



ECONOMIC COSTS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN GEORGIA



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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
EU	European Union
GBD	Global Burden of Disease
GBV	Gender-based violence
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEL	Georgian lari
Geostat	National Statistics Office of Georgia
GoG	Government of Georgia
IHME	Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation
Inter-Agency Commission	Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence
IPV	Intimate partner violence
Istanbul Convention	Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence
LEPL	Legal entity of public law
Ministry of Health	Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs of Georgia
NAP	National Action Plan
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NPV	Non-partner violence
NSS	National Statistical System of Georgia
OOP	Out-of-pocket expenditure
OR	Odds ratio
SCFWCA	State Committee for Family, Women and Children Affairs of the Republic of Azerbaijan
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
State Care Agency	LEPL Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking
UN	United Nations
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
USD	United States dollars
VAW	Violence against women
VSL	Value of statistical life
VVLD	Value of years lived with disability
Women Count	UN Women flagship programme Making Every Woman and Girl Count
YLD	Years lived with disability

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Violence against women (VAW) is a pervasive and deeply entrenched issue that continues to affect millions of women worldwide. According to a report by the World Health Organization (2021), nearly one third (30 per cent) of women worldwide have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner or non-partner, or both, at some point in their lives. Recently, there has been increasing recognition of the substantial economic costs of VAW for individuals, families and national economies. In this context, the present study was developed within the framework of Phase II of the Making Every Woman and Girl Count (Women Count) flagship programme of the UN Women Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia and the UN Women Country Office in Georgia.

This study aims to estimate the economic costs of inaction that are incurred due to violence against women, defined as the economic costs of failing to prevent or address violence, which are borne not only by survivors but also by their families, society and the economy. The study also seeks to identify budgetary gaps in addressing VAW and estimate the costs of action, which include the current expenditures on services, prevention mechanisms and interventions aimed at supporting survivors and reducing violence. This study also explores associations between intimate partner violence (IPV) and other economic and non-economic factors, such as education, health and working status.

A combination of accounting and econometric methodologies has been employed to estimate various costs. To quantify the economic impact of violence on survivors and households, this study has estimated out-of-pocket costs and income loss. Weighted multiple linear regression, along with adjusted proportions and unit costs assumed from an international study, has been used to estimate these results. The economic output loss has also been estimated, accounting for the loss due to femicide, years lived with disability, absenteeism and missed work opportunities, and household production loss in the form of missed domestic and care work. To estimate the costs of action, the direct accounting methodology has been adopted, based on a bottom-up and top-down proportional approach. To understand the protective and risk factors for IPV, several hypotheses have been tested for statistical significance using both bivariate and multivariate models. Due to data unavailability, certain estimates required assumptions, which have been outlined in Annex B.

The findings reveal that VAW has caused significant economic consequences for Georgia's economy and society. Households with survivors have been found to incur 3,106 Georgian lari (GEL) annually in out-of-pocket costs, which is equivalent to 18 per cent of the average annual Georgian household income in 2022. The overall total cost has been estimated to be GEL 3.2 billion (USD 1.2 billion), equivalent to almost 4 per cent of Georgia's GDP in 2023, which is much higher than the EU average of 1.9 per cent. The cost of action is estimated at GEL 114 million (USD 42 million), with the amount spent on VAW response being 326 times more than the amount spent on prevention. Importantly, the cost of inaction accounts for 96 per cent of the total cost to Georgia, while the cost of action accounts for only 4 per cent. In other words, the cost of inaction (which comes to almost GEL 3 billion) is nearly 27 times the current level of expenditure on VAW-related service provision.

The economic output loss (GEL 2.1 billion), often an invisible cost, is identified as the largest contributor to the costs of inaction, followed by out-of-pocket costs (GEL 694 million), loss due to femicide (GEL 179 million), loss in household production (GEL 47 million) and years lost to disability (GEL 28 million). This study also finds that certain life circumstances are statistically significant risk factors for IPV, including having any health difficulty, having a partner who consumes alcohol daily or weekly, having a partner who is in a relationship with any other women at the same time, marrying or cohabiting before the age of 18, and owning a smaller number of financial assets.

Given the assumptions made in this study, as outlined in Annex B, it is imperative that costing data, specifically those data related to the costs of inaction, be collected as part of the national VAW survey in Georgia. Such an approach has now been used in many countries across the world; the standardized questionnaire can be adapted to the Georgian context. At a minimum, the costing questions on out-of-pocket costs, absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism, unpaid care and domestic work, and missed school days—due to any form of violence—should be included. Substantial efforts are also required to address significant gaps in the administrative infrastructure regarding VAW data. A centralized national database to collect, analyse and monitor data on VAW in Georgia should be established, while simultaneously increasing inter-agency collaboration. Sector-specific training for professionals in data collection, management and reporting should also be conducted. The prevalence of VAW changes significantly depending on the country's situation, such as during a pandemic or conflict. Therefore, investment in comprehensive research to conduct periodic studies on VAW and its costs is a must.

In consultation with national partners and stakeholders, Georgia should invest in appropriate community-based, large-scale prevention programmes aimed to reduce VAW. Appropriate tools and systems should also be developed to measure the cost–benefit of these interventions, showing their tangible economic benefit. Allocation of additional resources to expand health and social services for survivors by increasing the number of shelters, counselling providers and one-stop centres is also much needed. Importantly, while expanding health services is crucial, they should be holistic, integrating both physical and mental health care. A significant improvement in financial support to survivors of violence is also required, enabling them to not only access essential services but also rebuild their lives and the lives of their children. The funding and capacity within law enforcement and the judicial system should also be strengthened to ensure faster prosecution of offenders and strong protection for victims.

This study finds that increasing the current service-provision amount by 100 per cent to approximately GEL 229 million would be equivalent to only 7 per cent of the cost of inaction. This implies that services can be greatly expanded to reach all survivors of IPV without placing a substantial strain on resources. While required investments in prevention efforts and service provision may seem substantial, it is a far more sustainable and impactful approach compared to the immense economic costs of inaction that violence causes. It is imperative that the economic and social policy planning of Georgia incorporates the economic impacts of VAW. Furthermore, enhancing the understanding of the critical connections between VAW, poverty and economic growth will not only help address the issue of gender-based violence comprehensively but also advance progress towards achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Georgia.

INTRODUCTION

The elimination of all forms of violence against women (VAW) is a central focus of SDG 5. Despite some progress, this objective remains a global priority due to the ongoing prevalence of VAW in homes, public spaces and workplaces. Additionally, the interconnected nature of gender inequality and VAW poses significant barriers to achieving other SDGs. According to a report by the World Health Organization (2021), nearly one third (30 per cent) of women worldwide have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner or non-partner, or both, at some point in their lives. VAW has long been recognized as both a human rights violation and a public health issue, with extensive research highlighting its profound impacts on women's physical and mental health. These impacts extend beyond individuals, impacting children, families, communities, workplaces and society at large. Recently, there has been increasing recognition of the substantial economic costs of VAW for individuals, families and national economies.

Since 2018, the UN Women Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia and the UN Women Country Office in Georgia have been implementing the flagship programme Making Every Woman and Girl Count (Women Count), which aims to create a radical shift in the production, availability, accessibility and use of quality data and statistics on key aspects of gender equality and women's empowerment.

Within the framework of Phase II of Women Count, the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) and UN Women, with financial support from the EU, conducted a second nationwide VAW prevalence survey in 2022. The survey covered 3,300 women and 1,104 men and provided nationally representative VAW prevalence estimates in Georgia. The survey showed that overall, 50.1 per cent of women aged 15–69 had experienced one or more types of violence in their lifetime. More specifically, 8.5 per cent of women had experienced sexual abuse as children, and 19.7 per cent had experienced physical and/or emotional abuse before the age of 18. 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. Sexual harassment and stalking are also prevalent, with 24.5 per cent of women having experienced sexual harassment in their lifetime (9.7 per cent in the 12 months preceding the survey) and 8.5 per cent of women having experienced stalking (1.6 per cent in the preceding 12 months).

The present study on the economic costs of VAW in Georgia was also developed within the framework of Phase II of Women Count. The main goals of this study were to demonstrate that the financial burdens arising from VAW fall not only on the survivors but also on their families, society and the State; and to highlight budgetary gaps in addressing VAW and therefore help policymakers to make informed decisions regarding resource allocation.

1.1 Study overview

Research on the costing of VAW is widely recognized as crucial for understanding the significant socioeconomic impact of such violence. This knowledge is vital for policy advocacy, highlighting the need for increased government investment in the prevention, treatment and prosecution of violence against women. It is equally important to understand the magnitude of the resources required to implement laws and policies, as well as the associated national action plans. Costing studies can therefore focus on the costs of inaction, the costs of the solution or on both aspects. Costing exercises play a crucial role in ensuring the effective implementation of a multisectoral response to violence by highlighting the following:

- The implicit burden that VAW imposes on households, communities and the nation.
- Funding gaps in the investment in services to address VAW.
- Delineation of the roles and responsibilities of different sectoral stakeholders in the provision of VAW-related services as per the laws, policies and national action plans.
- Specific areas of capacity-building for government departments on costing methodologies.

Using both primary and secondary data sources available, this project in Georgia focuses on deriving robust estimates of the economic costs of VAW to highlight the magnitude of loss in the context of existing service provision. This study will also estimate the resources required for this provision of VAW-related services, as well as assess the level of current government spending on such services. The ultimate aim of this study is to underscore the significant drain on national resources that VAW causes, providing evidence of not only the immediate economic impacts borne by survivors and households but also the macroeconomic impact on the broader economy. By highlighting these costs, the project aims to inform policymakers about the urgent need for increased funding and improved strategies to combat VAW, fostering a more effective response that ultimately benefits Georgian survivors and society, as well as the Georgian economy.

1.2 Objectives of the study

To achieve the overall project aim, the focus was placed on the following four objectives:

1. To estimate the economic costs of inaction due to VAW for women, their households, society and the economy.
2. To estimate the costs of action, which includes the current expenditure on services and prevention mechanisms.
3. To estimate the protective and risk factors for IPV.
4. To train and build the knowledge of the national technical working group, partners and stakeholders on the economic costs of VAW.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

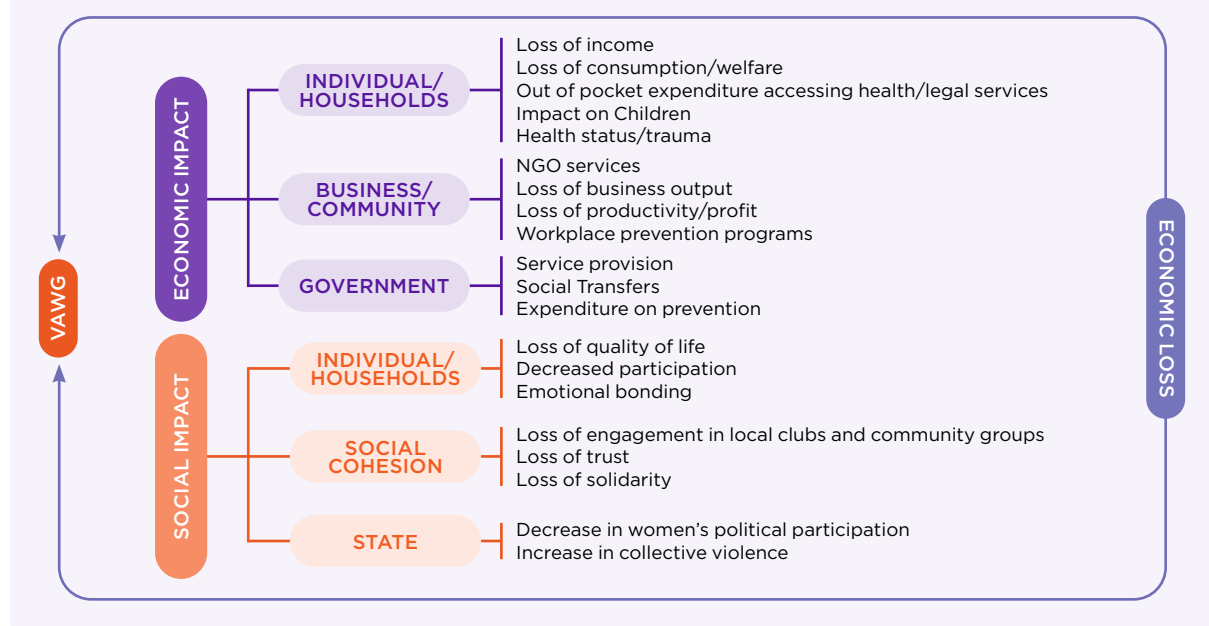
2.1 Conceptual framework

It is broadly recognized that VAW leads to numerous adverse consequences, resulting in losses not only for women themselves but also for their families, communities, businesses and society as a whole. The conceptual framework in Figure 2.1 below illustrates the diverse economic and social costs of VAW across the individual and household level, the community and business level, and the government or State level. Additionally, it highlights the pathways through which these costs at each level contribute to overall national losses.

At the individual level, survivors experience a loss in income and consumption, incur out-of-pocket expenditures and experience deterioration in their health, which leads to economic loss. Similarly, businesses experience a loss in business output due to absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism, by both survivors and perpetrators of violence, contributing to economic loss. The social impact at the individual/household level also leads to economic loss due to a loss in one's quality of life, decreased participation and other such effects. There are also impacts at the State level contributing to economic loss due to a decrease in women's political participation, limiting their power in decision-making processes, and an increase in collective violence.

FIGURE 2.1:

Conceptual framework of the economic and social impacts of VAW



Source: Scriver et al. 2015.

2.2 Methodological approach

This study employs the 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia as the main data set for the costs of inaction. In addition, multiple secondary data sources like Geostat (employment, time use, GDP, inflation), the Global Burden of Disease study (years lived with disability), national reports (femicide) and international costing studies (unit costs) have been used. To estimate the costs of action, the present study has also collected primary data from service providers spanning multiple sectors: health services, criminal and administrative justice, and social services. Primary data collection took place between July 2024 and November 2024. Table 2.1 below provides the list of costing indicators used in this study. Importantly, due to data unavailability, especially on the proportions and associated unit costs related to help-seeking, absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism and household production loss (including domestic and care work) due to any form of violence, this study relied on some assumptions, which have been outlined in Annex B.

TABLE 2.1:
Costing indicators

Type of cost	Indicators
Inaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Out-of-pocket costs due to help-seeking• Income loss due to absenteeism and missed work opportunities• Loss due to femicide• Loss due to years lived with disability• Output loss due to absenteeism and missed work opportunities• Household production loss due to missed domestic and care work
Action	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Service-provision cost including the specific support, equipment or material costs necessary for delivering services• Administrative costs including personnel salary costs, infrastructure expenses and recurring operational costs such as utility bills• Personnel training and capacity-building expenses• Costs of public awareness campaigns and advocacy efforts

Source: Author's own summary based on available data.

The overall methodological approach of this study has been guided by the Duvvury, Scriver et al. (2019) study on guidance on estimating the costs of VAW. Employing a multifaceted methodological framework, a combination of accounting, econometric and statistical approaches has been used. The accounting methodology has been used to estimate the overall costs of action and inaction. For the costs of action, the accounting methodology integrated a bottom-up approach, which detailed service-provision costs at the organization level, with a top-down proportional approach, which allocated costs based on broader annual budgets. For the costs of inaction, the accounting methodology captured the economic loss incurred due to survivors' out-of-pocket (OOP) expenses, economic output loss and household production loss.

The econometric methodology utilizes techniques such as weighted multiple linear regression to model economic impacts, supported by adjusted proportions and unit costs from international studies. A multivariate logistic regression has also been run to identify and analyse protective and risk factors associated with IPV. Several hypotheses to test bivariate association between IPV and different factors have also been tested for statistical significance.

CONTEXT

3.1 Violence against women in Georgia

Violence against women (VAW) is not a new issue in Georgia; it has long been ingrained in Georgian society, which has been shaped by patriarchal values and traditions. These include rigid gender roles, patriarchal authority, hierarchical family structures and intergenerational control within families. The prevalence of violence in Georgia has been most comprehensively studied through two national surveys conducted in 2017 and 2022.

The second national survey, conducted in 2022 by Geostat and UN Women, involved a representative sample of 3,300 women and 1,104 men and reaffirmed the widespread prevalence of VAW in Georgia. In the 12 months before the survey, 18.2 per cent of women reported experiencing some form of VAW, including 9.7 per cent reporting sexual harassment, 1.6 per cent reporting stalking, and 9.3 per cent experiencing IPV. Lifetime prevalence rates were significantly higher, with 50.1 per cent of women reporting at least one of the seven types of VAW. Specifically, 8.5 per cent experienced child sexual abuse, 19.7 per cent faced physical and/or emotional abuse as children, 24.5 per cent encountered sexual harassment, 8.5 per cent experienced stalking, 1.5 per cent reported non-partner sexual violence, 6.5 per cent faced non-partner physical violence, and 22.9 per cent experienced IPV. Importantly, there were methodological differences between the 2017 and 2022 surveys; therefore, the prevalence rates cannot be compared between the two.

In addition to national surveys on violence prevalence, administrative data also play a critical indicator of the prevalence of VAW. However, the administrative data on VAW remain insufficient in Georgia. Some key VAW indicators can be found in the 'Country Gender Equality Profile of Georgia' report by UN Women and on the National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) website and in its annual publications 'Women and Men in Georgia' and 'Children and Youth in Georgia'.

Recent years have seen significant progress in the collection and disclosure of administrative data on VAW. For example, calls to the '116 006' victim support helpline have tripled, rising from 1,016 in 2011 to 1,864 in 2021 and further to 4,100 in 2023. Similarly, reports of domestic conflicts or violence to the '112' helpline increased from 15,910 in 2015 to 18,428 in 2020 and 26,896 in 2021. In 2021, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia identified 8,338 domestic violence victims, 83 per cent of whom were women, while in 2022, there were 7,846 registered victims, with women comprising 84 per cent. In terms of perpetrators, 7,990 were recorded in 2021, 83 per cent of whom were men, compared to 7,366 in 2022, with 84 per cent of them male.

The number of shelter beneficiaries rose from 89 in 2011 to 428 in 2021, then slightly declined to 398 in 2022. Crisis centre beneficiaries increased from 24 in 2016 to 344 in 2021 but dropped to 222 in 2022. Women constituted almost all (96 per cent) of the shelter beneficiaries in 2021. The issuance of restraining orders surged dramatically, from 249 in 2011 to 10,120 in 2021, slightly dropping to 9,483 in 2022, with women making up 80 per cent of victims protected by these orders in 2022. Protective orders also saw a near doubling, from 52 in 2011 to 94 in 2022. Criminal prosecutions for domestic violence rose significantly, from 235 in 2013 to 5,325 in 2022, while convictions increased from 171 in 2013 to 2,375 in 2022.

Efforts have also been made in recent years to collect administrative data on sexual and domestic violence; however, these data are presented in aggregate form and are not disaggregated by sex. For example, the number of reported rape cases increased from 59 in 2017 to 176 in 2022 and further to 204 in 2023. Meanwhile, the number of rape cases that proceeded to court rose from 12 in 2017 to 48 in 2022. These figures imply that only a small fraction of rape incidents are reported in the country, with the majority remaining undocumented.

3.2 Law and policy on VAW¹

The Government of Georgia (GoG) has joined or ratified various global and regional frameworks promoting women's rights and gender equality. These include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Istanbul Convention. Additionally, the GoG has embraced the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, incorporating all 17 SDGs into national policy, including SDG 5, which focuses on achieving gender equality and empowering women and girls.

Over the past three decades, Georgia has also carried out significant legislative and policy reforms to address VAW, aligning national laws with international standards. In 2006, the GoG enacted the Law on the Elimination of Violence against Women and Domestic Violence, Protection and Support of Victims of Violence. This was followed by the adoption of the Law on Gender Equality in 2010 and the Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination in 2014, which prohibits discrimination based on sex, sexual orientation and gender identity. Additional amendments to the Criminal Code in 2012 criminalized domestic violence, and in 2019, new legislative changes prohibited sexual harassment.

The Domestic Violence Law, introduced in 2006, established a legal framework for identifying, addressing and preventing domestic violence. This law also aimed to enhance inter-agency coordination to support the prevention of domestic violence and to ensure that survivors receive protection, assistance and rehabilitation services. The law defined domestic violence and its various forms, laying the foundation for issuing restraining and protective orders. In 2014, amendments expanded the scope of the law to include other forms of gender-based violence (GBV) beyond domestic violence, aligning it with the principles of the Istanbul Convention. Since then, additional legislation has been adopted to ensure the law's effective enforcement and coherence.

Significant progress has also been made in reinforcing institutional frameworks for gender equality in Georgia. The 2010 Law of Georgia on Gender Equality and amendments to the Parliament's Rules of Procedure transformed the Gender Equality Council into a standing body of the Parliament. The Council's mandate focuses on ensuring coordinated and systematic efforts on gender-related matters. Additionally, in 2013, the Public Defender's Office established the Department of Gender Equality, tasked with monitoring the protection of human rights and freedoms with a focus on promoting gender equality.

In 2017, the Inter-Agency Commission on Gender Equality, Violence against Women and Domestic Violence was established under the Human Rights Council to strengthen gender equality mechanisms, replacing the 2009 Inter-Agency Council on Implementing Measures to Eliminate Domestic Violence in Georgia. This Commission aligns with Article 10 of the Istanbul Convention, which mandates Parties to create or designate official bodies responsible for coordinating, implementing, monitoring and evaluating policies and measures to prevent and address all forms of violence outlined in the Convention. The Inter-Agency Commission plays a major role in coordinating legislative and policy initiatives in relation to the legal framework and in planning programmes aimed at preventing domestic violence.

The Commission is also tasked with developing national action plans (NAPs) concerning gender equality, VAW and domestic violence, as well as improving the coordination and oversight of agencies involved in implementing these plans. It also works to promote the integration of gender considerations into government policies. In addition, the position of Assistant to the Prime Minister of Georgia on Human Rights and Gender Equality Issues was created to lead the Inter-Agency Commission, and in 2020, the title of this position was changed to Adviser to the Prime Minister on Human Rights Issues.

Beginning in 2008, the GoG adopted the NAP on Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence and Measures to be Implemented for the Protection of Victims/Survivors. The latest edition, the 2022–2024 NAP, builds on previous efforts by expanding and strengthening services for survivors of violence, including shelters, crisis centres, psychological and medical support, legal aid and a national helpline. These NAPs have also emphasized the importance of producing, analysing and utilizing gender-sensitive statistics. This includes setting unified standards for data collection across agencies and developing the Database on Cases of VAW and Domestic Violence, which has been progressively enhanced with support from the strengthened Inter-Agency Commission.

The 2024–2027 National Strategy for the Development of Official Statistics of Georgia (Geostat 2024) identifies the need for mainstreaming a gender perspective in official statistics. As part of this process, the National Statistical System (NSS) should regularly collect, analyse and disseminate data that address relevant gender issues. All three strategic goals of the National Strategy have a gender dimension. As per Strategic Goal 1, Geostat, along with other members of the NSS, will aim to expand official statistics, create new indicators and develop disaggregation levels of existing key indicators, including by gender, among other factors. Strategic Goal 2 highlights the establishment of an inter-agency group to coordinate preparations for EU accession in the field of official statistics. This group will serve as a platform for dialogue between users and producers, involving all relevant NSS members. Within this framework, thematic subgroups will be formed, including one specifically focused on the development of gender statistics. Lastly, Strategic Goal 3 aims to conduct training on gender statistics and their responsible use by relevant public servants.

Eliminating all forms of VAW remains a central priority for the United Nations in Georgia, particularly for UN Women, which collaborates closely with the GoG and non-State partners. To support this objective, UN Women provides technical assistance to help the GoG achieve its nationalized SDG targets and ensure that national laws and policies align with Georgia's international human rights obligations. This includes prioritizing the harmonization of Georgian legislation with CEDAW and its General Recommendations and Concluding Observations, as well as recommendations from the Universal Periodic Review, Special Procedures of the Human Rights Council, the Commission on the Status of Women's agreed conclusions, and the Istanbul Convention.

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides the detailed methodology used to estimate the economic costs of VAW in Georgia. Section 4.1 provides the methodology to estimate the prevalence of violence, which differs slightly from the approach used in the Haarr (2023) report on the 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia. Section 4.2 provides the methodology on the estimation of the economic impact on survivors and households. The methodology for the estimation of the economic output loss is provided in section 4.3, while section 4.4 details the methodology on the estimation of the overall cost of inaction and its distribution by type of violence. Section 4.5 provides the methodology for estimating service-provision costs. The estimation method for the distribution of costs and overall costs is provided in section 4.6. Finally, the risk and protective factors for IPV (tested for statistical significance) are provided in section 4.7.

4.1 Prevalence of VAW in Georgia

Based on widely acknowledged international literature, the present study does not restrict VAW-related economic costs of inaction to only survivors of physical and/or sexual violence. All forms of violence including controlling behaviour, financial control, psychological abuse/violence, physical violence and sexual violence have been taken into account.

In terms of the time frame, this study has restricted the economic costs of inaction due to VAW to the 12 months preceding the 2022 survey only, primarily for three reasons. Firstly, recall bias causes most survivors to have difficulty remembering what days they missed work or incurred a health expenditure years back. Secondly, it is very difficult to monetize the ‘ever’ costs due to inflation and the lack of knowledge of the exact year in which the cost was incurred. Thirdly, from the perspective of benchmarking economic costs for better policy advocacy, it is virtually impossible to benchmark against costs ‘ever’ incurred.

Importantly, the present study uses a slightly different approach to the estimation of the prevalence of violence used in the Haarr (2023) report on the 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia. Specifically, out of the 2,976 ever-partnered women, 15 women did not consent to answering questions related to husband/partner domestic violence. While the 2022 Georgia study used 2,976 as the final sample size (N), the present study excludes the women who did not consent and therefore uses 2,961 as the final sample size.² The non-partner violence (NPV) estimation in the present study included non-partner physical violence, sexual violence, sexual harassment, sexual coercion and online extortion, and stalking. Therefore, the overall violence prevalence rate in Georgia in the present study has been estimated by including the survivors of IPV and of NPV.

4.2 Economic impact on survivors and households

While there are many impacts on survivors and households as a result of VAW, this study has restricted these impacts to tangible ones, primarily OOP costs and income loss. Due to the data limitations of the 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia, especially on the proportions and associated unit costs related to help-seeking, absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism and household production loss (including domestic and care work) due to any form of violence, the present study assumed some proportions and unit costs similar to other international studies.³

One of the studies that the present study uses is a recent study on the estimation of the economic costs of VAW in Azerbaijan (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020). The geographical and socioeconomic proximity between Azerbaijan and Georgia supports the relevance of the assumptions, as both countries share similar regional characteristics and economic conditions, making it justifiable to adapt such data.

It is crucial to point out that the present study is not using the prevalence rates from the Azerbaijan study and instead only uses the study to assume certain proportions and unit costs for help-seeking, missed work and household production. Importantly, the proportions and unit costs assumed in the present study are similar to many other international studies, not just the Azerbaijan survey. The process of making such assumptions to approximate the results for one country based on another similar country, due to data unavailability, is common in the costing literature (Fearon and Hoeffler 2014; Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury 2018; Chadha, Forde and Duvvury 2020).

The Azerbaijan study included a specialized survey involving 197 survivors of domestic violence. Participants were selected from the clients of the NGO Clear World, an organization that provides support services for domestic violence victims, including shelter. The women surveyed represented a broad range of regions across Azerbaijan, various residential types (urban and rural) and diverse sociodemographic backgrounds. The survey captured each survivor's personal experience with violence, documenting details such as the nature of their injuries, the duration of their temporary incapacitation, any resulting disabilities, and the average material losses and OOP expenses that they incurred in order to cope with the effects of violence.

Importantly, given the targeted nature of the sample in the Azerbaijan survey, it would not be appropriate to apply the Azerbaijan study's proportions related to help-seeking and OOP expenses to the entire population of survivors in Georgia. Nonetheless, the proportions and unit costs were applied on a case-by-case basis. For example, the Azerbaijan survey participants have experienced much more severe forms of violence, as well as incurred relocation and lodging expenses, which may not be the case with the national Georgian sample. Therefore, such expenses were not included when applying the unit OOP costs to the Georgian sample.

4.2.1 Out-of-pocket expenditures incurred by survivors

The 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia only included the impact on survivors of intimate physical and/or sexual violence due to violence-related injuries. However, as the present study incorporates all forms of violence, it uses two approaches to estimate the OOP costs due to VAW.

4.2.1.1 Difference in household expenditure

The 2022 Georgia survey on VAW collected data on the amount of expenditure needed each month for households to meet their basic needs and living requirements, such as for food, clothing, housing, various bills, education and health. Given that survivor households incur significant OOP expenditure in accessing health services, transportation, property replacement, food and other costs, the difference in average monthly household expenditure between survivor households and non-survivor households has been attributed to their experience of violence.

Although the statistical significance of the difference in means has been established, this statistically significant difference can only point to association rather than causation, as household expenditure can be influenced by other variables. The 2022 Georgia survey on VAW collected data on the number of household members, and it has been included as a confounding variable in the model.⁴ The survey also collected data on the respondents' place of residence: Tbilisi, other urban area or rural area. However, this information was not included in the present analysis because location plays an important role in determining survivors' access to services, which directly influences household expenditures. Controlling for the location would also imply adjusting for these variations, effectively removing an essential part of the survivor-related costs that this analysis seeks to capture. By excluding settlement type, the present study ensures that the measured difference in expenditure reflects the true impact of being a survivor, including costs arising from differences in service utilization across locations.

The overall statistical significance of the regression model was established using the *F* statistic. The statistically significant regression coefficient 'experience of violence'—showing the difference in mean household expenditure between survivors and non-survivors—was multiplied by 12 to provide an estimate of OOP costs in the last 12 months.

4.2.1.2 Adjusted proportions and unit costs from the international study

As a second approach and to provide a range of possible OOP costs, the present study used the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) to assume the proportion of survivors who incurred OOP costs. The Azerbaijan survey covered the following OOP expenses: loss of personal or family property,⁵ coping expenses, and relocation and lodging costs. Loss of personal or family property included such items as furniture, household appliances and clothing. Coping expenses encompassed transportation (such as to hospitals, social services centres, police departments or relatives), health care (including outpatient services, medication and inpatient treatment), psychological support (such as consultations with psychologists or child psychologists), and legal and administrative services (such as legal representation in court, administrative fees, fines and forensic expert fees). Relocation and lodging expenses included costs for renting a separate apartment, travel to a new residence and purchases of clothing and household items.

As per the Azerbaijan study, 34 per cent of women reported suffering from psychological stress disorders, and 17 per cent of survivors reported other health disorders that were not related to their injuries (such as hypertension and the exacerbation of chronic diseases). It is important to mention that the Haarr (2023) study also found that 74 per cent of IPV survivors experienced at least one psychological symptom as a result of physical and/or sexual violence. However, as the present study takes into account both IPV and NPV, as well as different forms of violence (i.e. not only physical and/or sexual), the proportion from the Azerbaijan study is more appropriate here and has been applied.

The present study has considered the difference in the nature of the specialized Azerbaijan survey sample and the national Georgian sample. The specialized survey participants experienced much more severe forms of violence and incurred relocation and lodging expenses, which may not be the case with the national Georgian sample. Therefore, for survivors with psychological stress disorders, only the unit cost of property loss (USD 2,807) and coping expenses (USD 345) have been incorporated. For survivors of other health disorders, the unit cost of property loss (USD 2,807) and the unit cost of coping and relocation expenses (USD 1,505) have been applied. As the Azerbaijan study was conducted in 2017, the unit costs were first converted to GEL as per the exchange rate at the end of 2017 and were then adjusted to 2023 levels based on the inflation rate in Georgia.

Importantly, this second approach to estimate OOP costs from the Azerbaijan study has only been used to estimate a possible range of estimates. The results from this approach have not been used to estimate the aggregate costs of inaction.

4.2.2 Income loss: Absenteeism and work opportunities

Income loss for survivors can occur due to absenteeism (missed work), tardiness (arriving late or leaving early from work) and/or presenteeism (inability to concentrate at work). While absenteeism leads to immediate income loss in the short term, tardiness and presenteeism lead to income loss in the long term. As per the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020), 32 per cent of survivors took sick leave for about 14 days on average. Nearly 6 in 10 survivors (61 per cent) also lost earnings due to absenteeism and presenteeism.

The proportion of survivors currently engaged in economic activity was initially estimated using the 2022 VAW survey. They have been categorized as those currently engaged as employees, employers, business owners (self-employed) or workers in their family business. Given the nature of the Azerbaijan sample (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020), it was not assumed that 61 per cent of the Georgian sample too lost their earnings. Rather, only about a third (32 per cent) of 'currently economically engaged' survivors in Georgia were assumed to have missed 14 days of work. With the assumption of 22 working days in a month, the missed days have been monetized by multiplying it by the average female daily wage in Georgia.

It is crucial to point out that the unit missed days assumed in the present study is similar to many other international studies. For example, in the case of a Mongolia study on the economic costs of IPV by Chadha, Forde and Duvvury (2020), the mean number of missed days was found to be 19 days, with a lower limit of 14 and upper limit of 24 days. Similarly, in Ghana, the mean number of absenteeism and presenteeism days due to IPV was found to be almost 12 days, while for any violence, the days lost increased to almost 26 days (Ghaus et al. 2019).

A significant number of IPV survivors in Georgia (N=101) who are not currently engaged in economic activity responded that, both before and during the last 12 months, their partners prohibited them from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generation projects. Extrapolated using expansion weights, this amounts to 39,196 survivors who could not participate in any economic activity in the last 12 months. This lack of participation can be directly attributed to violence. This loss is also monetized by multiplying by the average female yearly wage in Georgia.

4.3 Economic output loss

While OOP expenses and forgone income loss can have significant consequences for the survivor and household, the wider macroeconomic impact on the Georgian economy needs to be understood as well. This study has used a number of ways to estimate these costs, including the economic output loss associated with femicide, years lived with disability, absenteeism and work opportunities, and household production loss (including care work and domestic work).

4.3.1 Femicide

Femicide and attempted femicide data (2014–2022) for Georgia were taken from the Public Defender of Georgia's reports on 'Analysis of Cases of Femicide and Attempted Femicide' from 2014 to 2022. Given that there are no available data for 2023 and that there are not enough observations for trend analysis, the median value of the available years has been used (i.e. nine femicides for 2023). Based on Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury (2018), the economic loss of femicide—by multiplying by the value of statistical life—has been estimated. The economic loss of output in 2023 cannot be a result of only the femicides that occurred in 2023, as each woman who was a victim of femicide in previous years could have contributed to the economy in 2023. Therefore, the economic output loss has included femicide data from 2014, the earliest year that these data were collected.⁶

4.3.2 Years lived with disability

The data on years lived with disability (YLDs) were collected from the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study of the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME 2024). The YLDs data were collected for females aged 15–69 for the cause ‘interpersonal violence’. The recent GBD study only collected data until 2021. However, given that there is not much variation in YLDs among the last few years of data in Georgia, an average of YLDs of the last five years of available data was taken for both age groups: ages 15–49 (254 YLDs) and ages 50–69 (170 YLDs).⁷ As in Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury (2018), a GDP per capita ratio of 3 was used for the monetization of YLDs.

4.3.3 Output loss: Absenteeism and work opportunities

As with income loss, about a third (32 per cent) of ‘currently economically engaged’ survivors were assumed to have missed 14 days of work. However, the broader economic output loss cannot be captured by just income loss. Therefore, the overall missed workdays nationally have been multiplied by GDP per employed person per working day. The nominal 2022 GDP⁸ and total employed population⁹ of Georgia have been taken from Geostat. Similar to the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020), 241 workdays in a year have been assumed.

As with the income loss estimate, a significant number of IPV survivors in Georgia (N=101) who are not currently engaged in economic activity responded that, both before and during the last 12 months, their partners prohibited them from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generation projects. Attributing this lack of participation to violence, it has been converted to economic output loss by multiplying it by GDP per employed person.

4.3.4 Household production loss: Domestic and care work

According to the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020), nearly three in four survivors reported that they were unable to conduct their routine household work because of violence. The average length of time of reduced labour productivity was about 20 days per annum. However, given the nature of the sample and wanting to not overestimate the costs, the same proportion of survivors (32 per cent) missing household care and domestic work as paid work has been estimated. However, unlike missed paid work, where the base *N* would incorporate only survivors who are currently engaged in economic activity, *N* here includes all survivors of violence. The same unit loss of labour productivity of 20 days as in the case of the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) has also been assumed.

Like in the case of income loss, significant international literature exists that points to a similar number of unit days of domestic and care work lost. For example, in the case of Ghana, an average of 23 household production days were lost due to any violence (Asante et al. 2019). Similarly, in a recent study from Ethiopia, an average of 19 days of care work were lost by survivors (Kifle et al. 2022). In the case of Pakistan, the mean number of care workdays lost for any violence was found to be 15 days (Ghaus et al. 2019).

As per the time-use data shared by Geostat, Georgian women (aged 15–65 and older) perform 3.8 hours of unpaid domestic services per day for household and family members and provide 2.9 hours of unpaid caregiving services per day for household and family members. This amounts to a total care workday of 6.7 hours. Assuming 22 workdays per month and 8 work hours per day, an hourly minimum female wage across all sectors in Georgia was estimated and used. The hourly wage was multiplied by care workday hours, resulting in a care work daily wage.

4.4 Overall cost of inaction and its distribution by type of violence

The cost of inaction to Georgia's economy due to VAW has been estimated as following:

$$\text{Cost of inaction} = \text{OOP costs} + \text{Femicide loss} + \text{YLD loss} + \text{Output loss} + \text{Household production loss}$$

The costs of inaction themselves can be due to experiencing IPV, NPV or both. To segregate the economic costs of inaction by the type of violence experienced, the proportions of survivors who experienced only IPV, only NPV, and both IPV and NPV were estimated. These proportions were then used to calculate the economic costs associated with only IPV, only NPV and both.

4.5 Cost of action: Service-provision costs

The costs of service provision play an extremely crucial role from the perspective of advocacy based on cost estimates. This is because it shows policymakers the magnitude of benefit they may get by reducing violence (costs of inaction) against what is actually being spent (costs of action). In the majority of cases, the benefit–cost ratio points to the benefits as a substantial multiple of the costs.

Data collection on service provision took place between July 2024 and November 2024, with service providers spanning multiple sectors: health services, criminal and administrative justice, and social services. Given the varying data structures and formats of different organizations, this study uses a ‘bottom-up’ approach as well as a ‘top-down’ approach to estimate the cost of service provision. The bottom-up approach emphasizes a case study methodology that utilizes a series of actions defined by an algorithm, allowing for detailed calculations of costs associated with each individual transaction, known as the unit cost approach. Within this framework, a unit cost was calculated for each survivor/perpetrator and subsequently multiplied by the total number of victims or perpetrators. By contrast, the top-down approach begins with overall data that represent the entire institutional system and seeks to determine the proportional share of relevant survivors among all service recipients or the proportion of relevant funding among all allocated resources.

While the specific data requirements were tailored to each organization, the general information requested for 2023 included several key elements. This included the annual intake of women and girl survivors/perpetrators, along with the overall number of employees within the organization. Additionally, it was important to determine the number of employees dedicated to service provision and the proportion of time they allocated to this work. An expert assessment of the proportion of time spent was deemed to be sufficient. The overall annual administrative costs were also requested, which included personnel salary costs, infrastructure expenses and recurring operational costs such as utility bills. Moreover, the data request tried to capture the unit service-provision cost, detailing the specific support, equipment or material costs necessary for delivering services. Finally, information on unit personnel training costs and the number of employees trained was sought, reflecting the expenditures related to providing specialized GBV training to staff.

Service-provision data were collected from 17 municipalities.¹⁰ The following example of a typical municipality illustrates the service-provision estimation method. In one of the municipalities, 193 full-time employees worked in 2023. According to the expert opinion of the service provider's representative, two employees worked full-time on VAW-related issues, and 30 employees, including the members of the municipal gender equality council, devoted about 10 per cent of their time. The total administrative costs were segregated by staff salaries, infrastructure, regular operational expenses, outdoor lighting and communal expenses. To estimate the proportion of salary costs for employees working on VAW, an average wage was calculated by dividing the total salary expense by the number of employees. For the two full-time employees, the average wage was multiplied by 2. For the 30 employees working full-time but devoting only 10 per cent of their time, the average wage was multiplied by 30 and then by 0.1.

Administrative expenses, excluding salary, were then estimated, and an average administrative expense per employee was calculated. For the two full-time employees, the average administrative expense was multiplied by 2. For the 30 employees working full-time but devoting only 10 per cent of their time, the average administrative expense was multiplied by 30 and then by 0.1. Importantly, as it is difficult for the municipality to provide salary costs bifurcated by service-provision employees and total employees, the same calculation based on total administrative expense sufficed.

However, the importance of specific staff salary costs dedicated to service provision was emphasized during data collection. Whenever available, to allocate administrative expenses for VAW, costs were estimated based on the share of total salaries attributable to service-provision employees rather than the headcount, to more accurately reflect the financial distribution of administrative resources. For example, in the case of the Anti-Violence Network of Georgia, about 44 per cent of the staff were dedicated to service provision. However, given that most service-provision employees were on the lower end of the pay scale, their overall salary costs accounted for only 18 per cent of total salary costs. To accurately reflect and not over-allocate costs to VAW services, only 18 per cent of administrative costs were allocated to VAW service provision.

In organizations where it was difficult to segregate the costs specific to VAW, an alternative approach in terms of cost per survivor/perpetrator was used to approximate the total costs. For example, in the case of the LEPL National Agency for Crime Prevention, Execution of Non-Custodial Sentences and Probation, there were 466 employees working as probation officers, social workers, psychologists and similar professions. However, as it was difficult to approximate the costs specific to VAW services, the unit cost per convicted individual was estimated. The unit cost estimated was then multiplied by 186 probationers convicted of domestic violence who engaged in a training course focused on changing their violent attitudes and behaviours.

Due to the lack of data on specifically allocated budgets or proportionate administrative and service-provision costs, a 'top-down' approach was used to estimate the costs for the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia. The revised allocations of the Ministry's 2023 budget as of 31 December were used, which included expenses on salaries, goods and service, grants, social security and other expenses. Growth of non-financial assets was not included. The total expenses were then divided by the total number of registered crimes investigated in 2023 across all investigative agencies in Georgia. This provided the unit cost per crime. As the Ministry of Internal Affairs does not provide registered statistics disaggregated by gender, registered cases were taken pertaining to GBV based on the following provisions of the Criminal Code of Georgia: domestic violence (article 126¹), rape (article 137), another action of a sexual nature (article 138), coercion into penetration of a sexual nature into the body of a person, or into another action of a sexual nature (article 139), lewd act (article 141), human trafficking (article 143¹), coercion (article 150), forced marriage (article 150¹) and stalking (article 151¹). To estimate the total service-provision cost, the unit cost estimated was multiplied by the number of cases pertaining to GBV.

It is important to note that, due to data unavailability, especially in the health services sector, this study has not included data from all service providers.

4.6 Distribution of overall costs of VAW in Georgia

Overall, costs to Georgia's macroeconomy due to VAW have been estimated as follows:

*Overall costs=A (OOP costs+Femicide loss+YLD loss+Output loss+ Household production loss)
+ B (Costs of existing service provision)*

where

A=Cost of inaction B=Cost of 'current' action

4.7 Risk and protective factors for experiencing IPV

To understand the non-economic determinants of lifetime IPV, a number of hypotheses have been tested for statistical significance using both bivariate and multivariate models. The first set of bivariate associations focused on women's characteristics, such as ethnicity, level of education and working status. Additionally, the association between women's experiences of violence and their financial positions has also been analysed, understood through indicators like ownership of assets such as land (construction or agricultural), real estate (house, apartment or building), business ventures (shop or company), vehicles (car or truck), livestock and bank savings. A variable was created to reflect the number of financial assets owned, in addition to a binary variable reflecting ownership of at least one financial asset. The financial position of women has also been analysed further by considering whether women earn money independently and whether they are the main or equal provider of household income.

The second set of bivariate associations evaluated the link between women's experiences of violence and their health status or health difficulties. Women's overall health status was categorized as 'excellent/good', 'fair' or 'poor/very poor'. The health difficulties tested included the following: seeing, hearing, walking or climbing stairs, remembering or concentrating, using hands or fingers, self-care, and communicating. A variable was also created to estimate the number of difficulties, as was a binary variable reflecting at least one health difficulty.

The last set of bivariate associations focused on women's partners and some other factors. The factors associated with partners included the partner's education level, economic activity status, frequency of alcohol consumption and whether the partner maintains relationships with other women. Additionally, the analysis included the age difference between the woman and her partner, as well as the woman's age at the time of her first marriage.

For sampling and analytical considerations, certain categories were merged for bivariate and multivariate associations. Any respondent whose response was 'don't know/don't remember' or 'refused/no answer' was excluded from the analysis. The bivariate associations were tested using Pearson's chi-squared test with null hypotheses rejected at a 5 per cent level of significance. The following multivariate logistic regression model was run:

Experience of lifetime IPV

*= $\theta_0 + \theta_1$ Ethnicity+ θ_2 Number of financial assets
+ θ_3 Health difficulty+ θ_4 Economic activity status of partner
+ θ_5 Partner's frequency of alcohol consumption
+ θ_6 Partner's relationship with other women
+ θ_7 Age difference greater than 10 years
+ θ_8 Age at marriage or living together under 18 years old
+ θ_9 Male household head+ ϵ*

where

θ_0 =Intercept

$\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ =Regression coefficients

ϵ =Error term

RESULTS

5.1 Prevalence of VAW in Georgia

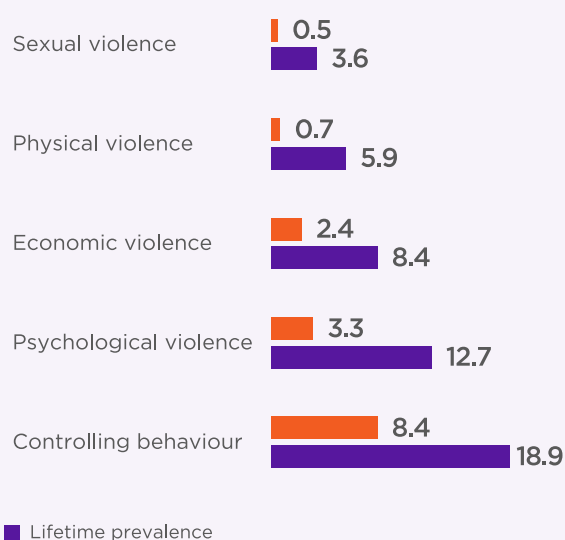
Nearly one in five (18.9 per cent) ever-partnered women experienced controlling behaviours by their husband in their lifetime, with about 8 per cent experiencing such behaviours in the 12 months preceding the survey (see Figure 5.1). A small proportion of women have also experienced economic violence (2.4 per cent) and psychological violence (3.3 per cent) in the last 12 months. About 4 per cent and 6 per cent of women also experienced sexual and physical violence, respectively, in their lifetime. It is important to point out that, because this study excludes the 15 women from the estimated prevalence rates who did not consent to answering questions related to husband/partner domestic violence, some prevalence rates in this study are slightly different compared to the Haarr (2023) report. Please see Annex B for details.

One in four women reported non-partner sexual harassment in their lifetime, while about 1 in 10 experienced it in the last 12 months. Non-partner stalking (8.5 per cent) and physical violence (6.5 per cent) were also reported by a significant percentage of women in their lifetime (Figure 5.2).

FIGURE 5.1:
Prevalence of IPV in Georgia (percentage)



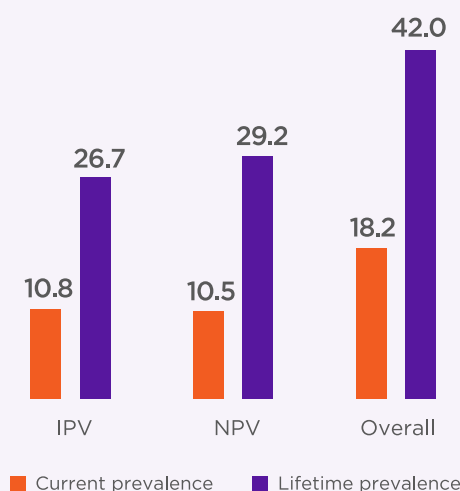
FIGURE 5.2:
Prevalence of NPV in Georgia (percentage)



Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023.

As shown in Figure 5.3, about 27 per cent of women have experienced IPV in their lifetime, with approximately 11 per cent experiencing it in the last 12 months. Nearly one in three women (29 per cent) have experienced NPV in the last 12 months, while almost 11 per cent have experienced it in their lifetime. Overall, a staggeringly high share of women (42 per cent) have experienced any type of violence in their lifetime. Roughly, one in five (18 per cent) have experienced any type of violence in the last 12 months. Importantly, as this study has not taken into account child sexual abuse before the age of 18, the NPV and overall violence prevalence rates are different in this study compared to the Haarr (2023) report.

FIGURE 5.3:
Overall prevalence of VAW in Georgia (percentage)



Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023.

5.2 Economic impact on survivors and households

As outlined in the methodology, the economic impact of VAW on survivors and households has been estimated using the OOP expenditure incurred by the survivors, as well as any forgone income due to absenteeism and due to their partner preventing them from engaging in income-generating activities.

5.2.1 Out-of-pocket expenditures incurred by survivors

5.2.1.1 Difference in household expenditure

Using the 2022 VAW survey data on household monthly expenditures to meet basic needs and requirements, a multiple linear regression was used to estimate the difference in expenditure between survivor and non-survivor households (see Annex A, Table A.1). Households with survivors of violence have been found to spend approximately GEL 260 more per month than households with no such survivors, controlling for the number of household members. Extrapolating to 12 months provides an annual amount of GEL 3,106 that was spent by survivor households and not by non-survivor households. **The annual OOP expenditure of GEL 3,106 incurred by survivors is equivalent to 18 per cent of the average annual Georgian household income in 2022.**¹¹ This highlights the considerable financial burden that violence places on survivors and their households, as this substantial amount of money could have been spent on the household's well-being, instead of addressing the consequences of violence. With 243,971 survivors of violence nationally, this amounts to **OOP costs of approximately GEL 694 million nationally in 2023.**

5.2.1.2 Adjusted proportions and unit costs from the international study

As described in the methodology, with the sole purpose of providing a range of possible OOP costs, the present study used the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) to assume the proportion of survivors who incurred OOP costs. As per the Azerbaijan study, 34 per cent of women reported suffering from psychological stress disorders, and 17 per cent reported other health disorders. Based on the mean OOP cost of GEL 7,924 incurred by survivors of psychological stress disorders, and the mean cost of GEL 10,841 incurred by survivors of other health disorders, the total OOP costs incurred by survivors comes to approximately GEL 1.1 billion (Table 5.1). Compared to the previous method of estimating OOP costs, this method estimates OOP costs that are higher by approximately GEL 348 million. Importantly, this estimate has been provided only as a way to provide a possible range of OOP costs in Georgia. The results from this method have not been applied to aggregate national costs.

TABLE 5.1:
Out-of-pocket costs

	Share of survivors experiencing health issues	Number of survivors incurring OOP costs (N=243,971)	Mean OOP cost per survivor	Total OOP cost nationwide
Psychological stress disorders	34%	82,950	GEL 7,924	GEL 657,296,909
Other health disorders	17%	41,475	GEL 10,841	GEL 449,631,234
Overall				GEL 1,106,928,143

Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023 and UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020.

5.2.2 Income loss: Absenteeism and work opportunities

Income loss for survivors has been estimated due to absenteeism from work and due to their partners prohibiting them from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generation projects. The total income loss, segregated by the loss for working survivors and non-working survivors, is shown in Table 5.2 below. As described in the methodology, based on international literature, nearly one in three working survivors (32 per cent) have been assumed to miss 14 days of work, resulting in about **half a million workdays lost nationally**. Multiplied by the daily female Georgian wage in 2022, this results in a **total income loss of approximately GEL 26 million due to missed work**.

Additionally, the 2022 VAW survey in Georgia found 39,196 women who were prohibited from income-generating activities like getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in other income-generation projects. Multiplied by the annual female Georgian wage in 2022, this results in a **total income loss of about GEL 538 million due to women's partners preventing them from participating in income-generating activities**. In total, the income loss of working and non-working survivors amounts to roughly GEL 564 million.

TABLE 5.2:
Income loss

WORKING SURVIVORS								
Share of survivors working (N=243,971)	Number of working survivors	Share missing work	Mean days missed	Total days missed	Mean monthly female wage in 2022	Mean daily female wage in 2022	Total income lost in 2022	Total income lost in 2023
46.2%	112,646	32%	14	504,654	GEL 1,248	GEL 57	GEL 28,627,650	GEL 26,222,927
NON-WORKING SURVIVORS								
Number of survivors prohibited from income-generation			Mean monthly female wage in 2022		Mean annual female wage in 2022		Total income lost in 2022	Total income lost in 2023
39,196			GEL 1,248		GEL 14,976		GEL 586,999,296	GEL 537,691,355
Total income loss 2023: GEL 563,914,282								

Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023, UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020, and Geostat data.

5.3 Economic output loss

The present study measures the macroeconomic impact by using femicide, years lost to disability, output loss and unpaid household production loss. While femicide, years lost to disability and output loss lead directly to a reduction in GDP, care work being part of the extended system of national accounts also suggests macroeconomic loss.

5.3.1 Femicide

Based on femicide and attempted femicide data (2014–2022) from the Public Defender of Georgia's reports on 'Analysis of Cases of Femicide and Attempted Femicide', the estimated femicide-related loss is shown in Table 5.3 below. Monetized by the value of statistical life, **the total loss due to femicide comes to approximately GEL 179 million.** Importantly, Table 5.3 also includes data on attempted femicides, representing survivors who experienced extreme forms of violence. However, since the 2022 survey is nationally representative of survivors of all forms of violence, attempted femicides have not been monetized to avoid double counting.

TABLE 5.3:
Number of femicides and attempted femicides and the calculated loss

Year	Femicides	Attempted femicides
2014	35	12
2015	18	12
2016	7	4
2017	9	8
2018	6	10
2019	3	7
2020	10	14
2021	2	12
2022	15	14
2023 (median calculation)	9	12
Total	114	105
GDP per capita in 2023 (at current price)		21,769.1
Value of statistical life		GEL 1,567,375
Total loss in 2023		GEL 178,680,773

Source: Author's own estimates based on Geostat data and the Public Defender of Georgia's reports on 'Analysis of Cases of Femicide and Attempted Femicide'.

5.3.2 Years lived with disability

Based on the data on years lived with disability (YLDs) collected from the Global Burden of Disease study of the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation, the economic costs of YLDs are presented in Table 5.4 below. Overall, **due to interpersonal violence, 424 years were lived with disability by females in Georgia in 2023, resulting in a total loss of almost GEL 28 million.**

TABLE 5.4:

Years lived with disability and the calculated loss

Age group	Years lived with disability
Aged 15–49	254
Aged 50–69	170
Total	424
GDP per capita in 2023 (at current price)	21,769.1
Value of a year lived with disability	GEL 65,307
TOTAL LOSS IN 2023	GEL 27,690,295

Source: Author's own estimates based on Geostat data and IHME 2024.

5.3.3 Output loss: Absenteeism and work opportunities

Unlike forgone income loss, which reflects the impact on survivors and their households, output loss highlights the loss to the economy. As described in the methodology, the missed workdays due to absenteeism have been multiplied by GDP per employed person per working day to estimate the resulting output loss. The output loss for survivors who were prohibited from getting a job, going to work, trading, earning money or participating in income-generation projects has been estimated by multiplying the number of prohibited survivors by GDP per employed person.

The output loss due to VAW in Georgia comes to almost GEL 2.1 billion, of which almost GEL 109 million is because of survivors missing work and almost GEL 2 billion is due to survivors being restricted from participating in income-generating activities (Table 5.5). It is crucial to highlight that almost half a million workdays were lost due to VAW and that 39,196 survivors could not participate in income-generating activities, thereby significantly limiting their contribution to GDP.

TABLE 5.5:

Output loss

WORKING SURVIVORS										
Share of survivors working (N=243,971)	Number of working survivors	Share missing work	Mean days missed	Total days missed	GDP in 2022	Population as of 1 January 2023	Total employed population	GDP per employed person per working day	Output loss in 2022	Output loss in 2023
46.2%	112,646	32%	14	504,654	GEL 72.9 billion	3,736,400	1,283,700	GEL 236	GEL 118,916,121	GEL 108,927,167
NON-WORKING SURVIVORS										
Number of survivors prohibited from income-generation				GDP per employed person		Output loss in 2022		Output loss in 2023		
39,196				GEL 56,789		GEL 2,225,900,444		GEL 2,038,924,807		
TOTAL OUTPUT LOSS 2023:			GEL 2,147,851,973							

Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023, UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020, and Geostat data.

5.3.4 Household production loss: Domestic and care work

Using the same proportion of survivors (32 per cent) missing paid work, the number of survivors missing household care and domestic work as paid work has been estimated. However, unlike missed paid work, the base *N* here includes all survivors of violence. As described in the methodology, the same unit loss of labour productivity of 20 days as in the case of the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) has been assumed, which is similar to many international studies. The estimated household production loss due to missed care and domestic work is shown in Table 5.6 below. **Approximately 1.6 million care and domestic workdays were lost in Georgia due to VAW.** Monetizing by the estimated care and domestic daily wage of GEL 32.80 resulted in **household production loss of almost GEL 47 million in 2023.**

TABLE 5.6:

Household production loss

	Share of survivors missing care and domestic work (N=243,971)	Number of survivors missing care and domestic work	Mean days missed	Total days missed	Average care work hours	Minimum hourly wage for females in 2022	Estimated care and domestic work daily wage	Total loss in 2022	Total loss in 2023
Household production loss	32%	78,071	20	1,561,414	6.7	GEL 4.90	GEL 32.80	GEL 51,261,235	GEL 46,955,291

Source: Author's own estimates based on Haarr 2023, UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020, and Geostat data.

5.4 Overall cost of inaction and its distribution by type of violence

The overall cost of inaction for Georgia consists of OOP costs, femicide, years lived with disability, output loss and household production loss. **The overall cost of inaction comes to almost GEL 3 billion, which is equivalent to 3.8 per cent of Georgia's GDP in 2023** (Table 5.7).

TABLE 5.7:
Overall costs of inaction in Georgia, 2023

Cost category	Total cost (GEL)	Total cost (USD)	Percentage of total cost	Percentage of GDP
Out-of-pocket	694,031,525	256,791,664	22%	0.9%
Femicide	178,680,773	66,111,886	6%	0.2%
Years lived with disability	27,690,295	10,245,409	1%	0.03%
Output loss	2,147,851,973	794,705,230	69%	2.7%
Household production	46,955,291	17,373,458	2%	0.1%
Cost of inaction	3,095,209,858	1,145,227,647		3.8%

Source: Author's own estimates based on earlier findings of this report.

Notes: Based on Georgia's GDP in 2023: GEL 80.9 billion. OOP costs are based on a 'difference in household expenditure' approach.

As discussed in the methodology, the costs of inaction themselves can be due to experiencing IPV, NPV or both. Table 5.8 below provides the results of this distribution. IPV contributes to almost 43 per cent of overall costs, while NPV contributes to 49 per cent. Moreover, almost 8 per cent of overall costs are incurred from experiencing both IPV and NPV within the same year. This underscores the need for policies to not only prioritize addressing NPV but also significantly focus on addressing IPV, given its substantial share in the economic burden.

TABLE 5.8:
Distribution of costs

Type of violence	Share of cost	Total cost (GEL)	Total cost (USD)
Intimate partner violence	42.6%	1,317,630,836	487,523,409
Non-partner violence	49.2%	1,523,152,771	563,566,525
Experience of both	8.2%	254,426,250	94,137,713
Total cost of inaction	100%	3,095,209,858	1,145,227,647

Source: Author's own estimates based on earlier findings of this report.

5.5 Cost of action: Service-provision costs

The costs of service provision play an extremely crucial role from the perspective of advocacy based on cost estimates. This is because it shows policymakers the magnitude of benefit they may get by reducing violence (cost of inaction) against what is actually being spent (cost of action). **Service-provision costs have been estimated as approximately GEL 114 million**, as shown in Table 5.9 below. The highest amount of service-provision costs is from the Ministry of Internal Affairs, amounting to almost GEL 68 million. This is followed by the Special

Penitentiary Service (GEL 32 million), the Prosecutor's Office of Georgia (GEL 7 million), the municipalities (GEL 3 million), and the shelters and crisis centres of the LEPL Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking (GEL 2.2 million). All other organizations had annual costs of less than GEL 1 million, namely the Anti-Violence Network of Georgia, Sapari, the Legal Aid Service, the LEPL National Agency for Crime Prevention, Execution of Non-Custodial Sentences and Probation, and the Ministry of Health.

It is crucial to point out that some organizations used their internal resources for awareness and as a result had little or no costs. However, as these costs have been included as part of administrative costs, they are not included as part of awareness costs in order to avoid double counting. For example, the State Care Agency organized 40 awareness-raising and information-sharing meetings in various regions and cities¹² of Georgia in 2023. Additionally, as part of the 16 Days of Activism against Gender-Based Violence campaign, more than 70 informational meetings were organized in collaboration with the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and other partner agencies, reaching approximately 3,500 participants. However, these meetings were held with the involvement of the Agency's staff; therefore, the Agency did not incur additional costs other than per diem costs and fuel costs.

Given the above limitation, **this study finds that the amount spent on VAW response is 326 times more than the amount spent on prevention.** This suggests that even if the amount on prevention is increased significantly, the resulting reduction in VAW would still be much cheaper than the amount spent on responding to VAW.

TABLE 5.9:

Service-provision costs

Organization	Intake 2023	Service provision	Administrative	Personnel training	Awareness-raising	Total costs (GEL)
Anti-Violence Network of Georgia	39	430,988	20,416	40,000	10,000	501,404
Sapari	1,600	259,200	194,678	22,476	250,192	726,546
Special Penitentiary Service (accused/convicted)	1,598	807,465	31,136,839	5,199	0	31,949,503
Prosecutor's Office of Georgia (cases)	13,754	N/A	6,989,930	0	2,701	6,992,631
LEPL National Agency for Crime Prevention, Execution of Non-Custodial Sentences and Probation	186	N/A	96,615	0	0	96,615
Ministry of Internal Affairs (crimes)	5,051	N/A	68,013,503	0	0	68,013,503
Legal Aid Service (cases)	1,667	N/A	824,328	0	0	824,328
Ministry of Health	N/A	N/A	38,126	0	0	38,126
LEPL Agency for State Care and Assistance for the (Statutory) Victims of Human Trafficking (shelters and crisis centres)	365	101,693	2,117,139	0	0	2,218,832
Municipalities	86	49,500	2,844,641	22,801	86,400	3,003,342
TOTAL	24,346	1,648,846	112,276,215	90,476	349,293	114,364,830

Source: Author's own estimates based on primary data collected between June and November 2024.

Notes: The intake, depending on the organization, could reflect crimes and cases. As more than one crime/case could be related to the same woman, and as the same woman can be provided services by multiple organizations, the total intake of 24,346 may not necessarily refer to unique women.

It is important to acknowledge that some organizations use their internal resources to do personnel training and awareness-raising and therefore may spend little or no money in such cases. In some municipalities, expenses on other activities were included in awareness-raising activities due to the nature of such activities.

As in the case of the LEPL National Agency for Crime Prevention, Execution of Non-Custodial Sentences and Probation, where the relevant programme does not have a specifically allocated budget, an alternative calculation method based on the proportion of total administrative costs has been used, which does not provide an exact result.

5.6 Distribution of overall costs of VAW in Georgia

The overall macroeconomic costs for Georgia consist of OOP costs, femicide, years lived with disability, output loss, household production loss, and the costs of existing service provision to governmental and non-governmental organizations. As shown in Table 5.10, **the overall costs come to almost GEL 3.2 billion, which is equivalent to almost 4 per cent of Georgia's GDP in 2023.** The proportion of 4 per cent of GDP is **much higher than the EU average of 1.9 per cent**, as reported by Chase et al. (2022). It is also higher than some other countries such as Australia (1.57 per cent), Bangladesh (2.1 per cent), Canada (0.47 per cent), Peru (3.7 per cent), Uganda (0.35 per cent), the United Republic of Tanzania (1.2 per cent), the United States of America (1.5 per cent), Viet Nam (1.4 per cent) and Zambia (2.27 per cent). By contrast, it is lower than some countries as well—for example, Bolivia (6.5 per cent), Fiji (6.6 per cent) and Morocco (6.5 per cent) (Chase et al. 2022).

Importantly, costs of inaction account for 96 per cent of the total cost to Georgia, while costs of action account for only 4 per cent. **This highlights that the cost of inaction (which comes to almost GEL 3 billion) is nearly 27 times the current level of expenditure on service provision. In other words, increasing the current service-provision amount by 100 per cent to approximately GEL 229 million would be equivalent to only 7 per cent of the cost of inaction.** This implies that services can be greatly expanded to reach all survivors of IPV without placing a substantial strain on resources.

TABLE 5.10:
Overall costs of VAW in Georgia, 2023

Cost category	Total cost (GEL)	Total cost (USD)	Percentage of total cost	Percentage of GDP
Cost of inaction	3,095,209,858	1,145,227,647	96%	3.8%
Cost of action	114,364,830	42,314,987	4%	0.1%
Total cost	3,209,574,688	1,187,542,634	100%	4.0%

Source: Author's own estimates based on earlier findings of this report.

Notes: Based on Georgia's GDP in 2023: GEL 80.9 billion.

5.7 Risk and protective factors for experiencing IPV

To understand the non-economic determinants of lifetime IPV, a number of hypotheses have been tested for statistical significance using both bivariate and multivariate models. The first set of factors focused on women's characteristics, such as ethnicity, level of education, working status and financial status. The second set of factors evaluated the link between women's experiences of IPV and their health status or health difficulties. Lastly, factors such as the partner's characteristics, the age difference between the woman and her partner, the woman's age at her first marriage and the head of household's gender have been evaluated.

The results of the bivariate associations are shown in Annex A: Tables A.2, A.3 and A.4. In terms of women's characteristics, ethnicity has been found to have a statistically significant association with IPV, with women of 'other' ethnicity reporting a higher prevalence ($\chi^2=7.6$, $p<0.01$). Women with at least one financial asset like land, real estate, a business venture, cars or trucks, or livestock, poultry or bees have also been found to be associated with lower levels of IPV. A statistically significant association has also been found among women who own at least one financial asset ($\chi^2=15.6$, $p<0.01$). However, women's level of education, working status, ownership of a business, shop or company, financial savings, and status of earning money herself and being her household's primary income provider have been found to be statistically insignificant.

In terms of women's health characteristics, overall health status has been found to have a statistically significant association with women's experience of IPV ($\chi^2=10.5$, $p<0.01$). All health difficulties including seeing, hearing, walking or climbing stairs, remembering or concentrating, using hands or fingers, self-care and communication have been found to be associated with experience of IPV. Overall, having at least one difficulty (31 per cent) is also significantly associated with experience of IPV ($\chi^2=27.2$, $p<0.01$).

The association between partners' characteristics and women's experience of IPV is presented in Table A.4 in Annex A. The working status of partners has been found to have a statistically significant association with experience of IPV ($\chi^2=8.9$, $p<0.01$), with survivors whose partners are working reporting lower prevalence of IPV. Other statistically significant partners' characteristics include alcohol consumption ($\chi^2=154.8$, $p<0.01$) and being in a relationship with other women ($\chi^2=205.6$, $p<0.01$). The age difference between women and their partners has also been found to have a statistically significant association with women's experience of IPV ($\chi^2=36.4$, $p<0.01$), with a greater proportion of women with a larger age difference (40 per cent of those with an age gap of 16 years or more) reporting IPV, compared to those with a smaller age difference (25 per cent, 5 years or less). Age at marriage or cohabitation has also been uncovered to have a statistically significant association with IPV ($\chi^2=18.3$, $p<0.01$), with a higher prevalence of IPV among women who got married or cohabited when they were under the age of 18, compared to those aged 18 and older. Female-headed households reported a higher prevalence of IPV than male-headed households, with a statistically significant association ($\chi^2=56.8$, $p<0.01$). Partners' education was found to be statistically insignificant.

As outlined in the methodology, a multivariate logistic regression model has been run to understand the risk and protective factors for experiencing IPV (see Table A.5). The **ownership of financial assets—such as land, a home, building or apartment, a business venture, cars or trucks, or livestock, poultry or bees—has been found to be a protective factor** for experiencing IPV (OR=0.8, $p<0.01$), with the odds of experiencing IPV falling by 20 per cent with every unit increase in the number of financial assets owned by women.

Having any health difficulty, such as with seeing, hearing, walking or remembering, has been found to be a risk factor for experiencing IPV (OR=1.3, $p<0.05$). Women with any health difficulty have been found to have 30 per cent higher odds than women with no health difficulty. In terms of partners' characteristics, their **daily/weekly alcohol consumption** (OR=3.09, $p<0.01$) is associated with 209 per cent higher odds, and **having a relationship with other women** (OR=3.76, $p<0.01$) with 276 per cent higher odds. Both of these variables **have been found to be statistically significant risk factors** for experiencing IPV.

Getting married or cohabiting under 18 years of age has also been found to be a statistically significant risk factor (OR=1.39, $p<0.05$). The odds ratio implies that women who get married or cohabitate under the age of 18 have about 40 per cent higher odds of experiencing IPV than women who get married at or after 18 years of age. Finally, having a male head of household has been uncovered to be a protective factor (OR=0.75, $p=0.01$), with women in male-headed households having 25 per cent lower odds of experiencing IPV than women in female-headed households. Ethnicity, partners' working status and the age difference between women and men were found to be statistically insignificant factors in the multivariate model.



CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Violence against women (VAW) is not only a serious violation of human rights and a major public health issue, but it also forces substantial economic costs on individuals, communities and societies. Survivors of violence bear significant out-of-pocket expenses for medical care, shelter, property replacement, legal support and other essential services. Beyond these OOP costs, the cost of inaction is also associated with femicide loss, years lost to disability, output loss and household production loss, amounting to approximately GEL 3 billion (USD 1.1 billion) for Georgia in 2023.

The macroeconomic losses associated with the cost of inaction suggest that VAW is not an isolated issue affecting only survivors or their families. Rather, it has far-reaching consequences that weaken economic growth and societal well-being. This substantial economic leakage caused by inaction stresses the strong need for effective investment in policies and programmes to prevent and respond to VAW. Based on the primary data collected by this study, the current cost incurred by service providers in preventing and responding to VAW is GEL 114 million (USD 42 million).

The overall total cost has been estimated to be GEL 3.2 billion (USD 1.2 billion), equivalent to almost 4 per cent of Georgia's GDP in 2023. Crucially, the total cost of inaction equates to almost 27 times the current level of expenditure on service provision. In other words, increasing the current level of service provision by 100 per cent would be equivalent to only 7 per cent of the cost of inaction. For policymakers, this information stresses the potential economic gains from addressing the issue comprehensively. Investment in services, prevention efforts and support mechanisms not only provides the necessary support to survivors but also improves overall economic productivity. The message to the Georgian Government is straightforward: The current response is insufficient to tackle the scale of the problem of VAW. Without a significant increase in investment in the prevention of and response to VAW, it will continue to impose a substantial strain on Georgia's economy.

The recommendations of this study are presented below.

6.1 Costing data collection

- ▶ Costing data, specifically related to the costs of inaction, should be collected as part of the national VAW survey in Georgia. Such an approach has now been used in many countries across the world; the standardized questionnaire can be adapted to the Georgian context. Duvvury, Srinivasan et al. (2019) and Chase et al. (2022) provide excellent examples of the potential costing questions.
 - At a minimum, the costing questions should include those on OOP costs, absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism, and unpaid care and domestic work.
 - The 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia revealed that the children of survivors were impacted both physically and emotionally. Virtually every second woman who experienced physical and/or sexual IPV reported that their children were fearful or nervous, while nearly one third of survivors reported that their children had anxiety, anger or temperament problems. Given the severe impact on children, it is crucial that costing data in the form of missed school days be collected. Moreover, the impact of VAW on children's academic performance should also be measured, as it could lead to lower future earnings and have intergenerational consequences.

- Due to underreporting and recall bias, estimating the loss of economic output due to absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism has been a challenge in the costing literature. To estimate the number of lost days of labour productivity, the approach recommended by Duvvury, Vara-Horna and Chadha (2022) may be used. This approach involves asking all women, not only survivors, specific questions regarding absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism. Using relevant weightings, the absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism days are estimated, and then a comparison between survivors and non-survivors is conducted to estimate productivity loss associated with VAW.
 - Economic costing questions can be asked to determine the overall impact of VAW in the last 12 months, like the approach used in Ghana (Asante et al. 2019), Pakistan (Ghaus et al. 2019) and South Sudan (Elmusharaf et al. 2019). However, the economic costing questions can also be asked incident by incident, like the approach used in Ethiopia (Kifle et al. 2022) and Viet Nam (Duvvury, Carney and Nguyen 2012). The decision on the appropriate approach should be agreed upon with national partners and stakeholders.
 - The impacts of VAW should be captured for all survivors of violence and should not be restricted only to survivors of physical and/or sexual violence. An abundance of literature now exists highlighting the fact that psychological and economic violence also lead to significant costs for survivors, their households and the broader economy. Some of the countries with evidence of these costs include Ethiopia (Duvvury et al. 2024), Ghana (Asante et al. 2019), Jordan (ESCWA 2024), Pakistan (Ghaus et al. 2019) and South Sudan (Elmusharaf et al. 2019).
 - Economic output loss has been uncovered to be the biggest contributor to macroeconomic loss in Georgia. While a national survey captures the costs associated with all working survivors, a specialized survey focusing solely on women in the manufacturing and services sectors could provide more precise estimates by capturing industry-specific absenteeism, presenteeism and employment disruptions due to VAW. The industry-specific insights can provide actionable data for implementing targeted interventions. Previous studies, such as Asante et al. (2019), Chadha, Kennedy and Duvvury (2022) and Vara-Horna (2013, 2015), may provide valuable insights for designing and conducting such a survey.
- ▶ Georgia has significant gaps in its administrative data infrastructure on VAW, and substantial tangible efforts are required to address them.
 - A centralized national database to collect, analyse and monitor data on VAW in Georgia should be established, which will ensure consistent and timely reporting across health, social and justice sectors.
 - Administrative data-collection capacity needs to be built in Georgia. This may be accomplished by providing sector-specific training for professionals in data collection, management and reporting, especially at health facilities, shelters, and police and justice departments, to improve data storage, accuracy and usability.
 - VAW is a multifaceted issue; tackling it requires immense collaboration between agencies. It is strongly recommended that inter-agency agreements to share and integrate data be established and rigorously followed.
 - ▶ The prevalence of VAW changes significantly depending on a country's situation, such as during a pandemic or conflict. Therefore, investment in comprehensive research to conduct periodic studies on estimating the costs of both inaction and action is a must.

6.2 Prevention and awareness

- ▶ This study found that money spent on VAW response was more than 300 times the money spent on prevention and awareness. Therefore, a significant increase in investment in preventive measures is much needed.
- ▶ Georgia may benefit immensely from investment in some community-based, large-scale prevention programmes aimed to reduce GBV. Many such interventions across the world have now been developed to reduce GBV—for example, Stepping Stones and Creating Futures, IMAGE, Maisha, Sumaq Warmi, Mashinani, Trickle-Up Plus, Zindagii Shoista, and HERrespect (Kerr-Wilson et al. 2020). The most appropriate intervention for Georgia should be identified in consultation with national partners and stakeholders.
- ▶ The private sector's role in preventing VAW is invaluable. The Georgian Government should engage with private sector businesses to promote awareness through training programmes and events.

6.3 Survivor support services

- ▶ The Georgian Government needs to allocate additional resources to expand health and social services for survivors by increasing the number of shelters, counselling providers and one-stop centres.
- ▶ While expanding health services is crucial, they should be holistic, integrating both physical and mental health care.
- ▶ The capacity of service providers should be strengthened by training personnel and ensuring sufficient resources for survivor-focused programmes.
- ▶ Improved financial support should be provided to survivors of violence, enabling them to access essential services, mitigate the impact of violence and rebuild their lives along with the lives of their children.
- ▶ As with prevention, private sector involvement in supporting survivors is essential. Businesses should be strongly encouraged to adopt workplace policies tailored to survivors' needs—for example, paid leave, workplace counselling and other support measures.
- ▶ There is a critical need to strengthen law enforcement capacity in gender-sensitive practices and ensure that VAW cases are handled with empathy and professionalism.

6.4 Economic and policy integration

- ▶ There needs to be recognition of the costs of inaction in Georgia's economic and social policy planning. A comprehensive analysis of GBV-related impacts should be incorporated into said planning.
- ▶ The understanding of the critical connections between VAW, poverty and economic growth should be enhanced to address the issue comprehensively and advance progress towards achieving the SDGs.
- ▶ Tools and systems need to be developed to measure the cost–benefit of interventions, showing their tangible economic benefit as well as demonstrating how addressing VAW contributes to economic growth.
- ▶ Georgia should aim to allocate a fixed percentage of GDP annually to fund comprehensive VAW interventions, including prevention and support services.

ANNEXES

Annex A – Selected results tables

TABLE A.1:
Multiple linear regression of household expenditure

Household expenditure	Coefficient	Robust standard error	t	P>t	95% confidence interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
Experience of violence	258.78	67.42	3.84	0.00	126.59	390.97
Household size	212.31	13.36	15.89	0.00	186.11	238.51
Constant	1,346.85	52.71	25.55	0.00	1,243.49	1,450.21
N	3,272					
F(2, 3269)	130.66					
Prob > F	0.00					
R-squared	0.10					
Root MSE	1,191.2					

Source: Author's own results based on Haarr 2023.

TABLE A.2:

Bivariate associations of IPV, by women's characteristics

Factors	IPV lifetime prevalence	Significance
Ethnicity		
Georgian	25.7	$\chi^2=7.6$, p<0.01
Other	33.3	
Level of education		
School	26.4	$\chi^2=7.6$, p<0.01
Vocational	26.5	
University	27.1	
Working status		
Yes	26.8	$\chi^2=0.00$, p=0.98
No	26.6	
Financial assets		
Land (construction or agriculture)		$\chi^2=49.4$, p<0.01
Yes	20.4	
No	33.2	
House, apartment or building		$\chi^2=49.4$, p<0.01
Yes	24.1	
No	33.3	
Business, shop or company		$\chi^2=0.001$, p=0.97
Yes	26.8	
No	26.7	
Cars or trucks		$\chi^2=49.4$, p<0.01
Yes	20.7	
No	29.6	
Livestock, poultry or bees		$\chi^2=45.4$, p<0.01
Yes	17.7	
No	31.1	
Savings		$\chi^2=2.9$, p=0.09
Yes	32.9	
No	26.2	
At least one asset		$\chi^2=15.6$, p<0.01
Yes	24.7	
No	35.4	
Money earned		
Yes	27.7	$\chi^2=2.1$, p=0.15
No	24.7	
Income provider		
Yes	28.6	$\chi^2=1.5$, p=0.2
No	25.6	

Source: Author's own results based on Haarr 2023.

Notes: While the prevalence of IPV has been established using expansion weights, to avoid over-sensitivity of the tests due to a large sample size, the test significance has been established without them.

TABLE A.3:

Bivariate associations of IPV, by women's health characteristics

Factors	IPV lifetime prevalence	Significance
Overall health		
Excellent/good	24.7	$\chi^2=10.5, p<0.01$
Fair	27.1	
Poor/very poor	30.2	
Health difficulties		
Seeing		$\chi^2=8.8, p<0.01$
Yes	30.4	
No	24.9	
Hearing		$\chi^2=15.9, p<0.01$
Yes	36.6	
No	25.8	
Walking or climbing stairs		$\chi^2=8.9, p<0.01$
Yes	30.4	
No	25.2	
Remembering or concentrating		$\chi^2=36.1, p<0.01$
Yes	36.4	
No	24.4	
Using hands or fingers		$\chi^2=6.2, p=0.01$
Yes	34.1	
No	26.0	
Self-care		$\chi^2=15.6, p<0.01$
Yes	44.1	
No	26.3	
Communicating		$\chi^2=11.4, p<0.01$
Yes	43.9	
No	26.4	
At least one difficulty		$\chi^2=27.2, p<0.01$
Yes	31.1	
No	22.1	

Source: Author's own results based on Haarr 2023.

Notes: While the prevalence of IPV has been established using expansion weights, to avoid over-sensitivity of the tests due to a large sample size, the test significance has been established without them

TABLE A.4:

Bivariate associations of IPV, by partners' characteristics and other factors

Factors	IPV lifetime prevalence	Significance*
Partners' working status		
Yes	25.1	$\chi^2=8.9, p<0.01$
No	32.9	
Partners' level of education		
School	27.5	$\chi^2=1.5, p=0.47$
Vocational	24.8	
University	26.7	
Partners' alcohol consumption		
Daily/weekly	51.0	$\chi^2=154.8, p<0.01$
Other frequency	22.6	
Partners' relationship with other women		
Yes	56.1	$\chi^2=205.6, p<0.01$
No	21.4	
Age difference between partners		
0–5 years	25.1	$\chi^2=36.4, p<0.01$
6–10 years	25.8	
11–15 years	30.2	
≥ 16 years	40.1	
Woman's age at marriage or cohabitation		
Aged < 18	33.7	$\chi^2=18.3, p<0.01$
Aged 18–20	26.8	
Aged > 20	23.9	
Head of household's gender		
Male	23.2	$\chi^2=56.8, p<0.01$
Female	35.4	

Source: Author's own results based on Haarr 2023.

* While the prevalence of IPV has been established using expansion weights, to avoid over-sensitivity of the tests due to a large sample size, the test significance has been established without them.

TABLE A.5:

Multivariate logistic regression – Determinants of IPV

Experience of IPV	Coefficient	Odds ratio	Robust standard error	z	P>z	95% confidence interval	
						Lower bound	Upper bound
Ethnicity	-0.15	0.86	0.15	-0.88	0.38	0.61	1.21
Number of financial assets	-0.22	0.80	0.03	-5.61	0.00	0.74	0.87
Health difficulty	0.26	1.30	0.14	2.35	0.02	1.04	1.62
Working partner	-0.18	0.84	0.11	-1.4	0.16	0.65	1.07
Partners' alcohol consumption (daily or weekly)	1.13	3.09	0.40	8.7	0.00	2.40	3.98
Partners' relationship with other women	1.32	3.76	0.49	10.12	0.00	2.91	4.86
Age difference > 10 years	0.06	1.07	0.15	0.44	0.66	0.80	1.41
Age at marriage/cohabitation < age 18	0.33	1.39	0.22	2.14	0.03	1.03	1.89
Male head of household	-0.29	0.75	0.09	-2.49	0.01	0.60	0.94
Constant	-0.76	0.47	0.11	-3.15	0.00	0.29	0.75
N	2,471						
Wald chi-squared (9)	269.7						
Prob > chi-squared	0.00						
Pseudo R-squared	0.12						

Source: Author's own results based on Haarr 2023.

Annex B – Methodology and assumptions

Type of estimate	Methodology	Assumptions
Prevalence rates	Women are categorized as survivors of IPV if they experienced any form of IPV within the 12 months preceding the survey, including controlling behaviour, financial control, psychological abuse or violence, physical violence or sexual violence. Similarly, women are categorized as survivors of NPV if they experienced any form of NPV within the last 12 months, including non-partner physical violence, sexual violence, sexual harassment, sexual coercion and online extortion, and stalking. The overall violence prevalence rate in Georgia has been estimated by including the survivors of IPV and of NPV.	Unlike the Haarr (2023) study, the present study excludes those women who did not consent to answering questions related to husband/partner domestic violence and therefore uses 2,961 as the final sample size to estimate the IPV prevalence rate. Although the absolute number of non-consenting women (15) is relatively small and that their exclusion only slightly underestimates the prevalence, using expansion weights reveals that they represent 5,698 women nationally. Therefore, they should be considered from this wider national perspective. Similar to the IPV prevalence estimation, an ‘exclusion’ approach has been followed in the estimation of NPV. For example, in the case of non-partner sexual violence, four women refused to answer the non-partner sexual violence questions and were therefore excluded while estimating the prevalence of non-partner sexual violence.
Cost of inaction: Overall	<p>The overall methodological approach of this study has been guided by the Duvvury, Scriver et al. (2019) study on guidance on estimating the costs of VAWG. A combination of accounting, econometric and statistical approaches has been used to estimate the costs of inaction. The following equation has been used to estimate the overall cost of inaction:</p> $\text{Cost of inaction} = \text{OOP costs} + \text{Femicide loss} + \text{Years lived with disability loss} + \text{Output loss} + \text{Household production loss}$	Due to recall bias and the difficulty in monetizing and benchmarking the ‘ever’ costs, this study has restricted the economic costs of inaction due to VAW to the last 12 months only. Due to data limitations, this study has included only a limited range of violence-related impacts in the estimation of economic costs of inaction. Some of the impacts not estimated are reproductive health loss, forced marriages and the intergenerational impact of children missing school. Additionally, the study has not included the economic impact from the perspective of perpetrating acts of violence. Recent literature indicates that violence affects not only female survivors but also male perpetrators, who experience significant negative work-related consequences for having perpetrated violence.

Type of estimate	Methodology	Assumptions
OOP costs: Difference in household expenditure	<p>Given that survivor households incur significant OOP expenditures in the form of accessing health services, transportation, property replacement, food and other necessities, the difference in average monthly household expenditure between survivor households and non-survivor households has been attributed to the former's experience of violence. Using a weighted multiple linear regression model, this study has estimated the difference in average monthly household expenditure between survivor households and non-survivor households, with the number of people in the household as a control variable. The equations for the regression model and the estimation of OOP expenditure are shown below:</p> $\text{Household expenditure} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Experience of violence} + \beta_2 \text{Number of people in household} + \varepsilon$ <p>where β_0 = Intercept β_1, β_2 = Regression coefficients ε = Error term</p> $\text{OOP expenditure} = \text{Number of survivors} \times \text{Average OOP expenditure estimated from regression analysis}$	Household expenditure can be influenced by many other factors that were not included in the model due to data limitations. As a result, the regression coefficients should be interpreted as approximations, rather than precise estimates.
OOP costs: Proportions from international study	<p>As a second approach and to only provide a range of possible OOP costs, the following equation was used to estimate total OOP costs:</p> $\text{OOP expenditure} = \text{Number of survivors} \times \text{Proportion of survivors incurring OOP expenditure} \times \text{Average OOP expenditure}$	The present study uses the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) to assume the proportion of survivors who incurred OOP costs, while taking into account the difference in nature of the sample of the specialized survey and the national Georgian sample. The specialized survey participants have experienced much more severe forms of violence, which may not be the case with the national Georgian sample. While these results are used only to provide a range of possible OOP costs and have not been included in the estimation of aggregate national costs, they cannot represent Georgia accurately.
Income loss: Absenteeism	<p>The following equation was used to estimate total absenteeism loss:</p> $\text{Absenteeism loss} = \text{Number of survivors working} \times \text{Proportion of working survivors missing work} \times \text{Mean days missed} \times \text{Mean female daily wage}$	The present study uses the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) to assume the proportion of these survivors missing work. The unit missed days has also been assumed from the Azerbaijan study, which is similar to many other international studies.

Type of estimate	Methodology	Assumptions
Income loss: Work opportunities	<p>The following equation was used to estimate the loss in work opportunities:</p> $\text{Work opportunity loss} = \text{Number of survivors prevented from participating in income generating activities} \times \text{Mean annual female wage}$	The present study assumes that all survivors whose partners restricted their ability to work, trade or engage in income-generating activities would have had access to job opportunities, although this may not always be the case.
Femicide	<p>The total femicide loss in 2023 was estimated as follows:</p> $\text{Femicide Loss in 2023} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^9 N_{n-i} \right) \times \text{VSL}$ <p>where</p> <p>$N_{(n-i)}$ = Number of femicides in the year $N-i$ with n being the year for which the loss is calculated, with i ranging from 0 to 9, representing the years 2014 to 2023.</p>	Given that there are no available data for 2023 and that there are not enough observations for a trend analysis, the median value of the available years has been used for the number of femicides in 2023 (i.e. nine femicides). Based on Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury (2018), the economic loss due to femicide has been estimated by multiplying femicides by the estimated value of statistical life. The GDP per capita ratio of 72, as used in Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury (2018), has been applied to estimate the value of statistical life. Importantly, the ratio of 72 is only indicative and may not be precisely applicable for Georgia.
Years lived with disability	<p>The data on years lived with disability (YLDs) for interpersonal violence were collected from the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study of the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME 2024). The following equation was used to estimate the YLDs loss:</p> $\text{YLDs loss in 2023} = (\text{YLDs}_{(\text{aged } 15-49)} + \text{YLDs}_{(\text{aged } 50-69)}) \times \text{VYLD}$ <p>where</p> <p>YLDs = Years lived with disability of different age groups</p> <p>VYLD = Value of years lived with disability</p>	The recent GBD study only collected data until 2021. However, given that there is not much variation in YLDs in the last few years in Georgia, an average of YLDs of the last five years of available data has been taken for both age groups: aged 15–49 (254 YLDs) and aged 50–69 (170 YLDs). As in Raghavendra, Chadha and Duvvury (2018), a GDP per capita ratio of 3 was used for the monetization of YLDs.
Output loss: Absenteeism	<p>The following equation was used to estimate total absenteeism loss:</p> $\text{Output absenteeism loss} = \text{Number of survivors working} \times \text{Proportion of working survivors missing work} \times \text{Mean days missed} \times \text{GDP per employed person per working day}$	The present study uses the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) to assume the proportion of these survivors missing work. The unit missed days has also been assumed from the Azerbaijan study, which is similar to many other international studies. To estimate GDP per employed person per working day, 241 workdays have been assumed in a year.
Output loss: Work opportunities	<p>The following equation was used to estimate the loss in work opportunities:</p> $\text{Output work opportunity loss} = \text{Number of survivors prevented from participating in income generating activities} \times \text{GDP per employed person}$	As with the income loss estimates, this analysis also assumes that all survivors whose partners restricted their ability to work, trade or engage in income-generating activities would have had access to available job opportunities.

Type of estimate	Methodology	Assumptions
Household production loss: Domestic and care work	<p>The following equation was used to estimate household production loss:</p> $\text{Household production loss} = \text{Number of survivors} \times \text{Proportion of survivors missing domestic and care work} \times \text{Mean days missed} \times \text{Care work daily wage}$	<p>This study assumes that the proportion of survivors missing household care and domestic work is the same as paid work (32 per cent). However, unlike missed paid work, where the base <i>N</i> would incorporate only survivors who are currently engaged in economic activity, <i>N</i> here include all survivors of violence. The same unit loss of labour productivity of 20 days as in the case of the Azerbaijan study (UNFPA and SCFWCA 2020) has also been assumed. Importantly, the unit missed days assumed in the present study is similar to many other international studies. To monetize household production loss, an hourly minimum care-work wage for females was estimated and used.</p>
Cost of action: Service-provision costs	<p>Given the different data structures and formats used by various organizations, this study uses a ‘bottom-up’ approach as well as a ‘top-down’ approach to estimate the cost of service provision. While the precise equation would be different for each service provider, the general equation can be written as follows:</p> $\text{Total costs} = \sum_{(i=1)}^n (\text{Administrative costs}_i + \text{Service provision costs}_i + \text{Training costs}_i + \text{Awarenessraising costs}_i)$ <p>where <i>n</i> = Total number of organizations</p>	<p>Due to data unavailability, costs from only some service providers have been included. Certain service-provision data points relied on expert judgement and therefore should be treated as indicative estimates only. In the case of service-provision estimates for the Ministry of Internal Affairs, due to the unavailability of gender-disaggregated data on registered crimes, it has been assumed that 100 per cent of certain crimes involved female survivors and male perpetrators, which may not necessarily be the case. However, many crimes under different articles of the Criminal Code have not been included, which could potentially reflect VAW. Moreover, crimes related to VAW are significantly underreported and often go unregistered; therefore, this cost should be treated as an underestimate.</p>

Endnotes

1. This section has been adapted from the Haarr (2023) report on the 2022 survey on VAW in Georgia.
2. Please see Annex B for details.
3. Please see Annex B for the assumptions and limitations regarding all estimates.
4. Please see Annex B for the regression equation.
5. The Azerbaijan study categorized property loss under material losses instead of OOP costs. However, as OOP costs will have to be incurred to buy or repair personal or family property, the present study treats this also as an OOP expense.
6. Please see Annex B for the femicide equation.
7. Please see Annex B for the YLDs equation.
8. Available at <https://www.geostat.ge/en/modules/categories/23/gross-domestic-product-gdp>.
9. Available at <https://www.geostat.ge/en/modules/categories/683/Employment-Unemployment>.
10. The 17 municipalities included Chkhorotsku, Gurjaani, Khashuri, Poti, Samtredia, Shuakhevi, Zugdidi, Khobi, Abasha, Telavi, Chiatura, Kaspi, Keda, Rustavi, Tianeti, Tslenjikhia and Baghdati.
11. Available at <https://www.geostat.ge/en/modules/categories/50/households-income>.
12. The 40 awareness-raising and information-sharing meetings were organized as follows: 7 in Tbilisi, 3 in Kakheti, 12 in Imereti, 1 in Mtskheta-Mtianeti, 4 in Guria, 1 in Samegrelo, 9 in Kvemo Kartli, 1 in Adjara, 2 in Shida Kartli.

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