

Gender Mainstreaming in Education in Georgia

Analysis and Recommendations

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Authors:

Emma Asatoorian

Laura S. P. Baringer

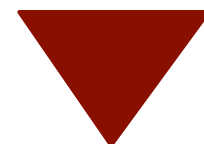
Kelsey L. Campbell

Shivani Desai

Jie Jiang

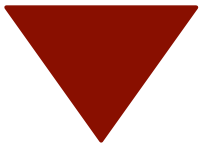
Lee Kanthoul

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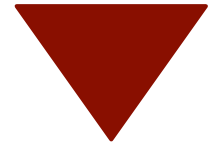
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Acronyms & Abbreviations

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
EU	European Union
EUMM	European Union Monitoring Mission
GEAD	Gender Equality Advisory Council, Parliament of Georgia
GAF	Gender Analysis Framework
GEL	Georgian lari
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESC	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
MES	Georgian Ministry of Education and Science
MDG	United Nations Millennium Development Goals
NAP	National Action Plan
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NED	United States National Endowment for Democracy
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OSAGI	Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women
OSF	Open Society Foundation
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe
SIPA	Columbia University's School of International and Public Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNOMIG	United Nations Observer Mission in Georgia
USAID	United States Agency for International Development



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Executive Summary

This report represents an independent review conducted by a team of graduate students from Columbia University's School of International and Public Affairs (SIPA). The team examined existing policies and practices in the Georgian education system and assessed adaptations necessary to make the system gender equitable. The report was prepared with Women's Political Resource Center (WPRC), a Georgian non-governmental organization.

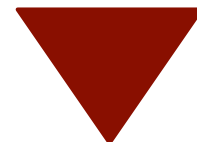
The Government of Georgia and civil society organizations have a history of making efforts to promote gender equality in the country. Since signing the Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1994, the Georgian government has passed a series of legislative acts to create institutional mechanisms, National Action Plans, and working groups to ensure the promotion of gender equality. In March 2010, the Georgian Parliament enacted its Law on Gender Equality, which created a permanent Gender Equality Advisory Council and led to a National Action Plan for Gender Equality.

Operating with the understanding that gender norms and stereotypes are learned at a young age and reinforced in school settings, the SIPA team was charged with investigating the extent to which this Law is implemented in the education system and providing recommendations to improve the effective application of the Law to the Georgian education system.

The SIPA team used a Gender Analysis Framework as a base for its research. The team's methodology included conducting semi-structured interviews with gender experts, ministry officials, teachers, school officials, and parliamentarians, as well as focus groups and school site visits during field visits to Georgia in February and March 2011.

The SIPA team's final assessment includes four major areas of recommendations:

1. Strengthen the Law and National Action Plan: Strong implementation and accountability mechanisms are generally lacking and must be in place for the Law to be adequately implemented.
2. Promote Gender Equality in the School System: In order to design gender-equitable curricula and textbooks, Ministry of Education and Science officials must be gender-sensitive and trained on a yearly basis. Girls and boys must also be encouraged to enter non-traditional fields of study.
3. Promote Gender Equality in Teaching: Teachers and school administrators must develop a deeper understanding of what gender norms and stereotypes exist in Georgia and how they may be perpetuated through teaching. Trainings at all levels of the school system are necessary to begin this process.
4. Promote Gender Equality in Society at Large: Georgians appear to lack a complete understanding of gender inequalities that exist in Georgia and their related consequences. Broader public awareness is vital to the promotion of gender equality in society and can complement the previous three recommendations.



Introduction

Partner Agency

The Women's Political Resource Center (WPRC), founded in 1998 as the Feminist Club, is a non-governmental organization (NGO) headquartered in Tbilisi, Georgia. With the advancement of women's human rights at the core of all its activities, the WPRC aims to provide "technical assistance to women politicians and develop strategies to foster women's empowerment and gender equality in democratic governance."¹ In 2003, in partnership with Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University and individuals active in the women's rights field, the Feminist Club formed a coalition of non-governmental organizations in Georgia which became the WPRC. By 2005, it had established field offices in the Georgian cities of Mtskheta, Poti, and Kutaisi.

The WPRC has since developed a strong and extensive network of over 40 women's rights organizations throughout the country.² Its main activities include conducting research on women's issues, advocating for gender equality, and facilitating and encouraging public action through conferences, seminars, lectures, media campaigns, and political awareness campaigns aimed at women. It has a number of collaborative partners including government bodies, journalists, political campaign managers, and academics from various Georgian institutes.³

The WPRC is highly regarded in its field and has received considerable recognition and support at both national and international levels. Until 2010, the WPRC served as an NGO representative on the Gender Equality Advisory Council, a commission under the Chairperson of the Parliament of Georgia that is responsible for ensuring gender equality at policy and decision-making levels.⁴ With the transformation of the Council into a permanent body last year, the official role of civil society organizations with respect to the Council is unclear. However, these organizations, including the WPRC, remain in close communication with the Council and hope to have an official decision-making role.

In 2005, the WPRC was granted consultative status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). It has been recognized in the local press for its projects and campaigns to engage Georgian women in political and electoral processes.⁵ In 2006, the WPRC established itself as an international foundation, providing technical assistance to women politicians and developing strategies to foster women's empowerment and gender equality in democratic governance.⁶

With six staff members, all based in the Tbilisi office, the WPRC's work depends largely on the logistical and financial support received from "Kvinna till Kvinna" Foundation and other

¹ Women's Political Resource Center website. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.wprc.org.ge>

² Women's Political Resource Center website. (n.d.).

³ Women's Political Resource Center website. (n.d.).

⁴ Parliament of Georgia website. (n.d.). Gender Advisory Council under the Chairperson of the Parliament of Georgia - the first institutional mechanism. Retrieved from http://www.parliament.ge/index.php?sec_id=652&lang_id=ENG

⁵ Vachadze, A. (2008, May 23). Encouraging women to become more politically active. *Georgia Today*. Retrieved from http://georgiandaily.com/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=2438&lang=ka

⁶ Women's Political Resource Center website. (n.d.).

donors. More than 50 volunteers contribute to the WPRC's work, making the activities of both the regional offices and the network of women's rights organizations possible.⁷ The WPRC benefits from the additional financial support of a wide range of international and foreign-based organizations, including the Open Society Foundation, the International Women's Rights Action Watch, the East-West Women's Network, the National Endowment for Democracy, the Global Fund for Women, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, the United Nations Development Fund for Women, and the Heinrich Böll Foundation.⁸

Project Scope and Rationale

The rationale for this project is three-fold. First, as a former member of the Gender Equality Advisory Council, the WPRC sees itself as responsible for promoting comprehensive integration of gender-related interests and concerns into all areas of Georgian society. This includes developing, coordinating, and monitoring the implementation of the National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Law on Gender Equality (NAP). This project will evaluate existing gender inequalities in Georgia's education system and develop recommendations for how gender can be mainstreamed into the education system. The latest version of the NAP includes a section on implementing the Law in the education system, and thus our project will serve to examine the effectiveness of this section.

Second, NGOs and gender advocates believe that the education system is permeated with gender inequalities.⁹ School textbooks and curriculum perpetuate gender stereotypes, and teachers reinforce traditional male and female roles. Established norms of what consists of "men's work" and "women's work" are also prevalent in society. Although school enrollment and literacy levels are high for both males and females, women continue to dominate the fields of teaching, healthcare, and social services.¹⁰ This suggests that the reinforcement of gender stereotypes in the education system is contributing to the perpetuation of these gender norms at the professional level.

We initially thought that we would only be researching secondary schools. During the first field visit in February 2011, the SIPA team realized that it was necessary to examine gender equality throughout the entire school system, including primary and secondary school levels and the role of teachers and administrators, as well as in Georgian society more generally. This would facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of how gender inequalities manifest themselves in the education system as a whole.

Third, the project builds upon a recommendation from a study that the WPRC conducted in 2009-2010, entitled *Addressing Trafficking in Persons and Domestic Violence in Georgia: An Assessment Study*. The study described stereotypes in Georgian society that may reinforce *de facto* and latent gender-based discrimination.¹¹ One of the study's

⁷ Peacebuilding Portal website. (n.d.). Women's Political Resource Center (WPRC). Retrieved from <http://www.peacebuildingportal.org/index.asp?pgid=9&org=4774>

⁸ Women's Political Resource Center website. (n.d.).

⁹ Duban, E. (2010, June). *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia*. DevTech Systems, Inc., 23.

¹⁰ Duban, E. (2010, June), 25.

¹¹ O'Neil, C., Paley, M., Pessio, L., Proseviski, J., Tooker, C., & Woodard, S. (2010, May). *Addressing Trafficking in Persons and Domestic Violence in Georgia: An Assessment Study*, 62. Prepared for the SIPA Workshop in Development Practice 2009-2010. Retrieved from http://www.sipa.columbia.edu/academics/concentrations/epd/documents/WPRC_TIP_DV_REPORT.pdf

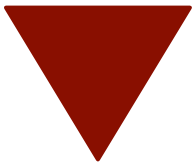
recommendations was to increase training and education of human rights issues for elementary and secondary school students.

Developing recommendations for promoting gender mainstreaming in the education system will facilitate the WPRC's work in advocating for an action plan for gender equality in the education system. This project will identify key problem areas that the WPRC, as both a prominent women's rights NGO in Georgia and a former member of the Gender Equality Advisory Council, should address.

Audience

The intended audience for this report includes local and international NGOs working on gender and education issues in Georgia, educators and administrators in the education system, Georgian government agencies, bilateral and multilateral agencies, and the donor community. The report will be shared with other entities and individuals at the discretion of the WPRC. A presentation of the findings and recommendations was shared with the SIPA community in New York in late April 2011.





Country Profile

Georgia, a former Republic of the Soviet Union, is located at the crossroads of Europe and Asia. The country has a population of 4.6 million people, which predominantly consists of ethnic Georgians but also includes minority groups such as Armenians, Azeris, and Russians. Georgia's recent history includes regaining independence from the Soviet Union in 1991 and a peaceful democratic uprising, the Rose Revolution, in 2003. Georgia has achieved impressive economic improvement in recent years. Due to often-conflicting interests in the region, the country has struggled with territorial integrity and democratization efforts.

Geography and Demographics

Georgia is located within the Caucasus mountain region of Eurasia and borders the Black Sea to the west. The mountain range acts as a protective barrier from cold air in the north, granting Georgia a subtropical climate. The inland capital of Tbilisi is the country's largest city, with a population of 1.5 million people, followed by Kutaisi in the western region of Imereti.¹

The Georgian government has struggled with territorial integrity for over two decades. Georgia has two ethnic breakaway regions: Abkhazia, in the northwestern part of the country, and South Ossetia, in the northern part of the country. A majority of United Nations (UN) member states do not recognize Abkhazia and South Ossetia as



independent states. Georgia has endured bouts of civil war, violence, and unrest due to the independence aspirations of the two areas.

From August 1993 until June 2009, the United Nations Observer Mission in Georgia (UNOMIG) verified compliance of the ceasefire between *de facto* Abkhaz authorities and the government of Georgia.² Following the August 2008 Russia-Georgia conflict, the European Union Monitoring Mission (EUMM) in Georgia has maintained civilian monitoring teams to “contribute to the stabilization of the situation, in accordance with the six-point agreement.”³ The EUMM is an autonomous mission under the European Union's

¹ Djibladze, M. L., Howe, G. M., Lang, D. M., & Suny, R. G. (2011). Georgia. In *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Retrieved from <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/230186/Georgia>

² United Nations website. (n.d.). United Nations Observer Mission in Georgia. Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/missions/past/unomig>

³ European Union Consilium website. (n.d.). European Union Monitoring Mission Georgia. Retrieved from <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/showpage.aspx?id=1512&lang=EN>

Common Security and Defense Policy. With the cessation of the UN and Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) missions, the EUMM is the sole monitoring force in Georgia today.⁴

Achara is an autonomous republic in the southwest of Georgia with a separate constitution. The President of Georgia nominates the head of the Council of Ministers of Achara and has the power to dissolve the government. Batumi, Achara's capital along the Black Sea, is a large port and commercial center, as well as a popular tourist destination.⁵

Of the country's 4.6 million citizens, approximately two-thirds are ethnic Georgians. Significant ethnic minority populations include Armenians, Azeris, and Russians. Ethnic Georgians primarily adhere to Eastern Orthodox Christianity, although significant Muslim populations exist throughout the country.⁶

Historical Context

Georgia has a recorded history dating over 4,000 years. Over the centuries, Georgia has been caught in the crosshairs between the empires of Persia, Turkey, and Russia.⁷ In the nineteenth century, Russia annexed Georgia to the Russian Empire. From 1918 to 1921, the country experienced a brief interlude of independence as the Georgian Democratic Republic, one of the early democracy projects in twentieth-century Europe. The Russian Bolshevik Army invaded Georgia in 1921, once again annexing the republic.⁸

During the Soviet period, Georgia was one of the most affluent Union Republics,

Georgia at a Glance

- Population 4.6 million
- Ethnic Groups: Georgian, Armenian, Azeri, Russian
- Religion: Georgian Orthodox Christian, Islam
- Regained independence from the Soviet Union in 1991
- Major cities: Tbilisi, Kutaisi, Batumi
- Government: presidential representative democratic republic
- President: Mikheil Saakashvili

attracting vacationers to the resorts along the Black Sea and customers through sales of Georgian red wine in other Soviet territories. However, once the Soviet Union collapsed, Georgia did not enjoy the same economic prosperity or ties to Moscow. Georgians overwhelmingly voted for independence in 1991, electing Zviad Gamsakhurdia as the first post-Soviet leader. Within a year of taking post, opposition militias overthrew Gamsakhurdia. Former Soviet Foreign Minister Eduard Shevardnadze was appointed as Georgia's new leader in 1995.⁹

Political System

For eleven years, Shevardnadze's regime accumulated wide discontent over authoritarian leanings, corruption, and the state's inability to deliver social services. However, he was seen as weak and therefore tolerant of democratic procedure. By 2003, the regime was

⁴ European Union Consilium website. (n.d.).

^{5,6} Djibladze, M. L., *et al.* (2011).

⁷ Today, Georgia is trying to turn its "curse" of being sandwiched between these major geopolitical players by positioning itself as a major link between the different spheres, leveraging its location for strength, commerce, and job creation.

⁸ BBC News website. (2011, March 31). Georgia country profile. Retrieved from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/country_profiles/1102477.stm

⁹ BBC News website. (2011, March 31).

fragmented and widely unpopular on the international stage. For the first time, an opposition group was able to offer assurances to the population that stable political change was possible. External democracy promotion efforts, primarily from National Democratic Institute (NDI) funding to the International Society for Fair Elections and Democracy (ISFED), and diplomatic measures by the United States, as well as international pressure, helped bring to the spotlight Shevardnadze's fraudulent parliamentary elections in November 2003.¹⁰ The Rustavi-2 television station ran exit polls from Western-backed NGOs and parallel vote counts on air, dispelling government claims of victory for the ruling party in Parliament.¹¹

Mikheil Saakashvili's United National Movement party led a peaceful uprising, driving Shevardnadze out of power in what became known as the Rose Revolution. In November 2003, President Shevardnadze resigned and then-Chairperson of Parliament Nino Burjanadze became the interim President.¹² Per constitutional mandate, a re-election was required within 45 days of President Shevardnadze's resignation. Saakashvili, the former Minister of Justice and Tbilisi City Council head, was elected President by a landslide vote on January 4, 2004.¹³

The Rose Revolution was notable as one of the first peaceful regime changes in Eastern Europe since the fall of the Soviet Union. Saakashvili was educated in the West and presented a platform to abolish

corruption, modernize the education system, and improve delivery of basic services. The Saakashvili administration, through substantial funding from Western countries and little domestic opposition, has stabilized the economy and consolidated its political position. The government has reduced petty corruption and criminal violence considerably. Rapid progress has also been made in the delivery of public goods. However, these leanings towards a Western-style government have appeared to consternate Moscow.¹⁴

Georgia is a unitary multi-party republic. The President is elected by direct popular vote and may serve a maximum of two five-year terms; he or she is assisted by the Prime Minister. The legislature is comprised of elected Members of Parliament. The judicial branch includes district and city courts and the Supreme Court.¹⁵

In 2004, the Constitution was amended to give the President wide powers over legislative issues, to include making legislative initiatives, dismissing Parliament, and appointing and dismissing the Prime Minister and government members. In a second amendment in 2010, the Constitution was changed to concentrate more power under the Prime Minister. The newest development allows "counterassignment," which allows the Prime Minister to circumvent the President and have a leading role in foreign relations, appointing and dismissing government officials, and presenting the state budget to Parliament.¹⁶

¹⁰ National Endowment for Democracy website. (n.d.). Georgia. Retrieved from www.ned.org/where-we-work/Eurasia/Georgia

¹¹ Anable, D. (2006). The Role of Georgia's Media—and Western Aid—in the Rose Revolution. *The International Journal of Press/Politics*, 11(3). Available from <http://hij.sagepub.com/content/11/3/7.extract>

¹² Welt, C. (2005, March 18). Georgia: Causes of the Rose Revolution and Lessons for Democracy Assistance. Retrieved from <http://csis.org/files/media/isis/pubs/ci.causesroserrevolution.03.05.pdf>

¹³ Welt, C. (2004, January 13). Georgia Under the New Regime. Retrieved from <http://csis.org/files/media/isis/pubs/ci.georgiaundernewregime.01.13.04.pdf>

¹⁴ Welt, C. (2004, January 13).

¹⁵ Djibladze, M. L., et al. (2011).

¹⁶ Tsagareishvili, N. (2010, October 13). Constitutional reforms in Georgia. *Human Rights House*. Retrieved from <http://humanrightshouse.org/Articles/15234.html>

Political Economy

During Soviet rule, the Soviet Socialist Republic of Georgia was one of the most prosperous areas. However, the political turmoil that followed independence had deep negative effects on the economy. Georgia's economy shrunk by 70% between 1989 and 1996. The August 2008 Russia-Georgia conflict and the global financial collapse severely affected the Georgian economy. The country's negative balance of trade has only been offset by investment and assistance from international donors in recent years.¹⁷

Today, Georgia's gross domestic product is primarily comprised of agriculture, trade, manufacturing, and transport. Its main exports are metals and ores, wine, and nuts. Natural resources in Georgia include nonferrous metals, manganese, iron ore, copper, citrus fruits, tea, and wine grapes. Over 53% of the workforce is in agriculture, 9% is in industry, and 35.5% is in services. Georgia's unemployment rate is at approximately 16%.¹⁸

Georgia struggles with expanding trade. Traditionally, Russia was its preeminent trade partner (at one time, nearly 100% of the Soviet Union's citrus fruits came from Georgia). In 2006, Russia banned the import of Georgian wine, fruits and vegetables, and mineral water; severed all direct transportation links; and eliminated postal service and visa issuance. Due to severed trade ties with Russia, Georgia has reoriented relations toward the European Union, Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and North America.¹⁹

The World Bank has recognized Georgia as one of the fastest reforming economies and as a state with a high ease of doing business. Georgia is recognized for dramatic improvement in the fight against corruption, implementation of key economic and institutional reforms, and reduction in bribes paid by firms in the course of business.²⁰

Georgia is a transportation hub for the South Caucasus region and Central Asia. It is the key link in the shortest transit route for oil and gas between Western Europe and Central Asia. Georgia's Black Sea ports, oil and gas pipelines, railways, and airports are an important connector between the East and the West.²¹

A history of government corruption has made Georgia an unfavorable business environment in years past. Crime and the existence of an informal sector have had negative consequences on the formal private sector as well.²² Based on data from 2008, 22% of the Georgian population lives below the national poverty line, and 13% live on less than \$1.25 per day. The Saakashvili administration aims to reduce overall poverty incidence to 15% and reduce extreme poverty to less than 4% by 2015.²³

Georgia has been experiencing dual challenges of an aging population and low birth rates. The fertility rate is below replacement level at 1.5, causing a decline in the population. In addition, there is growing outward migration due to a lack of employment opportunities within the country. Health system reforms have not made significant achievements.

¹⁷ United States Department of State website. (2011, January 28). Background Note: Georgia. Retrieved from www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/5253.htm#econ

^{18,19,20} United States Department of State website. (2011, January 28).

²¹ Celler, B. (2007, August 10). Overview of Transportation and Logistics Sector in Georgia. Retrieved from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadq687.pdf

²² Enterprise Analysis Unit of the World Bank Group. (2008). *Georgia Country Profile 2008*. Retrieved from <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/documents/EnterpriseSurveys/Reports/Georgia-2008.pdf>

²³ Asian Development Bank. (2011). *Development Effectiveness Brief: Georgia*. Retrieved from <http://www.adb.org/Documents/Brochures/Development-Effectiveness-Country-Briefs/dec-geo.pdf>

Health facilities are now privatized, but insurance programs are poorly developed and increasing prices means that the population only has access depending on their ability to pay or from donor assistance.²⁴

Relations with Russia

Like other post-Soviet states in the region, Georgia has experienced heavy-handed energy politics from Russia. The country currently depends deeply on the purchase of Russian natural gas. Georgian leaders have attempted to secure less expensive natural gas from Kazakhstan, but Russia refuses to allow lower-priced energy to pass through Russian pipelines. Georgia has begun negotiations with neighboring countries Armenia and Azerbaijan in order to secure a share of gas from Iran.²⁵

Tense relations with Russia have been at a high in recent years over increasing political and economic support from the United States, aspirations to join NATO and the European Union, and Moscow's recognition of Georgia's separatist regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia. These tensions reached a peak in August 2008 during a military incursion. Clashes began between Georgian forces and South Ossetian separatist forces, escalating to war once the Russian military entered.²⁶

As a result of the military hostilities with Russia, over 136,000 people were displaced from Kodori Gorge in Abkhazia, South Ossetia, and adjacent areas.²⁷

Moscow and Tbilisi point to one another as the instigator of the weeklong Russia-



Georgia conflict in August 2008. Georgians previously critical of Saakashvili rallied behind him after the conflict. However, other opposition groups believed Saakashvili was to blame for the war and mass rallies calling for his resignation were staged.²⁸

In April 2011, the International Court of Justice (ICJ) in The Hague refused to hear cases pertaining to human rights abuses in the breakaway regions of South Ossetia and Abkhazia. The Georgian government alleged that Russia committed acts of discrimination against ethnic Georgians during the brief war in August 2008. The ICJ announced that it had no jurisdiction to hear the case on procedural grounds.²⁹

International Context

Georgia has been a member of the United Nations since July 1992, the World Bank since 1992, and the Council of Europe since April 1999. Georgia joined the Russian-led Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) in 1993 and withdrew in 2008. The CIS was a group of former communist states that comprise the "post-Soviet space."³⁰ In 2001, Georgia, Ukraine, Azerbaijan and

²⁴ United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) website. (n.d.). Georgia - Country Profile. Retrieved from www.unfpa.org.tr/Georgia/countryinfo.htm

²⁵ Welt, C. (2006, January 24). Energy Insecurity in Georgia. Retrieved from http://csis.org/files/media/isis/pubs/060126_ruseura_recommcwelt.pdf

²⁶ BBC News website. (2011, March 31). Georgia country profile.

^{27,28} United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) website. (n.d.).

²⁹ Bigg, C. (2011, April 1). World Court Throws Out Georgia's Case Against Russia. *Radio Free Europe, Radio Liberty*. Retrieved from http://www.rferl.org/content/world_court_ends_georgia_case_against_russia/3543799.html

³⁰ Socor, V. (2006, May 11). Georgia Near Exit From CIS. *Eurasia Daily Monitor* 3(92). Retrieved from http://www.jamestown.org/single/?no_cache=1&tx_ttnews%5Btt_news%5D=31670

Moldova formed the GUAM Organization for Democracy and Economic Development.

The coalition of states cooperates to ensure stable development, enhance international and regional security, and work toward European integration.³¹

Currently, membership into the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) is a priority for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which continues to push for integration into Euro-Atlantic institutions.³²

Georgia was quick to become a part of the “coalition of the willing” for U.S. operations in Iraq in 2003. Tbilisi has also subsequently offered use of its airports for American military transport aircraft transiting to Afghanistan for Operation Enduring Freedom. Although the U.S. military never posted substantial troops, Russia has been very concerned about the possible establishment of U.S. military bases in Georgia.³³

Education System

Georgian culture highly values education. The country has high literacy and primary and secondary school enrollment rates for both males and females.³⁴ Due to the Soviet education system of mandatory universal primary and secondary schooling, adult literacy rates have always been consistently high in Georgia. The Soviet Georgian education system was well-staffed and well-equipped.³⁵

The civil war in the mid-1990s, economic instability, and substantial decreases in educational funding negatively impacted the quality of education during the years since independence. As a result, in June 1997, Georgia adopted a new education law, aimed at strengthening and improving primary and secondary schools through the mobilization of necessary resources. Beginning in 2001, supported by international contributions, Georgia’s education system undertook reforms to comply with international standards.³⁶ These changes included the extension of secondary education to the twelfth grade, introduction of new curricula and the assessment of teachers’ professional capabilities.

The current school system in Georgia is structured as follows: primary school—grades one to five, basic classes—grades six to eight, and secondary school—grades nine to twelve. According to data from 2008, the net enrollment rate for primary schooling (98.7%) is higher than the rates for basic and secondary (80.8%) levels.³⁷ However, the patriarchal culture is still influential as one study found that parents would still prefer to send their male child to school if they could not afford to send all their children.³⁸ While slightly more women than men are enrolled in post-secondary institutions,³⁹ this is likely due to men being able to find work more easily after secondary or vocational school.

³¹ GUAM Organization for Democracy and Economic Development website. (n.d.). Homepage. Retrieved from www.guam-organization.org/en/node

³² Welt, C. (2004, January 13).

³³ Sokov, N. (2006, October). The United States Between Russia and Georgia: PONARS Policy Memo No. 407. Retrieved from http://www.gwu.edu/~ieresgwu/assets/docs/ponars/pm_0407.pdf

³⁴ According to data from 2008 and 2009, adult literacy rates for both males and females are over 99%, and net primary school enrollment rates are around 99.7% for males and 97.6% for females, while net secondary school enrollment rates are around 82.4% for males and over 79.2% for females. World Bank Group website (2011). World dataBank: Georgia. Retrieved from <http://databank.worldbank.org/ddp/home.do>

³⁵ Döbert, H., Hörner, W., Mitter, W., & Von Kopp, B. (2007). Georgia. In *The Education Systems of Europe*. The Netherlands: Springer.

³⁶ Döbert, H., *et al.* (2007).

³⁷ World Bank Group website (2011).

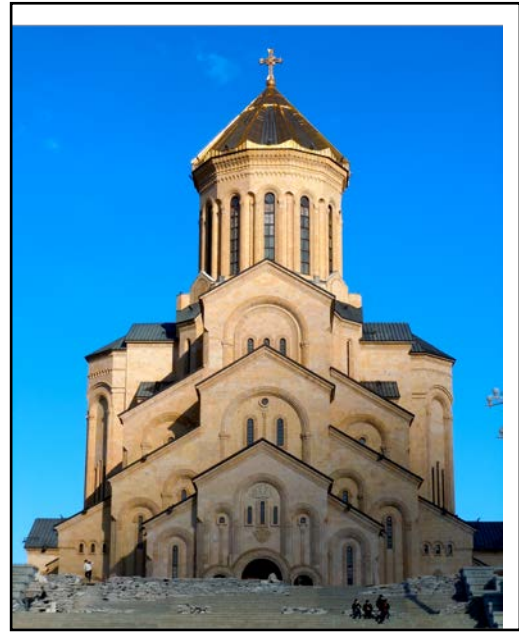
³⁸ Sumbadze, N. (2008). *Gender and Society: Georgia*. Tbilisi: Institute for Policy Studies.

³⁹ Women represent 56.5% of students in bachelor’s programs and 55.3% of students in master’s programs. Sumbadze, N. (2008).

Gender

While the Georgian government has made significant democratic reforms in recent years, considerable differences between the status of men and women and prescribed roles in society persist. Women in Georgia are active in civil society, participate in the workforce, and are enrolled in tertiary education at relatively equal or even slightly higher rates than men. However, they remain expected to be the primary caretakers of children and of the household and have a limited role in the household decision-making process. These expected roles are an additional burden that can, and often do, hinder career advancement and other personal fulfillment.⁴⁰ Men, on the other hand, are expected to be visible in the public sphere and the primary breadwinners for the household, and they generally serve as the principal decision makers of the family.⁴¹

Georgia's strong Orthodox Christian heritage reinforces these traditional gender roles and greatly influences Georgian society.⁴² In 2003, it was found that both young and old women attend church more than men. This may lead to a further reinforcement of stereotypical gender roles and women's limited role in decision-making.⁴³ Women, however, are strongly represented and active in civil society organizations, particularly NGOs, which may be due in part to the difficulty in finding work in other areas, given their household duties. Women comprise 58% of NGO staff in Tbilisi and 63% in the regions.⁴⁴ Women are also vastly



underrepresented in both local and national politics. Their representation in Parliament increased from 6% in 1992 to a peak of 9.3% in 2004. After the most recent election in 2008, women's representation in Parliament fell back down to only 6%, with women currently holding 9 seats out of 140.⁴⁵ In local government, the percentage of women representatives has also decreased; however, it remains higher than parliamentary representation. In 1998, women held 14% of all local government positions. In 2006, this number had dropped to 11.5%.⁴⁶

The situation is similar in terms of paid positions, where again women do not enjoy the same opportunities as men do. The lack of acknowledgement of women's rights and coercing traditional norms continue to prioritize men.⁴⁷ For example, many women do not hold leadership positions in most sectors. Instead, it appears that most

⁴⁰ Duban, E. (2010, June). *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia*. DevTech Systems, Inc.

⁴¹ Erste Foundation website. (n.d.). Interview with Nino Tchogoshvili and Lali Pertenava on their research in Georgia. Retrieved from <http://erstestiftung.org/gender-check/georgia-nino-tchogoshvili-and-lali-pertenava/>

⁴² Sumbadze, N. & Tarkhan-Mouravi, G. (2003). *Transition to Adulthood in Georgia: Dynamics of generational and gender roles in post-totalitarian society*. Tbilisi: Institute for Policy Studies.

⁴³ Sumbadze, N. & Tarkhan-Mouravi, G. (2003).

⁴⁴ Duban, E. (2010, June).

⁴⁵ Latatia, S. (2011, March 18). Women Losing Out in Georgian Politics. *Institute for War and Peace Reporting*. Retrieved from <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4d8c5b2d2.html>

⁴⁶ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁴⁷ Sabedashvili, T. (2002, June). *Women in the Decade of Transition: the Case of Georgia*. Budapest: Central European University.

women mainly fill lower-level supportive roles. Women dominate the fields of teaching, social services, and healthcare, while men dominate the fields of energy, information technology, and construction. Women are also more likely to be primary and secondary school teachers than professors at the tertiary level. Thus the Georgian economy is characterized by both horizontal segregation, in which women tend to work in less profitable sectors of the economy, and vertical segregation, in which women tend to occupy lower-paying positions as men within the same sector. As a result of such segregation, women earn on average less than men.⁴⁸

The Soviet regime encouraged women's participation in the labor force and promoted equality between men and women with policies of equal pay, maternity leave, and childcare, as well as policies addressing gender discrimination. A large percentage of women participated in the labor force under the Soviet regime. At the same time, however, the Soviet regime also emphasized the importance of motherhood and women's traditional roles, pushing forth pro-natalist policies and limiting access to contraception.⁴⁹

After gaining independence in 1991, Georgia entered a period of economic, social, and political unrest while on the quest for a new Georgian national identity. This period led to a high number of internally displaced persons (IDPs), a lack of economic resources, and increased gender disparities. More women entered the workforce and were often the main providers for their families, while traditional, pre-Soviet, male and female roles and expectations were reinforced.⁵⁰

Political will to address women's issues and mainstream gender into the state's policymaking was declaratory and not actual.

Gender Equality Legislation 1994 - 2010

It is important to note that since 1994 the Georgian government has promoted gender equality by implementing new gender-related policies, establishing national committees to promote gender equality through the creation of new laws, and adopting international conventions and treaties prohibiting gender-based discrimination. However, the implementation of legislation and National Action Plans has been challenging and many Georgians advocating for gender equality view these mechanisms as artificial.⁵¹ As one advocate noted, "[p]olitical will to address women's issues and mainstream gender into [the] state's policy-making was declaratory and not actual."⁵²

In 1994, by the mandate of Parliament, Georgia ratified and became a State Party to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). In 1995, it submitted a required report to the CEDAW Committee acknowledging that, "[i]n spite of the non-discriminatory provisions that exist in Georgian legislation, the asymmetry of men's and women's social roles, with the prevalence of the male principle, persists, especially in daily life."⁵³ For the next 15 years, Georgia would adopt a series of legislative acts and create official entities with the goal of promoting gender equality.

⁴⁸ Duban, E. (2010, June).

⁴⁹ Pascall, G. & Manning, N. (2001, August 1). Gender and social policy: comparing the welfare states in Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. *Journal of European Social Policy*, 10(3).

⁵⁰ Sumbadze, N. & Tarkhan-Mouravi, G. (2003).

⁵¹ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁵² Sabedashvili, T. (2007, February). *Gender and Democratization: the Case of Georgia 1991-2006*. Tbilisi: Heinrich Böll Foundation.

⁵³ Sabedashvili, T. (2002, June).

These legislative acts and official entities included the following: the creation of an intra-institutional Commission on the Elaboration of State Policy of the Advancement of Women in 1998 and the adoption of a 1998-2000 National Action Plan (NAP) for Improving Women's Conditions;⁵⁴ an extension of the 1998-2000 NAP from 2000 until 2004; the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals in 2000; the creation of a Gender Equality Advisory Council under the Speaker of the Parliament in 2004 following the disbandment of the 1998 Commission; the development of a Governmental Commission for Gender Equality (GCGE) with a temporary mandate to elaborate upon the NAP and work with the ad-hoc working group in 2005; and, in 2006, the collaboration of the GCGE and the Council to elaborate upon the NAP.

In 2006, the CEDAW Committee recommended that the government of Georgia continue its efforts to eliminate gender stereotyping in education and strengthen the mainstreaming of gender perspectives in curricula and textbooks. Parliament then adopted four important pieces of legislation: the State Concept on Gender Equality, along with a 2007-2009 National Action Plan to execute it; the Law on Combating Human Trade; the Law on the Elimination of Domestic Violence, Protection, and Support to its Victims; and the Labor Code.⁵⁵ The State Concept introduced key concepts such as "gender", "gender equality", and "gender mainstreaming."⁵⁶ Between 2007 and 2009, little progress was made on the implementation of the NAP, as efforts from the government were minimal.⁵⁷

However, NGOs and inter-governmental organizations worked towards advancing the status of women through the adoption of a new Law on Gender Equality,^{58, 59} which was enacted in March 2010.

The Law on Gender Equality established the Gender Equality Advisory Council in Parliament, which is currently chaired by the Deputy Chairperson of Parliament, to ensure regular and coordinated work on gender issues in Georgia.

The Law was followed by a National Action Plan, which detailed the implementation plans for the Law. The Law represents efforts toward the start of a new all-inclusive system to promote gender equality in Georgian society.⁶⁰

A complete timeline of Georgia's work towards gender equality can be found in Annex II.

Gender Equality Legislation

1994: Ratification of CEDAW

1995: Signing on to Beijing Platform of Action

1998: Establishment of Intra-Institutional Commission on the Elaboration of State Policy of the Advancement of Women

1998: Approval of 1998-2000 National Action Plan for Improving Women's Conditions

2000: National Action Plan was extending from 2000-2004 & signing on to MDGs

2003: End of the Commission on the Elaboration of State Policy of the Advancement of Women

2004: Creation of Gender Equality Advisory Council

2005: Creation of Governmental Commission for Gender Equality (GCGE) with temporary mandate

2006: GEAC and GCGE work to develop national concept and action plan for gender equality & adoption of State Concept on Gender Equality and 2007-2009 National Action Plan

2010: Adoption of Law on Gender Equality and drafting of National Action Plan

⁵⁴ Sabedashvili, T. (2007, February).

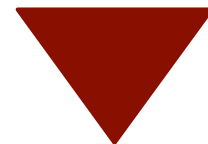
⁵⁵ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁵⁶ Sabedashvili, T. (2007, February). See Annex I for definitions of these terms.

^{57,58} Duban, E. (2010, June).

⁵⁹ Aladashvili, I. & Chkheidze, K. (2009). *Review of the Gender Equality Strategy and Monitoring of the 2007-2009 National Action Plan on Gender Equality in Georgia*. UN Initiative in Support of Greater Gender Equality in Georgia.

⁶⁰ Duban, E. (2010, June).



Research Methodology

The SIPA team's primary objectives were to assess existing policies and practices related to gender equality in the secondary school system and provide recommendations for promoting gender mainstreaming within the education system. As such, the SIPA team used qualitative investigative methods, employing a gender lens and developing a gender analysis framework (GAF). These methods aimed to ensure that the SIPA team collected information from key stakeholders and a diversity of sources.

The SIPA team addressed the following research questions:

1. What gender inequalities exist and how are they reinforced in the Georgian education system?
2. How can key stakeholders use this knowledge to promote gender equality in the education system in Georgia?
3. How can the existing policies and practices in the education system of Georgia be adapted to respond to the current challenges affecting gender equality?

Our research was conducted primarily in three phases:

PHASE 1: Desk review, informational interviews, and gender analysis framework development

During this phase, the SIPA team conducted an initial desk review and informational interviews to gather essential background information in order to effectively analyze the Georgian education system through a gender lens. This research helped us develop our research framework and prepared us for our fieldwork. Our research included general background information on Georgia, current attitudes and practices relating to gender, its history of gender equality legislation, and its education system.

During this phase, we also conducted diagnostic exercises, including stakeholder and institutional analyses to identify key actors and institutions, their roles and needs, and interests in relation to the project.

As the basis for analysis, the SIPA team developed a gender analysis framework (GAF) (Annex V). Gender analysis aims to serve as a foundation for work on gender issues.

It “explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships, by asking: Who does what? Who has what? Who decides? How? Who gains? Who loses?”¹ Using these questions as a guide, gender analysis attempts to break down the divide between the private sphere and the public sphere.² Our GAF was based upon this definition and adapted from the gender analysis guidelines of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the Commonwealth for Gender and Education, and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).

Research Phases

1. Desk review, informational interviews and gender analysis framework development
2. Fieldwork in Tbilisi, Georgia
3. Analysis of findings and development of policy recommendations

More specifically, the GAF helped the team to identify any differences and disparities between male and female students in various aspects relating to schools and the education system. It also helped the team to identify any differences and disparities between men and women working in the field of education, as well as the extent of gender awareness among teachers, school directors,³ Ministry of Education and Science officials, and other education administrators. Crucial to designing and applying the GAF were the principles of gender mainstreaming, which is the process of “assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies, or programs, in any area and at all levels,”⁴ with the aim to achieve gender equality in all areas of social and economic development. A thorough definition of gender mainstreaming can be found in Annex I.

PHASE 2: February and March 2011 fieldwork

Two members of the SIPA team traveled to Tbilisi in February 2011 for ten days. Three members of the SIPA team traveled to Tbilisi in March 2011 for fourteen days. The field visits included:

1. Semi-structured interviews with key informants identified prior to the visit, including, but not limited to, government officials, teachers and school directors, private teacher trainers, members of civil society organizations, members of academia, and university students;
2. A focus group with teachers;
3. Site visits to primary and secondary schools; and
4. Research and data collection from in-country resources.

^{1,2} March, C., Smyth, I., & Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999). *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks*. London: Oxfam, 17-28, 32-42, 55-67, 78-101.

³ In keeping with Georgian usage, we use the terms “school directors” or simply “directors” to refer to the main administrators of schools, often called “principals” in the United States.

⁴ United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women. (1997, September 18). Gender Mainstreaming: Extract from the Report of the Economic and Social Council for 1997. Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/GMS.PDF>

PHASE 3: Analysis of findings and development of recommendations

In order to ultimately develop our recommendations, the SIPA team analyzed qualitative and quantitative data gathered from interview transcripts, reports, and other sources; used the GAF to assess gender inequalities in the Georgian education system; and considered best practices of gender mainstreaming from other countries.

Normative Framework

The normative framework relevant to the SIPA team's research consists of international conventions, domestic laws and UN programmatic documents. Georgia is a signatory to several international treaties and the UN programmatic documents pertaining to human rights, non-discrimination, and equal access to education. With these treaties comes the responsibility to fulfill all necessary steps to be in accordance with the conventions. Outlined below are descriptions of legal obligations and political commitments the Government of Georgia has adopted, ratified and agreed to related to gender.⁵

International Framework

Convention against Discrimination in Education (1992): This Convention paved the way for equal educational opportunities for males and females. The Convention is not only directed at the elimination of discrimination in education but also concerns the adoption of measures aimed at promoting equality of opportunity and treatment in this field.⁶

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1994): This Convention guarantees women equal rights with men in many spheres of life, including education, employment, health care, political participation, nationality, and marriage. The Convention also "takes an important place in bringing the female half of humanity into the focus of human rights concerns."⁷

Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995): The Platform for Action is a groundbreaking agenda for women's empowerment that brought the concept of gender mainstreaming into the international discourse. It aims to remove "all the obstacles to women's active participation in all spheres of public and private life through a full and equal share in economic, social, cultural, and political decision-making."⁸

European Convention on Human Rights (1999): This Convention sets forth a number of fundamental rights and freedoms. Article 14 prohibits discrimination with respect to rights under the Convention. Article 2 of Protocol 1 provides for the right to not be denied an education; however, it does not guarantee any particular level or quality of education.⁹

⁵ The date in parentheses refers to the date that the convention or agreement was adopted by Georgia.

⁶ United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (1960, December 14). Convention against Discrimination in Education.

⁷ United Nations General Assembly. (1979, December 18). Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women.

⁸ United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women. (1995, September 15). Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

⁹ Council of Europe. (1950, November 4). European Convention on Human Rights.

Millennium Declaration (2000):

This Declaration created the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), eight goals to be achieved by 2015 that respond to the world's major development challenges. They form a blueprint agreed upon by the majority of the world's countries and as well as the world's leading development institutions. Goal 3, which is to promote gender equality and empower women, is particularly applicable to the SIPA team's research.¹⁰

Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (2002):

The Optional Protocol enables individuals to raise complaints with the CEDAW Committee and allows the Committee to investigate human rights violations in member states. By ratifying the Optional Protocol, Georgia recognized the competence of the CEDAW Committee to receive and consider complaints from individuals or groups within its jurisdiction.¹¹

Domestic Framework

Constitution of the Republic of Georgia (1995): The Constitution is the supreme law of Georgia. It replaced the 1921 Constitution of the Georgian Democratic Republic (1918-1921), formally reinstated in February 1992, which functioned as a transition law after independence from the Soviet Union.

The following articles of the Constitution are particularly applicable to research by the SIPA team: Article 6, which states that legislation shall correspond to universally recognized principles and rules of international law; Article 7, which provides that the state shall recognize and protect universally recognized human rights and freedoms; Article 14, which posits that everyone is equal before law regardless of race, color, language, sex, religion, political and other opinions; and Article 35, which states that everyone shall have the right to receive education and the right to free choice of the form of education.¹²

State Concept of Georgia on Gender Equality (2006): The Concept institutionalizes the significance and priority for equality of women and men in Georgian society. The Concept was developed in line with the ideals behind the Rose Revolution, when Georgians expressed their will to build a democratic state. It was thus believed that every Georgian should be given equal rights in order for every citizen to contribute to the further

Normative Framework

International:

- Conventional against Discrimination in Education (CEDAW)
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
- Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action
- European Convention on Human Rights
- Millennium Declaration
- Option Protocol to CEDAW

Domestic:

- Constitution of the Republic of Georgia
- State Concept of Georgia on Gender Equality
- Law on Gender Equality

¹⁰ United Nations General Assembly. (2000, September 8). Resolution Adopted by the General Assembly: United Nations Millennium Declaration.

¹¹ United Nations General Assembly. (1999, October 6). Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

¹² Parliament of Georgia. (1995, August 24). Constitution of the Republic of Georgia.

development of the state. The Concept is primarily philosophical and states few actual concerns of women in Georgia. Nonetheless, the Concept is viewed as a precursor to the Law on Gender Equality.¹³

Law on Gender Equality (March 2010): The Law establishes the fundamental guarantees of equal rights, freedoms, and opportunities of women and men granted by the Constitution, defined legal mechanisms, and conditions for their implementation in relevant spheres of social life. The Law mandates the collection of data disaggregated by sex; equality in the spheres of education, labor relations, family relations, healthcare, and social protection; and equal voting rights for men and women.

The Law names the Gender Equality Advisory Council responsible for developing the National Action Plan for Gender Equality, ensuring its coordination, and monitoring its implementation. The Council shall submit annual reports on the status of gender equality to Parliament. The Office of the Public Defender is granted authority to monitor and take responsive measures on violations of gender equality.¹⁴

Constraints and Limitations

Due to time constraints, the SIPA team was unable to conduct quantitative or qualitative research to understand the general public's opinions on gender equality in Georgia. Therefore, our research was limited to desk research and our two field visits.

Additionally, many interviewees indicated that gender inequalities are prevalent among ethnic Azeri communities in Georgia. Again, time constraints prevented the SIPA team from conducting extensive research and arriving at conclusions about gender equality in Azeri communities in Georgia. Therefore, the information collected by the SIPA team on the Azeri population relied primarily on one interview with a women's rights advocate working directly with Azeri communities, as well as on interviews with gender experts whose work did not focus on the Azeri population.

Moreover, the SIPA team's findings on employment discrimination toward Georgian women are limited due to digression from the scope of the project. However, the problem exhibits indirect influence on gender equality in the education system and vice versa. Therefore, more research is required to make more conclusive remarks on the types and levels of discrimination in the workplace, and the correlation between discrimination and gender equality in schools.

Furthermore, the SIPA team is cognizant of the possibility that teachers may tend to become defensive when asked questions regarding gender discrimination and inequalities in schools. This may have impacted their responses, leading them to downplay or ignore perceived inequalities and/or discrimination. Additionally, because teachers were often

¹³ Parliament of Georgia. (2006, July). State Concept of Georgia on Gender Equality.

¹⁴ Parliament of Georgia. (2010, March 27). Law of Georgia on Gender Equality.

interviewed in the presence of their superiors, such as directors or deputy directors, they may have tailored their opinions to the interests of their superiors and/or of their schools. Moreover, many of the team's interviews with directors and teachers required Georgian-to-English translation, which may have led to slight inaccuracies in interpretation.

Time and language constraints also prevented the SIPA team from personally reviewing school textbooks, forcing us to rely on written and verbal accounts of gender analyses undertaken by professionals in the fields of gender studies and education. Additionally, the team lacked extensive information on Georgia's civic education program. While we were able to find some very basic information on this program, this information was based on outside analyses and accounts and could therefore not be verified.

Finally, the number of schools that the SIPA team was able to visit, as well as number of interviews with teachers and school directors, was also limited because of time constraints. Due to new approval policies from the Ministry of Education and Science to enter schools and the short time frame of the field visits, the SIPA team was only able to visit a total of six schools. While this was sufficient for collecting relevant information and arriving at conclusions, further visits and interviews would have further enhanced our findings and recommendations. Similarly, the SIPA team was limited in its ability to meet with Members of Parliament and other government officials. Again, further interviews with these representatives would have strengthened our findings and recommendations.





Findings and Observations

Primary and Secondary School Teachers in Georgia

Teaching as a Feminized, Low-paying Profession

Almost every interviewee mentioned that the majority of teachers in Georgia are women. The teachers and school directors that we spoke with reinforced this finding. While most interviewees estimated that 90% of teachers are women, we found the percentage of female teachers to be even higher in some schools. The director of Tbilisi Public School No. 24, for example, stated that there are only three male teachers out of approximately 100 teachers at his school.¹ Moreover, we learned that the relatively small numbers of male teachers tend to teach a narrow range of subjects, which include physical education, mathematics, and history.

The low teaching salary was the most frequently noted reason for the lack of male teachers. President Saakashvili stated in April 2011 that the current average monthly salary of teachers is 380 GEL, which is roughly 230 USD.² This is significantly lower than the national average salary across fields, which in 2009 was 557 GEL, roughly 341 USD.³ In line with the SIPA team's desk research, interviewees stated that men are viewed as the primary breadwinners of families and pursue teaching as a profession because many believe that men cannot

support their families on such a low salary. Aware of the fact that teachers are underpaid, the government recently announced an initiative to raise teachers' salaries by various amounts starting at 75 GEL (46 USD).⁴ These raises will be based on the fulfillment of certain criteria, such as passing certification exams, teaching courses in two different languages, and teaching the Georgian language in non-Georgian schools.^{5,6}

The low teaching salary was the most frequently noted reason for the lack of male teachers.

Interviewees suggested a number of additional reasons for the lack of men in the teaching profession. First, a lack of professional development opportunities was mentioned to explain for the lack of male teachers. A female teacher noted that, as a teacher, "there is little room for career-building."⁷ The SIPA team noticed that teachers rarely are promoted into managerial positions within their school. Additionally, interviewees stated, and the SIPA team observed, that most school directors are male. Female teachers may subconsciously be playing a role in the shortage of male teachers. One interviewee cited the example that during training sessions, "sometimes men teachers and directors don't enter the room where

¹ Murgulia, G. (2011, March 22). Personal interview.

² Rustavi 2 website. (2011, April 18). President met with certified teachers. Retrieved from http://www.rustavi2.com/news/news_text.php?id_news=41162&pg=1&im=main

³ National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) website. Wages. Retrieved from http://www.geostat.ge/index.php?action=page&p_id=149&lang=eng

^{4,5} Rustvi 2 website. (2011, April 18).

⁶ Online News website. (2011, April 14). President Saakashvili Introduces New Initiatives to Government Members. Retrieved from <http://www.onlinenews.ge/index.php?id=8698&lang=eng>

⁷ Lomidze, I. (2011, March 22). Personal interview.

Women continue to make up the vast majority of teachers in Georgia.

women are being trained. They are afraid that women will mock the male teachers.”⁸ Lastly, another interviewee suggested that “teachers need to be very motivated to keep the discipline” and that women have “some kinds of roots to be mothers,” making it easier for them to become teachers.⁹ While some interviewees did mention that the perception of teaching as a strictly female profession is changing, as more men are becoming teachers, women continue to make up the vast majority of teachers in Georgia.

The lack of male teachers is seen as problematic. Some of the directors and teachers interviewed suggested that the lack of male teachers deprives students of male role models at school. One teacher remarked that “children need to have a relationship with male teachers and this is very bad that there are not many male teachers.”¹⁰ A director similarly noted that “having few male teachers is a problem

Children need to have a relationship with male teachers...very bad that there are not many male teachers

considering raising young boys,”¹¹ while another teacher observed that male teachers become role models for both boys and girls.¹² Some directors are making targeted efforts to attract and recruit more male teachers in order to achieve a gender balance in their schools.^{13,14}

⁸ Latsabidze, G. (2011, March 18). Personal interview.

⁹ Lomjaria, L. (2011, March 23). Personal interview.

¹⁰ Lomidze, I. (2011, March 22).

¹¹ Murgulia, G. (2011, March 22).

¹² Lomjaria, L. (2011, March 23).

¹³ Khamkhadze, M. (2011, March 24). Personal interview.

¹⁴ Anonymous. (2011, February 2). Personal interview.

¹⁵ Lomidze, I. (2011, March 22).

¹⁶ Khamkhadze, M. (2011, March 24).

¹⁷ Sumbadze, N. (2011, February 1). Personal interview.

Gender Awareness among Teachers

Most of the teachers and directors interviewed stated that they did not notice any difference in the treatment of male and female students. Directors interviewed stated that schools provide equal resources and equal access to those resources for both boys and girls. They pointed out that male and female students take classes in the same classrooms and choose from the same subjects, which are usually mandatory. Some interviewees did note that boys are more interested in sports than girls.^{15,16} However, when asked about the treatment and expectations of students, most school teachers and directors responded that boys and girls were treated equally in the classroom, and that they had the same expectations for both male and female students.

In contrast to the opinions of school teachers and directors, several gender and education experts mentioned distinct differences in the treatment and expectations of male and female students in school. According to these experts, sometimes teachers refer to girls as weak and emotional, telling boys things like “you shouldn’t cry; you’re not a girl.”¹⁷ One expert described an experience when a teacher told her that she had “men’s brains” because she stood out as being intelligent.¹⁸ During a focus group with

Most school teachers and directors responded that boys and girls were treated equally in the classroom, and that they had the same expectations for both male and female students.

Teachers are the “heaviest carriers of these traditional attitudes,” and they create and perpetuate the gender stereotypes in the classroom unconsciously.

private school teachers, it was noted that it is very much a part of Georgian culture to believe that girls are hard workers but not as talented as boys. As another expert noted, teachers are the “heaviest carriers of these traditional attitudes,” and they create and perpetuate the gender stereotypes in the classroom unconsciously.¹⁹ The participants in the focus group, who had taken a course on gender and education for their master’s program, expressed the view that before taking the course, they had not been exposed to seeing their interactions in the classroom through a gender lens. They all noted that after completing the course, they made a special effort to not judge, discriminate, or treat their students differently according to their gender, and to try to be “gender un-biased”.²⁰ Although these focus group participants represent only a small proportion of all teachers, their statements suggest that educating teachers on how to be gender aware can lead to the promotion of equal treatment of students.

Their statements suggest that educating teachers on how to be gender aware can lead to the promotion of equal treatment of students.

Teacher Certificate Exam by 2014

Since the beginning of Saakashvili’s presidency in 2004, the Georgian education system has undergone a series of extensive reforms. These reforms include the creation of a required national exam for students to attend university, the Teach and Learn in Georgia program where native English speakers teach English in Georgian schools, and a required standardized certification exam for all teachers. This last reform, implemented in 2010, requires all teachers in Georgia to take and pass certification exams by 2014. The Ministry of Education and Science carries out the exam once a year. After achieving certification, teachers must renew their teaching certificate every eight years by taking another round of exams. Any teacher who does not receive the certificate by 2014 will not be able to continue teaching. Those who pass the exam will receive a salary increase of 75 GEL. The exam is divided into two parts: knowledge of the specific subject material that teachers teach and professional skills.

The Ministry provides training for these exams, and private training entities must receive accreditation from the Ministry to conduct their own trainings. The Ministry provides two vouchers to teachers for the Ministry-held training: one on knowledge of subjects and one on professional skills. If teachers need additional training, they must pay out of their own pocket for private training. A private teacher trainer observed that “teachers who pay for their trainings are more successful, more motivated, and study better, while those who just use vouchers are not as

¹⁸ Sabedashvili, T. (2011, February 4). Personal interview.

¹⁹ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 2). Personal interview.

²⁰ Bagradze, G., Chovelidze, E., & Vepkhvadze, S. (2011, March 16). Personal interview.

motivated.”²¹ The same interviewee pointed out that teachers generally pass the exam on the subjects they teach easily while they find it more difficult to pass the exam on professional skills, adding that out of 3,000 teachers, only 26% have passed the professional skills exam.²² The Deputy Rector of Tbilisi State University described the teachers’ reactions to the certification process as, “teachers will either fear that they will not pass the exam, or they will be courageous, pass, and receive improved salaries. Teachers should be on the frontline of absorbing all that is new and passing onto the children. It is a good idea.”²³

“It’s not that they resist being gender sensitive; it’s that they don’t understand that they’re doing something discriminatory.”

When asked, all of the interviewees stated that there is currently no component to either the trainings or the certification exam on gender sensitivity. Many gender experts noted that providing gender training teachers on gender sensitivity is essential for making teachers more gender aware and fostering greater gender equality in schools. As one expert noted, referring to teachers, “it’s not that they resist [being gender sensitive]; it’s that they don’t understand that they’re doing something discriminatory.”²⁴ Another expert remarked that achieving gender equality “depends a lot on teachers.”²⁵

Gender Equality in the Georgian School System

Achievements of girls in education

The SIPA team learned that girls in Georgia do enjoy certain equalities in the field of education. The country has relatively high literacy rates and fairly equal school enrollment rates. Women are also actually slightly better represented in higher education institutions than men (55% of enrolled students are women and 44.5% enrolled are men).²⁶ In addition, since 2005, Tbilisi State University’s Center for Social Sciences has been offering a master’s degree program in Gender Studies. The program was developed in cooperation with partners at Rutgers University and Central European University and is the first graduate Gender Studies program in the Caucasus region. Finally, many interviewees mentioned the observation that on average girls are performing exceptionally well in school.

Gender Stereotypes in Textbooks

Many gender experts and some secondary school teachers highlighted the problem of gender stereotyping in school curriculum and especially in school textbooks. Experts note that textbooks often portray characters in traditional gender roles, behaving and speaking in “stereotypical ways,”²⁷ without acknowledging that this can be problematic and harmful. For example, stories and pictures in some textbooks depict women as “less intelligent and less creative” than men,²⁸ indirectly promote that “women should

²¹ Latsabidze, G. (2011, March 18).

²² Latsabidze, G. (2011, March 18).

²³ Alexidze, L. (2011, March 16).

²⁴ Sumbadze, N. (2011, February 1).

²⁵ Duban, Elisabeth (2010). Gender Assessment, United States Agency for International Development (USAID)/Georgia. DevTech Systems, Inc. (p. 23).

²⁶ Berekashvili, N. (2011, January 31). Personal interview.

²⁷ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 2).

²⁸ Berekashvili, N. (2011, January 31).

stay obedient and passive,"²⁹ or indicate that "children should be raised in strictly masculine or feminine ways" depending on their sex.³⁰

Some believe this portrayal of women in textbooks represents ideal images of women. However, the depictions often do not accurately reflect the reality of women's lives. As a result of these inconsistencies, stereotypical gender attitudes are being promoted and perpetuated in schools. Additionally, women are often depicted stereotypically as care givers and men as breadwinners, further contributing to the society's acceptance of these roles.

Textbooks often portray characters in traditional gender roles, behaving and speaking in "stereotypical ways."

In the early 2000s, a group of gender experts analyzed Georgian textbooks and developed a series of recommendations for the Ministry of Education and Science on how to ensure greater gender equality in textbooks. The Ministry responded by adding a new clause into the existing guidelines for textbook authors and publishers incorporating these recommendations.^{31,32} However, challenges still abound, an important one being that many gender experts believe that most authors and publishers do not actually know what it means to be gender sensitive, especially since gender is a relatively new concept among Georgians. In February 2011, in line with the wave of education

²⁹ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 2).

^{30,31} Berekashvili, N. (2011, January 31).

³² Ministry of Education and Science website. (2011, February 23). New Rule of Textbook Approval. Retrieved from <http://www.mes.gov.ge/content.php?id=1992&lang=eng>

³³ United Nations General Assembly. (1979, December 18).

³⁴ Anonymous. (2011, February 3). Personal interview.

³⁵ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 2).

³⁶ Anonymous. (2011, February 3).

reforms, the Ministry implemented new rules for the approval of textbooks.³³ Although the new rules do not explicitly address gender equality, this move shows that the Ministry is committed to improving the quality of textbooks in schools. Furthermore, this work is in line with Article 10(c) of CEDAW which makes specific recommendations to Georgia to "continue efforts to eliminate gender stereotyping and strengthen the mainstreaming of gender perspectives in curricula and textbooks."³⁴

Another challenge to ensuring gender equality in textbooks is the lack of adequate knowledge on gender sensitivity among those responsible for reviewing and approving textbooks for use. The National Curriculum and Assessment Center, part of the Ministry of Education and Science, is the entity that is responsible for these duties. A leading Ministry official of the Center noted that "if the textbook contains discrimination, then the schools will not be given permission to use it."³⁵ This recognition is a positive step towards eliminating gender stereotypes in textbooks. However, the Ministry official also stated that she did not currently see any problems in existing textbooks, demonstrating a lack of gender understanding given that many gender experts have documented the presence of gender inequalities in existing textbooks.³⁶

Article 10(c) of CEDAW makes specific recommendations to Georgia to "continue efforts to eliminate gender stereotyping and strengthen the mainstreaming of gender perspectives in curricula and textbooks."

Civic Education Program

The new curriculum reforms include the integration of a civic education program in primary and secondary schools. This program is currently being taught in select grades and includes mandatory lessons on “civic education” or “democratic citizenship.” These lessons teach students how to be a good, contributing citizen of society.³⁷ It also includes a component that teaches lessons on basic safety and emergency preparedness, such as what to do if one gets lost or how to act in the event of earthquakes or other natural disasters.³⁸ The integration of civic education is part of a goal, established by the Council of Europe in the late 1990s, to educate young people about democratic values and citizenship. It is hoped that these programs will prepare young people for active participation in democratic society as responsible citizens, thereby strengthening democratic culture, combating intolerance, and contributing to social cohesion and social justice.³⁹

A key area of this new subject is the promotion of and respect for human rights.⁴⁰ This is also a central topic of a recent project launched during the 2010-2011 academic year by the Ministry of Education and Science called “Law in Our Lives,” in which lawyers teach students about human rights, children’s rights, and gender equality. The project is designed to establish a “strong, active, and fair society” and enable students to protect their rights and acknowledge their social responsibilities as citizens.⁴¹ Additionally,

the Ministry has implemented ethics codes for students, teachers, and directors, another addition for the 2010-2011 academic year.⁴² The ethics codes, along with accompanying workshops, are intended to ensure that students, as well as teachers and directors, are respectful of each other and refrain from any sort of discrimination.⁴³ Thus, the Ministry has made efforts in promoting human rights, mutual respect, and responsible citizenship through its civic education program, the “Law in Our Lives” project, and ethics codes.

Yet while the “Law in Our Lives” project and the enforcement of ethics codes appear to incorporate some aspects of gender equality, it seems that there is no mandatory gender-related component included in the civic education program. When asked about how the Georgian curriculum could be adapted to promote gender equality, gender experts recommended including a gender education component into the new civic education program.⁴⁴ In its comments from August 2006, the CEDAW Committee recommended that the Georgian government disseminate information on CEDAW and other gender-related matters in the educational system “with a view to

The current model does not provide a well-rounded lesson on the importance of human rights for all citizens, which contradicts one of the key goals of both the Council of Europe programs and the specific Georgian program on civic education.

³⁷ Sabedashvili, T. (2011, February 4).

³⁸ Anonymous. (2011, February 3).

^{39,40} Birzėa, C. (2004). *All-European Study on Education for Democratic Citizenship Policies*. Council of Europe, 50.

⁴¹ Ministry of Education and Science website. (2011, February 16). The Project “Law in Our Lives.” Retrieved from <http://www.mes.gov.ge/content.php?id=1968&lang=eng>

⁴² Ministry of Education and Science website. (2010, August 26). Ethics Codes Will be Launched. Retrieved from <http://www.mes.gov.ge/content.php?t=srch&search=gender&id=1243&lang=eng>

⁴³ Kvintradze, T. & Jokhadze, N. (2011, February 3). Personal interview.

⁴⁴ Tskhadadze, T. (2011, February 5). Personal interview.

changing existing gender stereotypical views on and attitudes towards women's and men's roles."⁴⁵ The current model does not provide a well-rounded lesson on the importance of human rights for all citizens, which contradicts one of the key goals of both the Council of Europe programs and the specific Georgian program on civic education. Moreover, the lack of attention to gender equality issues may lead some students to conclude that there are no significant gender problems in society.⁴⁶

Missing Achievements of Women in Curriculum and Textbooks

While the SIPA team was not able to examine firsthand the curriculum and textbooks in schools, professionals in the gender and education fields note that there is a clear lack of attention given to highlighting the achievements of women in curriculum and textbooks. In contrast, numerous stories of famous men and their achievements are taught in schools.⁴⁷ Research on Georgian curriculum and textbooks with respect to the field of history suggests that children apply the models they learn from history to their personal lives. The lack of stories about women—their “invisibility”—in curriculum and textbooks may contribute to female students' low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence.⁴⁸

The lack of stories about women - their “invisibility” - in curriculum and textbooks may contribute to female students' low self-esteem and lack of self-confidence.

The SIPA team visited several public and private schools during its field visits. The team did not see illustrations or photographs of women prevalent in any of the schools. One private school in particular had a large number of photos of famous Georgian men, but not a single photo of a famous Georgian woman, on the walls throughout the school. There is ample documentation of women's achievements and contributions to society, particularly in the field of history,⁴⁹ which can be incorporated into history textbooks and lessons. More research is needed to find examples of women's contributions to other fields, such as politics, culture, science, and education.

The Law on Gender Equality

History of the Development of the Law

Interviewees who discussed the Law on Gender Equality strongly suggested that the Law would not have passed without the guidance and technical expertise of international UN agencies and pressure from the European Union and the United States. UN Women, UNDP, and UNFPA were instrumental in the drafting of the Law and the National Action Plan. These organizations provided technical expertise to local NGOs and helped apply pressure on the Georgian government to adopt the Law. Many people in these organizations noted the wishes of the Georgian Parliament and government “to [appear] more European,” which they believe was vital to Parliament's support for passing the Law.⁵⁰ Many interviewees, however, felt that the passing of the Law did not, and does not, represent a greater

⁴⁵ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women. (2006, August 25). Concluding comments of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women: Georgia, para. 18.

⁴⁶ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 2).

⁴⁷ Vepkhvadze, S. & Chovelidze, E. (2011, March 16). Personal interview.

⁴⁸ Vepkhvadze, S. (2011, March 16). Personal interview.

⁴⁹ See, for example, the documentary film, *Women in Georgia: Re-learning Gender Equality* (2011), produced by the South Caucasus Regional Office of the Heinrich Böll Foundation. Retrieved from <http://georgien.boell-net.de/web/116-996.html>

⁵⁰ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 4).

understanding of Georgia's gender inequalities or gender sensitivity among Members of Parliament. Since the Law's adoption, the government has not taken its implementation seriously, as will be discussed in further detail in following sections.

Many of those interviewed stated that the adoption of the Law was a meaningful and important step. The establishment of the now permanent Gender Equality Advisory Council with a clear mandate was key. The previous Council had been a temporary body whose existence was dependent on Parliament and the political climate. The Law and permanent presence of the Council provide gender equality advocates with legal standing to push for improved gender equality and implementation of the Law. The Council has the authority to demand that various ministries collect the necessary data and implement the National Action Plan. Additionally, the Council is responsible for submitting annual reports to the Parliament of Georgia and "prepare reports on the status of implementation of obligations assumed at the international level with respect to gender equality."⁵¹ The Council can also invite experts to provide technical knowledge and expertise for data collection.⁵²

The Law also defines the authority of the Office of the Public Defender (Ombudsman)⁵³ for the protection of gender equality in Article 14, which provides:

- "1. The Public Defender of Georgia shall ensure within his authority monitoring of the respective sphere and taking responsive measures on violations of gender equality.
2. For ensuring gender equality the Public Defender of Georgia shall implement the rights granted to him under the Organic Law of Georgia on Public Defender."⁵⁴

One interviewee noted that this is a positive aspect of the Law since it requires the Office of the Public Defender to be more productive in the area of collecting sex-disaggregated data. One staff member in the Child and Woman's Rights Center, the department that is responsible for handling cases pertaining to the Law's violation, informed the SIPA team that to date, no cases have been brought to the Public Defender relating to violations of the Law. The interviewee also stated that although the Law was passed, no enforcement mechanisms exist.⁵⁵ Furthermore, there are currently only three staff members working in the Center, which would not be adequate for dealing with a potentially high volume of cases.

⁵¹ Law on Gender Equality, Article 14, March 26, 2010.

⁵² Kervalishvili, R. (2011, February 2). Personal interview.

⁵³ The Public Defender of Georgia is responsible for "supervis[ing] that the state and local self-government bodies, public entities and officials observe and respect the rights and freedoms recognized by the state for all persons within its territory and jurisdiction regardless of race, color, language, sex, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic and social belonging, origin, property and title, place of residence or other status" and for "reveal[ing] facts of violations of human rights and freedoms and facilitat[ing] redress of violated rights and freedoms." The Public Defender's responsibilities thus closely resemble that of an ombudsman rather than a public defense attorney, which its name might imply. Public Defender of Georgia (Ombudsman) website. (1996, May 16). Organic Law of Georgia on the Public Defender. Retrieved from <http://www.ombudsman.ge/index.php?page=777&lang=1&n=7>

⁵⁴ Parliament of Georgia. (2010, March 27), Article 14.

⁵⁵ Arganashvili, A. (2011, March 24). Personal interview.

Areas of Concern

Although most interviewees mentioned that they were pleased that the Law was passed, they also expressed a few major concerns. Many gender experts felt that these concerns overshadowed the Law's accomplishments. First, the final version of the Law included only a small portion of the original draft of the Law. The implementation of parliamentary quotas, a minimum number of women in Parliament, was often mentioned as an important component of the draft Law that was removed before the Law's passage. Many gender experts stated that women's representation in government is essential to gender equality in Georgia. One amendment included in the original draft of the Law was to ensure that political parties presented gender-balanced party lists. This amendment would have required political parties to present a female candidate as every second or third name on political party lists. One gender expert, who worked on drafting and designing this amendment, stated that once the discussion of the Law became contentious, the amendment was dropped.⁵⁶ As another expert stated, "this Law is clearly a compromise between what was on the agenda of women's rights advocates and the priorities of the government."⁵⁷ Some gender experts were more critical, stating that the Law exists "only on paper," and

"This law is clearly a compromise between what was on the agenda of women's rights advocates and the priorities of the government."

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one interviewee even suggested that "the Gender Equality Law is nothing, it's worse than not having it."⁵⁸ These sentiments echo the speculations by gender experts that there has not been a shift in the actions and thinking of Members of Parliament with respect to advancing gender equality.

Second, the National Action Plan (NAP)—the implementation and accountability mechanism for the Law—was also dramatically reduced prior to passage. Beginning with 17 components, the final version passed with only four.⁵⁹ When NGOs protested the scaling back of the NAP, a gender expert recounted a male official telling her "you can have these four, or nothing at all."⁶⁰ Interviewees stated that they were forced to compromise, since otherwise, the Law would not have passed. Although the Law ultimately passed, it did so with weak accountability and limited funding mechanisms.

The NAP is the only instrument available for enforcement of the Law. The Gender Equality Advisory Council is charged with overseeing the implementation of the Law, including providing resources and expertise to Parliament and the Ministry to collect sex-disaggregated data and implement the NAP. However, the Council is not allocated funding for these projects. Instead, it is the responsibility of the ministries to request additional funds from the Ministry of Finance for data collection and gender equality initiatives.⁶¹ Additionally, the NAP does not specifically name agencies or departments responsible for the various components, nor is there a department in the executive branch responsible for

⁵⁶ Abramishvili, T. (2011, February 5). Personal interview.

⁵⁷ Sabedashvili, T. (2011, February 4).

⁵⁸ Sumbadze, N. (2011, February 1).

⁵⁹ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 4).

⁶⁰ Javakhishvili, N. (2011, February 4).

⁶¹ Kervalishvili, R. (2011, February 2).

implementation. For example, in the components of the NAP that pertain to education, the entities in charge of implementation and financing are simply listed as “international organizations” and “Parliament.” As one gender expert stated, “to get the Law and Action Plan to work, it should be very exact, with very concrete plans, and there should be a body in government that should be accountable.”⁶² Currently, it does not appear that those elements are in place.

Gender in Georgian Society

General Lack of Awareness and/or Understanding of Gender Equality

Men and women are granted equal rights under Georgian law. Many women work, equal pay for work exists, and there are more women than men in tertiary education.⁶³ This leads a significant proportion of the population to believe that Georgia does not have gender inequality problems. Several interviewees explained that since Georgia does not have some of the “extreme” gender-related problems that exist in some other countries (e.g., high rates of female genital mutilation), society does not pay enough attention to the more subtle instances of gender inequalities within Georgia. Some interviewees stated that Georgian women have equal choice in terms of what positions and in what fields they wish to work. These interviewees felt that women can work and have the same options as men, but choose not to enter those fields. As one interviewee noted, “we think that if women want to become businessmen, it is their choice.”⁶⁴ Aside from passing the Law

on Gender Equality in 2010, national and local governments do not seem to prioritize the advancement of gender equality. One gender expert explained that this was so because “gender is seen as an issue only for NGOs...it is only NGOs that are working on it, driven by international organizations. This is a real problem.”⁶⁵

Gender equality is a concept that is well understood by gender experts and women’s empowerment organizations in Georgia. Many NGO workers and gender experts that the SIPA team interviewed had studied gender at international universities and taken training courses, and many interviewees also taught gender-related courses at Georgian universities. The Soros Foundation has been active in Georgia helping to launch the Gender Studies program at Tbilisi State University, and administrators at the university are hoping to start a minor in gender studies at the undergraduate level.

However, those outside the field of gender lack a clear understanding of what gender and gender equality actually mean. For example, when asking Ministry of Education and Science officials, school directors, and teachers about gender equality in the education system, many dismissed gender equality as being a problem, bringing up the fact that the majority of teachers are female. As one Ministry official stated, “Most of the teachers are women, so we don’t really have women, gender, problems [with] teachers.”⁶⁶ Many interviewees failed to demonstrate a sense of understanding that the fact that teaching is a gendered profession could itself be a gender equality problem. There was an

⁶² Sumbadze, N. (2011, February 1).

⁶³ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁶⁴ Gamrekeli, I. (2011, March 14).

⁶⁵ Tskhadadze, T. (2011, February 5).

⁶⁶ Anonymous. (2011, February 2).

additional belief among these interviewees that teachers were supposed to be women. As one male interviewee commented,

“Women give birth and have children, so they are better tied with newborns...it was historically and [the function of women]. Women have this great possibility to bring new life. And also, these ties are quite strong [to children]...and women know how to behave with children. Women know the psychology of children better and how they react...to say there has to be 50% of women and 50% of men in each profession is crazy.”⁶⁷

Most interviewees, including those who are teachers or are involved in the education system, also failed to mention that while the majority of teachers are female, the majority of school directors are male. The glass ceiling (i.e., the challenge that women face in attaining managerial positions) in the school system was not acknowledged as a gender equality issue.

Teachers are not provided with any type of gender-sensitivity component during either pre-service or in-service training. They are

The glass ceiling in the school system was not acknowledged as a gender equality issue.

also not provided any guidance on the importance of highlighting the historical or contemporary achievements of women in the curriculum. Yet the SIPA team did not receive a strong sense from any of the

teachers or directors we interviewed that they felt that women, or the promotion of gender equality, was being left out of the curriculum. Most did not perceive the lack of a gender component in trainings, curricula, or textbooks as an important issue.

Gender Stereotypes

As is the case in many other countries, due to a multitude of factors, many stereotypes about men and women exist in Georgia.

Mothers and Housewives: Georgian society traditionally places a high value on women being good mothers or housewives. One recent study determined that “family is considered as the women’s realm” in Georgia, and that “gender inequality, especially in the area of public and family life, is acknowledged as a reality, but not as a problem.”⁶⁸ This appears to stem from

“Gender inequality, especially in the area of public and family life, is acknowledged as a reality, but not as a problem.”

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the highly patriarchal nature of Georgian society. Several interviewees noted that many Georgians have developed a deep-seated mentality that a woman’s proper role is to stay home and take care of their family instead of working. Many interviewees also noted that while many young women obtain higher education degrees, they do not end up putting those degrees to use after getting married and starting a family.

⁶⁷ Kobaladze, L. (2011, February 2). Personal interview.

⁶⁸ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

Women and Men: A recent Georgian study detailed some of the prevailing stereotypes about men and women, which include the idea that “women are seen as more dependent and men as more independent,” and that “it is assumed that women are characterized more [by] warmth, expressiveness, and concern for others, while men are characterized more with instrumentality, dominance, and assertiveness.”⁶⁹ Interviewees also noted the widespread belief that males should occupy the role of breadwinner for a family. Gender experts explained that these historical stereotypes are of course not believed to be true by the entire population, but in some settings they are being reinforced in homes, in schools, and through the Church.

Girls and Boys: In theory, girls and boys are granted equal rights in Georgian society. They take the same classes in school and have the same opportunity to pursue higher education or any career path of their choosing. However, several gender experts mentioned some stereotypes that exist regarding children that may potentially indirectly lead to changes in behavior and perceptions. Two university student interviewees stated that they felt that some teachers treated boys and girls differently in the classroom. However, as

Several gender experts mentioned some stereotypes that exist regarding children that may potentially indirectly lead to changes in behavior and perceptions.

the SIPA team was unable to perform classroom observations during its time in the field, we are not able to make strong conclusions on the subject.

The SIPA team also found that more work opportunities exist for boys than for girls following secondary school, and therefore going to college was not seen to be as necessary for boys as it is for girls. Another university student mentioned that boys in her community were able to rent snow-mobiles and start businesses with the help of adults and therefore did not go to college. Girls, however, after graduating from secondary school, had fewer business- and work-related opportunities and therefore went to college.⁷⁰

As also discussed in other sections of this report, the reinforcement of these and other gender stereotypes can lead to discrimination against women and girls in many aspects of Georgian life.

Revival of the Church

The vast majority of Georgia’s population is Orthodox Christian. During our field visits, an overwhelming number of interviewees brought up the role of the Church, which has been growing in influence since the collapse of the Soviet Union. A few interviewees believed that many Georgians were now looking to the Church in place of the government for guidance, due to feeling a sense of disappointment with the government, and that people valued recommendations coming from the Church more than recommendations coming from the government.^{71,72}

⁶⁹ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁷⁰ Anonymous. (2011, January 30). Personal interview.

⁷¹ Gotsiridze, R. (2011, January 31). Personal interview.

⁷² Gaprindashvili, L. (2011, February 5). Personal interview.

Many interviewees viewed the strong revival of the Church as having certain negative impacts on gender equality and women's empowerment. One gender expert noted that, "Orthodox religion is not providing people with gender-sensitive ideas, just the opposite. It provides inconsistent ideas—woman must obey man and man is important. Ideas that are reinforced are out-of-date and are sexist."⁷³ Indeed, several other gender experts highlighted this theme that the Church played a role in reinforcing stereotypes or traditional ideas about the roles of women and men. One interviewee also linked this dynamic to the lack of female priests in Georgian churches.⁷⁴

The SIPA team interviewed a member of the Church, who stated that the Church highly respects and values women, especially in their role as mothers. Reinforcing a common theme, he also noted that women have the opportunity to obtain jobs and higher positions in the workplace, if they choose to do so. Regarding gender equality, the member stated his belief that "it's a rumor that women are marginalized" in Georgia.⁷⁵

Due to the surge in Church activities and membership since the fall of the Soviet Union, the Church has enjoyed a progressively stronger role in the country. The extent to which the Church's ideals are in conflict with gender equality and women's empowerment is unclear, as the SIPA team lacked adequate research on the issue. Preliminary research suggests that the Church does not appear to be promoting gender equality outside of what is taught in the religion.

⁷³ Berekashvili, N. (2011, January 31).

⁷⁴ Anonymous. (2011, February 5). Personal interview.

⁷⁵ Gamrekeli, I. (2011, March 14).

⁷⁶ National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat). (2002). Major Findings: Ethnic Groups by Major Administrative-Territorial Units, in *General Population Census of 2002*. Retrieved from: http://www.geostat.ge/cms/site_images/_files/english/census/2002/03%20Ethnic%20Composition.pdf.

⁷⁷ Chanishvili, N. (2011, January 29). Personal interview.

⁷⁸ Partskhaladze, N. (2011, February 3). Personal interview.

The Azeri Population

There is a significant presence of ethnic Azeri people in Georgia. The Azeri population is the largest minority population residing in the country, making up approximately 6.5% of the total population, according to the last census compiled in 2002.⁷⁶ Several municipalities in particular in Georgia have high concentrations of Azeri people living together in communities.

These communities were described by a number of interviewees as areas where gender inequality does exist. Especially when it came to the education system, some interviewees were quick to emphasize that Azeri communities tended to treat women and men, as well as girls and boys, differently. Interviewees noted that in Azeri communities, "they don't think that girls need more than basic reading and writing skills"⁷⁷ and that "girls don't graduate, they get married quite early."⁷⁸ Some of these interviewees appeared to underscore what they saw as problems within the Azeri population in an effort to compare it with the general Georgian population, which they stated did not have any gender equality problems in its education system. Others mentioned the issue because they perceived it as a serious and important barrier to gender equality in Georgia that they believed warranted attention.

A report commissioned by USAID identified the issue as well, stating that in Azeri communities, "parents may place less emphasis on the education of girls, and in cases of early marriage, girls could leave

school as early as age 13 or 14.” However, it appears that the “community itself has recognized the problem and civil society groups are advocating against the practice of early marriage as well as assisting young women to obtain further skills and training.”⁷⁹

Gender-based Discrimination in the Labor Force

The SIPA team found that some level of discrimination against women, both direct and indirect, is taking place in the labor force. Although there is equal pay for equal work, on average, the total earnings of all Georgian women is only 57% of the total earnings of all men in Georgia.⁸⁰ This gap is due to multiple factors. To begin with, men are more likely to work in more profitable and higher-paying fields while women generally occupy lower-level positions compared to men. Research shows that the professions that are feminized, with large numbers of women working in them, tend to be low-paid.

In addition, the USAID-commissioned report states that “cases of discrimination against women in the hiring process (specifically, against women with children, single mothers, pregnant women) and unlawful termination after maternity leave are well-documented, but the evidentiary burden of proving discrimination is very high under current labor law, making it difficult for women to protect their rights.”⁸¹

Interviewees provided similar observations of discriminatory practices against women with children, single mothers, and pregnant women. One interviewee stated that the labor code in Georgia is not “gender-sensitive or women-friendly.”⁸²

This gender-based discrimination directly restricts some women from being offered jobs that they are otherwise well-qualified to fill. Furthermore, this discrimination can hamper a woman’s progress in her career if she is fired or not promoted due to the fact that she, for example, has small children.⁸³ Finally, if these norms are well-accepted by Georgian people, they can discourage young women from pursuing careers in certain fields or from applying to certain companies, for fear of not being promoted.

Preliminary research by the SIPA team demonstrated that while more women than men graduate from universities, women encounter more difficulty in finding jobs post-graduation than men. The SIPA team identified that due to some social norms, certain women may feel that they must choose between having children or pursuing a successful career.

Gendered Professions: There are certain professions in Georgia that are considered “feminized professions,” namely teachers, social workers, and doctors (especially pediatricians). Jobs in these fields are typically underpaid and are highly occupied by women. Referring to the teaching profession, a school director believed that gender disparities in these occupations were due to the fact that “wages are not very high and that’s why teaching is not a popular profession for men.”⁸⁴ Some gender experts speculated that another reason for the dominance of women in these sectors is that they all offer flexible schedules, allowing women to have time to take care of their children and household chores. As females continue to dominate these sectors, this reinforces society’s perception of these professions as feminized

⁷⁹ Duban, E. (2010, June), 22.

⁸⁰ Duban, E. (2010, June), 26.

⁸¹ Duban, E. (2010, June), 19.

⁸² Sanikidze, K. (2011, February 1). Personal interview.

⁸³ Sanikidze, K. (2011, February 1).

⁸⁴ Anonymous. (2011, February 2).

occupations, which may also discourage men from pursuing them. There are also certain sectors that are considered “male sectors,” namely construction, transport and communication, energy, manufacturing, and real estate.⁸⁵ In the same way that men may be discouraged from pursuing feminized occupations, women may feel discouraged from pursuing some of these male-dominated fields.

Glass Ceiling: Women who are employed and play an active role in the workforce face a challenge in climbing the professional ladder to reach high-level and high-paid positions. This is true in all sectors in Georgia. As discussed above, many of the interviewees who dismissed gender inequality in education as being a problem went on to substantiate their claim by reporting that the majority of teachers are women. It appeared that many did not realize or did not want to bring up the reasons why so many teachers are female and why this occupation is grossly underpaid. At the same time, and as also mentioned above, these individuals rarely discussed the distinctly observable fact that the majority of school directors in Georgia are male.

In the public sector, the high-level positions occupied by women are at times achieved through connections to individuals in power rather than through merit-based promotions. One female interviewee described the appointment of a particular woman in a high-level position in Georgia’s public sector as being “disrespectful of women” since the interviewee believed that the woman was not qualified for the job.⁸⁶

Women’s Political Representation in Georgia

Women are also vastly under-represented in both local and national politics. The percentage of female Members of Parliament in Georgia currently stands at 6%, after decreasing from a peak of 9.3% in 2004.⁸⁷ In addition, while women make up around 50% of political party membership, only four of the hundred or so political parties in Georgia are headed by women.⁸⁸ In local government, the percentage of women representatives has also decreased; however, it remains higher than parliamentary representation. In 1998, women held 14% of all local government positions. In 2006, this number had dropped to 11.5%.⁸⁹

A number of gender experts noted the lack of women in decision-making roles as both evidence of gender inequality in the political system as well as an obstacle to the promotion of gender equality in Georgian society as a whole. Some experts expressed discontentment with several incumbent or past women in office, explaining that these women were ineffective at advocating for women’s issues. One female leader that is currently in political office, Rusudan Kervalishvili, Deputy Chairperson of Parliament, has pushed strongly for greater gender equality and women’s empowerment in Georgia. She explained that today’s political climate calls for extensive funding sources, the lack of which prevents many women from attaining positions of power.⁹⁰ Many gender experts highlighted the potential that increasing female political representation can have to advance gender equality and further women’s empowerment.

⁸⁵ Duban, E. (2010, June), 19.

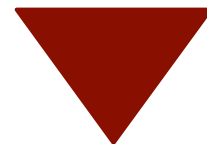
⁸⁶ Anonymous. (2011, February 5).

⁸⁷ Latatia, S. (2011, March 18).

⁸⁸ Sabedashvili, T. (2002, June), 29.

⁸⁹ Sumbadze, N. (2008).

⁹⁰ Kervalishvili, R. (2011, February 3).



Recommendations for Policymaking

The findings section covered four major categories: The Law on Gender Equality, Gender in Georgian Society, Gender Equality in the School System, and Primary and Secondary School Teachers in Georgia. The SIPA team's recommendations are also grouped into four major categories that correlate to each of the Findings categories. The first set of recommendations aims to promote gender equality in the teaching profession in Georgia. The next set of recommendations was developed to promote gender equality in the Georgian school system as a whole. The third set of recommendations works to strengthen the Law on Gender Equality and the National Action Plan on the Implementation of the Law on Gender Equality. Finally, the last recommendation will raise gender awareness and promote gender equality in society at large.

The SIPA team makes a total of 10 recommendations under the four categories. While each of these recommendations in theory can be adopted independently, they will be most effective if done in conjunction with other recommendations with which they have connections. In addition, if certain recommendations, such as those that will strengthen the Law and the National Action Plan, are implemented first, they can work to help to accelerate the implementation of other recommendations.

Strengthen the Law on Gender Equality and the National Action Plan

1. Mandate funding and identify and hold specific entities responsible for each component of the National Action Plan

The adoption of the Law on Gender Equality, the accompanying National Action Plan (NAP), and the permanent establishment of the Gender Equality Advisory Council are steps in the direction toward gender equality. However, the NAP does not specifically name agencies or departments responsible for the various components. In the targets of the NAP that pertain to education, those entities in charge of implementation and financing are simply listed as "international organizations" and "Parliament." The NAP is not explicit in which stakeholders are accountable for each target. This lack of a clear line of accountability appears to demonstrate a weak commitment to achieving the goals.

The SIPA team recommends that the Gender Equality Advisory Council be given explicit authority to assign specific entities to be responsible for individual targets within the NAP and to monitor and hold them accountable for their progress. Council members should work closely with civil society organizations to utilize the expertise of these organizations and coordinate state activities for gender equality. The Council should also be given proper funding for coordination of these state activities and legislative actions pertaining to gender equality. Currently, individual ministries are responsible for requesting funding as needed to implement the NAP.¹ It is unlikely that these ministries will request such funding without accountability mechanisms and without a critical mass of gender-aware employees. The SIPA team recommends that ministries be provided the necessary yearly budget allocation for the implementation of the NAP.

¹ Kervalishvili, R. (2011, February 2).

In developing stronger accountability and funding mechanisms, the Georgian government will abide by the Beijing Platform for Action and CEDAW. The Platform of Action states, "To successfully mainstream a gender perspective into the adoption of action-oriented policies, governments should demonstrate strong political will and dedication to the actualization of gender parity in all spheres."² CEDAW recommends the creation of a permanent institutional mechanism that promotes the advancement of women and is granted necessary authority and human and financial resources to ensure such.

2. Expand the capacity of the Office of the Public Defender (Ombudsman)

Georgia's Office of the Public Defender (Ombudsman) is "the constitutional institute which supervises protection of human rights and freedoms within the territory of Georgia, reveals the facts of violations, and facilitates restoration of violated rights."³ Under Article 14 of the Law on Gender Equality, the Child and Woman's Rights Center is charged with reviewing all cases related to the Law,⁴ yet the Office lacks adequate staffing and resources to handle an additional caseload. The SIPA team recommends an annual allocation of funds to the Child and Woman's Rights Center of the Office of the Public Defender, since the Law does not mandate specific allocation of funds to the Office to ensure adherence to the Law. The funds may be used to increase infrastructure and capacity of the Office.

In order to monitor trends in violations of the Law and ensure that the Office is appropriately staffed to handle caseload related to the Law, the SIPA team also recommends that the Gender Equality Advisory Council collect quarterly reports from the Office on the cases reviewed pertaining to the Law. In the event that the Office is overburdened, the Council should report any shortfall in funding or capacity to Parliament. The Council should also use the reports to identify new challenges and develop initiatives to address them as needed. These duties of the Council and the increase in funds for the Office of the Public Defender should be included in the NAP.

3. Collect Comprehensive Sex-Disaggregated Data

The National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat), the principal collector of statistical data in the country, currently collects data on a regular basis, but this data is not disaggregated by sex. Geostat asserts that it performs its role by taking into consideration international methodology and standards, but it does not appear to comply with certain requirements in international agreements.⁵ The collection of sex-disaggregated data is required by CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action, and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).⁶ Furthermore, to track progress towards gender equality and compliance with international agreements, publicly available sex-disaggregated data collection and analysis need to be established.⁷

² United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women. (1995, September 15).

³ Public Defender of Georgia (Ombudsman) website. (1996, May 16).

⁴ Parliament of Georgia. (2010, March 27), Article 14.

⁵ National Statistics Office of Georgia (Geostat) website. (n.d.). History. Retrieved from http://www.geostat.ge/index.php?action=page&p_id=29&lang=eng

⁶ United Nations Development Programme website. (n.d.). Gender-sensitive reporting and the Millennium Development Goals. Retrieved from <http://www.undp.org/women/mdgs/reporting.shtml>

⁷ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) website. (n.d.).

The SIPA team thus recommends that Geostat collect and make public sex-disaggregated data that is in line with the collection of all statistical data. Individual ministries should help facilitate data collection by collecting such data and providing it to Geostat, or enabling Geostat to collect such data. Finally, the Gender Equality Advisory Council should be given the authority to monitor and oversee the collection of this data.

Promote Gender Equality in the Georgian School System

4. Promote gender equality in the Ministry of Education and Science

Ministry of Education and Science staff members play an important role in developing education policy for the entire nation. The Ministry is responsible for developing and implementing policies related to teacher certification and professional development training, school curriculum, and textbooks. The SIPA team's findings revealed a general lack of knowledge on gender issues and gender sensitivity among staff. In line with the European Union's recent Plan of Action on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Development, gender expertise as it relates to education should become one of the Ministry's core competencies.

The SIPA team recommends mandatory yearly gender-sensitivity training for all Ministry staff members, with breakout sessions to train individual departments appropriately based on their role within the Ministry. This training should be focused on understanding stereotypes that exist in Georgia, the important role of teachers in influencing a child's sense of gender, and the importance of a gender-sensitive curriculum. Additionally, a section on conducting gender-sensitivity training for Ministry staff should be added to the National Action Plan. Finally, the Gender Equality Advisory Council, in close cooperation with civil society organizations, should be given authority to make recommendations and monitor enforcement regarding the creation, content, and administration of the training sessions. These actions will allow Georgia to abide by Article 10(c) of CEDAW, which calls for the "elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education."⁸

5. Ensure gender neutrality in all textbooks

Recommendations from gender experts to make textbooks gender-neutral were at one time added to guidelines for textbooks authors and publishers. However, the extent to which authors and publishers understand how to implement these guidelines and whether they are attempting to do so is unclear. It is also unclear whether recent textbook reforms have maintained these recommendations.

A gender-neutral textbook "centers on the removal of biased language—excessive use of masculine pronouns and examples using mostly men...[and] eliminates stereotypical references to women and men in the work they do, the roles they play in society, and the traits that supposedly characterize them."⁹ The SIPA team recommends that the Ministry revise, implement, and enforce standards to ensure that all textbooks are gender-neutral.

⁸ United Nations General Assembly. (1979, December 18).

⁹ Stromquist, N. (2003). Women's Education in the Twenty-first Century: Balance and Prospects, in *Comparative Education: The Dialectic of the Global and the Local*, second edition (edited by Arno, R. F. & Torres, C. A.). Lanham, Maryland: Rowman and Littlefield.

Civil society organizations should be granted the authority to train authors and publishers of textbooks on how to be gender-neutral when creating or updating textbooks, equipping them with the ability to comply with new standards. The Council, in collaboration with civil society organizations that have expertise on this issue, should monitor textbooks regularly to ensure that only gender-neutral textbooks are approved. Additionally, a section should be added to the National Action Plan to reflect these recommendations.

As an additional accountability mechanism, the Ministry should also distribute copies of standards on gender neutrality in textbooks to Educational Resource Centers, school directors, and other school administrators. School administrators must be accountable for selecting books within the framework of the gender equality legislation. In order for this to happen, administrators must be trained to apply the legislation in their particular context.

These recommendations are in line with international agreements. In November 2000, a United Nations General Assembly Resolution was adopted that called upon governments to implement policies addressing gender stereotypes in educational curricula and materials.¹⁰ In August 2006, the CEDAW Committee, invoking Article 10(c) of the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, made specific recommendations to Georgia to “continue efforts to eliminate gender stereotyping and strengthen the mainstreaming of gender perspectives in curricula and textbooks.”¹¹

6. Integrate a gender component into the national primary and secondary school curricula

The national primary and secondary school curricula currently do not include a gender component. As one curriculum theorist states, “Though official curricula tend rarely to address gender equality...they tend to imply certain gender assumptions.”¹² The recent curriculum reforms offer an opportunity to include a gender component into the new civic education program. Many gender experts stated that this is an appropriate area in which to promote gender equality in the classroom. The SIPA team recommends integrating lessons highlighting the importance of human rights for all and gender equality into the civic education requirement.

The SIPA team also recommends that schools highlight and honor the achievements and contributions of notable women figures in Georgian curriculum and textbooks, beginning with the subject of history. Civil society organizations should be granted the authority to consult with teachers to help design exercises for them about gender equality. Civil society organizations should also inform teachers on women’s contributions to other fields, such as politics, culture, science, and education, and teachers should subsequently include these contributions in their classroom décor and lesson plans. For example, schools can celebrate International Women’s Day on March 8 every year by having a significant number of lessons that focus on women’s accomplishments. Additionally, schools should equally promote both men’s and women’s contributions to society in the school decorations and displays.

¹⁰ United Nations General Assembly. (2000, November 16). Resolution Adopted by the General Assembly. Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/followup/ress232e.pdf>

¹¹ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women. (2006, August 25), para. 18.

¹² Stromquist, N. (2003).

A section should be added to the National Action Plan to reflect these recommendations. The SIPA team also recommends that the Gender Advisory Council be granted the authority to make recommendations and monitor enforcement regarding the inclusion of women's achievements and contributions into curriculum and textbooks, as well as the inclusion of gender-related lessons into the civic education component.

7. Incentivize girls and boys into non-traditional courses of study

Gender stereotypes and norms can also influence the kinds of subjects that boys and girls focus on and study. For example, "power subjects", such as science, mathematics, and technology, tend to attract male students while other subjects, such as languages and literature, tend to attract female students. This means that the content of different subjects attracts boys and girls on the basis that "this is what proper girls and boys do."¹³ As previously mentioned, many professions such as those in education and finance are extremely gendered in Georgia. An important step to improving the gender balance in feminized or masculinized professions is to promote non-traditional courses of study in primary and secondary school.

The SIPA team recommends developing programs at the Ministry and individual school level to incentivize boys and girls into non-traditional fields. Girls should be encouraged to enter fields such as history, science, and mathematics. Boys should be encouraged to enter fields such as languages and social sciences. These incentive programs could be modeled after the United States' STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) program, which encourages women and girls to enter these fields that are traditionally dominated by men.

Initiatives could include:

- The development of a certificate for boys and girls who complete a set number of advanced courses, or perform well, in non-traditional courses of study, such as for girls who complete a set number of advanced science courses, and for boys who complete a set number of advanced language courses; and
- The pairing of girls and boys with a mentor from the non-traditional course of study. This will enable boys and girls to have the additional encouragement and support necessary to overcome possible social pressure.

Additionally, a section should be added to the National Action Plan to reflect these recommendations.

¹³ Eurydice Network. (2009, December). *Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes: Study on the Measures Taken and the Current Situation in Europe*. Brussels: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency. Retrieved from http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic_reports/120EN.pdf

Promote Gender Equality in the Field of Education in Georgia

8. Require gender-sensitivity training for all education practitioners and administrators

Enhancing the gender sensitivity of teachers and school directors is essential for promoting gender equality. As noted by a Swedish education expert, “Most adults are unaware of the fact that they treat boys and girls differently.”¹⁴ Thus, some teachers are likely unconsciously reinforcing and perpetuating stereotypes and social norms in their classrooms. Their interactions with students, the examples they choose, and the toys or activities they provide in the classroom all play a role in teaching these norms. As one interviewee noted, “Teachers are representatives in society; what they teach spreads to society.”¹⁵ Students then adopt these stereotypes, which subsequently continue to be reinforced. Additionally, administrators can also exercise a strong influence on the behavior of teachers and may also be reinforcing stereotypes in their interactions with students and teachers.

The SIPA team recommends that the Ministry of Education and Science incorporate a gender component into the teacher certification trainings and the certification exam required for all teachers by 2014. Furthermore, the Ministry should require all education practitioners, including and especially teachers, and administrators to attend in-service gender-sensitivity trainings annually.¹⁶ School directors should be held responsible for creating a supportive environment in which they encourage teachers to participate in the trainings and provide them an allotted amount of time each year to attend the trainings. This will ensure that new teachers, current teachers, and school administrators gain a greater understanding of how to promote gender equality in the classroom and in the broader school environment, and why doing so is important. School directors can also bring in speakers from civil society to provide additional support to teachers in learning how to promote gender equality in the classroom. Finally, a section with benchmarks and funding should be added to the National Action Plan to reflect these recommendations.

9. Promote and raise the status of the teaching profession

Teachers play a crucial role in passing knowledge on to children, shaping their behavior and how they learn to interact, and thus influencing their construction of gender norms and relations. Several teachers and school directors noted that the general lack of male role models for young boys in schools was concerning. Students who are accustomed to seeing a balanced composition of male and female teachers working together in schools, and playing a caring and supportive role, may be more likely to develop notions of gender equality to carry into other areas of their lives. The SIPA team recommends that the Ministry of Education and Science develop and implement a strategy to attract candidates from all demographic groups in Georgia, in order to increase diversity in the teaching profession and promote gender equality within schools.

¹⁴ Hasbar, S. (2010, June 24). Equality starts in pre-school. Retrieved from <http://www.sweden.se/eng/Home/Education/Pre-school/Reading/Equality-at-daycare/>

¹⁵ Vepkhvadze, S. (2011, March 16).

¹⁶ The Open Society Institute, in partnership with the European Social Fund, developed a handbook for teachers and students in the Czech Republic in 2006. The manual covered the risks of gender stereotyping in various areas of school life.

Eurydice Network. (2009, December).

In addition, teachers in Georgia are chronically underpaid for their services. One of the SIPA team's interviewees commented, "Education is the most important area that the state should invest in, and most importantly, you need good teachers. To have good teachers you need them to be highly valued and respected, and well-paid."¹⁷ Aware of the fact that teachers have been underpaid, the government recently announced an initiative to raise teachers' salaries by various amounts starting at 75 GEL (46 USD),¹⁸ based on the fulfillment of certain criteria such as passing certification exams, teaching courses in two different languages, and teaching the Georgian language in non-Georgian schools.^{19,20} The SIPA team recommends that the Ministry of Education and Science continue these recent efforts, ensure the implementation of pay increases for all teachers, and support teachers in their ability to take advantage of the various pay increase options. In addition to living more comfortably, teachers who receive increased pay may be able to pay for additional trainings or attend continuing education classes. Attractive salaries, those at a living wage, may also encourage more men and those from a variety of different backgrounds to pursue teaching as a career.²¹

Finally, the SIPA team recommends that civil society organizations work together to conduct a public awareness campaign to promote teaching as a respected profession. The campaign should aim to raise the profile of the teaching profession as a prestigious career choice, which has the potential to make lasting impacts on the next generation. Countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States have conducted similar campaigns to recruit teachers and make the teaching profession more attractive to job seekers. Annex G provides examples of public campaigns that were conducted in other countries to promote the teaching profession and recruit teachers.

Promote Gender Awareness in Georgian Society at Large

10. Conduct targeted public awareness campaigns

The SIPA team's field visits revealed a general lack of understanding of gender sensitivity, understanding of what gender inequalities exist in Georgia, and knowledge of the Law on Gender Equality. This hinders the ability of the general public to hold Parliament accountable for the implementation of the Law and for society to work on changing established gender norms and stereotypes.

The SIPA team recommends conducting several targeted public awareness campaigns to raise gender awareness, convey the importance of promoting gender equality in society, inform Georgians about their rights under the Law on Gender Equality, and promote teaching as an important and admirable profession (as detailed in Recommendation 9). These public awareness campaigns will be most effective if they are targeted to specific groups of Georgians and appeal to both younger and older generations. They are intended to begin the process of changing gender norms by exposing existing stereotypes, sparking conversations among the public, and providing information on how to ensure greater gender equality throughout Georgia.

¹⁷ Tarkhan-Mouravi, G. (2011, March 22).

¹⁸ Rustavi 2 website. (2011, April 18).

¹⁹ Rustavi 2 website. (2011, April 18).

²⁰ Online News website. (2011, April 14).

²¹ In the schools visited during the field visits, men comprised at a maximum 10% of all the teachers. However, the overwhelming majority of school directors were men.

Suggested topics for the campaigns include:

- Depicting teachers as performing a vital job of educating the next generation, as detailed in Recommendation 9;
- Highlighting examples of common gender inequalities in Georgia;
- Explaining the Law on Gender Equality; and
- Demonstrating the benefits to society from increasing women's participation in various sectors.

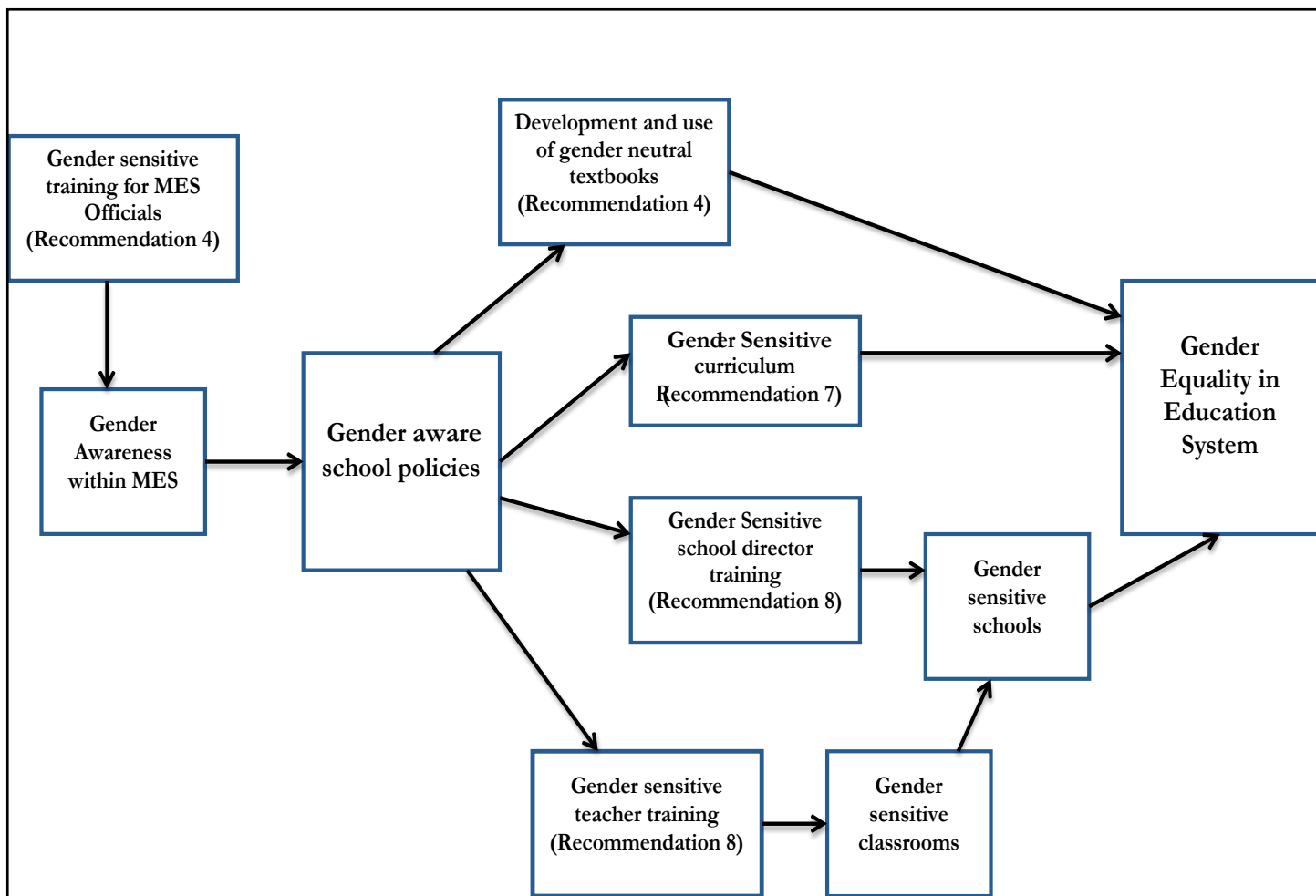
The campaigns could be conducted by strategically using media outlets such as television and radio advertisements, posters on public transportation facilities, organized public information sessions at universities and companies, and cultural and musical events.

Civil society organizations should lead this effort by collaborating and working with Parliament, schools, and the Office of the Public Defender to drive the campaigns and ensure their strength and effectiveness. Given these entities' current work and close connection with the community, they would be able to develop effective campaigns.

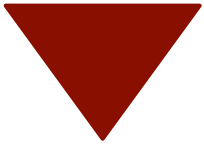
Annex VI provides examples of public campaigns related to gender equality that were successfully conducted in other countries.



Summary of Recommendations



The above diagram is a visual representation of some of the recommendations included in this report. It demonstrates how the different components are interconnected and together help promote gender equality in the Georgian education system.



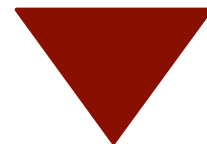
Areas for Further Research

Based on our findings and recommendations, the SIPA team has identified several areas that we believe warrant further research. First, a number of interviewees mentioned the experiences and situation of the Azeri population when speaking about gender inequality, particularly in relation to the education system. Many mentioned that inequalities were far greater in minority groups, specifically the Azeri population. In addition, there has been a high number of IDPs since the social and political unrest of the mid-1990s and especially since the Russo-Georgian conflict in August 2008. Within the scope of this project, the SIPA team was not able to closely examine the specific circumstances of minority populations and IDPs. The SIPA team therefore recommends that further research be conducted on minorities, particularly the Azeri population, as well as IDPs in Georgia.

Moreover, because the issue of gender-based employment discrimination was beyond the scope of this project, the SIPA team's research into this area was limited. However, the problem of employment discrimination can influence gender equality in the education system and vice versa. Therefore, the team recommends that further research be conducted in order to better assess the types and levels of discrimination in the workplace, as well as the relationship between discrimination and gender equality in schools.

Additionally, the SIPA team was not able to gather extensive information on the pedagogical methods and theories that are taught in teacher trainings. The SIPA team thus recommends that future research also be conducted in this area in order to have a more accurate assessment of the proposed gender-sensitivity component that we believe should be integrated into teacher trainings.

Finally, while the SIPA team was able to interview a variety of teachers and school directors, we were not able to conduct classroom observations during our visits to the schools. As a result, we were unable to observe the pedagogical methods being used by teachers, nor were we able to observe teacher-student interaction in the classroom. The SIPA team recommends that further research be carried out in this area in order to more fully understand the existence of gender stereotypes and other inequalities in classrooms as well as the extent of gender sensitivity among teachers.



Closing Words

The lion's whelps are equal be they male or female.

Shota Rustaveli, Georgian Poet
12th century

We are committed to the promotion of equality between men and women, highly value importance of work carried out in the area of combating domestic violence and promotion of women's rights.

Davit Bakradze, Chair of the Parliament of Georgia
21st century





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Annex I:

Key Terminology

Gender

Gender refers to “the socially constructed sex roles and attributes of females and males”¹ in a society. It includes both the historical and sociological relationships between women and men as well as these relationships among only women and among only men. Gender determines the distinct expectations of men and women in a given society and the activities they are expected to undertake, defining what are considered to be “masculine” and “feminine” attributes. In any given culture, gender establishes who can and should be the breadwinner or stay-at-home parent, who has the power to make decisions for the family unit, and which professions in the public sphere are appropriate for men or women.² Gender roles are unique to their cultural context and dynamic, changing within shifting historical and social contexts.

It is important to differentiate gender from sex. Sex refers to the “biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women.” Men and women are biologically different and sex does not differ significantly across countries and cultures.³

Gender Equality

Gender equality refers to the absence of any form of discrimination based on a person’s sex. This discrimination may be related to distribution of income and finances, access to services and resources, and/or participation in decision-making processes.⁴ According to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID):

“Gender equality entails the concept that all human beings, both men and women, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles, or prejudices. Gender equality means that the different behaviors, aspirations, and needs of women and men are considered, valued, and favored equally. It does not mean that women and men have to become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities, and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female.”⁵

Additionally, obtaining gender equality requires that men and women’s primary needs and interests are equally prioritized in all planning and decision making.⁶ Governments can and do implement laws and regulations to prevent gender-based discrimination, increase opportunities for women, and change legal structures enabling equal access to goods, land, and resources.

¹ Leo-Rhynie, E. & the Institute of Development and Labour Law. (1999, June). *Gender Mainstreaming in Education: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

² Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI) website. (n.d.). Concepts and definitions. Retrieved from: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm>

³ World Health Organization website. (n.d.). What do we mean by “sex” and “gender”? Retrieved from: <http://www.who.int/gender/whatisgender/en/>

⁴ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). (n.d.). Gender Terminology. Retrieved from: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/pubs/Gender_Terminology_2.pdf

⁵ United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

⁶ Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI). (2001, August). Important Concepts Underlying Gender Mainstreaming: FactSheet 2. Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/pdf/factsheet2.pdf>

Gender Equity

Gender equity and gender equality are often used interchangeably, but the two terms have distinct definitions. In contrast to gender equality, gender equity refers to fair treatment for women and men, according to their respective (and often culturally-defined) needs.⁷ It often demands “built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages” encountered by women,⁸ such as measures meant to ensure “equal opportunity”. Gender equity can be viewed as ensuring, through these or other measures, that there are equal proportions of women and men in specific sectors or positions, such as school enrollment or representation in legislative bodies.

Gender equity is difficult to legislate,⁹ as identical treatment of women and men may satisfy the gender equality criterion but may not result in gender equity. Gender equality, rather than gender equity, was adopted as the preferred term at the 1995 Beijing World Conference on Women.¹⁰ According to the Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI), gender equity “denotes an element of interpretation of social justice, usually based on tradition, custom, religion, or culture, which is most often to the detriment of women. Such use of equity in relation to the advancement of women is unacceptable.”¹¹ Other specialists working on gender issues, however, argue that equity allows for more recognition of women’s particular needs, such as those relating to reproductive health. Hence there is much debate about whether measures ensuring gender equity are more beneficial or detrimental to women’s needs and empowerment.

Gender Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is a strategy for achieving gender equality in all areas of social and economic development. It is the process of “assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programs, in any area and at all levels.”¹² Gender mainstreaming requires the integration of a gender perspective—understanding the difference in women and men’s access to resources, decision-making processes, and power dynamics¹³—in the development and establishment of all programs in all areas, during all phases of the project cycle. Gender mainstreaming can be applied to various entities, including governmental bodies, such as ministries of education; multilateral organizations; and NGOs. It is not an easy or quick process, and may require fundamental changes in an organization’s mission, program, and/or operations in order to be successful.¹⁴

Gender mainstreaming differs from previous efforts to incorporate women’s concerns into government activities that “added on” a women’s component to existing programs. It is important to note that the word “gender” does not mean “women,” and gender mainstreaming does not mean increasing women’s programs or creating special women’s units. It views men and women as agents of change, working to eliminate gender biases at all levels of society through “bring[ing] about structural change and shifts in power relationships.”¹⁵ The gender mainstreaming process highlights situations in which men, not only women, are disadvantaged.

⁷ Unit for the Promotion of the Status of Women and Gender Equality. (2000, May). *Gender Equality and Equity: A summary review of UNESCO’s accomplishments since the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing 1995)*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001211/121145e.pdf>

⁸ United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

⁹ Unit for the Promotion of the Status of Women and Gender Equality. (2000, May).

^{10,11,12,13} Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women (OSAGI). (2001, August).

^{14,15} International Labor Organization website. (n.d.). Definition of Gender Mainstreaming. Retrieved from: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/gender/newsite2002/about/defin.htm>

Gender mainstreaming became a well-known term in the development field after the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, through the adoption of the Program for Action. In 1997, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) agreed to mainstream gender considerations into all policies and programs in the United Nations system. Currently, most major international organizations have restructured their mission statements and operations to incorporate gender mainstreaming to some extent.¹⁶

Gender Mainstreaming in Education

Gender mainstreaming in education applies a gender perspective to government education programs and activities, schools, colleges, and other institutions and NGOs. Recent research has shown that a nation's education system plays a large role in perpetuating and reinforcing gender stereotypes, through teacher trainings, management decisions, curriculum design, textbooks, and other factors influencing boys' and girls' attendance, participation, learning, and treatment, among other outcomes.¹⁷ Gender mainstreaming in the education sector requires analyzing each of these components using sex-disaggregated data and gender mainstreaming frameworks to understand how and where gender norms are being reproduced.¹⁸

Gender Analysis

Gender analysis refers to "tool[s] to diagnose the differences between men and women regarding their specific activities, conditions, needs, access to and control over resources, and access to development benefits and decision making."¹⁹ Gender analysis is essential to the gender mainstreaming process and requires sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive information. The analysis draws attention to areas where inequalities exist, providing details on existing inequalities, helping to ensure that future programs and projects are gender equitable.

Gender Awareness/Sensitivity

Gender awareness, or gender sensitivity, can be viewed as "the ability to recognize gender issues and especially the ability to recognize women's different perceptions and interests arising from their different social location and different gender roles."²⁰ Gender awareness/sensitivity includes identifying problems arising from gender inequality and discrimination and questioning gender disparities and differences, as well as the possible reasons behind such disparities and differences. Gender awareness/sensitivity can guide individuals to modify their behaviors and actions in ways that promote greater gender equality.

^{16,17,18,19} Unit for the Promotion of the Status of Women and Gender Equality. (2000, May).

²⁰ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). (n.d.). While some sources note a slight distinction between gender awareness and gender sensitivity, this report will refer to gender awareness and gender sensitivity interchangeably.

Annex II:

Timeline of Gender Equality Legislation and Mechanisms in Georgia

1994 (September 22): Ratification of CEDAW.

1998 (February 20): Establishment of the Intra-Institutional Commission on the Elaboration of State Policy for the Advancement of Women. This Commission elaborated the draft of the Presidential decree about the Measures on Strengthening the Protection of Human Rights of Women.

1998 (June 18): Approval of the 1998-2000 National Action Plan for Improving Women's Conditions

1999 (August 28): Presidential decree about the Measures on Strengthening the Protection of Human Rights of Women. The decree stated that different institutions should ensure the protection of women's human rights in Georgia, in accordance with the Constitution of Georgia, international human rights covenants, the Beijing Platform for Action, and CEDAW.

2000 (December 29): Extension of the 1998-2000 National Action Plan until 2004. Extension version is virtually identical to 1998-2000 NAP.

2000: Commitment made to Millennium Development Goals.

2003: Disbandment of the Commission for the Elaboration of the State Policy for the Advancement of Women.

2004 (August 30): Formation of an ad-hoc working group with the goal of developing recommendations for the development of a gender equality institutional mechanism.

2004 (October 27): Creation of a Gender Equality Advisory Council under the Speaker of Parliament.

2004 (Spring): Release of the first *Millennium Development Goals in Georgia*, which defined the development goals and targets of Georgia. In the document, the Georgian government took the responsibility to ensure gender equality in employment and equal access of women and men in politics.

2005 (June 28): Establishment of the Governmental Commission for Gender Equality (GCGE) with a temporary mandate. The Commission was established to work on a national concept and action plan for gender equality.

2006 (February): Collaboration between GCGE and the Council to create a joint working group to develop the national concept and action plan. The working group created the Gender Equality Strategy of Georgia (GES), which contained three inter-linked documents: The State Concept on Gender Equality, a three-year action plan, and recommendations to the legislative and executive branches of government to create permanent gender equality institutional mechanisms.

2006 (July): Adoption by the Georgian Parliament of the State Concept on Gender Equality. The State Concept introduces key concepts such as "gender", "gender equality", "direct and indirect discrimination", and "gender mainstreaming" into national legislation. A 2007-2009 National Action Plan was also adopted.

2010 (March): Adoption of the Law on Gender Equality and the creation of the permanent Gender Equality Advisory Council. The Law was developed by civil society organizations and UN agencies working in cooperation with the Georgian government.

Sabedashvili, T. (2007, February) *Gender and Democratization: the Case of Georgia 1991-2006*. Tbilisi: Heinrich Böll Foundation.
Duban, E. (2010, June). *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia*. DevTech Systems, Inc.

Annex III:

List of Interviews Conducted

January 29- February 5, 2011 and March 14 -24, 2011 in Tbilisi, Georgia.

Government

- Anna Arganashvili, Head of Child and Women's Right Center, Office of Public Defender (Ombudsman) of Georgia
- Archil Gagnidze, Former Deputy Minister of Education and Science (MES)
- Natia Jokhadze, Director, National Curriculum and Assessment Center, MES
- Rusudan Kervalishvili, Deputy Chairperson and Head of GEAC
- Levan Kobaladze, Member of Parliament; Coordinator, MDG Subcommittee
- Thea Kvintradze, Director, Center for Teacher Professional Development, MES
- Tamar Mamukelashvili, Head of Relations for International Organizations, MES
- Manana Nachkebia, Former Member of Parliament, New Rights Party

International Organizations

- Ani Akhakatsi, Civil Society Program Coordinator, Open Society Institute (OSI)
- Keti Bakradze, Project Management Specialist, USAID
- David Dzebisashvili, Program Development Specialist, USAID
- Khatuna Ioseliani, Civil Program Manager, OSI
- Maia Kuparadze, Child Protection Officer, UNICEF
- Magda Magradze, Caucasus Manager, Academic Fellowships, OSI
- Natia Partshkhaladze, Child Protection Officer, UNICEF
- Tamar Sabedashvili, Gender Advisor, UN Women

Non-governmental Organizations

- Tamar Abramishvili, Director, International Center for Education of Women
- Nana Berekashvili, International Center on Conflict and Negotiation (ICCN)
- Rusudan Gotsiridze, International Center on Conflict and Negotiation
- Maia Kobakhidze, President, Educators and Scientists Free Trade Union
- Khatuna Sanikidze, President, Women for Future
- Leila Suleimanova, Director, The Union of Azerbaijan Women of Georgia
- Nana Sumbadze, Institute for Policy Studies
- George Tarkhan-Mouravi, Founder, Institute for Policy Studies
- Tea Tutberidze, Liberty Institute

Academia

- Levan Aleksidze, Deputy Director and Professor of Law, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University
- Nargiza Arjevanidze, Center for Social Studies, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University
- Nino Chanishvili, Professor, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University
- Lela Gaprindashvili, Professor, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University; Chairperson, Women's Initiative for Equality
- Nino Javakhishvili, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University
- George Khelashvili, Center for Social Studies, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University
- Lela Khomeriki, Deputy Head of Administration, I. Chavchavadze State University
- Tornike Sharashenidze, Director, International Affairs Program, Georgian Institute of Public Affairs
- Tamar Tshadadze, Center for Social Studies, I. Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University

Schools

- Mamuka Khamkhadze, Director, Rustavi Public School #4 (Rustavi)
- Irina Lomidze, Vice Director, Tbilisi Public School #21 (German language school)
- Gia Murgulia, Director, Tbilisi Public School #24
- Mamuka Tadeishvili, Director, Tbilisi Patriarchate School of Ilia the Truth
- Manana Turkadze, Vice Director, Tbilisi Public School #51

Society

- Eka Chovelidze, Private School Teacher
- Gvantsa Bagradze, Private School Teacher
- Archishop Ioane Gamrekeli, Rector of the Seminary, Patriarchate of Georgia
- Georgia Latsadbidze, Freelance Education Consultant
- David Paatashvili, Freelance Education Consultant
- Sopo Vepkhvadze, Private School Teachers

Annex IV: Interview Guide Sample

School Teachers and Directors

Introduction

Good morning/afternoon, my name is _____ and this is my colleague _____. Thank you so much for taking the time to meet with us.

We are graduate students from Columbia University in New York. We are researching the education system in Georgia. The Women's Political Resource Center is our local sponsor. We are interested to learn about the education system and about your experiences as a teacher/director. We are going to ask some questions about being a teacher/director and about the system, as well as conduct a short activity with you.

Would it be acceptable if we recorded our conversation? It would help us accurately reflect your views in our analysis - it will not be shared with anyone outside our team.

Thank you. Do you have any questions before we get started?

Background

1. I would like to get a bit of your life history. Can you share with us your path to becoming a teacher/director?
 - a. In your youth, what profession was your dream? In which professions did your parents work?

School atmosphere and administration

I would like to ask you some questions about your experiences as a teacher and your life at the school.

1. Which aspect of being a teacher/director is most enjoyable to you?
2. What are your responsibilities at school? Tell me about your average day.
3. Are you able to decide on your own which subjects and with which teaching methods to use?
4. How many male and female teachers work here?
5. How does a teacher become a school director?
6. Are you a part of a teacher's union? Do the teachers meet periodically to discuss school operations?
7. I would like to learn about school resources. Do you feel you have enough supplies or books to do your job?
 - a. What is the process to request more resources?

Interaction with students

1. What are the most important classes for children to do well in?
2. What kind of activities, sports or clubs do the boys join? The girls?
 1. Are the boys and girls encouraged to join different activities?
3. What kind of lives/careers do you want for your students? Which do you want to become leaders? What do they need to succeed in their dream careers?
4. Are parents involved in the education of their children? How have you worked with parents in the past?

Curriculum reform and teacher training

1. We have read about curricular reform being enacted since the Rose Revolution. Were you a part of the planning?
 - a. Did you have the opportunity to take part in curricular reform? Where did you hear about the reforms to curriculum?

 - b. How will the curriculum look 20 years from now?
2. We have also heard about examinations teachers will be required to pass by 2014. What kind of preparations for the exams have you taken?
 - a. Has the Ministry of Education and Science distributed information on training opportunities? Will it cost you money?
3. Tell me about the Educational Resource Centers? What are your interactions with them?
 - a. How is the relationship between the school and the Education Resource Centers? Do you find the relationship useful?

Conclusion

1. Is there anything else that you would like to share with us?
2. Do you have any suggestions of anyone else we should talk to?

Interview Guide Sample

Gender Development Experts and Consultants

Introduction

Good morning/afternoon, my name is _____ and this is my colleague _____. Thank you so much for taking the time to meet with us.

We are graduate students from Columbia University in New York. We are researching the education system in Georgia, and specifically gender equality within the schools. The Women's Political Resource Center is our local sponsor. We are interested to learn about your experience working the sphere of gender in Georgia.

Would it be acceptable if we recorded our conversation? It would help us accurately reflect your views in our analysis - it will not be shared with anyone outside our team.

Thank you. Do you have any questions before we get started?

Background

1. We'd like to learn about how you got involved in the gender field. Can you tell us how became got involved or chose your career path? What are your main interests within the field?
2. Can you describe your position and responsibilities (at org)?
 - a. How do you decide what projects to focus on?
3. Can you help us understand how the field of gender has grown in Georgia? How did the movement get started?
 - a. In regards to gender inequality and stereotypes, what do you think are the main issues that Georgia faces? Where do these lie?
 - b. Are you seeing involvement from different groups of people? How does involvement vary based on differences in geographic region or professional field? Please describe any changes you've noticed in the kinds of students taking your classes.
4. We are working to understand what some of the major barriers are that Georgia faces in terms of gender equality. What do you think are some of the major challenges?
 - a. What kind of progress has been made? What has led to that progress? How do you think some of the challenges can be overcome?
5. Please describe your understanding of the Gender Equality Law and the National Action Plans?
 - a. How did this law come about? How is the law implemented?

Gender and the education system

1. Can you describe how the gender law policy guides the goals, plans, and activities of the various ministries?
 - a. What could be done to make it be more effective, or to be in different areas? Is there anything you would change about the law or how it's being implemented?
2. Can you describe how education fits into the gender equality law?
 - a. Is it necessary to have a specific education component? What effect do you think focusing on education would have?

(If this women's organization is on the Gender Equality Advisory Council, ask the following):

1. Can you describe what role the women's organizations play in Georgia?
2. How unified are they? How do they work together on gender equality? (or in general, how do they work together)

Conclusion

3. Is there anything else that you would like to share with us?
4. Do you have any suggestions of anyone else we should talk to?

We greatly appreciate your taking the time to meet with us and answer our questions.

Here is our contact information. Please let us know if you have any other questions. Thank you!
Maadloba!

Annex V: Gender Analysis Framework

Section 1: The Legal Environment

I. Constitutional framework

1. What is the constitutional hierarchy?
 2. Does the constitution make any specific reference to gender equality? Yes No
 3. Does the constitution make a specific reference to gender discrimination? Yes No
 4. Do any mechanisms exist to enforce international agreement? Yes No
 5. If so, which ones?
-

II. Concordats

1. Do any concordats exist? Yes No
 2. If so, which ones?
-

3. Do they make any specific reference to gender in any form? Yes No
 4. If so, how?
-

III. International Instruments

1. Has Georgia ratified any international instruments? Yes No
 2. Which international instruments has Georgia ratified?
-

3. Are these instruments binding under Georgian law? Yes No
 4. How are these instruments enforced?
-

5. Has any legal precedent been set for enforcing these instruments? Yes No
 6. If so, which ones?
-

VI. Ratified International Instruments

ICESC

1. Which (if any) articles in the ICESC specifically refer to education?

2. Which (if any) articles in the ICESC refer to gender equality?

3. Are there any other relevant articles in the ICESC relevant?

CEDAW

1. Which articles (if any) in the CEDAW specifically refer to education?

2. Which articles (if any) in the CEDAW refer to gender equality?

3. Are there any other relevant articles in the CEDAW relevant?

CRC

1. Which articles (if any) in the CRC specifically refer to education?

2. Which articles (if any) in the CRC refer to gender equality?

3. Are there any other relevant articles in the CRC relevant?

European Convention on HR

1. Which articles (if any) in the EC on HR specifically refer to education?

2. Which articles (if any) in the EC on HR refer to gender equality?

3. Are there any other relevant articles in the EC on HR relevant?

ICCPR

1. Which articles (if any) in the ICCPR specifically refer to education?

2. Which articles (if any) in the ICCPR refer to gender equality?

3. Are there any other relevant articles in the ICCPR relevant?

VII. Legislation

1. Which pieces of legislation (if any) specifically refer to education?

2. Which pieces of legislation (if any) specifically refer to education?

Section 2: The Policy Environment

I. Clarity and suitability of the policy statement with regard to gender

- | | | |
|---|--------|----------|
| 1. Is there an education sector policy? | Yes | No |
| 2. Is there any policy related to gender in this sector? | Yes | No |
| a. <i>The national action plan for education (gender related)</i> | | |
| 3. Is this gender policy stated or unstated? | Stated | Unstated |
| 4. Is there an integration of equal opportunity? | Yes | No |
| 5. How is equal opportunity defined? | | |

II. Nature of management and decision-making

1. What is the composition of the Ministry of Education and Science staff?

	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Minister of Education				
Parliamentary Secretary				
Permanent Secretary				
Chief Education Officer				
Clerical/secretariat				

2. What is the male/female representation in decision-making at the Ministry of Education?

	No. of Women	No. of Men
Teachers		
Parents		
Student Representative		
Local-government nominee		

3. Draw diagrams to indicate the reporting relationships
- Ministry of Education and Science
 - Between the Ministry of Education and Science, the Educational Resource Centers and the School Principle
 - Between the School Principle and Staff
4. What are the communication systems between the various entities?
-

5. Does a Code of Regulation exist to guide the management and operations of schools?

Yes No

If yes, to what extent does this Code reflect the gender policy of the Ministry of Education?

To a very great extent

To a great extent

To some extent

To a minimal extent

To no extent

6. What role do parents play in school oversight?

7. Do parents have knowledge and an understanding of the laws on education and gender?

8. What formal mechanisms exist to challenge the management, e.g. trade unions?

9. What informal mechanisms are used to challenge management, e.g. demonstrations, lobby, petitions, etc....

How frequently are such methods used?

Persons involved: staff students parents other, specify

10. How much effective autonomy can individual schools exercise?

11. Who recruits, rewards, disciplines and manages staff?

	MES	ERC?	School Director	TBD
<u>Primary</u>				
Recruits				
Rewards				
Disciplines				
Manages				
<u>Secondary</u>				
Recruits				
Rewards				
Disciplines				
Manages				

12. What problems does the level of autonomy allowed in each institution create in terms of monitoring gender policy?

13. Who is consulted on educational policies, such as curriculum reform? (With whom does the Ministry of Education consult?) Or who is the target of these policies? Do new school policies have both a male and female component?

14. What is the gender composition of the Educational Resource Centers?

Posts	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Chairperson				
TBD				
TBD				
TBD				

15. Who was involved in the curriculum reform and the design of the new curriculum?

At primary level

At secondary level

16. Are curriculums standardized among all regions?

a. If so, how is standardization monitored?

17. To what extent do the aims and content of the curriculum reflect gender biases? Do textbooks and other teaching materials portray female/male stereotypes?

18. What are the highest qualifications of the women and men on the academic/teaching staff?

Qualifications	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Doctoral Degree				
Master's degree				
Bachelors degree				
Teacher training				

Section 3: The School Environment

I. Working Conditions

1. What are problems faced in recruiting and attracting:
 - a. Qualified women to work in the institution?

- b. Qualified men to work in the institution?

2. What constraints and problems do:
 - a. Women face in the institution?

- b. Men face in the institution?

II. Internal and External Perceptions

1. To what extent do teachers perceive their school or environment it to be gender fair?

2. To what extent do school principles and directors perceive their school to be gender fair?

3. To what extent do ministry officials/policymakers perceive the education system to be gender fair?

4. To what extent do students perceive their school environment to be gender fair?

Section 4: Critical Policy Indicators

I. Nature of the educational provision

1. Provision made for school places at primary, secondary and tertiary levels

Level	Number of Available Places		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Primary			
Secondary			
Tertiary			

2. Where there any difference related to gender, how is the difference justified?

3. Are there any schools that cater to female students exclusively?

Yes No

If yes, at which levels?

4. Are there any schools which cater to male students exclusively?

Yes No

If yes, at which levels?

II. Access and Participation

5. What are the criteria for entry to school at:

Primary level?

Secondary level?

6. Do more boys or girls satisfy the criteria for entry at primary level?

Yes No

7. Do more boys or girls satisfy the criteria for entry at secondary level?

Yes No

8. Describe any mechanisms which exist to ensure that proportional numbers of girls and boys attend at:

Primary level

Secondary level?

9. Is there compulsory education for girls?

Yes No

At which levels?

10. Is there compulsory education for boys?

Yes No

At which levels?

11. How is compulsory education monitored and ensured?

12. What are the enrollment figures for female and male students?

Level	Enrollment		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Public general education schools			
Private secular/paid general education schools			
Public vocational education establishments			
Private secular/paid vocational education establishments			

13. What are the attendance figures for female and male students in primary and secondary education?

Level	Enrollment		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Public general education schools			
Private secular/paid general education schools			
Public vocational education establishments			
Private secular/paid vocational education establishments			

14. What are the normal criteria for entry to tertiary level education?

Are there ways in which entry requirements/qualifications may discriminate against male or female students?

15. Describe any different provisions made for male/female students which would facilitate one over the other (e.g. the provision of boarding facilities)

Primary level

Secondary level

16. Describe any cultural practices that interfere with the access, and/or participation of female and male students in the education process.

Cultural practices affecting female participation

At primary level

At secondary level

Cultural practices affecting male participation

At primary level

At secondary level

17. Is there a state or a school policy that makes specific reference to subject offerings for female/male students?

18. Is there a stated or unstated policy that makes specific reference to co-curricular activity offerings for male/female students?

19. What are the dropout rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of female/male students?

20. What are the possible factors accounting for gender differentials in dropout rates?

21. What are the possible factors accounting for gender differentials in dropout rates?

22. What is the female/male graduation rate from secondary school?

III. Resources

1. How is the Ministry of Education and Sciences funded?

2. What is the financial support provided for institutions at primary, secondary, tertiary levels?

Avg. cost (US\$)	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
Government Provision						
Parent/Family Support						
Private funds						
TBD						
TBD						

III. Teacher Trainings

1. Who determines teacher-training requirements?

2. Is there a gender sensitivity training?

If yes, is it required?

3. Do male and female teachers attend different trainings?

4. What subjects are included in certification exams?

5. Does informal training to prepare for the exams exist?
