

GENDER EQUALITY PROGRAMME

Gender Attitudes and Perceptions among Young People in Georgia

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Contents

A. Introduction 3

B. Literature Review 3

 B.1 Factors Influencing Young People’s Gender Sensitive Attitudes 3

 B.2 Gender Equality in Georgia 5

C. Methodology 6

D. Results 8

 D.1 Situational Analysis 8

 D.2 Factor Analysis 9

E. Discussion 10

F. Conclusion and Future Research 11

References: 12

APPENDIX I 14

APPENDIX II 18

A. Introduction

The issue of gender equality has been overlooked by international organisations and local non-governmental organizations in Georgia. However, local and international communities have made pronounced progress with regard to raising awareness of gender issues through educational activities (Rusetsky et al. 2007; Zhghenti 2012). Additional aspects of democracy-building have been introduced with gender equality. Many studies (LaFont 2010; Lewis and Clift 2001) have demonstrated that young people represent a progressive force in social change and in the transformation of social and cultural meanings that lead to more liberal attitudes towards gender roles. Current literature also suggests that a number of factors, including gender, education, the type of settlement, employment and religion, influence the understanding of gender equality and gender roles in families and in society. Therefore, the aim of this paper is twofold: a) to determine whether young people have more liberal attitudes regarding a range of gender issues; and b) to examine the determinants of these gender attitudes. The paper supports the recommendations that Georgia received from the UN Human Rights Council in 2011 regarding the elimination of stereotypes (UN Human Rights Council Universal Periodic Review Mechanism and the Gender Perspective 2011).

This paper briefly reviews the relevant literature and the Georgian context in which our hypotheses are presented. This review is followed by a description of our methodology. This paper concludes with results and discussion.

B. Literature Review

B.1 Factors Influencing Young People's Gender Sensitive Attitudes

A number of international studies have examined young people's attitudes and perceptions regarding gender roles and gender equality. These studies acknowledge the importance of factors such as gender, age, education, the type of settlement, and religion, which significantly impact the construction of gender sensitive or insensitive attitudes.

The influence of socio-demographic factors, such as *age* and *settlement type*, on gender attitudes was observed in a study conducted in Namibia (LaFont 2010) with 15- to 20-year-olds. Results revealed that the youngest respondents (16-year-olds) were more likely than the older respondents (20-year-olds) to choose answers supporting gender equality and sexual rights (LaFont 2010). Results from this study also suggested that urban/rural settlement was a relevant variable in the analysis of gender attitudes. For example, living in a privileged urban environment (e.g., having better access to technology and being exposed to various cosmopolitan ideas, attitudes, and opinions) is one of the most significant factors influencing ideas about gender equality and sexual rights in Namibia (LaFont2010).

An ethnographic study conducted in Brazil (Asencio1999) focused on gender-based social constructs, such as ‘machos’ and ‘sluts’, which perpetuate gender-role conformity. Results revealed that definitions of masculinity that encompass concepts such as dominance, toughness, or male honour are highly correlated with violence against women (Asencio 1999). Moreover, men reacted more strongly than women to gender-role deviations and were more likely to punish those individuals considered to be ‘deviants’. A study by Lewis and Clift (2001) explored young people’s attitudes towards gender issues and sexual relationships in Estonia. Results showed that participants associated men with lower levels of emotionality, expressiveness and caring, as well as with having a stronger interest in sex, more irresponsible behaviours, and feeling the need to earn/provide. Women were viewed as weak, emotional, communicative, caring, more interested in relationships/romance, more delicate, vulnerable, and dependent. (Lewis et al. 2001)

Gender attitudes may also be constructed in the *family* context during childhood and adolescence. Liao and Yang (1995) proposed two major theoretical perspectives to explain the development of gender-specific attitudes. According to social-learning theory, people acquire gender-specific attitudes by copying and modelling similar people, particularly their same-sex parent. For example, daughters whose mothers were employed were more likely to be independent and also work outside the home when they became older than those daughters whose mothers were not employed. According to situational theory, women’s gender-role orientations are the result of personal experiences.

Education may be a significant factor influencing young people’s gender attitudes; therefore, this issue should be carefully examined. Tallichet and Willits (1986) investigated liberal shifts in the gender-role attitudes of 294 young women. Interestingly, women’s attitudes as adolescents were associated with their parents’ level of education. Initially surveyed in 1970 as high school students and then interviewed again ten years later, the attitudes of these young women became progressively more modern, which is a trend that the authors’ associated with higher education given that women who attained higher levels of education were more likely to express less traditional gender-role attitudes than those who did not. This shift in gender-role attitudes was positively related to the women’s level of education, employment and income (Tallichet and Willits 1986). Regarding *gender* differences in gender-role attitudes, Hyde (2005) proposed the Gender Similarities Hypothesis, which argues that males and females are similar on most, but not all, psychological variables, including their moral reasoning, relationship attitudes, and job attribute preferences. Hyde argued that men and women, as well as boys and girls, hold more similar than different values.

One study examined whether religion was an important influence on gender attitudes (Brinkerhoff 1984). Whether religion and gender are related is a pertinent issue to study, and several studies have confirmed a correlation between religiosity and one’s gender attitudes and sexual behaviour (Odimegwu 2005; Thornton and Camburn 1989; Brinkerhoff and MacKie 1985). Religious values are a source of moral proscriptions for many individuals, meaning that the church is likely to play a role in the formation of individual attitudes, values, and behaviour. Kangara (2004) explored the manner in which the church (religious institution) seeks social control over its parishioners, including the institution of restrictive measures governing adolescent sexuality. The extent to which religion influences individuals’ attitudes toward gender emancipation and sexual behaviour depends on the specific doctrines of the church/parish and on individuals’ degree of engagement and commitment to their religious institution. According to

several studies, a correlation exists between gender attitudes/sexual behaviour and religious commitment, but this finding does not confirm whether religion is the only factor affecting these attitudes (Odimegwu 2005).

Employment is another predictor of more liberal gender-role attitudes. Several authors (Plutzer 1988; Wilson and Smith 1995) suggest that individuals who work outside of the home, regardless of their gender, tend to have more modern gender-role attitudes than those who do not work outside of the home. Most studies relating women's employment experiences to their gender attitudes have shown that women who participate in the labour force are more feminist than those who do not (Dugger 1991; Mason et al. 1976; Herring and Rose 1993; Mason and Lu 1988; Tallichet and Willits 1986; Thornton et al. 1983; Wilson and Smith 1995).

In sum, the international literature indicates that gender is a social construct defined by gender roles and gender attitudes that are formed by socio-demographic factors that vary according to the local environment. Our research aims to investigate the gender relations that are embedded in daily life by examining young people's gender attitudes and perceptions.

B.2 Gender Equality in Georgia

In addition to a number of legislative changes over the last decade, the main focus of the non-governmental women's institutions in Georgia (approximately 12% of all of the NGOs in Georgia) was to increase gender awareness in Georgian women through educational activities (Rusetsky 2007). According to the 'Assessment of Work and Working Structure of Non-Governmental Women's Institutions in Georgia' (Zghenty 2013), the most widely covered topics during last 5 years are domestic violence, women's legal and social rights, women's participation in social, political and civic life, women's employment and professional development, and gender stereotypes. However, Georgia still ranks low in terms of gender equality (Bendeliani 2012). The nationwide survey on Domestic Violence against Women in Georgia (Chitashvili et al. 2010) explores the causes and consequences of domestic violence, as well as the perceptions and attitudes of Georgian women about domestic violence. Responses to this survey revealed that one out of every eleven married women has been a victim of physical abuse, and 34.7% have been injured multiple times (most were in the 45- to 49-year-old age group). Responses also revealed that 50.7% of women believed that a good wife should obey her husband even when she does not agree with his decisions and that 45% believed that a man must clearly show his wife/partner that he is the head of the family.

The Gender and Generation Wave 2 Report of 2009 (Badurashvili et al. 2009) provided a clear picture of how gender roles were distributed within families in Georgia. This study showed that 25% of men in families were solely responsible for the allocation of financial resources and that woman typically received an allowance from their male partners. Compared with the *Gender and Generation Survey* conducted in 2006, the data from 2009 showed that male domination with regard to budgeting household finances had decreased by 4.1 points, but was still not below 20%. However, 59% of families responded that household budgeting was a responsibility that was equally shared by both partners. In addition to traditional attitudes, the authors of the report

discussed equality regarding the scarce financial resources that are available for most Georgian families. The limited household budget is mainly used for basic necessities, without considering the individual needs of either the female or male partner. According to the Gender Asymmetry Index results, the highest level of inequality in Georgian families was evident when each partner engaged in paid work. Additionally, more women considered their male partners' opinions regarding the time they spent engaged in paid work. The gender asymmetry index revealed that the main factors affecting women's autonomy regarding the time spent at work were settlement type, number of children, and level of education. In *rural areas*, the probability that men participated in the decision-making regarding their female partners' employment was higher than in urban areas. Having a large number of children also increases the probability that a man will interfere with his female partner's employment. In contrast, the more *educated* a woman is, the less likely it is that her male partner will be able to interfere with her employment. Another important issue emphasised in this study was the gender gap with regard to housework. Results showed that women had the largest share of housework, with men's overall share not exceeding 24% (including traditional male chores, such as household repairs). In contrast, men were primarily responsible for paying bills (54.7%) and were more active with regard to shopping for food (30.9%) and organising joint social activities (22.4), yet their share of cooking, cleaning and washing barely reached 1.5%. No significant differences were found between generations with regard to gender attitudes. According to the "Generations and Values" study (Sumbadze 2011), 62% of young people in the 18- to 24-year-old age group agreed with the statement that decisions in the family should be made according to men's wishes, 66.7% agree with this statement in the second age group (40- to 50-year-olds), and 77.5% agree with this statement from the third age group (60- to 70-year-olds).

Women in Georgia are politically passive, which is manifested in the fact that the Georgian executive and legislative bodies are primarily composed of men (Bagratia 2012). This low representation of women in decision-making positions is directly connected with the severity of gender inequality that is evident in the country. After the 1st October Parliamentary elections, women obtained 18 mandates, which is 12% of the total number of parliamentary mandates. This outcome was a precedent in Georgian parliamentary history (Bagratia 2012). Despite the fact that the government and women's organisations spare no expense when supporting the development of gender equality in Georgia, the country's undesirable position in international indices and its poor representation of gender equality in national surveys compels us to examine the attitudes and perceptions regarding equality issues that are held by Georgian young people.

C. Methodology

The secondary data analysis consisted of situational and factor analyses that were based on the aims and objectives. Corresponding data and methods were used for each part.

Situational analysis. The aim of this analysis was to reveal shifts in gender attitudes according to the range of themes in Georgian youth. To provide a comprehensive picture, a secondary data analysis was conducted by processing data from the World Value Survey from 1996 (WVS), the

World Value Survey (WVS) from 2008 and the Caucasus Barometer 2010 (CB 2010)¹. First, the original questionnaires from these surveys were obtained. Then, gender sensitive questions were selected and synchronised. Finally, questions that were repeated in at least two of the databases were selected for more detailed descriptive analysis. Cross tabulation in SPSS was used to examine the extent of the transformations in the young people's perspectives. The data for the target age group (18- to 25-year-olds) for this survey were separated from the rest of the sample in each data source and activated during all of the statistical operations. All of the selected gender sensitive questions were cross-tabbed with the gender variables to observe any differences in gender perspectives. Additionally, several demographic variables were processed. It is important to note that the analysed data are represented in counts instead of percentages given the small sample size of the age group (18- to 25-year-olds) that we were interested in investigating.²The gender attitudes explored were as follows: the preferred gender of a child, gender distribution in education and employment, gender roles in families and in a society, and women's private lives, including their sexual freedom.

Factor Analysis. The aim of the secondary data analysis was to understand the determinants of the previously revealed gender attitudes in the Georgian population. To accomplish this goal, a dataset from the Caucasus Barometer was used. The year of 2010 was chosen for the analysis, given that it was the only year that included comparatively complete data on gender attitudes and views and socio-demographic indicators. These data allowed us to examine the relationships between the relevant explanatory and dependent variables.

The dependent variables were taken from responses to the different categories of gender views. Attitudes concerning the preferred gender of a child, whether men have more of a right to education and work, gender roles in the family, and some aspects of women's personal (private) lives were examined as separate categories with regard to the independent variables. Some variables from within the categories were merged to form a single variable. Views on gender distribution in education and employment were merged and then used as a total score of gender attitude towards gender distribution in education and employment. This was also done with the responses to the following three questions in the category of woman's private life: at what age should women be allowed to have sex before marriage; at what age should women be allowed to have a relationship with a man outside of a marriage; and at what age should women be allowed to live separately from their families. The total score from these three variables was used to reflect the gender view of women's private lives. This score revealed an overall pattern of gender attitudes on views in the same category. All of the other variables within the categories were used in their original forms.

The independent variables for the socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics were identified based on a literature review and the Georgian context analysis. Namely, the effects of factors such as gender, the type of settlement, religion, education, and employment were measured for each category of gender attitudes and views. Depending on the type of variable, Chi-square analyses were conducted to determine any significant differences in the response

¹<http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/>
<http://crrc.ge/caucasusbarometer/overview/>

²The sample size (18- to 25-year-olds) for the CB 2010 was: N=236.

WVS 1996: N= 385 and WVS 2008: N= 218. The sample populations of the previously mentioned surveys and the sample populations of the different age categories within each survey are statistically representative.

patterns. These analyses were followed with tests measuring the strength of the covariation, when necessary. In contrast, the multiple regression models were constructed using specific variables.

D. Results

D.1 Situational Analysis

The results of the in-time-perspective data analysis highlight two important tendencies. The first tendency is that no significant changes have been detected in the gender views and attitudes of Georgian youth since 1996. Traditional attitudes regarding the preference to have a son, gender distribution in education and employment, family gender roles, and restrictions on women's personal lives, including their sexual freedom, still prevail among today's youth in Georgia. The second important tendency is that, in most cases, both young girls and boys equally shared the belief in men's (masculine) superiority.

Beginning with the traditional preference for male children, the vast majority of the interviewed males preferred to have a son if they were to have only one child, whereas relatively more females reported that the child's sex was irrelevant. A preference for a daughter was found in the great minority of both gender groups (see Appendix 1: Diagram 1). With regard to education, the data showed that the vast majority of respondents disagree with the statement that a university degree is more important for a boy. However, when faced with job scarcity, a significant number of young females and even more males agreed that men should be prioritised over women (see Appendix 1: Diagrams 2 and 3). The majority of respondents thought that men were better political leaders and should be the main breadwinners in a family (see Appendix 1: Diagrams 4 and 5). Almost absolute unanimity was observed between female and male respondents regarding women's private lives and sexual freedom. The vast majority of respondents did not justify a woman having sex before marriage, cohabiting with a man without marriage, or living separately from her family (see Appendix 1: Diagrams 6, 7 and 8). Critically, there were no intergenerational differences between the responses of young people and respondents aged 41- to 61-years-olds, as all of the respondents completely agreed on this matter (Caucasus Barometer, 2010).

It is important to note that the majority of female and male respondents between 18- to 25-years-old had completed a secondary education, while relatively fewer respondents had obtained higher education (World Value Survey, 1996; World Value Survey 2008; Caucasus Barometer, 2010). The majority of respondents were unemployed (World Value Survey 2008; Caucasus Barometer, 2010), but a high rate of employment was not expected for this age group (18- to 25-years-old) given that many respondents may be students. It is also notable that more male than female young respondents were employed in 2010 (Caucasus Barometer 2010).

D.2 Factor Analysis

To explain the patterns of gender attitudes among Georgian young people, the following variables were examined: gender, settlement type, religion, education and employment. Results showed that the explored issues were perceived differently with regard to the selected predictor variables. Gender was the only determinant regarding the preferred gender of a child and gender distribution in education and employment. The type of settlement was related to views regarding family gender roles and was a predictor of attitudes and views regarding women's personal lives. Additionally, education level was identified as another possible explanation for gender-determined views regarding women's sexual freedom and private lives.

Preferred Gender of a Child. To explain the pattern of men favouring sons and women giving equal value to both genders, the following variables were examined: gender, the type of settlement, education and religion. Chi-square tests were conducted to determine any significant differences in the response pattern for the categories of independent variables. Table 1 (see Appendix 2) shows that the respondents' preferred gender of their child was contingent on their own gender ($p < 0.05$). Although the majority of men (71%) claimed to prefer a boy, a high number of women (50%) felt that the gender of their child was unimportant. Only 10% of women and 2% of men preferred to have a daughter. The remaining respondents reported that they do not know. All of the other variables were not significantly different.

Gender Distribution in Education and Employment. Table 2 (see Appendix 2) shows that the gender attitudes regarding male and female involvement in education and employment could be explained by gender ($p=.000$). None of the other predictors provided statistically significant results. According to the model, young women had more liberal attitudes than young men. More women than men disagreed with the view that men had more of right to be enrolled in tertiary education or to have a job.

Gender Roles in a Family. Responses regarding family gender roles varied significantly across questions about breadwinners and decision-makers. Table 3 (see Appendix 2) shows that the perception of a decision-maker as a typically male role in a family could be explained by the respondents' type of settlement ($p=.003$). The other predictor that was statistically significant was gender ($p=.005$, $p=.006$), which was related to responses for both variables. The majority of respondents from all types of settlements favoured a man in the role of decision-maker. However, the contrast between the categories lessened in the responses from the capital. In rural populations, 75% of respondents favoured having male decision-makers and 25% believed that decision-making should be shared equally between partners; in urban areas, these preferences decreased to 72% and 24%, respectively. However, in the capital, 51% of respondents were in favour of having only male decision-makers and 50% believed that the responsibility should be divided equally between the genders. Regarding the gender predictor, more than half of the respondents believed that a man should be the decision-maker and the breadwinner in a family. Men were the preferred breadwinners for 89% of male respondents and 79% of female respondents, whereas 8% of men and 21% of women believed that responsibility for household income should be distributed equally. The remaining respondents favoured female breadwinners. In contrast, 80% of young men and 60% of young women believed that a man should

be the head of the family. An equal distribution of power was favoured by 20% of the male group and 39% of the female group.

Women's Personal (private) Life. Education ($p=.007$) and the type of settlement ($p=.012$) provided statistically significant results with regard to explaining gender views of women's sexual lives, including for the question investigating women living separately from their families. The regression model (see Table 4 in Appendix 2) demonstrated that more years spent in formal education was associated with a decrease in the belief that women were not allowed at any age to have a sexual life or to live alone. The model also showed that respondents from rural and urban areas had more gender-determined attitudes regarding personal lives, whereas those who lived in the capital tended to have less gender-determined views.

E. Discussion

Results showed that, despite the political, social, and economic changes in Georgia over the last twenty years, traditional views and stereotypes regarding gender preferences and roles are still prevalent in today's youth. Young people viewed and interpreted issues, such as the preference of having son or a daughter, gender distribution in education and employment, family gender roles, and women's private lives, including their sexual freedom, in strictly traditional frames. This result helps explain why women constitute the majority of Georgia's unemployed population and why most of these women are housewives (Caucasus Barometer 2010, 2011). Moreover, women are generally underrepresented in politics and in positions of leadership. Attitudes and practices reinforce one another and are largely dependent on available role models and life experiences (Futing and Cai 1995; Evertsson 2006). In Georgia, where gender equality is still a far-off goal, it is not surprising that both young women and men hold gender stereotypes. Gender socialisation occurs at an early age in both the family context and in other social institutions. This phenomenon suggests a lack of gender issue knowledge and awareness in both family and school contexts in Georgia (Khomeriki 2012).

Although, in most cases, young women and men were unanimous regarding their gender attitudes, a more detailed analysis revealed that gender influenced the distribution of traditional and more liberal views. This analysis showed that women were slightly more liberal than men when discussing issues such as the preferred gender of a child, gender distribution in education and employment, and the gender of the decision-maker and breadwinner in a family. Nonetheless, the majority of perceived education and employment for both genders similarly, yet women were more likely to favour equality than men. With regard to decision-making and breadwinning in a family, our results demonstrated that the majority of both men and women perceived that a man should assume those roles. As the gender asymmetry index suggests, men's (i.e., husbands') opinions are taken into account with regard to women's work (Badurashvili et al. 2009), which suggests that decision-making is exclusively viewed as a male role. With regard to comparisons within the gender groups, it is clear that more women than men favoured equality in decision-making, yet neither gender favoured women as the decision-makers. It is also

important to note that, despite the unanimity of gender attitudes between the gender groups, women held less gender-determined views than men. Many studies (e.g., Asencio 1999) indicate that, in comparison to women, men usually are the major agitators of traditional gender roles and have strong negative reactions when individuals deviate from the conventional norm.

Another significant determinant was the type of settlement. Young people from rural areas held more gender-determined views regarding family gender roles and women's private lives than young people from the capital. This finding is consistent with a number of studies (LaFont 2010) showing that young people in environments that offer modern technology, information, and international ideas value gender equality more than those who reside in more isolated places. The latter usually applies to rural and, in some cases, urban areas, especially in developing countries. Finally, results revealed the importance of education with regard to forming liberal views about women's sexual lives. The more educated the respondents were, the less likely they were to have gender-determined views. Conversely, rural areas did not support deviations from traditional images and stereotypes regarding woman's private life..

Although the importance of religion (Brinkerhoff 1984; Odimegwu 2005; Thronton and Camburn 1989; Brinkerhoff and MacKie 1985) and employment has been supported by a number of studies, the analysis conducted within the framework of this paper did not reveal any significant results. Despite respondents' reported religious participation, this issue did not appear to be a factor that explained gender views. With regard to employment, the low rate of young people in the workforce did not yield significant results.

F. Conclusion and Future Research

The current study provides insight regarding gender attitudes and stereotypes among Georgian youths and examines the influence of gender, education, the type of settlement, religion and employment on these gender views. Results revealed that young people reported high levels of traditional gender-role attitudes, with both girls and boys supporting beliefs in gender stereotypes regarding the preference to have a son, gender distribution in education and employment, family gender roles, and women's private lives. In most cases, young women and men were unanimous in reporting this gender bias, yet gender, education, and the type of settlement appeared to affect views regarding gender equality in various spheres of social life. Religion and employment had indirect effects, such that the regression model did not reveal any significant results. Overall, this paper reports valuable findings that build a foundation for future research. Clearly, more research on this issue is needed. Future research should focus on the socio-demographic and economic variables related to family members and mentors who serve as role models for children.

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APPENDIX I

Diagrams for Situational Analysis

Diagram 1

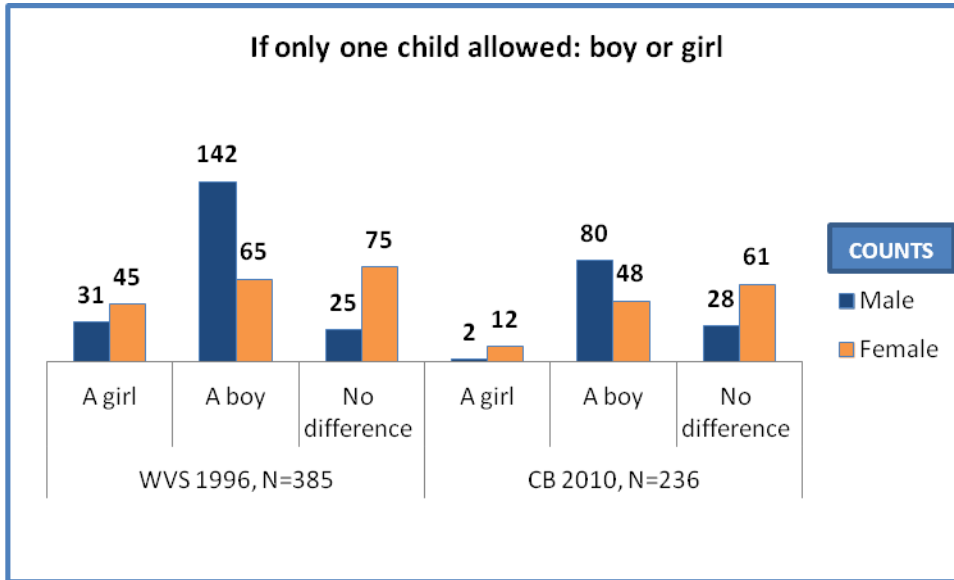


Diagram 2

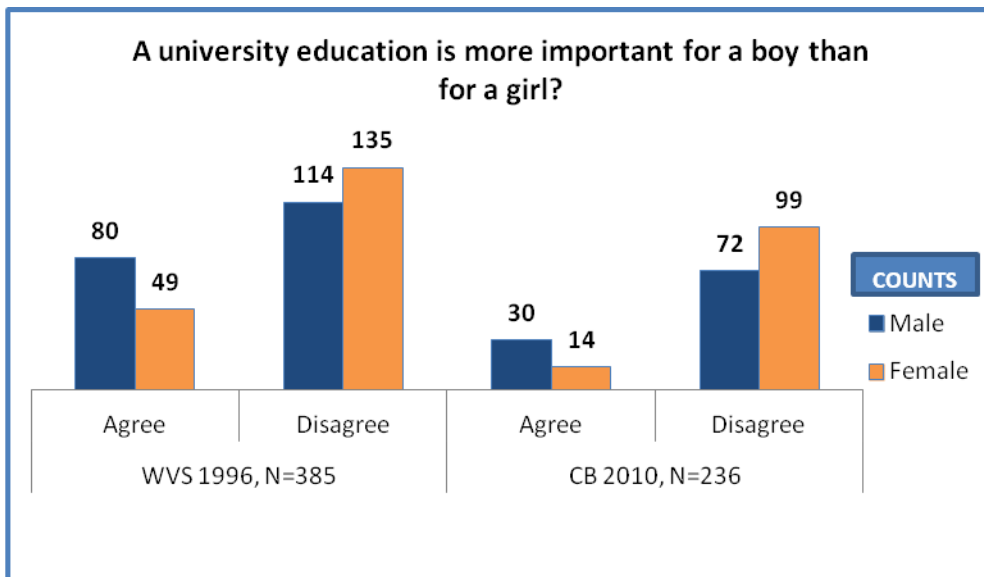


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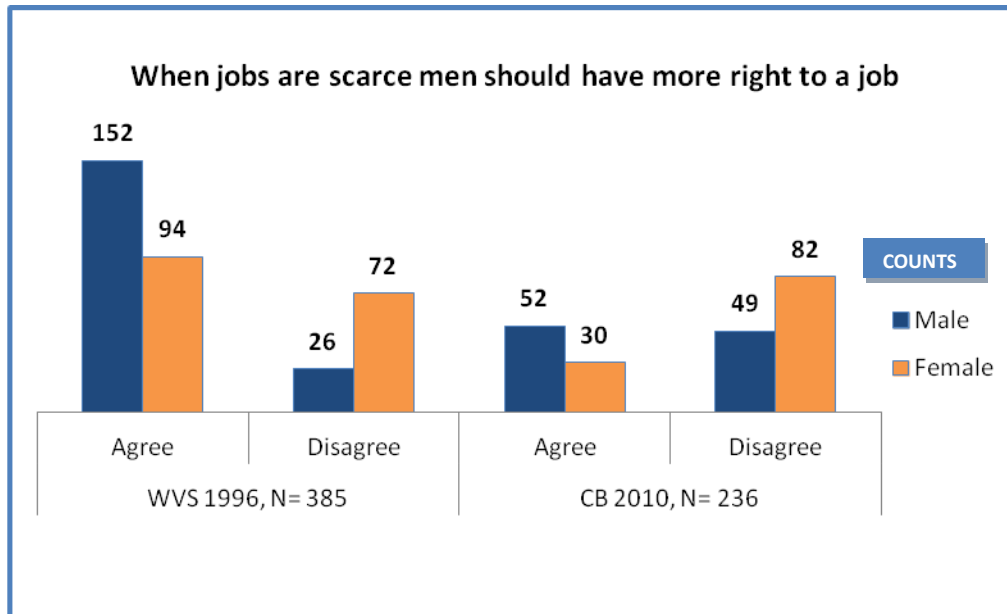


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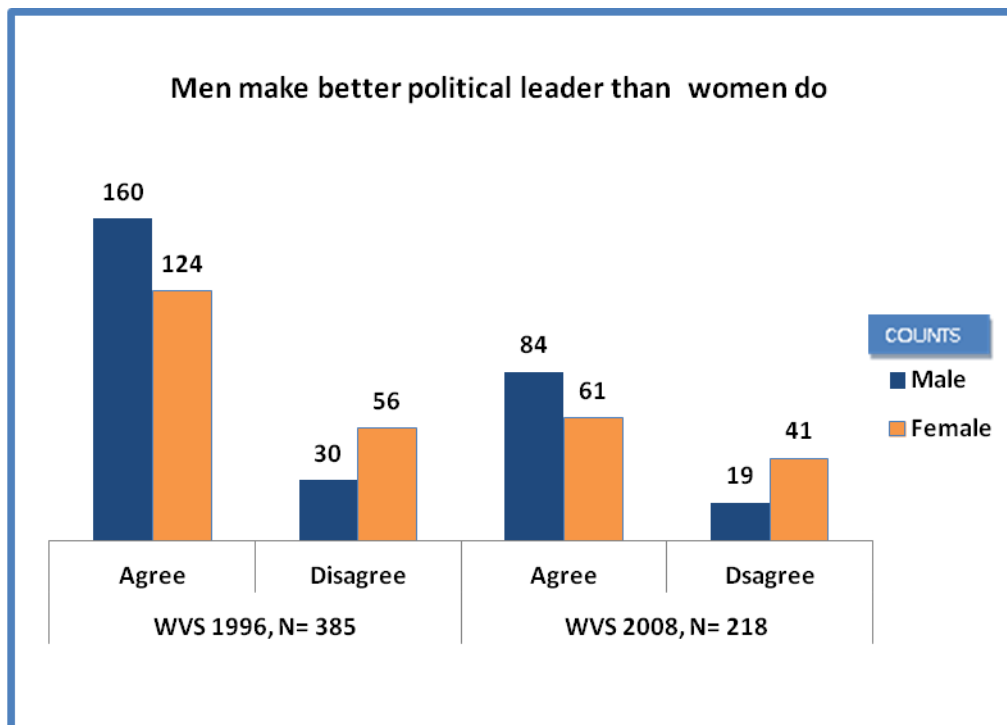


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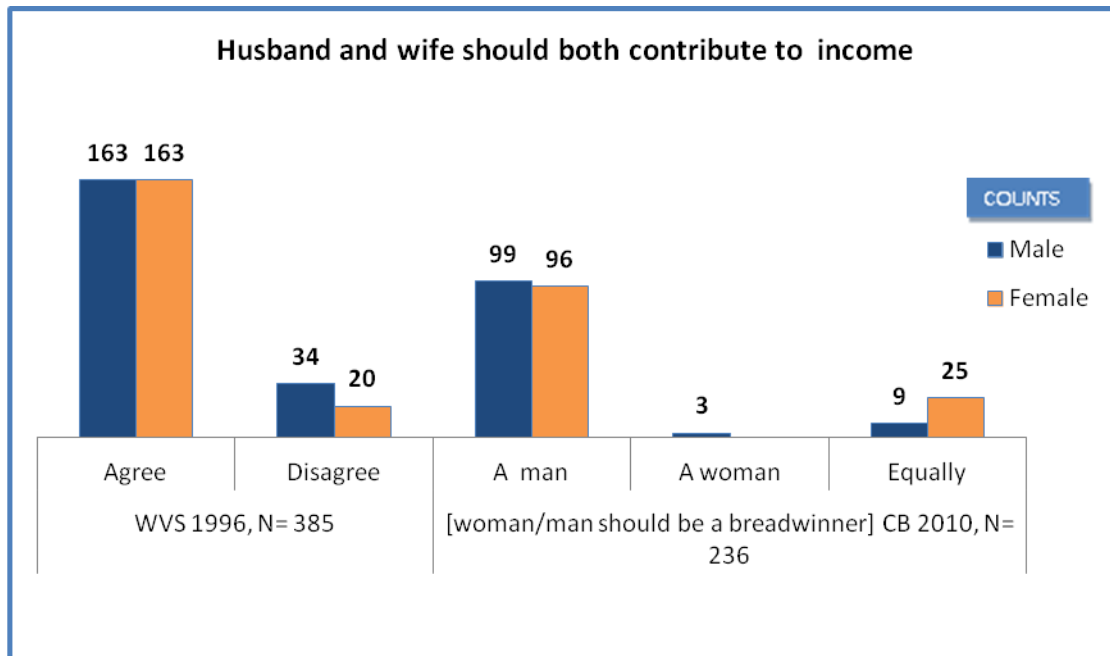


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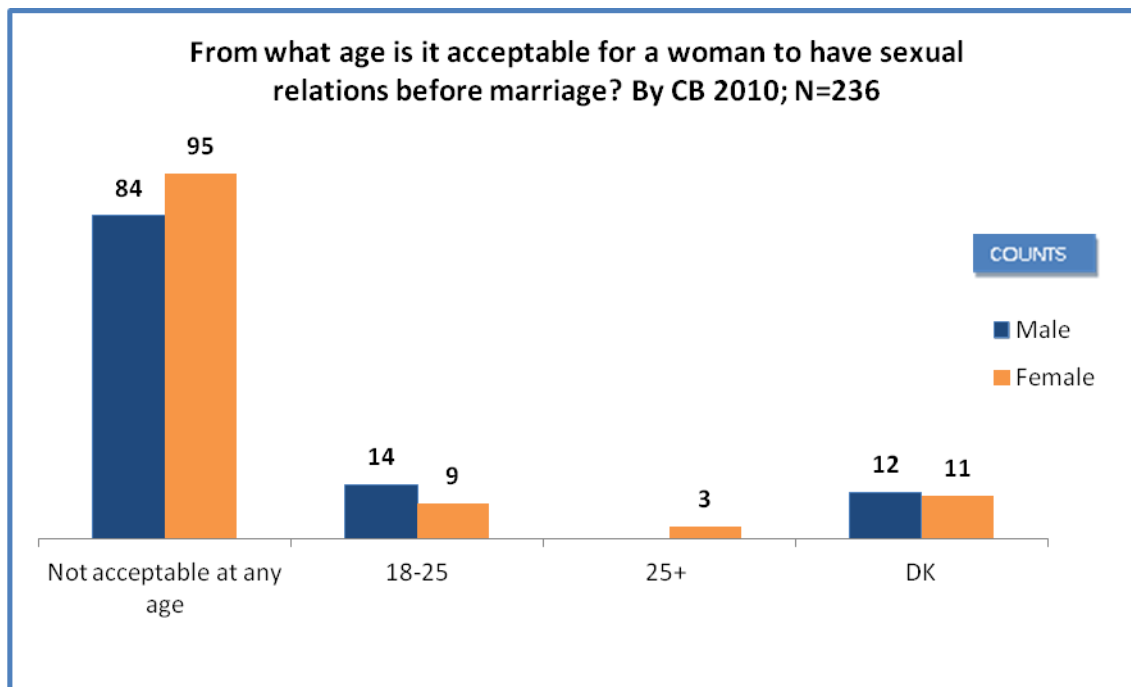


Diagram 7

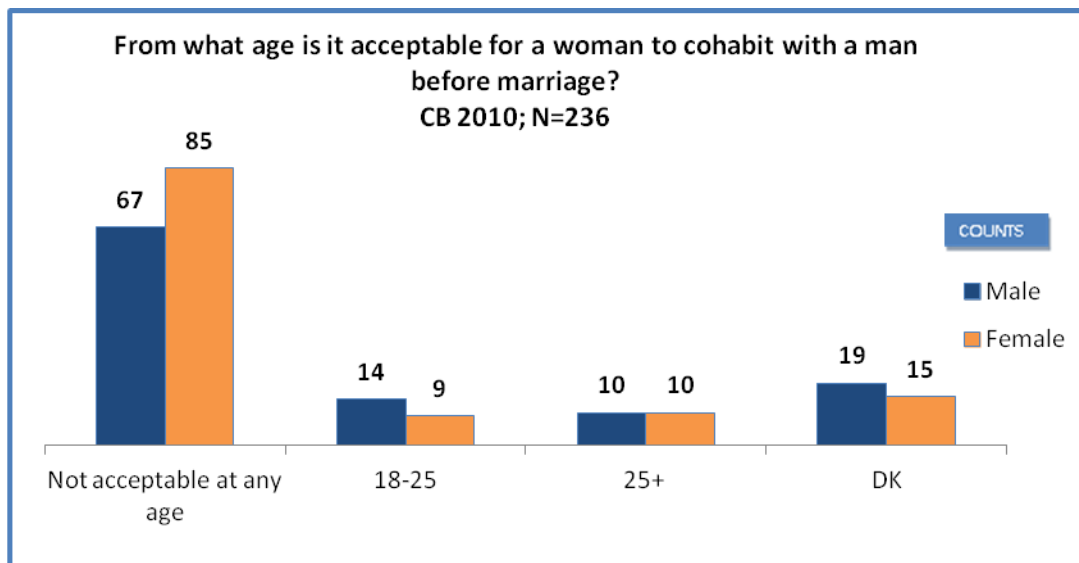
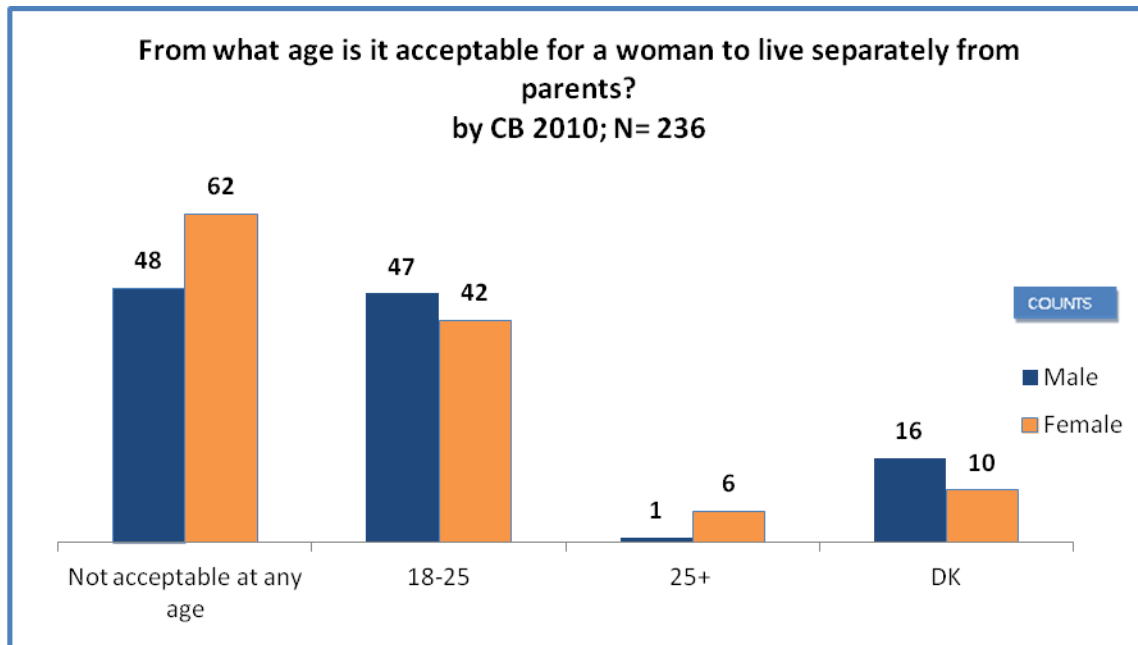


Diagram 8



APPENDIX II

TABLE #1: Gender Views on Preferred Gender of a Child in regard to Independent Variables

	Preferred Gender of a Child				χ^2	p
	DK	A girl	A boy	Doesn't matter		
Gender	%	%	%	%	27.335	.000
Men	2	2	71.4	25		
Women	0.8	10	39.3	50		
Type of Settlement	%	%	%	%	11.278	0.08
Capital	0	11.1	58	31.1		
Urban	3	4	43	50		
Rural	9	6.1	61	32.2		
Education	%	%	%	%	9.695	.376
No Primary	0	0	33.3	67		
Primary	5	0	48	48		
Secondary	7	10	55.1	35		
Higher	2	2	60	36		
Post-Graduate	0	0	0	0		
Importance of Religion in Daily Life	%	%	%	%	7.145	0.622
Not at all important	0	0	50	50		
Not very important	0	0	39	62		
Rather important	0	5	58	37		
Very important	2	9	55	35		
Rate of attendance at religious services	%	%	%	%	13.272	0.581
Every day	0	0	0	0		
More than once a week	0	6	59	35		
Once a week	3	5	54.1	38		
At least once a month	3.4	10.3	52	35		
Only on special holidays	0	10	53.3	37		
Less often	0	0	64	36.4		
Never	0	0	47.1	33		
Frequency of fasting	%	%	%	%	18.548	0.1
Always	0	10	42	47		
Often	7	7	36	50		
Sometimes	0	14.3	46	40		
Rarely	2.2	4.3	48	46		
Never	0.8	4.2	65.3	30		

Employment	%	%	%	%	2.535	0.469
No	2	7	55	37		
Yes	0	2.3	55	43		

TABLE# 2: Effect of Independent Variables on Gender Views on Men Having More Right to Education and Job

		Coefficients^a				
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.999	.230		4.342	.000
	Years of formal education completed	.021	.017	.086	1.205	.230
	Dumm_women	.407	.100	.293	4.087	.000
	Dumm_employed	-.240	.127	-.132	-1.888	.060
	Dumm_capital	-.077	.119	-.045	-.647	.518
	Dumm_never attended religious ceremony	.112	.113	.069	.992	.322
	Dumm_never fasted	.011	.101	.008	.113	.910

a. Dependent Variable: Total "disagree" Responses on Questions about Men Having More Rights to Job/Edu

TABLE #3: Gender Views on Gender of a Decision maker in a Family

	Decision maker			χ^2	p
	Man	Woman	Equally		
Gender	%	%	%	10.627	0.005
Men	80	0.9	20		
Women	60	2	39		
Type of Settlement	%	%	%	16.41	0.003
Capital	51	0	50		
Urban	72.4	4	24		
Rural	75	0	25		
Education	%	%	%	5.257	0.511
No Primary	100	0	0		
Primary	84.2	0	16		
Secondary	71.2	0.7	28.1		
Higher	62	2	36		
Post-Graduate	0	0	0		
Importance of Religion in Daily Life	%	%	%	9.856	0.131
Not at all important	100	0	0		
Not very important	83	0	17		
Rather important	77	2	21		
Very important	61	0.9	28		
Rate of attendance at religious ceremonies	%	%	%	12.277	0.267
Every day	0	0	0		
More than once a week	71	0	89.4		
Once a week	62.2	5.4	32.4		
At least once a month	62.1	0	38		
Only on special holidays	72.4	2	26		
Less often	74.2	0	26		
Never	88.2	0	12		
Frequency of fasting when required by religious tradition	%	%	%	11.119	0.195
Always	58	0	42.1		
Often	50	0	50		
Sometimes	77	0	24		
Rarely	62.2	4.4	33.3		
Never	74.4	0.9	25		
Employment	%	%	%	0.841	0.657
No	70	2	29		
Yes	68	0	32		

TABLE#3: Gender Views on Gender of a Breadwinner in a Family

	Breadwinner			χ^2	p
	Man	Woman	Equally		
Gender	%	%	%	10.163	0.006
Men	89.2	3	8.1		
Women	79.3	0	21		
Type of Settlement	%	%	%	6.129	0.19
Capital	73.3	2.2	24.4		
Urban	87	0	13.2		
Rural	87	1.8	14		
Education	%	%	%	2.504	0.868
No Primary	100	0	0		
Primary	95	0	5		
Secondary	83	1.4	16		
Higher	84	2	14		
Post-Graduate	0	0	0		
Importance of Religion in Daily Life	%	%	%	11.986	0.062
Not at all important	100	0	0		
Not very important	92.3	8	0		
Rather important	90	0	10		
Very important	79	2	20		
Rate of attendance at religious ceremonies	%	%	%	8.529	0.577
Every day	0	0	0		
More than once a week	88.2	0	12		
Once a week	76	3	22		
At least once a month	83	0	17.2		
Only on special holidays	87	2	12		
Less often	88	0	12		
Never	88.2	6	6		
Frequency of fasting	%	%	%	6.657	0.574
Always	78	0	22.2		
Often	71.4	0	29		
Sometimes	80	0	20		
Rarely	87	2.2	11		
Never	87.2	2	11.1		
Employment	%	%	%	5.327	0.07
No	86.3	1.6	12.1		
Yes	75	0	25		

TABLE#4: Effect of Independent Variables on Gender Views on Women's Sexual Freedom and Women Living Separately from their Families

		Coefficients ^a				
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	2.752	.335		8.212	.000
	Years of formal education completed	-.067	.025	-.186	-2.715	.007
	Dumm_women	.239	.151	.111	1.584	.115
	Dumm_employed	-.172	.189	-.061	-.910	.364
	Dumm_capital	-.464	.184	-.171	-2.520	.012
	Dumm_never attended religious ceremony	.187	.166	.075	1.126	.262
	Dumm_Never fasted	.076	.149	.035	.507	.612

a. Dependent Variable: Total "at no age" Responses on Questions about Women's Personal Life

b. Total score of responses of three questions: 1. at what age it is acceptable for a woman to have sex before marriage, 2. at what age it is acceptable for a woman to have sexual relationship outside marriage, 3. at what age it is acceptable for a woman to live separately from her family