.3
Child sexual abuse before age 18		
No child sexual abuse before age 18		21.7
Child sexual abuse before age 18		52.7
Lifetime non-partner physical violence		
No lifetime non-partner physical violence		21.4
Lifetime non-partner physical violence		69.3
Lifetime non-partner sexual violence		
No lifetime non-partner sexual violence		23.8
Lifetime non-partner sexual violence		77.3
Lifetime IPV	Ever-partnered women N = 2,976	
No lifetime IPV		16.4
Lifetime IPV		36.4

Note: 42 women refused to answer or answered “Don’t know” about physical and/or emotional child abuse before age 18; for 33 women, the card was not given or no faces were selected; 11 women refused to answer questions about lifetime non-partner sexual violence; and 15 ever-partnered women refused to answer questions about IPV.

TABLE B.95. Women’s experiences of online sexual coercion and extortion (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime prevalence	 Current prevalence (past 12 months)
 Online sexual coercion and extortion (at least one of the 3 types)	0.5	0.1
Someone pressured you to send, share or post sexually suggestive or explicit images or messages	0.3	0.1
Someone posted or distributed or threatened to post or distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of you without your consent	0.1	0.0
Someone told you that if you did not send them money, they would post/distribute sexually suggestive or explicit images of you without your consent	0.0	0.0

Note: “Per cent distribution of women who experienced online sexual coercion and extortion, by the steps taken by women to protect themselves” is not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.96. Women’s experiences of stalking (lifetime and current) (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300	
	 Lifetime	 Current (past 12 months)
Stalking (at least one of the 8 types)	8.5	1.6
 Someone repeatedly loitered or waited for you outside of your home, workplace or school	4.2	0.5
 Someone repeatedly followed or spied on you in person	4.1	0.6
 Someone repeatedly sent you unwanted letters, cards or gifts	2.4	0.5
 Someone repeatedly sent you unwanted, offensive or threatening messages, including messages on social media, emails or SMS messages	1.9	0.4
 Someone repeatedly made obscene, threatening, nuisance or silent telephone calls to you	1.5	0.2
 Someone repeatedly made offensive or embarrassing comments about you publicly	1.1	0.3
 Someone repeatedly and deliberately damaged your property or things or the belongings of people you care about, or harmed your animals	0.5	0.1
 Someone repeatedly published photos, videos or highly personal information about you	0.2	0.1
Thinking about the unwanted behaviours and experiences I just asked you about, have you ever considered these unwanted contacts or harassing behaviours to be stalking?	 Lifetime prevalence	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		42.5
<input type="checkbox"/> No		56.6
<input type="checkbox"/> Don't know / Don't remember		1.0

TABLE B.97. Lifetime stalking experienced by women, by age group, level of education and settlement type (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Age group	
15–24	17.4
25–34	9.7
35–44	7.5
45–54	5.7
55–64	6.3
65–69	4.3
Highest level of education completed	
Primary school or less	0.0*
Lower secondary	6.4
Upper secondary	8.7
Vocational education	5.8
University education	10.9
Settlement type	
 Tbilisi	16.8
 Other urban areas	4.4*
 Rural areas	4.6*

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.98. Perpetrator's sex and relationship to the victims (percentage)

		 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
Who repeatedly committed these unwanted acts or experiences that you just told me about? Were they male or female, or you don't know?		
 Male		89.0
 Female		8.5
 Sex not known		4.7
Who <u>repeatedly</u> committed these unwanted acts or experiences that you just told me about?		
 Complete stranger		39.0
 Someone else you knew		26.7
 Current/former husband/partner		9.5
 Schoolmate		7.3
 Neighbour		7.2
 Friend/friend of family		5.0
 Relative		3.9
 Co-worker		2.7
 Professor/teacher/school director		0.8
 Police officer, soldier, priest, doctor		0.8
 Don't know / Don't remember		2.6

TABLE B.99. Experiences of stalking in childhood and adulthood (percentage)

		 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
Did the unwanted acts that you just told me about happen to you before you were 15 years of age or after you were 15 years of age?		
←	Before 15 years of age	9.0
→	After 15 years of age	81.2
↔	Both before and after 15 years of age	9.4
?	Don't know / Don't remember	0.4
Did the unwanted acts that you just told me about happen to you before you were 18 years of age or after you were 18 years of age?		
←	Before 18 years of age	37.3
→	After 18 years of age	50.0
↔	Both before and after 18 years of age	12.3
?	Don't know / Don't remember	0.3

TABLE B.100. Length of time and frequency that the stalking occurred (percentage)

		 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
You told me that the perpetrator repeatedly committed these unwanted acts and experiences against you. How long did this behaviour last? If this is still happening, please consider from the time these behaviours started.		
	Less than 2 weeks	25.5
	A few weeks (2–4 weeks)	17.2
	From 1 to 2 months	17.8
	From 3 to 5 months	10.1
	From 6 months to 1 year	8.1
	More than 1 year	18.5
	Don't know / Don't remember	2.7

	 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
How often has it happened / did it happen?	
Daily (every day or almost every day)	31.1
Weekly (one or more times a week, but not every day)	44.4
Monthly (one or more times a month, but not every week)	11.8
More seldom	10.8
Only in particular periods (such as during the holidays)	0.8
Don't know / Don't remember	1.1

TABLE B.101. Women who sought help and the police response to stalking (percentage)

	 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
 Did you report any of these acts or episodes to the police?	
 Yes	4.6
 No	95.4

Note: "Per cent distribution of women who reported a stalking incident to the police, by satisfaction with the way the police handled the matter", "Per cent distribution of women who reported a stalking incident to the police, by the police response" and "Per cent distribution of women whose non-partner perpetrator was arrested and convicted for stalking" are not shown in the table due to the low number of unweighted cases.

TABLE B.102. Steps taken (not inclusive) by victims to prevent further stalking (percentage)

		 Women who experienced stalking N = 253
As a consequence of what happened, did you do any of the following?		
	Change your telephone number, email address or closed your social media account (e.g. Facebook, Twitter)	18.4
	Stopped going out alone or changed your route to get to work/school/university	12.1
	Took something with you to protect yourself, such as scissors, a knife or pepper spray	9.3
	Changed your job/school/university or stopped working/studying	6.2
	Changed your place of residence	5.3
	Moved or changed your home/apartment	5.2
	Contacted a victim support centre or asked for help from a lawyer	1.1

TABLE B.103. Women's attitudes towards gender roles (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
A woman's most important role is to take care of her family.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	59.9
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	39.9
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2
Do you think a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Yes	20.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	No	77.7
<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know	2.0
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Should the man control and preside over the house?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		55.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		43.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know		1.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.2

TABLE B.104. Men's attitudes towards gender roles (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
A woman's most important role is to take care of her family.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Agree		74.7
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Disagree		24.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.4
Do you think a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		37.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		59.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know		3.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.1
Should the man control and preside over the house?		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes		77.6
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No		21.9
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Don't know		0.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Refused / No answer		0.1

TABLE B.105. Women's attitudes that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15-24	30.5	69.5	0.0
25-34	52.3	47.3	0.4
35-44	63.1	36.6	0.4
45-54	65.8	34.2	0.0
55-64	71.0	28.8	0.2
65-69	79.1	20.9	0.0
Highest level of education completed^a			
Primary school or less	80.0*	0.0*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	58.3	41.7	0.0
Upper secondary school	64.5	35.4	0.1
Vocational education	69.9	30.0	0.2
University education	47.9	51.8	0.3
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	46.2	53.5	0.3
 Other urban areas	64.6	35.4	0.0
 Rural areas	67.6	32.2	0.2

^a The category "Don't know" has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.106. Women's attitudes that a man should control and preside over the house, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300			
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Don't know	 Refused / No answer
Age group				
15–24	30.9	67.6	1.5	0.0
25–34	47.9	50.4	1.2	0.5
35–44	58.1	41.1	0.8	0.0
45–54	60.6	38.1	1.3	0.0
55–64	64.6	34.5	0.7	0.2
65–69	70.6	28.9	0.2	0.3
Highest level of education completed^a				
Primary school or less	70.9*	23.8*	5.3*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	59.4	39.7	1.0	0.0
Upper secondary school	62.0	36.9	0.9	0.2
Vocational education	64.8	34.1	0.9	0.2
University education	39.7	59.0	1.1	0.2
Settlement type				
 Tbilisi	37.5	60.9	1.3	0.2
 Other urban areas	57.7	41.1	1.2	0.0
 Rural areas	67.4	31.8	0.6	0.2

^a The category “Don't know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.107. Women's attitudes that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300			
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Don't know	 Refused / No answer
Age group				
15–24	6.8	91.2	2.0	0.0
25–34	14.5	83.9	1.1	0.5
35–44	19.1	78.6	2.3	0.0
45–54	21.7	76.1	2.0	0.3
55–64	26.3	71.5	2.0	0.2
65–69	39.0	58.2	2.6	0.1
Highest level of education completed^a				
Primary school or less	31.2*	66.8*	2.1*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	27.9	67.4	4.1	0.6
Upper secondary school	25.6	72.4	1.8	0.1
Vocational education	24.2	73.9	1.7	0.2
University education	9.4	88.8	1.7	0.1
Settlement type				
 Tbilisi	7.0	90.9	2.0	0.1
 Other urban areas	21.0	76.9	2.0	0.0
 Rural areas	30.1	67.7	1.9	0.3

^a The category "Don't know" has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.108. Men's attitudes that a woman's most important role is to take care of her family, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Yes	 No	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	64.3	34.8	0.8
25–34	63.2	35.3	1.5
35–44	74.9	25.1	0.0
45–54	83.7	16.3	0.0
55–64	83.1	16.9	0.0
65–69	86.4	13.6	0.0
Highest level of education completed			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	84.6	15.4	0.0
Upper secondary school	79.5	20.0	0.5
Vocational education	80.8	18.4	0.8
University education	61.3	38.3	0.4
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	56.3	42.3	1.4
 Other urban areas	83.2	16.8	0.0
 Rural areas	83.2	16.8	0.0

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.109. Men's attitudes that the man should control and preside over the house, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15-69) N = 1,104			
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Don't know	 Refused / No answer
Age group				
15-24	61.7	36.1	2.2	0.0
25-34	73.3	26.7	0.0	0.0
35-44	83.1	16.3	0.6	0.0
45-54	84.7	15.3	0.0	0.0
55-64	81.1	18.4	0.0	0.5
65-69	84.4	15.6	0.0	0.0
Highest level of education completed				
Primary school or less	*	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	82.9	15.9	1.2	0.0
Upper secondary school	79.3	19.7	0.8	0.2
Vocational education	86.2	13.8	0.0	0.0
University education	70.1	29.9	0.0	0.0
Settlement type				
 Tbilisi	56.5	42.6	0.7	0.3
 Other urban areas	86.6	13.0	0.4	0.0
 Rural areas	87.6	12.0	0.4	0.0

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.110. Men's attitudes that a wife should agree with or obey her husband's opinion, even if she is not convinced of his opinion or disagrees with him, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15-69) N = 1,104			
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Don't know	 Refused / No answer
Age group				
15-24	20.4	74.8	4.8	0.0
25-34	30.1	65.4	4.5	0.0
35-44	43.7	53.3	3.0	0.0
45-54	43.9	53.5	2.6	0.0
55-64	46.4	51.4	1.9	0.4
65-69	39.1	59.5	1.4	0.0
Highest level of education completed				
Primary school or less	*	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	43.4	50.2	6.5	0.0
Upper secondary school	42.1	54.8	3.1	0.0
Vocational education	36.6	60.1	2.9	0.5
University education	28.8	68.4	2.7	0.0
Settlement type				
 Tbilisi	22.1	74.1	3.5	0.2
 Other urban areas	37.7	57.2	5.1	0.0
 Rural areas	47.8	50.2	1.9	0.0

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.111. Women's perceptions of social norms related to spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
In your city/village, how many people believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	23.8
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	38.0
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	26.3
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	4.9
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	7.0
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	19.2
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	38.3
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	29.2
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	6.9
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	6.4
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.1
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	12.5
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	31.8
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	36.7
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	8.4
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	10.5
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.0
In your city/village, how many people believe that when a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	11.6
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	34.6
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	36.4
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	8.6
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	8.8

TABLE B.112. Men's perceptions of social norms related to spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15-69) N = 1,104
In your city/village, how many people believe that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	22.1
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	32.0
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	29.8
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	7.4
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	8.4
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.3
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	11.3
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	30.2
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	39.0
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	10.9
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	8.5
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	6.4
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	26.8
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	43.2
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	9.7
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	13.5
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.4
In your city/village, how many people believe that when a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	3.9
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	20.6
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	48.4
<input type="radio"/>	None of them	13.5
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	13.1
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.5

TABLE B.113. Women's perceptions of the proportion of men who commit acts of spousal violence (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
In your city/village, how many men do you think sometimes hit or beat their wives?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	3.4
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	15.3
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	36.3
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	18.1
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	26.7
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.1
In your city/village, how many men do you think sometimes hit or beat their wives for refusing to have sexual intercourse when the man wants to?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	1.3
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	10.3
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	23.3
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	13.7
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	50.6
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.9

TABLE B.114. Men's perceptions of the proportion of men who commit acts of spousal violence (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
In your city/village, how many men do you think sometimes hit or beat their wives?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	1.0
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	5.1
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	33.0
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	32.4
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	28.2
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.3
In your city/village, how many men do you think sometimes hit or beat their wives for refusing to have sexual intercourse when the man wants to?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	0.2
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	2.8
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	19.1
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	27.9
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	48.8
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	1.2

TABLE B.115. Women's attitudes supportive of spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and others should not intervene.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	21.4
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	77.7
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.9
A woman can refuse to have sex with her husband if she does not want to, even though he wants to have sex.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	81.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	17.4
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.4
A woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	9.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	89.6
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.6
A woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	10.6
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	88.5
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	0.9
If a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	8.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	89.5
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	2.0
A woman who is raped has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	9.0
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	89.1
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.9
A woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	11.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	87.3
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.4

TABLE B.116. Men's attitudes supportive of spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and others should not intervene.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	37.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	60.6
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	2.2
A woman can refuse to have sex with her husband if she does not want to, even though he wants to have sex.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	71.6
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	20.3
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	8.1
A woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	15.1
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	84.0
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.0
A woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	16.2
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	82.2
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.6
If a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	8.3
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	89.1
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	2.6
A woman who is raped has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	6.5
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	91.8
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	1.7
A woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped.		
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Agree	12.8
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Disagree	85.2
<input type="checkbox"/>	Refused / No answer	2.0

TABLE B.117. Women's attitudes that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15-24	10.5	89.2	0.2
25-34	17.7	81.3	0.9
35-44	21.2	77.6	1.2
45-54	22.4	77.4	0.2
55-64	25.9	72.5	1.7
65-69	34.7	64.7	0.6
Highest level of education completed^a			
Primary school or less	23.5*	76.5*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	25.2	74.4	0.3
Upper secondary school	26.8	72.5	0.7
Vocational education	24.1	74.7	1.2
University education	12.8	86.3	0.9
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	11.7	87.0	1.2
 Other urban areas	22.8	76.6	0.6
 Rural areas	28.1	71.1	0.8

^a The category "Don't know" has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.118. Women’s attitudes that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting/controlling her, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	3.4	95.5	1.1
25–34	4.3	94.8	0.9
35–44	10.4	88.8	0.8
45–54	10.8	88.7	0.5
55–64	16.6	82.0	1.3
65–69	21.8	77.4	0.8
Highest level of education completed^a			
Primary school or less	11.8*	88.2*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	10.9	87.4	1.7
Upper secondary school	13.4	85.6	1.0
Vocational education	13.3	85.5	1.2
University education	5.6	93.9	0.5
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	6.3	92.9	0.9
 Other urban areas	9.5	89.8	0.6
 Rural areas	14.7	84.1	1.2

^a The category “Don’t know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.119. Women’s attitudes that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	3.0	97.0	0.0
25–34	6.1	93.4	0.5
35–44	7.6	92.1	0.4
45–54	9.9	89.7	0.4
55–64	16.0	82.7	1.3
65–69	19.4	80.0	0.6
Highest level of education completed^a			
Primary school or less	27.5*	72.5*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	16.5	83.2	0.2
Upper secondary school	14.4	85.4	0.2
Vocational education	10.9	88.0	1.2
University education	2.1	97.4	0.5
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	4.2	95.0	0.8
 Other urban areas	8.2	91.3	0.5
 Rural areas	15.3	84.3	0.4

^a The category “Don’t know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.120. Women’s attitudes that a woman can refuse to have sex with her husband, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	79.7	18.5	1.8
25–34	81.4	18.1	0.5
35–44	82.9	16.0	1.2
45–54	84.2	15.0	0.8
55–64	79.2	18.6	2.2
65–69	77.5	19.6	2.9
Highest level of education^a			
Primary school or less	61.5*	34.5*	4.0*
Lower secondary school	75.1	20.7	4.2
Upper secondary school	78.2	20.6	1.2
Vocational education	84.3	13.9	1.7
University education	84.1	15.3	0.7
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	84.9	14.3	0.8
 Other urban areas	82.7	16.0	1.3
 Rural areas	77.1	20.8	2.0

^a The category “Don’t know” has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.121. Women's attitudes that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault, by demographics (percentage)

	 Women (aged 15-69) N = 3,300		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15-24	5.0	95.0	0.0
25-34	2.9	95.2	1.9
35-44	7.2	91.1	1.7
45-54	8.7	90.1	1.2
55-64	14.1	82.8	3.1
65-69	15.4	79.4	5.2
Highest level of education completed^a			
Primary school or less	18.6*	81.4*	0.0*
Lower secondary school	7.7	91.1	1.2
Upper secondary school	9.3	88.8	1.9
Vocational education	9.9	87.0	3.1
University education	6.7	91.8	1.6
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	7.9	89.8	2.3
 Other urban areas	7.5	90.8	1.7
 Rural areas	9.6	88.4	1.9

^a The category "Don't know" has been suppressed from the table due to the small number of unweighted cases.

* Unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.122. Men's attitudes that violence between a husband and wife is a private matter and that others should not intervene, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	15.4	81.6	3.1
25–34	29.7	65.3	5.1
35–44	43.9	54.9	1.2
45–54	44.6	54.2	1.2
55–64	44.7	54.6	0.7
65–69	53.3	45.1	1.7
Highest level of education			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	37.2	61.0	1.8
Upper secondary school	42.8	55.5	1.7
Vocational education	39.0	58.5	2.6
University education	27.8	69.2	3.0
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	23.5	71.4	5.1
 Other urban areas	37.9	60.7	1.5
 Rural areas	46.6	52.8	0.6

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.123. Men's attitudes that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone outside of her family about her husband physically hurting or controlling her, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	8.9	91.1	0.0
25–34	10.2	88.4	1.5
35–44	19.2	76.8	4.0
45–54	17.2	82.2	0.6
55–64	20.3	78.1	1.7
65–69	29.0	69.6	1.5
Highest level of education completed			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	14.0	86.0	0.0
Upper secondary school	19.1	80.0	0.8
Vocational education	16.3	82.5	1.1
University education	12.5	84.0	3.5
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	13.4	82.2	4.4
 Other urban areas	17.9	82.1	0.0
 Rural areas	17.3	82.3	0.5

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.124. Men's attitudes that a woman should tolerate some violence to keep her family together, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	6.8	93.2	0.0
25–34	10.6	88.8	0.6
35–44	15.0	84.0	1.1
45–54	18.9	80.3	0.8
55–64	20.4	77.4	2.1
65–69	24.1	74.7	1.2
Highest level of education completed			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	18.1	80.9	1.0
Upper secondary school	18.4	81.4	0.2
Vocational education	16.7	82.0	1.3
University education	8.4	89.6	2.0
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	5.5	91.9	2.6
 Other urban areas	12.4	87.6	0.0
 Rural areas	23.3	76.3	0.3

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.125. Men's attitudes that a woman can refuse to have sex with her husband, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	72.1	17.2	10.8
25–34	79.2	13.2	7.6
35–44	66.6	25.5	7.9
45–54	72.0	21.5	6.5
55–64	68.3	23.5	8.2
65–69	71.4	21.9	6.7
Highest level of education completed			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	65.1	22.7	12.3
Upper secondary school	72.5	19.4	8.1
Vocational education	64.3	24.1	11.6
University education	76.1	18.8	5.1
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	81.9	13.2	4.8
 Other urban areas	63.6	26.2	10.1
 Rural areas	68.7	22.1	9.2

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.126. Men's attitudes that if a woman is beat by her husband, she is partly to blame or at fault, by demographics (percentage)

	 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104		
	 Agree	 Disagree	 Refused / No answer
Age group			
15–24	4.8	93.8	1.4
25–34	5.4	91.6	3.0
35–44	7.4	88.7	3.8
45–54	8.1	89.4	2.4
55–64	15.9	82.1	2.0
65–69	8.6	88.4	3.0
Highest level of education completed			
Primary school or less	*	*	*
Lower secondary school	6.4	93.6	0.0
Upper secondary school	7.4	90.1	2.6
Vocational education	8.4	89.3	2.2
University education	10.5	85.9	3.6
Settlement type			
 Tbilisi	9.1	85.9	5.0
 Other urban areas	6.4	92.8	0.8
 Rural areas	8.8	89.2	1.9

* Data suppressed; unreliable due to the small sample size.

TABLE B.127. Women's perceptions of justifiable reasons for spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Do you think the following behaviours justify a husband hitting or beating his wife?		
Women who agree with at least one justifiable reason for spousal violence against women		1.8
	She neglects the housework	0.7
	She neglects to take care of her children	1.2
	She is late in preparing the food	0.4
	She burns the food	0.2
	She is suspicious of her husband and asks about his whereabouts	0.2
	She refuses to have sexual relations with him	0.1
	She disagrees with him	0.2
	She goes out without his permission	0.5
	She answers him back	0.6
	She spends money	0.2
	She argues with him or disobeys him	0.4

TABLE B.128. Men's perceptions of justifiable reasons for spousal violence against women (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Do you think the following behaviours justify a husband hitting or beating his wife?		
Men who agree with at least one justifiable reason for spousal violence against women		3.8
	She neglects to take care of her children	2.2
	She refuses to have sexual relations with her husband	2.0
	She goes out without his permission	1.6
	She argues with him or disobeys him	1.0
	She spends money	0.6
	She neglects the housework	0.6
	She is suspicious of her husband and asks about his whereabouts	0.3
	She answers him back	0.3
	She disagrees with him	0.2
	She is late in preparing the food	0.1
	She burns the food	0.2

TABLE B.129. Women's perceptions of social norms related to sexual violence against women (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
In your city/village, how many people believe that if a woman is raped, she has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	All or most of them	11.4
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	28.6
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	37.8
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	11.1
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	10.9
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped?		
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	All or most of them	11.7
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	29.2
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	37.6
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	9.9
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	11.4
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2

TABLE B.130. Men's perceptions of social norms related to sexual violence against women (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
In your city/village, how many people believe that if a woman is raped, she has probably done something careless to put herself in that situation?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	2.5
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	16.9
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	49.5
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	19.1
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	11.8
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.3
In your city/village, how many people believe that a woman should be ashamed or embarrassed to talk to anyone if she is raped?		
<input type="radio"/>	All or most of them	5.3
<input type="radio"/>	About half of them	22.1
<input type="radio"/>	A few of them	43.8
<input checked="" type="radio"/>	None of them	17.0
<input type="radio"/>	Don't know / Don't remember	11.5
<input type="radio"/>	Refused / No answer	0.2

TABLE B.131. Women's perceived seriousness of VAWG (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
How serious a problem is family or domestic violence against women in Georgia?		
	Major problem	77.6
	Moderate problem	17.2
	Minor problem	3.9
	Not a problem at all	0.2
	Don't know	1.1
	Refused / No answer	0.0
How serious a problem is sexual assault or the rape of women and girls in Georgia?		
	Major problem	68.2
	Moderate problem	22.5
	Minor problem	6.6
	Not a problem at all	0.3
	Don't know	2.4
	Refused / No answer	0.0
How serious a problem is the sexual harassment of women in Georgia?		
	Major problem	64.1
	Moderate problem	25.0
	Minor problem	7.2
	Not a problem at all	0.5
	Don't know	3.2
	Refused / No answer	0.1

TABLE B.132. Men's perceived seriousness of VAWG (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
How serious a problem is family or domestic violence against women in Georgia?		
	Major problem	57.5
	Moderate problem	29.4
	Minor problem	10.2
	Not a problem at all	1.8
	Don't know	1.1
	Refused / No answer	0.1
How serious a problem is sexual assault or the rape of women and girls in Georgia?		
	Major problem	51.2
	Moderate problem	27.2
	Minor problem	18.0
	Not a problem at all	2.3
	Don't know	1.2
	Refused / No answer	0.1
How serious a problem is the sexual harassment of women in Georgia?		
	Major problem	43.7
	Moderate problem	30.0
	Minor problem	22.4
	Not a problem at all	1.8
	Don't know	2.0
	Refused / No answer	0.1

TABLE B.133. Women’s attitudes supportive of laws that protect women and girls from violence (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
How important is it to have laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from violence in their marriage and families?		
	Very important	87.6
	Somewhat important	11.5
	Not important	0.3
	Don't know	0.5
	Refused / No answer	0.0
How important is it to have laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from sexual assault and rape?		
	Very important	87.9
	Somewhat important	11.2
	Not important	0.2
	Don't know	0.6
	Refused / No answer	0.0
How important do you think it is that health workers routinely ask women who have certain injuries whether the injuries were caused by violence/abuse from a husband/partner?		
	Very important	75.0
	Somewhat important	19.6
	Not important	2.3
	Don't know	3.1
	Refused / No answer	0.0

TABLE B.134. Men's attitudes supportive of laws that protect women and girls from violence (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
How important is it to have laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from violence in their marriage and families?		
 Very important		80.3
 Somewhat important		18.0
 Not important		1.3
 Don't know		0.4
 Refused / No answer		0.1
How important is it to have laws in Georgia that protect women and girls from sexual assault and rape?		
 Very important		83.0
 Somewhat important		15.8
 Not important		0.8
 Don't know		0.4
 Refused / No answer		0.1

TABLE B.135. Women's awareness of initiatives in Georgia for VAW survivors (percentage)

		 Women (aged 15–69) N = 3,300
Are any of the following initiatives present in Georgia for women who experience violence in the home/family and rape/sexual assault?		
 Shelters		65.1
 Hotline		50.1
 Crisis centres		34.4
 National campaign to end domestic violence, specific to Georgia		16.8

TABLE B.136. Men's awareness of initiatives in Georgia for VAW survivors (percentage)

		 Men (aged 15–69) N = 1,104
Are any of the following initiatives present in Georgia for women who experience violence in the home/family and rape/sexual assault?		
 Shelters		41.4
 Hotline		44.7
 Crisis centres		27.2
 National campaign to end domestic violence, specific to Georgia		20.6

ENDNOTES

Key terminology and definitions

- 1 Stark 2009.
 - 2 Stop Violence Against Women 2013.
 - 3 Council of Europe 2011.
 - 4 Parliament of Georgia 1999.
 - 5 EIGE 2023a.
 - 6 Council of Europe 2011; see also UN CEDAW 1992, article 6.
 - 7 Council of Europe 2011.
 - 8 WHO 2013.
 - 9 Eurostat 2021, p. 20.
 - 10 UNFPA 2016, p. 3.
 - 11 Council of Europe 2011, article 35.
 - 12 EIGE 2023b.
 - 13 Eurostat 2021.
 - 14 Council of Europe 2011, article 40.
 - 15 Ibid., article 36.
 - 16 Krug et al. 2002.
 - 17 Parliament of Georgia 1999, article 137.
 - 18 Ibid., article 138.
 - 19 Ibid., article 139.
 - 20 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, pp. 9–11.
 - 21 Council of Europe 2011, article 34.
 - 22 Council of Europe, Parliamentary Assembly 2013.
 - 23 EIGE 2023c.
 - 24 Krug et al. 2002.
 - 25 Parliament of Georgia 1999, article 126.
 - 26 UN General Assembly 1993.
 - 27 EIGE 2023d.
- the Council of Europe’s Recommendation Rec (2002) 5 of the Committee of Ministers on the Protection of Women against Violence is of relevance to Georgia.
- 3 The terms ‘gender-based violence’ and ‘violence against women’ are often used interchangeably, since most gender-based violence is perpetrated by men against women. Gender-based violence, however, includes violence against men, boys and sexual minorities or those with gender-non-conforming identities; as such, violence against women is one type of gender-based violence. While violence against the other groups mentioned is often rooted in the same gender inequalities and harmful gender norms, this report will focus on VAW.
 - 4 WHO 2021.
 - 5 Ibid.
 - 6 Ibid.
 - 7 UNODC 2018; see also UNODC 2013, pp. 49–56.
 - 8 UNICEF 2014a.
 - 9 UNICEF 2014b.
 - 10 Ibid.
 - 11 UNICEF 2014b, p. 17; see also García-Moreno et al. 2005; Heise and García-Moreno 2005.
 - 12 UNICEF 2014b, p. 17.
 - 13 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 4.
 - 14 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 4; Heise 2011; Heise and Manji 2015.
 - 15 Gender norms are the accepted attributes and characteristics of being a woman or a man (e.g. ideas of how men and women should be and act) at a particular point in time for a specific society or community. They are internalized early in life through the process of gender socialization, are used as standards and expectations to which women and men should conform and result in gender stereotypes. Available at <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/genderstatmanual/Glossary.ashx>; see also Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 4; Heise 2011.
 - 16 Gender ideologies are “a world view of what gender relations should be like.” See also Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 7.
 - 17 UN DESA, n.d.-a; see also UN General Assembly 2020.
 - 18 UN General Assembly 2020.

Chapter 1

- 1 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016.
- 2 The Istanbul Convention is a comprehensive and complex treaty that introduces unprecedented and detailed provisions for measures that should be taken by States Parties to prevent VAWG, protect victims and punish perpetrators. It has since developed into a key human rights treaty, a criminal law treaty and an instrument that promotes greater gender equality, and it is characterized by an integrated and holistic approach. In addition to the Istanbul Convention,

- 19 UN DESA, n.d.-b.
- 20 Eurostat 2021; UN ESCWA 2021.
- 21 Fulu et al. 2013.
- 22 UN Women 2019.
- 23 Geostat 2021b.
- 24 Geostat 2020.
- 25 Data obtained from the Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking.
- 26 UN Women 2021.
- 27 Data obtained from the Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking.
- 28 Geostat, n.d.
- 29 Ibid.
- 30 Data obtained from the Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking.
- 31 The given numbers refer to the beneficiaries with contractual relations to a crisis centre.
- 32 Data obtained from the Ministry of Internal Affairs.
- 33 Government of Georgia, Ministry of Internal Affairs 2022.
- 34 Data obtained from the Prosecutor's Office of Georgia.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 Data obtained from the Ministry of Internal Affairs.
- 37 Data obtained from the Supreme Court of Georgia.
- 38 Geostat and UN Women 2017.
- 39 Ever-partnered women are those women who have ever had a husband or intimate partner.
- 40 Geostat and UN Women 2017.
- 41 Ibid.
- 42 Administration of the Government of Georgia, n.d.
- 43 UN Women, n.d.
- 44 Geostat and UN Women 2017, p. 16.
- 45 Parliament of Georgia 2019.
- 46 Geostat and UN Women 2017, p. 16.
- 47 Government of Georgia 2018.
- 48 Available at <https://matsne.gov.ge/ka/document/view/5597108?publication=0>.
- 49 Geostat and UN Women 2017, pp. 16–17.
- 50 Geostat 2021a.
- 51 Ibid.
- 52 The Public Defender of Georgia prepares and publishes an annual special report on combating and preventing discrimination in the country.
- 53 Geostat and UN Women 2017, p. 17.
- 54 Rabe and Unsal 2016.
- 55 Geostat and UN Women 2017, p. 17.
- 56 UN Women 2021.
- 57 Crisis centres in Telavi and Zugdidi began operating in 2023.
- 58 Civil Georgia 2022.
- 59 Geostat 2021a.

Chapter 2

- 1 UN Women 2016, p. 7.
- 2 Garcíá-Moreno et al. 2005.
- 3 UN Women 2016, p. 7.
- 4 Garcíá-Moreno et al. 2005.
- 5 UN Women 2016, p. 7.
- 6 Geostat and UN Women 2017.
- 7 Ever-partnered women are those women aged 15–69 who were or had been married and/or lived with a male partner, and those who have ever had or currently have a boyfriend/fiance'.
- 8 UN Women 2019.
- 9 UN ESCWA 2021.
- 10 Eurostat 2021.
- 11 Fulu et al. 2013.
- 12 UN Women Virtual Knowledge Centre to End VAWG, n.d.
- 13 Interviewers were trained to help interviewees correctly recall violent events by juxtaposing them around other big events (e.g. the birth of a child, an important family event or holiday, or moving to a new place).
- 14 WHO 2016.
- 15 Eurostat 2021.
- 16 Ellsberg and Potts 2018.
- 17 Eurostat 2021, p. 56.
- 18 WHO 2016.
- 19 Eurostat 2021.
- 20 Ellsberg and Potts 2018.
- 21 See https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/gbv_sims.htm.
- 22 Fereday and Muir-Cochrane 2006.

Chapter 5

- 1 The seven types of violence include the following: (1) child sexual abuse before the age of 18; (2) physical and/or emotional child abuse before the age of 18; (3) IPV; (4) non-partner physical violence since the age of 15; (5) non-partner sexual violence since the age of 15; (6) sexual harassment; and (7) stalking.

Chapter 6

- 1 Mannell et al. 2022; Garcíá-Moreno et al. 2005.
- 2 Haarr 2007.
- 3 This comprised the proportion of women who experienced one or more of the four types of IPV measured in this surveyed (i.e. physical, sexual, psychological and economic).
- 4 National Institute of Justice 2007; Carlson et al. 2003.
- 5 WHO 2011.
- 6 Fawson 2015.
- 7 Williams 2017.

Chapter 7

- 1 Ruiz-Perez et al. 2007.
- 2 Australian Human Rights Commission, n.d.
- 3 Ellsberg et al. 2008.
- 4 Lang and Smith Stover 2008.

Chapter 8

- 1 UN Women and UNFPA 2022, p. 116.
- 2 Data obtained from the Ministry of Internal Affairs (via a letter dated 17 May 2023).
- 3 Ellsberg et al. 2001.
- 4 Landenburger 1989.

Chapter 9

- 1 CDC 2022.

Chapter 10

- 1 FRA 2014, pp. 96–97.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 European Commission 1999; FRA 2014, pp. 96–97.
- 4 Zippel 2009; FRA 2014, pp. 96–97.

Chapter 11

- 1 U.S. Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime 2020; Morgan and Truman 2022.
- 2 Council of Europe, Parliamentary Assembly 2013.
- 3 U.S. Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime 2020.
- 4 FRA 2014, pp. 96–97.
- 5 U.S. Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime 2020; Morgan and Truman 2022.
- 6 U.S. Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime 2020.
- 7 Ibid.

Chapter 12

- 1 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 11; Heise and Manji 2015.
- 2 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 12.
- 3 Paluck et al. 2010.
- 4 Ibid.
- 5 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016; Cooper and Fletcher 2013.
- 6 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 8.
- 7 Ibid.; Bicchieri et al. 2014; Mackie et al. 2015.
- 8 Paluck et al. 2010, pp. 12–13.
- 9 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016; Bicchieri 2015.
- 10 Alexander-Scott et al. 2016, p. 8; Elster 2007; Bicchieri 2015.
- 11 Paluck et al. 2010, p. 11.
- 12 Ibid., p. 12.
- 13 UN Women 2020.
- 14 Haarr 2007.
- 15 In the 2017 survey, this question covered six statements, while the 2022 survey covered an additional five statements to comprise a total of 11 statements (see Table B.127).

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