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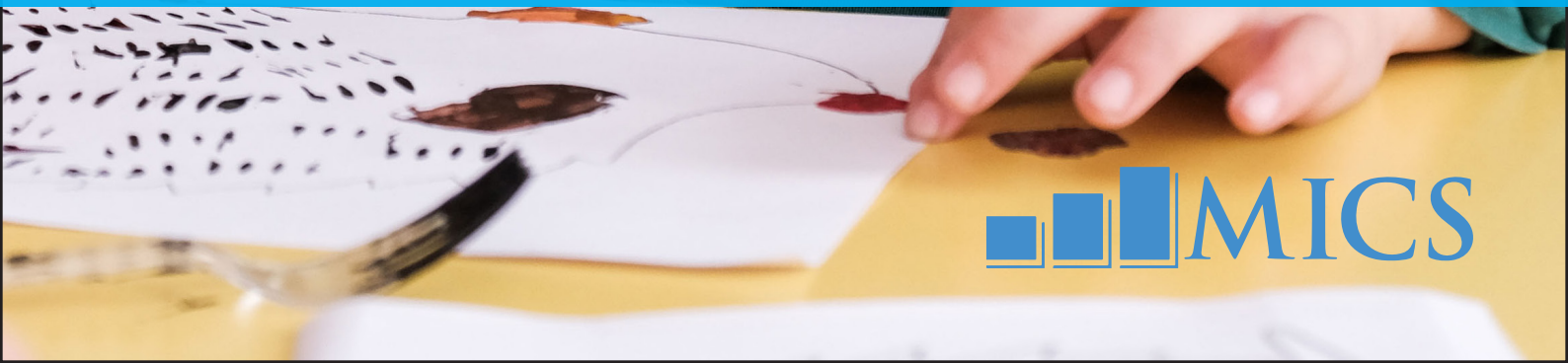
CHILD DISCIPLINARY PRACTICE IN GEORGIA

Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey



MICS

დაავადებათა კონტროლისა და
საზოგადოებრივი ჯანმრთელობის
ეროვნული ცენტრი

The secondary analysis was prepared by the Education Policy and Research Association (EPRA) and is based on the Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS). The survey was conducted with support from the National Statistics Office of Georgia, NCDC, USAID, WB, UNFPA, SIDA, AFD, SCD, ISS, UNDP and WHO.

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ACRONYMS

AFD	French Development Agency (Agence Française du Développement)
APA	American Psychological Association
CIDI	Composite International Diagnostic Interview
CTS1	Conflict Tactics Scale Version 1
CTSPC	Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Scale
ISS	Italian National Institute of Health
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys
NCDC	National Centre for Disease Control and Public Health
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SDGS	Sustainable Development Goals
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nation Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organization

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report presents the findings of the MICS survey in Georgia, which represents the first comprehensive effort to gather and systematically analyse information on violent discipline as a form of child maltreatment in the country.

Despite certain limitations of data gathering and possible bias related to the application of self-reporting methods, the report offers important insights by evidencing similarities with global challenges as well as identifying some context-related differences.

This report aims to raise researcher and general public awareness on the subject of child discipline, and to serve as an alarm signal for consolidating the dispersed efforts of policy-makers and professionals around research priorities and networking opportunities that can support national action on this matter.

TARGET GROUPS AND MAIN RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The Global MICS Programme is one of the largest international multi-purpose household surveys implemented and supported by UNICEF. It collects internationally comparable household data on a wide range of indicators, mostly focusing on the situation of children and women.

The report reviews only the components of the MICS database, which are related to the disciplinary methods applied by parents, and explores different factors that influence parenting practices.
The sample for the 2018 Georgia MICS was designed to provide estimates on the situation of children and women at the national level, by urban and rural areas, and by regions of the country. The total sample size included 14,120 households.

The MICS questionnaires gathered information about two main groups of disciplinary practices: non-violent and violent discipline. Violent discipline was divided into two main categories: physical punishment and psychological aggression.

The findings of the report are organized around two major questions:

- What is the overall picture in Georgia in relation to the use of different disciplinary practices (including violent methods)?
- Which factors are associated with the use of violent disciplinary methods in Georgia?

APPROACH FOLLOWED

A holistic understanding of decisions, motives, and the actual practice of parenting requires a broader look at the entire context. Therefore, the conceptual framework of the report explores the interrelation of different factors influencing attitudes and the actual practice of parenting, based on the ecological paradigm, and the related ecological system models.

Due to interrelated effects of many factors on the parental discipline, this report remains cautious regarding causal relationships. Rather, it attempts to highlight reciprocal and parallel relationships between the many factors investigated during the analysis.

The main message of the report is that parental discipline must be addressed as a multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes, correlations, and consequences, which each require coordinated interventions in many directions and at different levels of the complex ecosystem.

MAIN FINDINGS

As in many other countries, violent disciplinary practice is widespread in Georgia. During the month preceding the survey:

- 70 per cent of children (between 1 and 14 years of age) were victims of at least one method of violent discipline;
- 66 per cent of children experienced psychological aggression, while about 31 per cent were subjected to physical punishment;
- 5 per cent of children were victims of severe forms of corporal punishment;
- Non-violent disciplinary methods are practiced with almost all children (more than 90 per cent). However, most parents use these methods in combination with violent forms of discipline;
- Only 28 per cent of children are subjects of only non-violent methods of discipline;
- Detailed analysis of the specific methods of violent discipline shows that more than half of parents were yelling at their children, and every fifth child experienced hitting or slapping.

Younger children and children with functional difficulties are exposed to a higher risk of violent discipline:

- The age of the child is considered an important predictor of violent discipline. The peak age for physical punishment is between 3 and 4 years of age, and between 5 and 9 years of age for psychological punishment.
- Boys are at slightly higher risk for violent discipline than girls, but, like in many other countries, the differences are small.
- Unlike with the child's sex, children's functional difficulties seem to be strongly associated with the violent discipline scale. In a specific subgroup of victims of severe physical punishment, after accounting for background variables, the odds of becoming a victim are 3 times higher for children with functional difficulties than for the reference group of children with no functional difficulties.

As in many other countries, violent disciplinary methods occur in many different settings and are used by families with differing backgrounds. However, the survey also illustrates some differences categorized by specifics related to the household, such as location, characteristics of the household head, and socio-economic status of the household:

- When urbanity is controlled, the rate of use of violent discipline methods is significantly higher in these four regions of Georgia – Kvemo, Shida Kartli, Adjara, and Guria - than it is in Tbilisi.

- Ethnicity of the household head explains most of the differences in rates of violent discipline between the regions of Kvemo Kartli and Tbilisi;

- IDP status of a household head is associated with higher rates of violent discipline;

- The greater the density of the household, the higher the risk of the use of violent discipline methods (household density was calculated as a ratio of the total number of household members and bedrooms available for the household);

- More wealthy households are less likely to apply methods of physical punishment with their children than poorer households.

Rates of violent discipline in Georgia are associated with certain characteristics of the caregiver, including: level of education, functional difficulties, and subjective well-being.

- Like in many other countries, the caregivers with higher education are less likely to apply violent discipline methods.

- A caregiver's functional difficulties pose a risk factor for violent child discipline.

- One of the predictors of the use of violent discipline is the caregiver's subjective well-being. In particular, those that consider themselves happy are less likely to apply methods of violent discipline.

- Children are more likely to experience violent discipline practice if their caregivers consider themselves subjects of discrimination and harassment.

Children who are exposed to violent discipline are also more likely to be deprived of different forms of positive parenting:

- The rate of violent discipline is higher in households where caregivers are less engaged in activities that provide children with early stimulation and responsive care. This includes: reading books or looking at picture books, telling stories, singing songs, taking children outside the home, compound, or yard, playing with children, and spending time with children naming, counting, or drawing.

- Households with fewer books are more likely to employ violent forms of punishment with children.

- There is an association between leaving a child without appropriate supervision (for example, leaving them alone or in the care of an older child) and higher rates of psychological aggression and physical punishment of children between two and four years of age.

- One of the interesting findings of the report is that there is a positive association between the involvement of parents in helping their children with homework and the likelihood of the use of violent discipline. While driven by best motives, parents may make big mistakes in child rearing.

The analysis reveals an association between the application of violent discipline methods and the development patterns of a child:

- Significantly higher rates of violent discipline were found in the subgroup of children who are not considered to be currently on track in the Early Childhood development index of the MICS.
- A similar trend is evident with older children between 5 and 14 years of age. Those with learning difficulties are more likely to be victims of physical punishment.
- Also, physical and psychological punishment victims make up a larger share of children with anxiety problems.
- Physical punishment and psychological aggression rates are higher in children with difficulties controlling their behaviour, concentration, accepting change, and making friends.

Overall, the spectrum of problems and challenges revealed in the specific context of Georgia does not depart significantly from general trends identified worldwide, nor does the current snapshot of the situation in the country differ significantly from what was reported a decade ago.

The prevalence of a negative perception of physical punishment among caregivers is an important and very promising finding of the study. Only 7 per cent of caregivers in Georgia believe that physical punishment is needed in order to raise children properly. However, the discrepancy between attitudes and actual practices, which is consistent with the international trends identified by earlier cycles of the MICS, highlights the need for more work with caregivers to build skills and knowledge for effective implementation of positive parenting principles.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite numerous efforts at both the national and international levels, there remains much to be done to construct and effectively manage intervention and prevention strategies and actions, as well as to build a sound knowledge base on prevalence, influencing factors, and effects of violent child discipline.

Addressing child maltreatment requires systemic and consistent interventions. A long-term vision, the coordinated efforts of all stakeholders, and the continuity of reforms are the main prerequisites of success. Our recommendations reflect the general spirit of the Global Status Report on Preventing Violence Against Children 2020, and emphasize the importance of a flexible but consistent practice of policy cycle management, coupled with sound research, and data management as a basis for evidence-based decision making.

The recommendations are grouped in three main categories: the first two address the two key dimensions - policy making and research, and the third highlights the importance of seeking a strategic advancement that builds on their interrelation.

POLICY DIMENSION – STEPS FORWARD

- The prevalence of violent forms of child discipline, and the discrepancies between attitudes and practice, clearly show the need for a more coordinated and systemic approach to parental education in Georgia;
- An important prerequisite to successful intervantions is the coordination among Georgian governmental actors. This calls for a clear mapping of competences and tasks that are directly or indirectly related to child development at large;
- Vulnerable groups such as IDPs, single mothers, minorities, and parents of children with developmental disabilities should be the primary focus of such programmes;
- The happier the parents, the less violent discipline they use. Thus, parental well-being and mental health should be considered as a crucial factor for developing positive disciplinary practices;
- State programmes focused on children's health and mental health should be paralleled with programmes for parents of children with chronic illnesses and developmental disabilities to better incorporate support and psychological counselling for caregivers;
- Pre-school education institutions and schools represent strategically important shared spaces and must be considered as focal points to pilot and disseminate new models of stakeholder cooperation on the issue of effective parenting;
- Special attention should be paid to the selection of internationally approved and validated approaches and strategies of parent education and training that have, at the same time, a good potential for adjustment to local contexts and specifics.;
- Future parents must be considered as another important target group for educational and informational programmes;
- More capacity building programmes are needed for professionals working on the issue of violence against children. This implies improvement of both in-service and pre-service training in the fields of psychology, social work, occupational therapy, early education, elementary school education, and teacher preparation programmes;
- A last key priority is to improve information management systems to monitor the uptake, reach, and impact of evidence-based prevention and response approaches to balance the focus on measurement of the problem, with equal attention to the measurement of solutions.

BUILDING THE KNOWLEDGE BASE – TASKS FOR RESEARCHERS

- Further efforts are needed to better conceptualize variables that capture the essential components of parental discipline. This implies creating better synergies between strategies of data gathering, adopting new data gathering and analysis methods, determining divergence and contradictions derived from triangulation of findings obtained through different methods, and creating conceptual frameworks that cut across methodological specifics.

- An accurate assessment on both ends of socially acceptable and unacceptable parenting practice will fill the current gap in measuring diverse patterns.
- Better developmental mapping is needed to inform targeted policies for specific age groups of children.
- Instruments measuring child discipline practices should better capture the more effective types of discipline practices without engendering a social-desirability bias.
- Investing more in context-specific research is essential for understanding how different disciplinary practices work in diverse cultures and contexts.

CREATING THE LINK – COUPLING RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Efforts to strengthen the impact and value of research and policy-making need to pay attention to the interrelation between the production and the use of knowledge, and to their linkage.

Researchers alone cannot ensure the effective use of research, but they do play an important role. Similarly, placing the task of linking research and practice at the centre of the policy agenda can be considered as a crucial step in making informed decisions on preventing and fighting child maltreatment.

INTRODUCTION

Positive parenting practices involve providing guidance on how to handle emotions or conflicts in manners that encourage developed judgement and responsibility, and preserve children's self-esteem, as well as their physical and psychological integrity and dignity. Too often however, children are raised using punitive methods that rely on the use of physical force or verbal intimidation to obtain desired behaviours. Studies have found that exposing children to violent discipline has harmful consequences, which range from immediate impacts to long-term harm that children carry forward into adult life. Violence hampers children's development, learning abilities, and school performance; it inhibits positive relationships, provokes low self-esteem, emotional distress, and depression; and, at times, it leads to risk-taking and self-harm. [1]

In Georgia, like in many other countries, there is a lack of data on child discipline practices to comprehensively describe the nature, scale, and results of child maltreatment or to develop evidence-based strategies that can improve existing patterns. UNICEF comparative report on child disciplinary practicies states that "There is a need for reliable information to establish baselines, inform strategies to prevent violent disciplinary practices and monitor progress. This data is crucial for developing educational efforts to address norms, attitudes, and behaviours harmful to children and improving laws, policies, regulations and services that contribute to children's well-being and protection".[2]

In the 2018 Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), mothers or caretakers of children under age five, and of one randomly selected child between 5 and 17 years of age, were asked a series of questions on the methods adults in the household used to discipline children during the past month, and whether the respondent believed that physical punishment was a necessary part of child rearing.

The module on child discipline used by the MICS measured violent and non-violent disciplinary methods used by all caregivers in a household. Violent disciplinary methods include forms of psychological aggression and physical punishment (also referred to as corporal punishment).

The report presents the findings of the MICS survey in Georgia. Along with the original dataset obtained during the recent MICS cycle in the country. It uses the report of the National Statistics Office of Georgia on the MICS Survey results (2018)1 and analyses the local picture in light of the international trends presented in the UNICEF comparative report on child disciplinary practices in Low and Middle Income countries.[3]

By evidencing similarities with global challenges, as well as identifying some context-related differences, this report aims to raise the awareness of researchers and the general public on the subject of child discipline, as well as to serve as an alarm signal for consolidating dispersed efforts of policy-makers and professionals around research priorities and networking opportunities that can support national action.

1 National Statistics Office of Georgia. (2019). Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2018, Survey Findings Report. Tbilisi, Georgia: National Statistics Office of Georgia.
2 UNICEF (2010). Child Disciplinary Practices at Home: Evidence from a Range of Low- and Middle-Income Countries, New York, 2010. To facilitate comparison, a similar structure and framework of analysis were followed in this report.
3 Ibid.

CHILD DISCIPLINE AND CHILD MALTREATMENT – IN SEARCH OF BOUNDARIES

Despite differences across the world on a range of issues related to parenting, most parents are committed to protecting their children's best interests. However, parents' attempts to contribute to their children's well-being may occur in violent forms, and children may be unintentionally or intentionally harmed by parenting practices.[4]

The Convention on the Rights of the Child[5] by the United Nations General Assembly clearly highlights the rights and duties of parents or caregivers to provide appropriate direction and guidance to a child (Article 5).

However, at the same time, the Convention states that children should be protected from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, while in the care of parents, legal guardians or any other person who is in charge of the care of the child (Article 19).

Child maltreatment or child abuse is defined by the World Health Organization as "Abuse and neglect that occurs to children under 18 years of age. It includes all types of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, abuse, neglect, negligence and exploitation, which results in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust or power".

Many particular forms of child discipline may fall under this broad definition and, even if driven by best intentions, parents may exercise child maltreatment.

The interpretations of child maltreatment and forms of unacceptable discipline methods vary across countries. This complicates efforts to operationalize the concept of child maltreatment and child violent discipline, and has significant implications for the development and implementation of policies and programmes aimed at preventing and responding to it. The existence of such differences can be explained by the role that local cultures play in the definition of socially accepted principles of child rearing and child care, and in the identification of what acts constitute forms of abuse and neglect. [6]

With the background of the debates on boundaries of acceptable parent behaviour, it is crucial to have valid and reliable empirical evidence on specific harmful consequences of different forms of child discipline.

In 2019, the American Psychological Association (APA) adopted a resolution on physical discipline of children by parents. The resolution states, based on extended empirical evidence, that even mild forms of physical punishment are associated with a heightened risk of harm to children's mental health, as well as to their cognitive, behavioural, social, and emotional development:

- Use of physical discipline predicts an increase in children's behavioural problems over time. In particular, it is associated with increases in later externalizing behaviour, aggression, and antisocial behaviour.
- Physical discipline use is also associated with mental health problems in children, such as internalizing disorders, as well as long-term adult mental health impairments.
- In terms of neurological and biological correlates of physical discipline use, physical discipline is associated with impaired cognitive ability and detrimental brain development, which is itself associated with the development of mental health problems.

4 American Psychological Association. (2019). Resolution on physical discipline of children by parents.
5 UNICEF. (1989). Convention on the Rights of the Child.
6 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.

- Physical discipline also appears to contribute to alterations in or dysregulation of cortisol and dopamine activity, resulting in hypersensitivity to stress and increased risk for substance abuse.

Research also illustrates the harmful effects of the use of different forms of psychological aggression:

- Psychological aggression by parents is associated with higher rates of delinquency and psychological problems in children. [7]
- Psychological aggression tends to increase the level of subsequent misbehaviour. [8]
- Children's heightened fear, anger, and sadness associated with physical discipline increase their general levels of psychological distress.[9]

Given this evidence, both forms of punitive violent discipline - physical punishment and psychological aggression – can be viewed as forms of maltreatment which lead to actual or potential harm to the child and society as a whole.

The ambiguity of boundaries and the lack of consensus on harmful and less harmful methods of parental discipline result in many children in need of protection, and many parents in need of help who do not receive services that could potentially make a large difference in child and family well-being.

TAXONOMY OF CHILD DISCIPLINE PRACTICES - GOALS AND FORMS

Despite differences across the world on a range of issues related to parenting, most parents are committed to protecting their children's best interests. From the functionalistic perspective, child discipline can be defined as efforts directed at developing judgement, behavioural boundaries, self-control, self-sufficiency, and positive social conduct. [10]

Child discipline serves three main goals:[11]

- creating a supportive environment for learning and development;
- systematic teaching and strengthening of desired behaviours (proactive approach); and
- decreasing or eliminating undesired or ineffective behaviours (reactive approach).

While the theoretical description of the concept reflects its multi-faceted nature and underlines the importance and interrelation of all the three main goals of effective parenting, the goals of child discipline are often perceived by parents more narrowly. In particular, the third element (reactive approach) often exclusively reflects what is meant when the term "discipline" is used. Many parents think that eliminating undesirable behaviour is the main goal of parenting.

7 Patterson, G. R., DeBaryshe, B. D., & Ramsey, E. (1989). A developmental perspective on antisocial behavior (Vol. 44, No. 2, p. 329). American Psychological Association; Solomon, C. R., & Serres, F. (1999). Effects of parental verbal aggression on children's self-esteem and school marks. Child Abuse & Neglect, 23(4), 339-351.
8 Straus, M. A., & Field, C. J. (2003). Psychological aggression by American parents: National data on prevalence, chronicity, and severity. Journal of Marriage and Family, 65(4), 795-808.
9 American Psychological Association. (2019). „Resolution on physical discipline", 16.
10 Butchart, A., Harvey, A. P., Mian, M., & Fürniss, T. (2006). Preventing child maltreatment. A guide to taking action and generating evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization.
11 Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child and Family Health. (1998). Guidance for effective discipline. Pediatrics, 101(4), 723-728.

Furthermore, significant controversies exist on the relevance, social acceptance, and effectiveness of different disciplinary methods to serve mentioned goals in different contexts, cultures, and historical periods.

The first systematic efforts to describe child disciplinary behaviours in a multi-cultural context and explain the role of culture and parental discipline on child development are related to Margaret Mead's studies of enculturation in the late 1920s. Since then many different classifications of goals, effects, dimensions, and styles of parental discipline have been introduced. [12]

In an attempt to categorize complex patterns of parenting, researchers contrasted between different concepts/styles of parental behaviour:[13]

- acceptance versus rejection,
- dominance versus submission;
- warmth versus hostility,
- anxious involvement versus calm detachment; and
- control versus autonomy.

The most popular taxonomy of parental styles broadly utilized nowadays picks two dimensions from the list as the most suitable factors to describe and differentiate main patterns of parental behaviour – parental warmth and parental control. The parenting styles proposed by this taxonomy reflect different combinations of warmth and control, which are summarized in four possible styles of parenting:[14]

- authoritative parents (warmth and control, combined and balanced);
- authoritarian parents (firm control, little warmth);
- permissive parents (warmth, coupled with little control);
- rejecting/neglecting parents (little warmth and little control).

This report proposes an alternative, yet complementary approach to classifying child discipline. This taxonomy shifts an accent from the parental styles to the disciplining practices and forms. Additionally, it includes the child's perspective in the picture, and groups parental disciplinary practices into two major categories:

- violent discipline, and
- non-violent discipline.

Caregivers who engage in violent child discipline most closely resemble authoritarian parents. Their discipline tends to be harsh and punitive. Instead of discussing misbehaviour with the child, they are more likely to punish. [15] Violent discipline is further broken down into two categories – physical punishment and psychological aggression:

12 Power, T. G. (2013). Parenting dimensions and styles: a brief history and recommendations for future research. Childhood Obesity, 9(s1), S-14.
13 Socolar, R., Savage, E., Devellis, R. F., & Evans, H. (2004). The discipline survey: A new measure of parental discipline. Ambulatory Pediatrics, 4(2), 166-173.
14 Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of Authoritative Parental Control on Child Behavior, Child Development, 37(4), 887-907.
15 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.

- Physical punishment (or corporal punishment) uses physical means to control children or force them to do things. The Committee on the Rights of the Child defines corporal punishment as "any punishment in which physical force is used and intended to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light".[16] Whereas in some countries, physical discipline is included within the category of cruel and inhumane treatment, in others there is a distinction made between physical discipline and physical abuse and the related consequences. For example, physical abuse is illegal in the United States, but physical discipline is not.[17] However, the previous chapter clearly illustrates that even mild forms of physical punishment lead to adverse short-term and long-term consequences for a child.

- Psychological aggression is defined as a communication intended to cause the child to experience psychological pain.[18] The communicative act may be active or passive or verbal or nonverbal. Specific forms of violent psychological discipline may involve „The use of guilt, humiliation, the withdrawal of love, or emotional manipulation to control a child". [19] Together with physical punishment, these two forms of violent discipline are considered harmful for cognitive, behavioural, social, and emotional development.

Another important category in the taxonomy proposed by the present report is non-violent discipline. As stated in the UNICEF report (2010): „This form of child disciplinary practice includes acts that are closely associated with authoritative parenting, such as taking away privileges or explaining why something is wrong. Authoritative parents monitor their children closely, have clear standards and high expectations, use disciplinary methods that are supportive, and allow the lines of communication to go both ways between parent and child. While such parents are understanding and supportive, they set boundaries and institute appropriate consequences if the child does not behave". [20]

Non-violent methods of child discipline are associated with another popular concept of parenting styles – positive parenting. According to one definition, "Positive parenting is the continual relationship of a parent(s) and a child or children that includes caring, teaching, leading, communicating, and providing for the needs of a child consistently and unconditionally ". [21]

The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe (2006) similarly defined positive parenting as "… nurturing, empowering, nonviolent" and that it "provides recognition and guidance which involves setting of boundaries to enable the full development of the child".

Non-violent parenting behaviour and positive parenting are widely recognized as beneficial to a child's cognitive and social development, affecting school adjustment, increased motivation for learning, reduced depressive symptoms, increased self-esteem, and an improved ability to resist negative peer influences among adolescents. [22]

16 Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 8.
17 American Psychological Association. (2019). „Resolution on physical discipline", 16.
18 Straus, M. A., & Field, C. J. (2003). „Psychological aggression by American parents", 17.
19 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.
20 Ibid. 15
21 Seay, A., Freysteinson, W. M., & McFarlane, J. (2014). Positive parenting. In Nursing Forum 49 (3,) 200-208.
22 Lorczak H.S. (2020). What is positive parenting? A look at the research and benefits.

MEASURING CHILD DISCIPLINE PRACTICES – A COMPLEX TASK

Researchers studying child discipline face numerous challenges related to the measurement of parental practices:

- The first big category of challenges is related to the conceptualization of variables which capture essential components of parental practice. Researchers have to decide which particular forms of parental discipline to include in the instrument to find a good balance between depth and breadth of coverage of the concept. Interesting questions within this category include whether the measurement instruments should concentrate on actual behaviour or on attitudes towards parental behaviour, or on both? Should the instruments capture incidence, point, or cumulative prevalence of child maltreatment?

- The second category of challenges is associated with the selection of appropriate respondents (child, caregivers, and/or young adults) and triangulation (compilation and comparison) of the data obtained from different sources. Asking older children or young adults about the discipline they experienced in the past, over an extended period of time, takes a retrospective approach that can provide information on cumulative prevalence, but may also be influenced by recall bias. In contrast, asking caregivers about current behaviour, or asking children about how they have been disciplined recently, can provide information about prevalence and possibly incidence, depending on the study design. However, reporting bias can affect the apparent prevalence of certain practices, as different responses can be obtained from children and their caregivers. [23]

- The third category includes the challenges of selecting appropriate methods. Methods of measurement of discipline/parenting vary from brief to extensive observation of maternal-child interaction, to exploration about parent beliefs toward vignettes, to structured diaries and structured surveys on disciplinary practices. Each of the mentioned methods bears certain advantages and limitations. What parents report as their parenting practices and what they actually do in real interactions with their children may or may not correspond. Thus, more efforts are needed to create better synergies between strategies of gathering data, determining divergence, and creating conceptual frameworks that cut across methods. [24]

Overall, the field has produced many measures of discipline and nurturance, primarily relying on the questionnaire format, but also on structured interview and systematic observational methods (some of them are listed in Annex #3).

However, despite the diversity of available instruments, the lack of data worldwide is acknowledged as one of the main impediments to planning and monitoring intervention strategies. In order to cover both depth and breadth of the problem, and its particularities in specific contexts, it is crucial to improve epidemiological and case-specific data gathering mechanisms, as well as overall information systems, both at national and international levels. Key considerations in selecting data collection tools include the psychometric properties of the instrument, primarily reliability and validity. Also, of concern are the related limitations -age range of subjects and subject recall. [25]

The most recent Global Status Report on Preventing Violence Against Children 2020 states that countries should prioritize the collection of data on key violence-related indicators as part of regular SDG reporting, and use these to set measurable targets in data-driven national and international action plans. The report also emphasizes the importance of the use of data not only for planning, but also for effective monitoring of ongoing interventions.[26]

23 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home“, 15.
24 Locke, L. M., & Prinz, R. J. (2002). Measurement of parental discipline and nurturance. Clinical psychology review, 22(6), 895-929.
25 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home“, 15.
26 Global status report on preventing violence against children 2020: executive summary. Geneva: World Health Organization

The following are considered to be the main areas for further development of child discipline measurement instruments:[27]

- With respect to discipline, many of the measures focus primarily on ineffective, problematic, and violent parenting methods, and less on positive, non-violent parenting practices. Accurate assessment of parenting at the low or problematic end is useful in understanding child abuse or neglect and characterizing minimum standards of parental competence.[28] However, precision at the high or effective end of the parenting continuum can contribute to efforts aimed at identifying and promoting conditions and socialization practices conducive to healthy child development. [29]

- Items should be worded to better capture the more effective types of discipline practices without engendering a social-desirability bias. Respondents tend to avoid mentioning parenting experience that is perceived to be less socially acceptable.

- Many of the instruments present items without relating them to a specific context. For a given item, respondents may feel that their discipline is context dependent, and that they apply different practices depending on the specific situation concerning that child. The challenge is better contextualizing assessment of effective and ineffective practices while maintaining reasonable generalizability.

- Cultural appropriateness of discipline measuring instruments should be further strengthened. There is a pressing need to conduct studies of measurement equivalence, which would aid in the validation and refinement of existing or new measures. As it currently stands, apparent cultural variation in parenting could be due to measurement problems, to actual cultural differences, or to both. The identification and explication of universal, as well as culturally unique, parenting practices is dependent first on the establishment of measurement equivalency across cultural groups.

- Across all discipline and nurturance measures, better developmental mapping is needed. Discipline and nurturance modes change across child development. While some practices may remain consistent across child age, others are discontinued, and new practices are introduced as children develop.

THE PARENT-CHILD CONFLICT TACTICS SCALE

The Parent-Child Conflict Tactics Scale (CTSPC) is one of the most well-known epidemiological instruments used for measuring child discipline. A modified version of the short form of the CTSPC forms the basis for the Child Discipline Module used in the MICS. This module builds on previous efforts to gather information on some forms of violence against children at home and represents a significant undertaking to collect data on a multi-national basis.[30]

The current version of the CTSPC was introduced in the mid-1990s as a modification of the 1979 Conflict Tactics Scale, Version 1 (CTS1). The CTSPC was designed to support both clinical and epidemiological studies of child maltreatment. It contains 22 items across three domains: non-violent discipline, psychological aggression, and physical assault. It also includes 13 optional items in the domains of weekly discipline, neglect, and sexual abuse. With the exception of items on weekly discipline and sexual abuse, each item is scored on an eight-point scale reflecting frequency within the past year. Possible responses range from

27 Locke, L. M., & Prinz, R. J. (2002). Measurement of parental discipline and nurturance.
28 Budd, K. S. (2001). Assessing parenting competence in child protection cases: a clinical practice model. Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 4, 1–18.
29 Sanders, M. R. (1999). Triple P—Positive Parenting Program: towards an empirically validated multilevel parenting and family support strategy for the prevention of behavior and emotional problems in children. Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 2, 71–90.
30 This and subsequent review of CTSPC and MICS Module content is largely based on description provided in the international report "Child Disciplinary Practices at Home: Evidence from a Range of Low- and Middle-Income Countries, New York, 2010

'once in the past year' to 'more than 20 times within the past year'. Scoring methods have been developed to obtain estimates of prevalence and frequencies.

The CTSPC offers several important advantages:

First, its reliability and validity. Evaluations of the CTSPC have yielded moderate to good indicators of test-retest reliability, as well as discriminant and construct validity.

Second, the CTSPC and its precursor, the CTS1, have been used extensively – including in international settings, where the instrument has been translated into several languages and adapted to specific contexts. The first major study using the CTSPC was a Gallup survey conducted in 1995 in the continental United States. Several hundreds of peer-reviewed articles employing some version of the CTSPC are identifiable in Google scholar searches for the period 2016-2020.

Third, the CTSPC has had a considerable influence on how child discipline and child maltreatment have been measured and defined in a range of countries. It has proven valuable in helping to identify risk factors that may benefit policy-makers in devising strategies to improve prevention. In a meta-analysis of 55 available questionnaires measuring child discipline, the CTSPC was among five instruments that hold two crucial characteristics – it covers a range of age categories, and it is suitable for epidemiological analysis. [31]

Incorporating a measure of child discipline into larger household surveys, such as the MICS, enables researchers to associate other factors (such as wealth and education) with child discipline or, conversely, to use child discipline to inform the analysis of other variables. The drawback is that certain decisions on data collection instruments and protocols may be dictated by the objectives of the larger survey and practical considerations related to its size. The CTSPC and the Child Discipline Module developed for the MICS are described in more detail in subsequent chapters.

METHODOLOGY

BASIC FRAMEWORK AND DIMENSIONS OF ANALYSIS

A holistic understanding of decisions, motives, and the actual practice of parenting requires a broader look at the entire context. Our logic for the analysis assumes that parental discipline practices can never been viewed in isolation from the influences imposed by the environment. The conceptual framework of the present report explores the interrelation of different factors influencing the attitudes and actual practice of parenting, based on the ecological paradigm and the related ecological system models. [32]

Figure 1 presents a visual overview of our conceptual framework. It is shown as a set of nested and interconnected spheres (subsystems) that each have a potential to influence – and be influenced by – parental discipline practices. The elements in our model range from the immediate individual characteristics of the child and caregiver, to the setting of the cultural and social context in which the household functions. Bronfenbrenner's original model was used as a basis for the framework applied in this report. It stems from a theory of human development, and thus positions the individual at the centre of the ecosystem.

31 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.
32 Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). The Ecology of Human Development: Experiments by Nature and Design. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an Experimental Ecology of Human Development. American Psychologist, 32, 515-531. Bronfenbrenner, U. (1976). The Experimental Ecology of Education. Teachers College Record, 78(2), 157 – 204. Bronfenbrenner, U. (1974). Developmental Research, Public Policy, and the Ecology of Childhood. Child Development, 45(1), 1-5. Buchmann, C. (2002). Getting Ahead in Kenya: Social Capital, Shadow Education and Achievement. In B. Fuller and E. Hannum (Eds.), Schooling and Social Capital in Diverse Cultures (pp. 133-159). Amsterdam: JAI Press.

Our version departs from the original version in other aspects, however. In particular, it takes actual practices of violent discipline as a central element of the model.

Individual characteristics of children and caregivers form the most proximal sphere related to our central concept. At this level, we assume that individual characteristics of children and caregivers – such as age, sex, or the cognitive and emotional development patterns of a child – might be associated with the use of certain forms of discipline by parents. At the same time, the characteristics of caregivers – such as education, functional difficulties, and perception of personal well-being and happiness – may influence the practice of parenting.

Other elements of the model include different household characteristics such as ethnicity and IDP status of the household head, household socio-economic status, household size, living conditions, general climate in the household, and other parenting styles and practices.

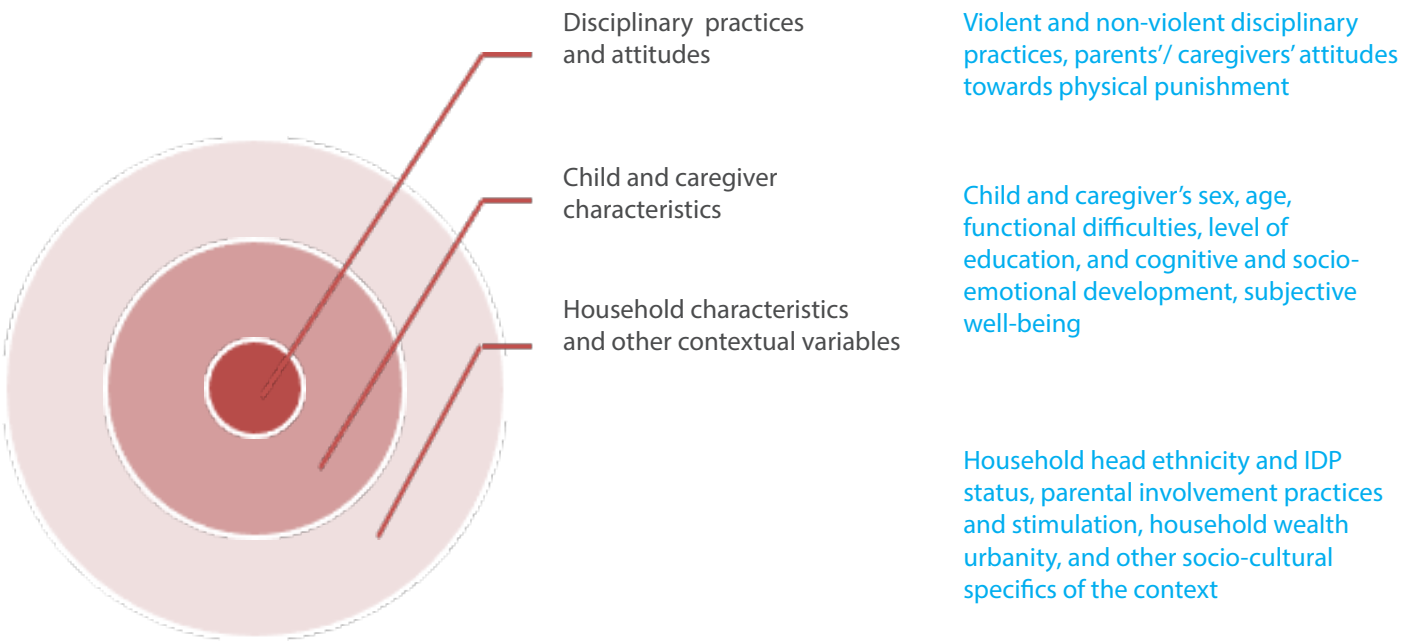
The last layer of the model represents the cultural, social, and economic characteristics of the contexts in which households function.

Due to the interrelated effects of many factors described in the report, it was very difficult to find a single model (set of variables) that best explain the use of violent disciplinary practices by parents. As outlined further in the document, the seemingly strong association between factors can be explained by the mediating or moderating effects of other variables.

The report does not show a causal relationship between the interrelated factors. Rather, it tries to highlight reciprocal and parallel relationship between the many factors investigated during the analysis.

In short, the main message of the report is that parental discipline must be addressed as a multifaceted phenomenon with multiple causes, correlations, and consequences that require coordinated interventions in many directions and at different levels of a complex ecosystem.

Figure 1 Conceptual framework for the analysis of child discipline practice in Georgia



THE MULTIPLE INDICATOR CLUSTER SURVEY (MICS) IN GEORGIA

The 2018 Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) was carried out from 2018–2019 by the National Statistics Office of Georgia, in collaboration with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the National Centre for Disease Control and Public Health (NCDC), as part of the Global MICS Programme. Technical support was provided by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and, with government funding and financial support from UNICEF, the National Centre for Disease Control and Public Health (NCDC), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the World Bank (WB), the United Nation Population Fund (UNFPA), the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), the French Development Agency (Agence Française du Développement [AFD]), the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), the Italian National Institute of Health (Istituton Superiore di Sanità [ISS]), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and the World Health Organization (WHO). [33]

The Global MICS Programme was developed by UNICEF in the 1990s as an international multi-purpose household survey programme to support countries in collecting internationally comparable data on a wide range of indicators on the situation of children and women. The MICS measures key indicators that allow countries to generate data for use in policies, programmes, and national development plans, and to monitor progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and other internationally agreed upon commitments. Since 2005, there has been no implementation of a Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey in Georgia, and only a limited number of MICS indicators were collected through other surveys. The objective of the 2018 Georgia MICS was to: generate data to critically assess the progress made in various areas and to identify areas that require more attention; to collect disaggregated data for the identification of disparities; to allow for evidence-based policymaking aimed at social inclusion of the most vulnerable; and to validate data from other sources and the results of focused interventions.

For more information on the Global MICS Programme, please go to *<mics.unicef.org>.*

SAMPLE DESIGN

The sample for the 2018 Georgia MICS was designed to provide estimates for a large number of indicators on the situation of children and women at the national level, for urban and rural areas, and for regions: Tbilisi, Adjara A.R, Guria, Imereti, Racha-Lechkhumi and Kvemo Svaneti, Kakheti, Mtkheta-Mtianeti, Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti, Samtskhe-Javakheti, Kvemo Kartli, Shida Kartli, as well as for IDPs (internally displaced persons). The urban and rural areas within each region were identified as the main sampling strata. Each main stratum (region by urban/rural) was further divided into IDP and non-IDP strata. The sample of households was selected in two stages. Within each stratum, a specified number of census enumeration areas were selected systematically with probability proportional to size. After a household listing was carried out within the selected enumeration areas, a systematic sample of 20 households were drawn in each sample enumeration area. The total sample size was 14,120 households in 706 sample clusters. As the sample is not self-weighting, sample weights were used for reporting survey results.

33 Review of the methodological aspects of the MICS survey is based on the content of the national MICS report: National Statistics Office of Georgia (2019). Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2018, Survey Findings Report. Tbilisi, Georgia: National Statistics Office of Georgia.

QUESTIONNAIRES

Seven questionnaires were used in the MICS survey:

1) a household questionnaire to collect basic demographic information on: all de jure household members (usual residents), the household, and the dwelling;

2) a water quality testing questionnaire administered in five households in each cluster of the sample;

3) a questionnaire for individual women administered in each household to all women, between 15 and 49 years of age;

4) a questionnaire for individual men administered in every second household to all men, between 15 and 49 years of age;

5) an under-5 questionnaire, administered to mothers (or caretakers) of all children under 5 years of age living in the household;

6) a questionnaire for children, between 5 and 17 years of age, administered to the mother (or caretaker) of one randomly selected child, between 5 and 17 years of age, living in the household, and

7) a lead testing questionnaire, administered to mothers (or caretakers) of one randomly selected child, between 2 and 7 years of age, living in the household.

In addition to the administration of questionnaires, fieldwork teams observed the places for hand washing, measured the weights and heights of children under 5 years of age, tested household and source water for E. coli levels, and extracted venous blood from children, between 2 and 7 years of age, for the purposes of lead testing.

The questionnaires were based on the MICS6 standard. From the English version of the MICS6 model, the questionnaires were customized and translated into Georgian, Azerbaijani, and Armenian, and were pretested in four regions of Georgia (Tbilisi, Mtskheta-Mtianeti, Samtskhe-Javakheti, and Kvemo-Kartli). The samples for the pre-test covered 3 different types of settlements (big city, town, and village). The sample size was approximately 240 households from 29 clusters. Every third household from each of the sample clusters was interviewed during June 2018. Based on the results of the pre-test, modifications were made to the wording and the translation of the questionnaires.

ETHICAL PROTOCOL

The survey protocol was approved by the National Centre for Disease Control and Public Health of Georgia (NCDC) in August, 2018. The protocol included a Protection Protocol which outlines the potential risks during the life cycle of the survey and management strategies to mitigate these risks.

Verbal consent was obtained for each adult respondent who participated. For children, between 15 and 17 years of age, who were individually interviewed, adult consent was obtained in advance of the child's participation. For children, between 2 and 7 years of age, who were selected for lead testing written consent to take a blood sample was obtained from the mother/caretaker. The mother/caretaker was informed of the terms and conditions of participation in the lead test, including: the purpose of the research, the testing process, the benefit of the research to participants, the expected risk, and the sharing of the results.

All respondents were informed of the voluntary nature of participation and the confidentiality and anonymity of their information. Additionally, respondents were informed of their right to refuse answering all or particular questions, as well as the option to stop the interview at any time.

CHILD DISCIPLINE MODULE IN THE MICS

The Child Discipline Module represents a shortened version of the original CTSPC. Some of the CTSPC items were sorted out because of an unsuitability to cross-cultural contexts or an irrelevance to the MICS.

The module includes 12 items. The first 11 items of the Child Discipline Module enquire about the caregivers' behaviours. The items are grouped in three domains: non-violent discipline, psychological aggression, and physical punishment. The questions ask whether each disciplinary practice has been employed:

- Recently (defined as at least once in the past month),
- By any member of the household, not just the mother (or primary caregiver) who acts as the survey respondent.

The respondent answers either 'yes' or 'no'. No information is collected about the frequency of the behaviour. The last item in the Child Discipline Module explores the personal attitudes and beliefs of the survey respondent on the necessity of using physical punishment to raise the child.

Like many other measures of child discipline, the Child Discipline Module relies entirely on self-reports. This is an important limitation of the instrument, because there is no way to independently verify whether the respondents are being honest or accurate in reporting their own behaviour, or the behaviour of other members of the household.

MEASUREMENT SCALES

Individual items of the Child Discipline Module are combined into a series of measurement scales. There are two overall scales: violent discipline and non-violent discipline.

The Child Discipline Module includes eight items on violent discipline. All of them are combined in the overall scale for any violent discipline. The category of violent discipline is split further in three subscales: psychological aggression, physical punishment, and severe physical punishment.

Psychological aggression refers to two disciplinary practices: (1) shouting, yelling, and screaming at a child and (2) calling a child offensive names such as 'dumb' and/or 'lazy'.

Physical (or corporal) punishment includes the six remaining violent disciplinary practices: (1) shaking the child, (2) spanking or hitting the child on the bottom with a bare hand, (3) slapping the child on the hand, arm, or leg, (4) hitting the child on the bottom with a hard object, (5) hitting the child on the face, head, or ears, and (6) beating the child with an implement over and over as hard as one can.

The last two practices are particularly harsh, severe forms of physical punishment and are considered as a separate subscale within the physical punishment category.

The Child Discipline Module also includes three items on non-violent discipline: (1) explaining why a behaviour is wrong, (2) taking away privileges or not allowing the child to leave the house, and (3) giving the child something else to do.

Table 1 illustrates the items by scales and subscales. If the caregiver responded 'yes' to at least one of the items included in a scale or subscale, the child was considered to have experienced that form of discipline and the scale was given a positive score. The caregiver had the option to respond 'yes' to multiple items in a given scale.

Table 1 Child discipline measurement scales and subscales

SUB-SCALES OF DISCIPLINE	FORMS OF DISCIPLINARY PRACTICE
Non-violent discipline	
	Explained why behaviour was wrong Gave child something else to do Took away privileges
Psychological aggression	
	Shouted, yelled, or screamed at child Called child dumb, lazy, or another name
Physical punishment	
	Shook child Spanked, hit, or slapped child on bottom with bare hand Hit or slapped child on the hand, arm, or leg Hit child with belt, brush, stick, etc.
Severe physical punishment	
	Hit or slapped child on the face, head, or ears Beat child as hard as one could

PARENTAL DISCIPLINARY PRACTICE IN GEORGIA

PREVALENCE OF FORMS OF CHILD DISCIPLINARY PRACTICE

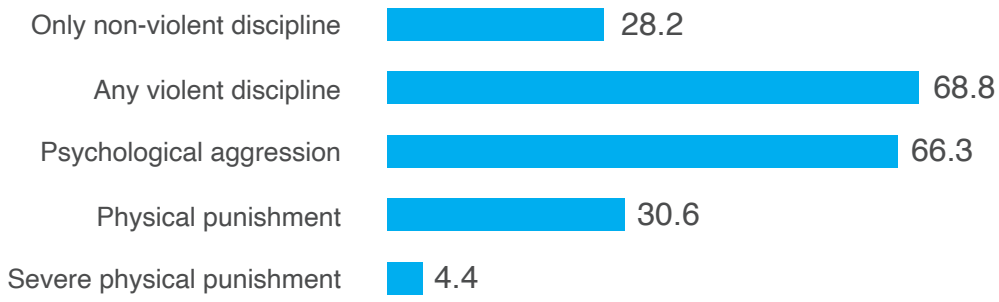
As in many countries around the world, violent disciplinary practices are quite common in Georgia. According to the information provided by caregivers, almost 70 per cent of children experienced different forms of violent discipline during the month preceding the MICS survey.

Psychological aggression is more widespread than physical punishment. The MICS survey results show that 66 per cent of children experienced psychological aggression in the previous month, while about 31 per cent were victims of physical punishment.

A subgroup of victims of physical punishment (5 per cent) were victims of severe forms of corporal punishment during the reported period.

Non-violent disciplinary methods are practiced with almost all children. However, most of the parents use them in combination with violent forms of discipline, and only 28 per cent of children are subjects of only non-violent methods.

Figure 2 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by child disciplinary methods experienced in the past month



Out of all the items comprising the scale for any violent discipline, one item – shouting, yelling or screaming at a child – is much more common than any other violent disciplinary practices (Figure 3). More than half of households reported shouting at a child. This finding coincides with similar results found in most countries in the world.

An alarming signal is that one out of five children experienced a specific form of physical punishment during the reported period, such as hitting or slapping.

Figure 3 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by specific forms of child discipline (one month preceding the survey)

Sub-scales of discipline	Forms of disciplinary practice	%
Non-violent discipline	Explained why behaviour was wrong	93
Non-violent discipline	Gave child something else to do	58
Non-violent discipline	Took away privileges	37
Psychological aggression	Shouted, yelled or screamed at child	61
Psychological aggression	Called child dumb, lazy or another name	28
Physical punishment	Spanked, hit or slapped child on bottom with bare hand	21
Physical punishment	Shook child	15
Physical punishment	Hit or slapped child on the hand, arm or leg	5.5
Physical punishment	Hit child with belt, brush, stick, etc.	1
Severe physical punishment	Hit or slapped child on the face, head or ears	4.2
Severe physical punishment	Beat child up as hard as one could	0.3

COMBINATIONS OF DISCIPLINARY PRACTICES

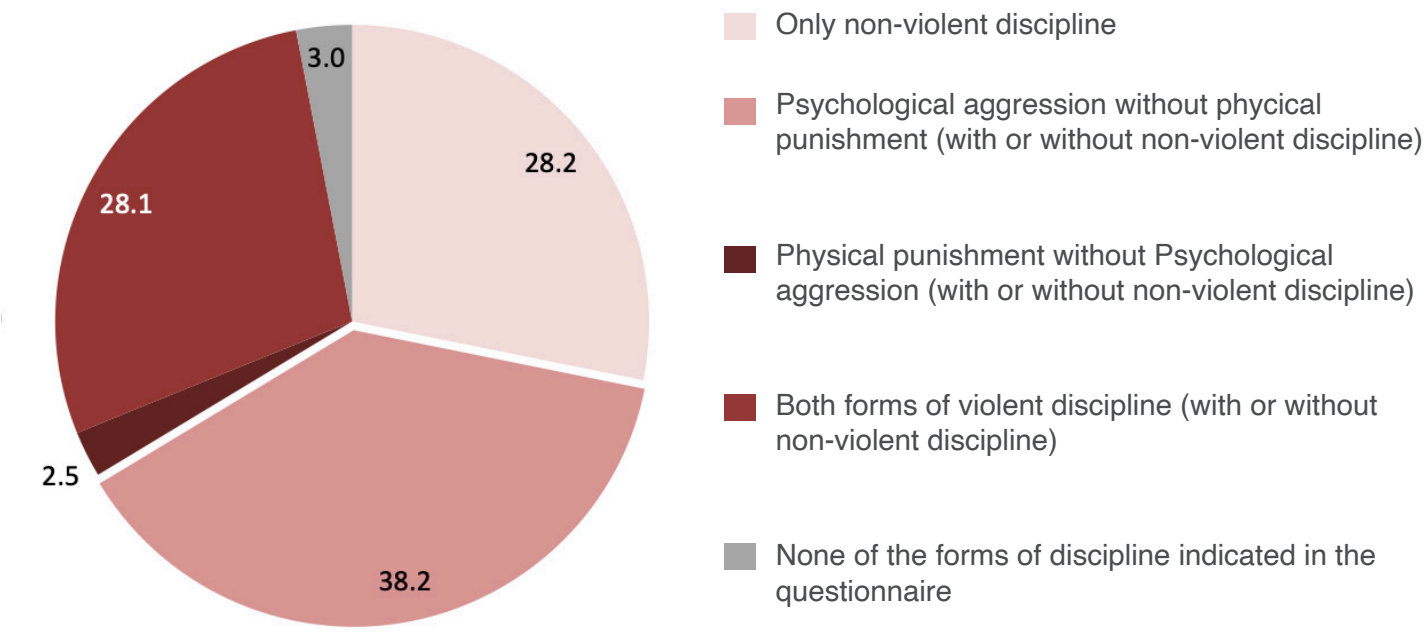
As shown previously, many children in the MICS sample of Georgia were subject to more than one form discipline and violent methods were used in combination with non-violent approaches.

Figure 4 illustrates distribution of the five mutually exclusive combinations of methods as defined in the UNICEF comparative report on Child Disciplinary Practices at Home (2010):

- Only non-violent discipline;
- Psychological aggression without physical punishment (with or without non-violent discipline);
- Physical punishment without psychological aggression (with or without non-violent discipline);
- Both psychological aggression and physical punishment (with or without non-violent discipline); and
- No form of discipline listed in the Child Discipline Module.

Results indicate that during the month preceding the survey 28 per cent of children were subject to both forms of violent discipline and 38 per cent experienced psychological aggression only. Physical punishment was rarely used as an exclusive form of discipline (3 per cent) and 28 per cent of children didn't experience any violent methods of discipline.

Figure 4 Percentage distribution of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month



ATTITUDES TOWARDS PHYSICAL PUNISHMENT

The attitudes of caregivers towards violent forms of punishment is an important dimension to take into consideration while studying and interpreting parental discipline practices. Various studies illustrate that the use of physical discipline is strongly predicted by parents' positive attitudes about it [34] Also, endorsing the use of these forms of punishment predicts a decreased likelihood of perceiving and reporting child abuse.[35] Thus, understanding reasons for parents' use of physical discipline, and helping to change parents' attitudes about it, are important steps in reducing its prevalence. [36]

The Child Discipline Module in the MICS asked the mother (or primary caregiver) of each child if she believed that in order to raise that child properly, she needed to physically punish him or her.

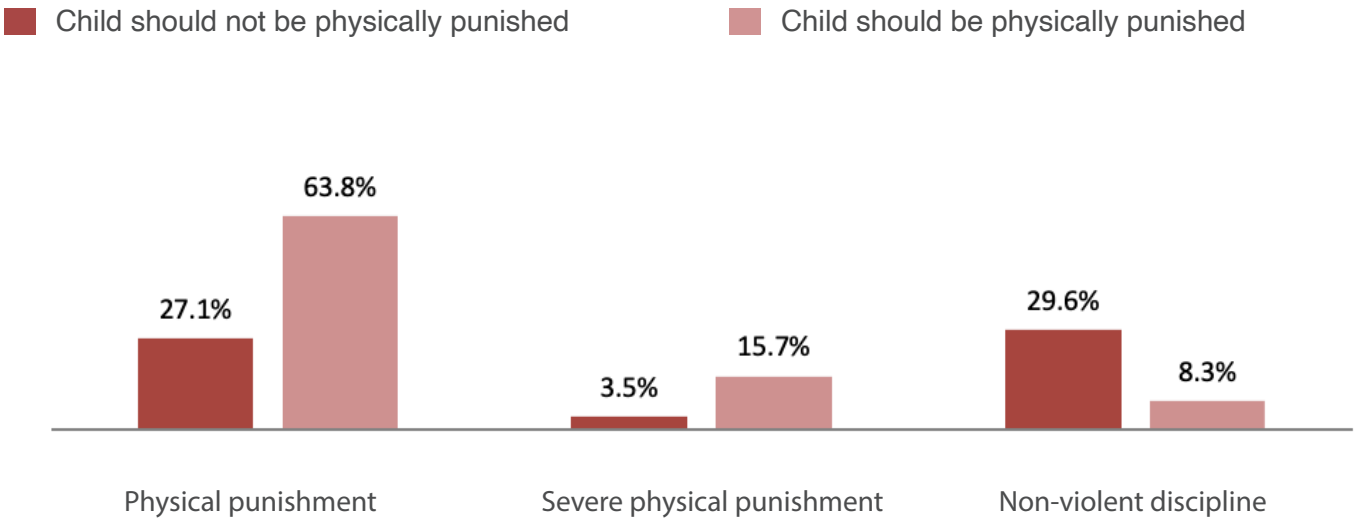
The majority of parents in Georgia doesn't accept or support the idea of physical punishment. Only 7 per cent of mothers/caregivers consider physical punishment as a necessary method. That is significantly lower than the percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who are subjected to this disciplinary method. Therefore, the data indicates that physical punishment is applied by some parents despite their negative attitude towards the practice.

At the same time, the results illustrate a strong correlation of the positive attitude towards physical punishment with the actual violent practice. Children are more likely to experience physical punishment by any member of the household if their mother/primary caregiver thinks that this form of discipline is necessary.

34 Socolar, Rebecca RS, and Ruth EK Stein. "Spanking infants and toddlers: Maternal belief and practice." Pediatrics 95.1 (1995): 105-111.
35 Jent, J. F., Eaton, C. K., Knickerbocker, L., Lambert, W. F., Merrick, M. T., & Dandes, S. K. (2011). Multidisciplinary child protection decision making about physical abuse: Determining substantiation thresholds and biases. Children and youth services review, 33(9), 1673-1682.
36 Cappa, C., & Khan, S. M. (2011). Understanding caregivers' attitudes towards physical punishment of children: Evidence from 34 low-and middle-income countries. Child Abuse & Neglect, 35(12), 1009-1021.

In households where the mother/primary caregiver does not believe in physical punishment, the share of children experiencing this form of punishment is 27 per cent, while in the group of households where parents justify the use of physical punishment, the rate is 64 per cent ($X2 (2, N = 5533) = 275.170, P < .001$).

Figure 5 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by caregiver's attitude towards physical punishment



The analysis of non-violent discipline shows the same picture from a different angle. Children are more likely to experience only non-violent discipline if their mother/primary caregiver does not support the idea of physical punishment ($X2 (2, N = 5533) = 97.019, P < .001$). These results follow the findings of previous cycles of the MICS in many other countries. [37]

The association between actual practice and attitudes remains significant after accounting for various background variables related to child and household, including: child sex, functional difficulties, household location, and household head characteristics. After controlling for all the mentioned background variables, the likelihood of becoming a subject of physical violence is 4 times higher in households where the caregiver considers physical punishment as a necessary form of discipline (See Annex 5-21).

However, despite the trend described above, there is a significant share of households where violent discipline is used despite the negative attitude of caregivers towards physical punishment.

The difference between attitudes and practices may be explained by several reasons. This may reflect the social norms effect, or the emotional state of caregivers at the time they administer discipline or fill in the questionnaire. [38] Parents/caregivers may apply physical punishment due to the absence of knowledge and experience in alternative, non-violent methods of disciplining children. Also, mothers/primary caregivers cannot be considered as entirely responsible for a child's discipline in a household - fathers, older siblings, and other relatives living in the same household may use physical punishment despite negative attitude of mothers/primary caregivers towards the practice. [39]

The following section of the report describes other factors that are associated with the use of violent discipline.

37 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.
38 Socolar, Rebecca RS, and Ruth EK Stein. "Spanking infants and toddlers: Maternal belief and practice." Pediatrics 95.1 (1995): 105-111.
39 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15

FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH VIOLENT DISCIPLINE

PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Urbanity

Previous international research is not conclusive regarding the association between urban-rural residence and the prevalence of violent discipline. While some studies have found that rural children experience more violent discipline than urban children, other studies have failed to find any significant difference. [40]

Simple analysis of Georgian data doesn't show significant differences between residence type and prevalence of violent discipline. However, further analysis reveals interesting nuances.

First, the imbalance in rates of violent discipline differs by types of violent discipline. Second, the rural-urban difference in rates of violent discipline is influenced by the pattern of Tbilisi – the largest city and capital of Georgia.

The figure below illustrates differences in prevalence of types of violent discipline by place of residence including the capital, other cities, and rural areas of Georgia.

Figure 6 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by place of residence

Analysis indicates there are no significant differences by place of residence in prevalence of psychological punishment. However, children from rural areas are at greater risk of experiencing physical punishment (34 per cent) compared to residents of Tbilisi (26 per cent) ($X2$ (2, $N = 6797$) = 40.449, $P < .001$).

When accounting for the regions (including Tbilisi), and other background variables reflecting wealth of the household (e.g. ethnicity and IDP status of the household head, and child characteristics), the magnitude and direction of the urbanity factor changes. Analysis illustrates that children living in cities are

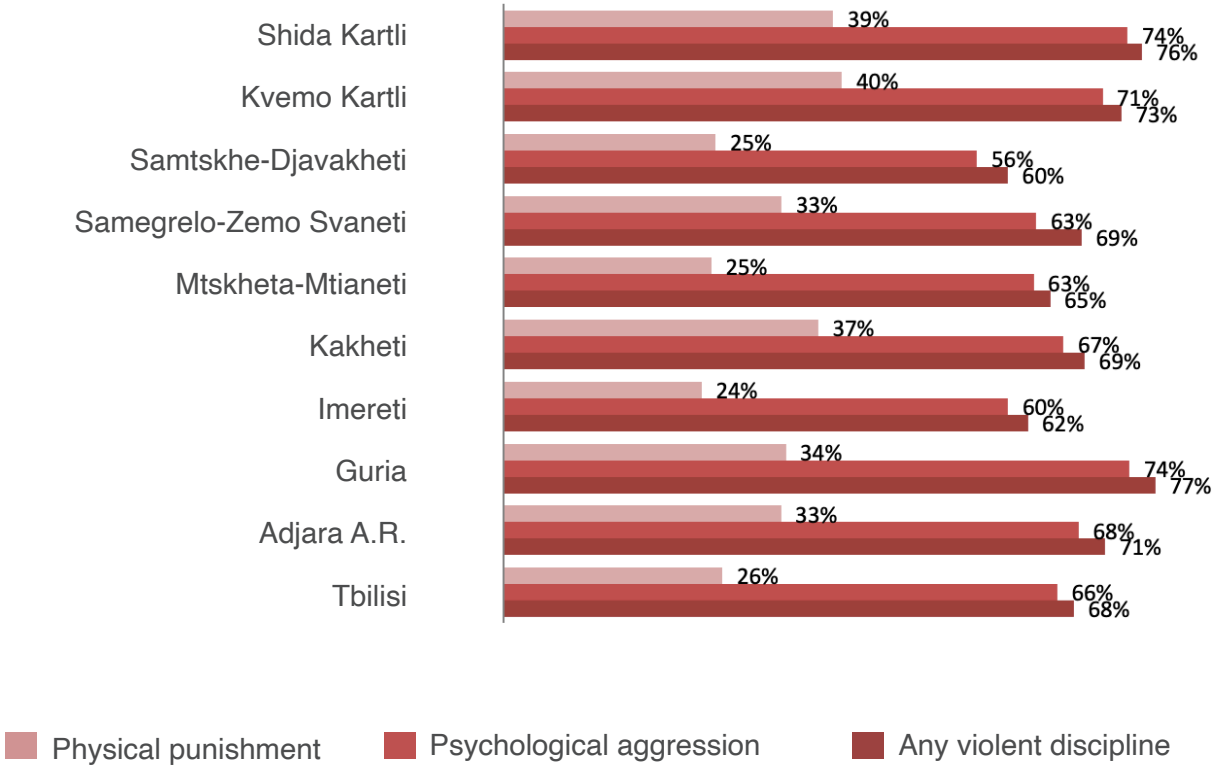
40 Ibid

slightly more likely to become victims of violent discipline than those living in rural residences (See Annex 5-20). Apparently, family wealth and other characteristics of the household explain part of the differences between rural and urban settlements regarding the prevalence of violent discipline. These effects are described in more depth in subsequent chapters of the report.

REGIONS

The MICS data in Georgia also shows significant differences in rates of violent discipline by regions. The highest rate of physical punishment was reported in Kvemo Kartli at 40 per cent, and the lowest in Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi and Qvemo Svaneti) at 24 per cent. The highest rate of psychological punishment was reported in Guria and Shida Kartli at 74 per cent, and the lowest in Samtskhe –Javakheti at 56 per cent.

Figure 7 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by region



Note: Imereti in the list denotes a cluster of regions (including Imereti, Racha-Lechkhumi and Qvemo Svaneti)

In order to better compare and understand the effect of regions on the likelihood of becoming a victim of violent discipline, we use Tbilisi as a reference group and control for other important variables such as urbanity, household, and child characteristics.

When urbanity is controlled, the rate of use of violent discipline methods is significantly higher than in Tbilisi than it is in these four regions: Kvemo, Shida Kartli, Adjara, and Guria (See Annex 5-13). Additionally, Kakheti and Samegrelo-zemo svaneti appear in the list when the data is specifically analysed for psychological and physical punishment as subtypes of violent discipline (See Annexes 5-16, 5-19).

The remaining regions – Imereti (together with Racha-Lechkhumi and Qvemo Svaneti), Samtskhe-Javakheti, and Mtskheta-Mtianeti – do not differ significantly from Tbilisi when considering overall rate of violent discipline or rate of specific types of violent discipline, such as physical or psychological punishment.

The highest rate of physical punishment is, again, found in Kvemo Kartli. When controlling for urbanity, the probability of being the victim of physical punishment is, on average, 2 times higher than in Tbilisi. The odds ratios are also close to 2 in Kakheti and Shida Kartli (See Annex 5-19).

The highest rates of psychological punishment are detected in Guria and Shida Kartli, where the probability of becoming the victim of psychological punishment is also almost two times higher than in the capital (See Annex 5-16).

Further analysis examines the effect of regions after accounting for additional characteristics of household, such as household wealth, ethnicity, and the IDP status of the household head. Adding these variables changes the magnitude of the effect of some regions, suggesting that part of the differences between the regions can be explained by household characteristics. For example, after controlling for ethnicity of the household head, the effect of Kvemo Kartli reduces for physical punishment, and becomes statistically insignificant for psychological punishment (See Annexes 5-20, 5-17). This finding indicates that the ethnicity of the household head explains most of the differences between Tbilisi and Kvemo Kartli region regarding rates of violent discipline.

CHILD CHARACTERISTICS

Age of the child

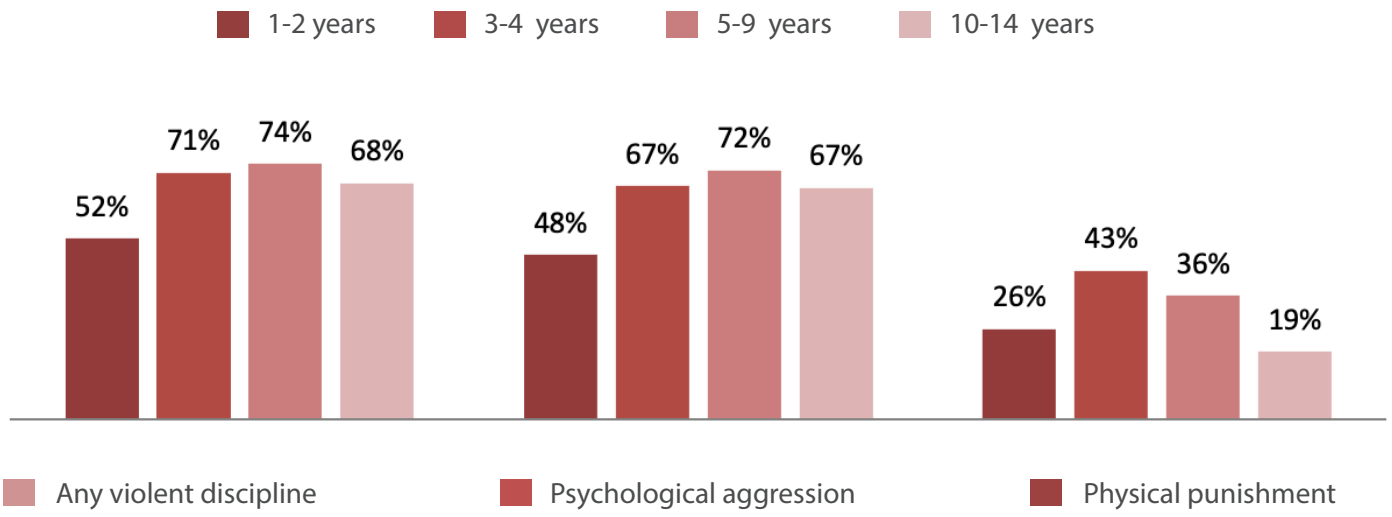
The age of child is considered an important predictor of violent discipline. Previous research has found that younger children are more likely to experience violent punishment than older children.[41] To examine the association between age and the prevalence of violent discipline, children were divided in the MICS into four age groups: between 1 and 2, between 3 and 4, between 5 and 9, and between 10 and 14 years of age.

The data analysis results in Georgia show a similarity with the general trend previously reported by large scale comparative analysis of the prevalence of violent discipline in different countries: the association between age and violent discipline is not linear. Rather, the prevalence of violent discipline initially increases with age – it peaks between 5 and 9 years of age – and then falls in the older age groups.

However, some differences are observed while comparing the rates of violent discipline across two subgroups: physical and psychological punishment. In particular, the peak for physical punishment is between 3 and 4 years of age, and the peak for psychological aggression is between 5 and 9 years of age.

41 UNICEF (2010). Child Disciplinary Practices at Home, 15; American Psychological Association. (2019). Resolution on physical discipline of children by parents.

Figure 8 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by age groups



Rates of physical punishment range from the lowest 19 per cent, between 10 and 14 years of age, to the highest 43 per cent, between 3 and 4 years of age. Rates of psychological punishment range from the lowest 48 per cent, between 1 and 2 years of age, to the highest 72 per cent, between 5 and 9 years of age.

When accounting for the place of residence and other characteristics of a child, such as sex and disability, the factor of age remains significantly associated with the likelihood of being a subject of violent discipline (See Annexes 5-13, 5-16, 5-19).

SEX OF THE CHILD

Analysis of the MICS data in Georgia confirms the findings from previous cycles of the MICS in different countries, indicating that boys experience greater rates of violent discipline than girls.[42] However, these differences are not big. In particular, results denote that 66 per cent of girls and 71 per cent of boys experienced violent discipline methods in the past month (X^2 (1, N = 6797) = 16.207, P < .001). The rates of psychological punishment are 64 per cent in the girls' subgroup and 68 per cent in the boys' subgroup (X^2 (1, N = 6797) = 13.694, P < .001). Boys are also more likely to become the subjects of physical violence (32 per cent compared to 29 per cent for girls) (X^2 (1, N = 6797) = 6.735, P < .01).

The table below illustrates differences by the sex of the child across different age groups. As percentages show significant differences by sex are only observed in specific age groups. The rates of psychological punishment are statistically different by sex only in children older than 5 years. Boys are more likely to become subjects of physical punishment only between 1 and 2 years of age.

42 Ibid. 37

Table 2 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced different forms of violent discipline in the past month by sex and age of child

Age group	Sex of child	Any violent discipline	Psychological aggression	Physical punishment
1 - 2 years of age	Female	51%	48%	21%
	Male	54%	47%	31%
3 - 4 years of age	Female	71%	67%	41%
	Male	72%	68%	45%
5 - 9 years of age	Female	71%	69%	34%
	Male	77%	75%	37%
10 - 14 years of age	Female	65%	63%	19%
	Male	71%	70%	20%

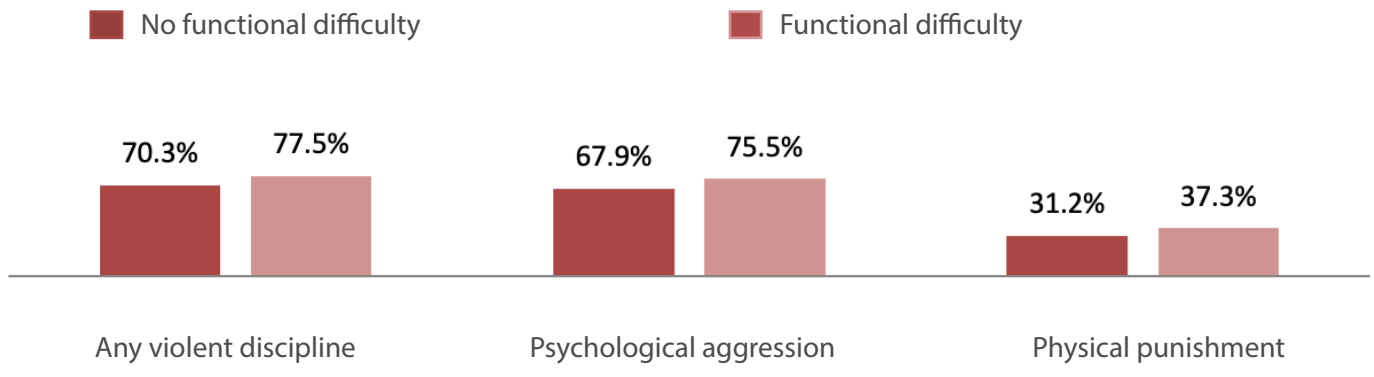
Note: Statistically significant differences between boys and girls are marked in a darker tone.

Overall, the data indicate that the sex of a child is an important predictor of violent discipline in specific age groups. The difference in the rate of physical and psychological punishment between boys and girls remains small, but significant, after accounting for other specific characteristics of a child and his/her family (See Annexes 5-17, 5-20).

FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTIES OF THE CHILD

The study also examined the relationship of a child's functional difficulties with the probability of being subject to violent discipline, and revealed that children with different types of disabilities are at a greater risk of experiencing violent discipline practices (X2 (1, N = 6342,) = 7.824, 11.951, P < .01). This finding is also consistent with previous research, which identifies children with disabilities as a particular risk. [43]

Figure 9 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by functional difficulty



43 Hendricks, C., & Lansford, J. E., Deater-Deckard, K., & Bornstein, M. H. (2014). Associations between child disabilities and caregiver discipline and violence in low- and middle-income countries. Child Development, 85, 513-531; American Psychological Association. (2019). Resolution on physical discipline of children by parents.

Accounting for the age and sex of a child makes these differences even more distinct. After controlling for other characteristics of a child, those with functional difficulties are 1.5 times more likely to become subjects of physical violence and 1.4 times more likely to experience psychological violence (See Annexes 5-16, 5-19) than children without functional difficulties.

In a specific subgroup of victims who experience severe physical punishment, while accounting for the same background variables, the odds are 3 times higher compared to the reference group of children with no functional difficulties.

HOUSEHOLD

Household Wealth

Household wealth is a complex, multidimensional variable which encompasses both tangible and intangible assets of the family. According to some researchers, there is a direct relationship between objective measures of economic status (for example, family income) and child abuse. However, the effects of family wealth are much more complex and influence the patterns of parenting in many subtle and intangible ways.[44] For example, studies illustrate that economic hardship and poverty lead to family economic pressure, which can induce emotional distress in parents, and may lead to relational instability, and in turn, may lead to disrupted parenting as well as child and adolescent maladjustment Family economic hardship may also induce more conflicts, more hostility, and violence in parent–child interactions, or less involved parenting than in better-off families while, at the same time, indirectly affecting parental handling of children's emotional and social wellbeing through less available attention for children, less support for children's problems, or less help with school work. [45]

Another important factor in the relationship between economic hardship and the risk for child abuse is the exposure to stress. Prolonged economic pressure produces a strain on the family's ability to function, which reduces family members' psychological resources to cope with everyday stressful events, which, in turn, contributes to harsh and inconsistent parenting practices. [46]

The theoretical discussion on the effects of poverty and wealth on child discipline practices described above can be translated into simple examples described in the UNCIEF report on Child Disciplinary Practices at Home (2010):

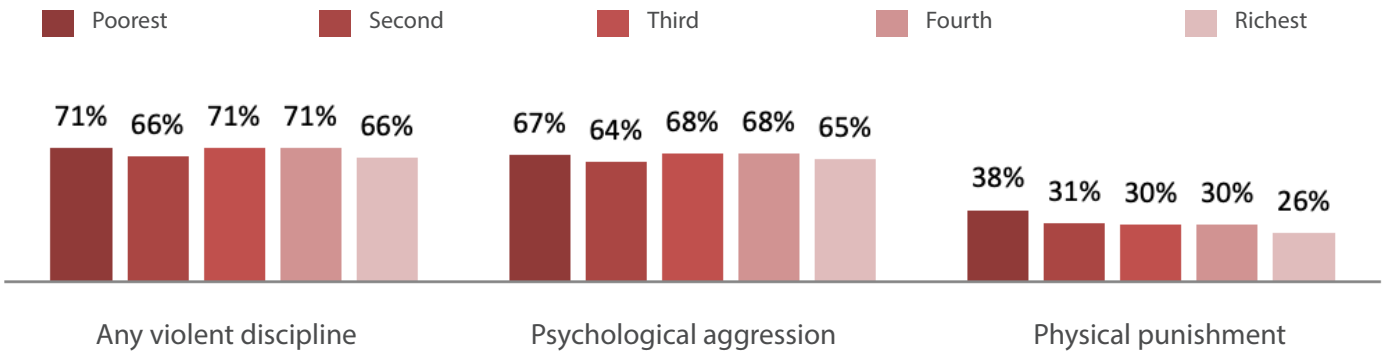
> "Wealth may allow parents to provide children with additional stimulation inside and outside of the home, by supplying more toys or paying for assistance with child care; this may reduce child misbehaviour and make parenting easier. Wealthy parents may also be more knowledgeable about alternative parenting methods because of their greater access to books and health care resources. Poverty, on the contrary, can contribute to pervasive stress in the environment and the home, which tends to increase the use of violent discipline. Thus, there is reason to believe that wealthier households may resort to violent disciplinary practices less often". [47]

44 Merritt, D. H. (2009). Child abuse potential: correlates with child maltreatment rates and structural measures of neighborhoods. Children and Youth Services Review, 31(8), 927–934; Murphey, D.A. & Braner, M. (2000). Linking child maltreatment retrospectively to birth and home visit records: an initial examination. Child Welfare,79(6),711–728.
45 Evans, G. W., & Kim, P. (2013). Childhood poverty, chronic stress, self-regulation, and coping. Child development perspectives, 7(1), 43-48; Conger, R. D., Conger, K. J., & Martin, M. J. (2010). Socioeconomic status, family processes, and individual development. Marriage and Family, 72(3), 685-704
46 Wadsworth, M. E., Raviv, T., Compas, B. E., & Connor-Smith, J. K. (2005). Parent and adolescent responses to povertyrelated stress: Tests of mediated and moderated coping models. Journal of child and Family Studies, 14(2), 283-298.
47 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15

The MICS assesses relative rather than absolute wealth of the household. Based on household assets, respondents are grouped together in five groups: the poorest 20 per cent, second, third, fourth and then the richest 20 per cent. Although the relative economic position of a household can be compared, this doesn't reflect the absolute wealth of the household.

The results don't show the consistent association of household wealth with violent discipline in Georgia. However, further analysis by types of violent discipline do show some differences. Although no association has been found between family wealth and psychological violence, this factor shows a moderately strong negative relationship with another type of violent discipline - physical punishment. In particular, more wealthy households are less likely to apply methods of physical punishment to their children than poorer households ($X2 (4, N = 6798) = 45.327, P < .001$.

Figure 10 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by household wealth



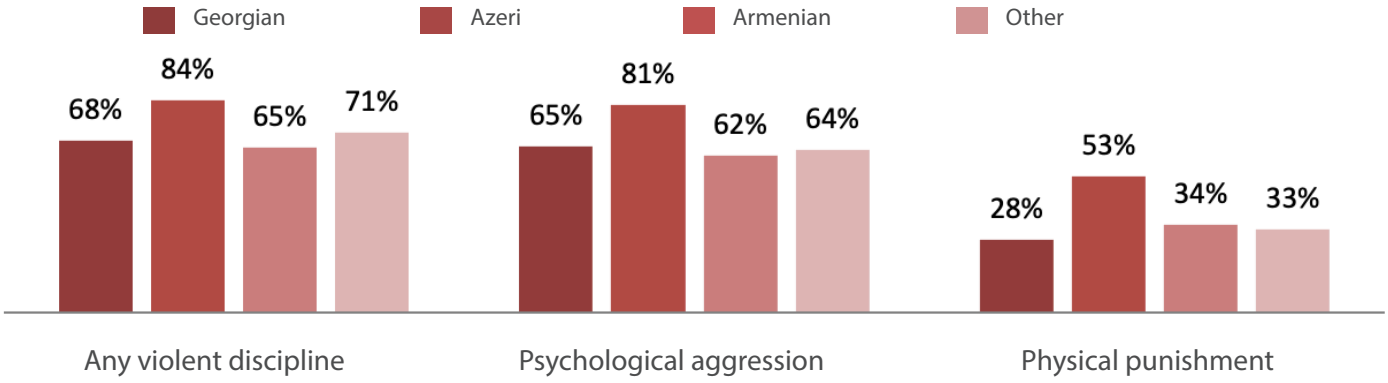
The effect disappears when other background variables, such as location and child characteristics, are controlled, suggesting that the effect of household wealth is already reflected by differences in violent discipline rates between regions or between rural and urban households (See Annexes 5-20, 5-21).

ETHNICITY OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD

The simplest analysis of the association of ethnicity of household head to violent discipline explicitly illustrates that the rates of all types of violent discipline are higher in the households where the heads belong to Azeri ethnic group.

These differences are larger in the subgroup of physical violence. Children from the households where the head is Azeri are at a greater risk of experiencing physical punishment (53 per cent) compared to those where the household head is Georgian (28 per cent) ($X2 (3, N = 6798) = 139.084, P < 0.001$).

Figure 11 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by ethnicity of the household head

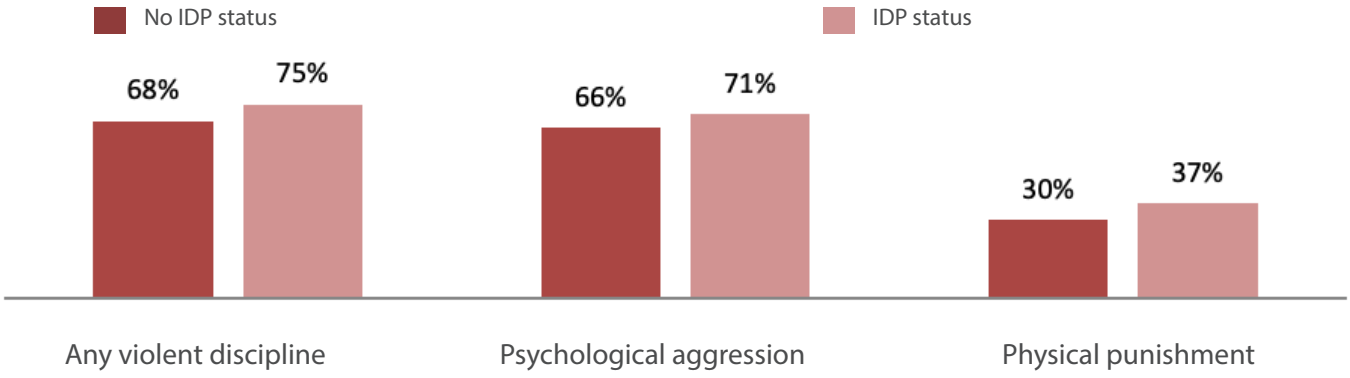


The effect remains significant, and becomes even stronger after accounting for other background variables such as location, household, and child characteristics. The analysis shows that the odds for psychological aggression are 2.6 times higher compared to the reference group of Georgian ethnicity (See Annex 5-17) and 2.9 times higher for physical punishment (See Annex 5-20), and on average three times higher for all types of violent discipline.

IDP STATUS OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD

Another factor that is associated with prevalence of violent discipline in Georgia is the IDP status of the household head. The analysis shows that children from families where the household head has IDP status are at greater risk of experiencing violent discipline (75 per cent) compared to those where the household head is not an IDP (68 per cent) ($X2$ (1, N = 6797) = 6.327, $P < .01$). A similar trend is observed when analysing data separately for physical and psychological punishment.

Figure 12 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by IDP status of the household head



The effect remains significant after accounting for other background variables such as location, household, and child characteristics (See Annex 5-20).

BOTH PARENTS PRESENT IN THE HOUSEHOLD

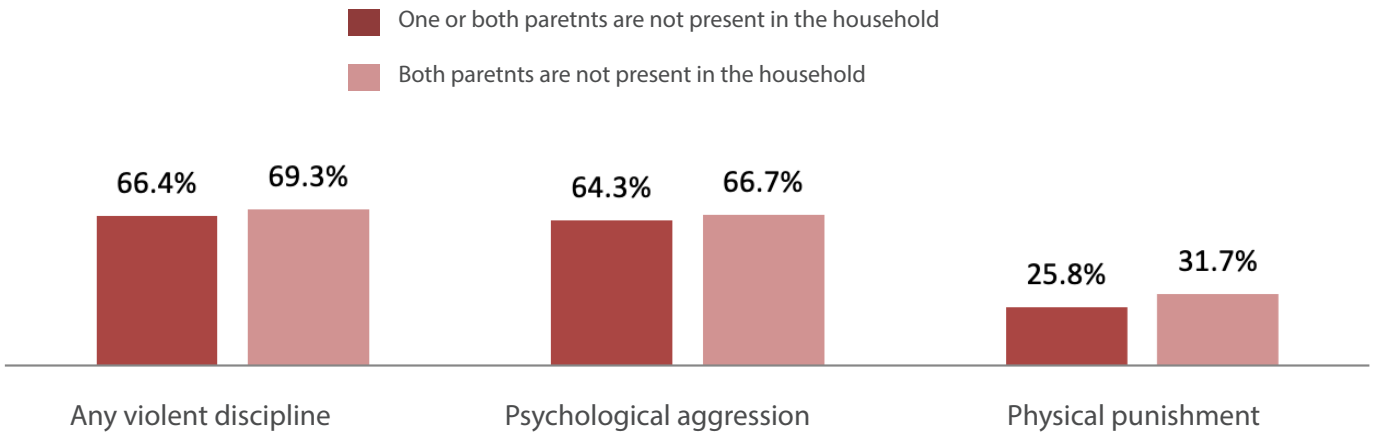
Previous research suggests that children in single-parent households are more likely to experience violent discipline than children living with both parents. [48]

The data in Georgia reveals a small, but statistically significant, inverse effect. In particular, in households where both parents are present, children are more likely to become the subjects of violent discipline (69 per cent). Comparatively, in households where either or both parents are not present, the likelihood of children experiencing violent discipline is slightly reduced (66 per cent) $X2\ (1, N = 6796) = 4.108, P < .05$.

The effect remains significant after accounting for the background variables such as location, and other characteristics of the household and child.

However, deeper analysis reveals that the effect disappears when household density (number of persons per bedroom) is added to the model. This suggests that the households where both parents are present are more crowded. Thus, it is in fact the density of household rather than presence of both parents that explains the higher likelihood of the use of violent discipline (See Annex 5-14). The effect of this variable is discussed in more detail in the subsequent sections of the report.

Figure 13 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by presence of both parents in the household



The MICS women's questionnaire asked women, between 15 and 49 years of age, if they were currently, or ever, married or in a union. Results in Georgia fail to reveal significant association between the marital status of the caregiver and the rate of violent discipline. Additionally, there are not significant differences when separately analysing the subgroups for physical and psychological punishment.

HOUSEHOLD SIZE AND DENSITY

Previous research has identified household size and overcrowding as risk factors for violent discipline against children. [49] As explained above, household living conditions can induce emotional distress in parents and may lead to relational instability, which, in turn, may lead to disrupted parenting. For the purposes of analysis, two specific variables have been computed based on the MICS data in Georgia.

48 American Psychological Association. (2019). Resolution on physical discipline of children by parents.
49 Socolar, Rebecca RS, and Ruth EK Stein. "Spanking infants and toddlers: Maternal belief and practice." Pediatrics 95.1 (1995): 105-111; Cappa, C., & Khan, S. M. (2011). Understanding caregivers' attitudes towards physical punishment of children: Evidence from 34 low-and middle-income countries. Child Abuse & Neglect, 35(12), 1009-1021.

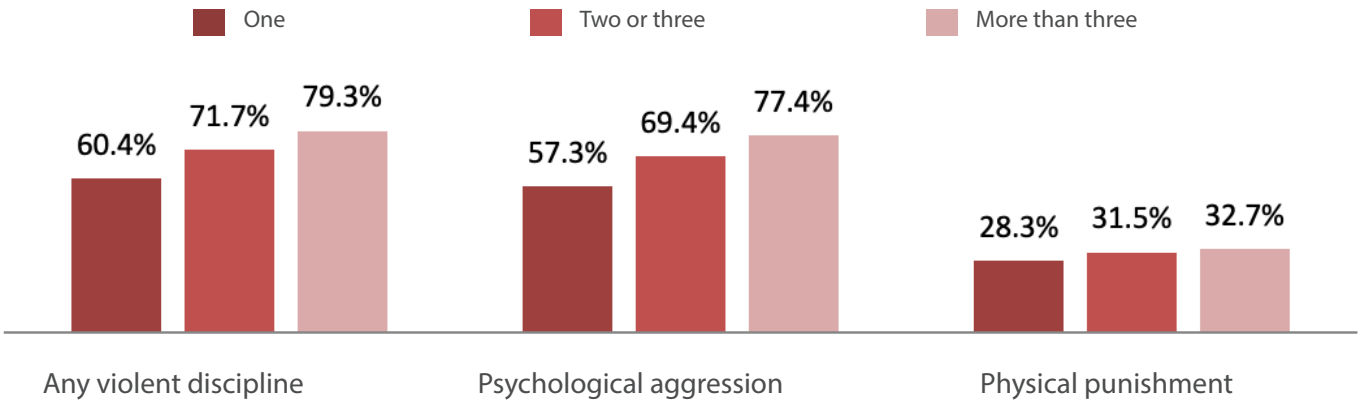
Number of children

The first variable reflected number of children in the household; the sample of households in Georgia was divided into the following three categories based on the number of their members: one child, two or three children, more than three children.

The analysis in Georgia shows that violent discipline is more common in households with a greater number of children. The rate of violent discipline in households with one child is 60 per cent, compared to 80 per cent in the households with more than 3 children (X2 (2, N = 6798) = 106.377, P < .001).

Similar statistically significant associations have been found for physical punishment X2 (2, N = 6798) = 7.512, P < .05 and psychological aggression (X2 (2, N = 6798) = 116.187, P < .001). However, in the case of physical punishment, the magnitude of the effect is somewhat smaller.

Figure 14 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by number of children in the household



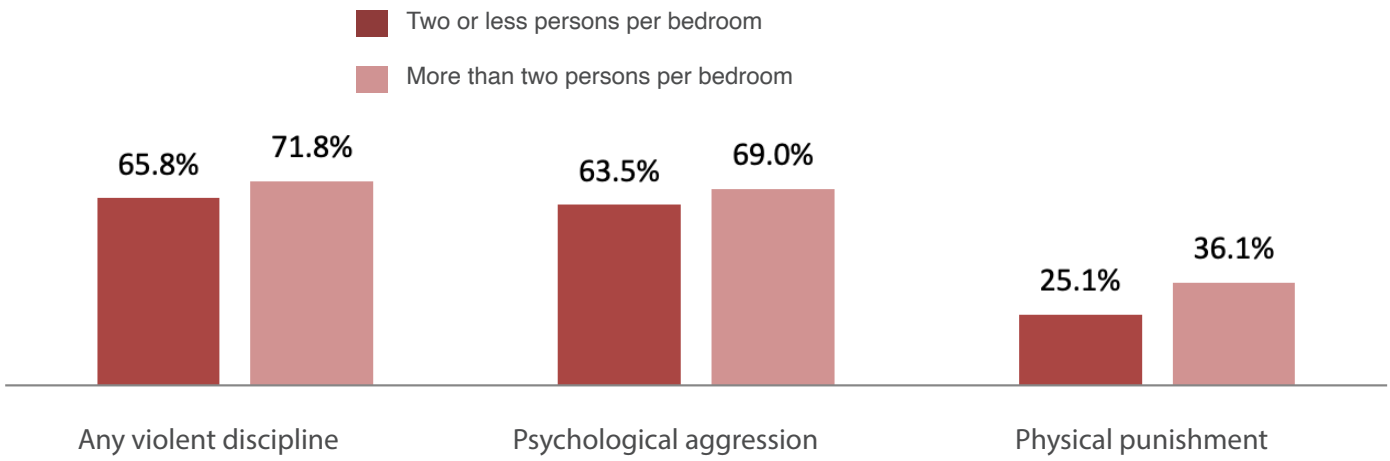
After accounting for other household characteristics and child-related variables such as age, sex, and functional difficulties, the effect of the number of children remains statistically significant for any type of violent discipline including psychological and physical punishment (See Annex 5-17, 5-20).

Household density (Persons per bedroom)

Household density is another strong factor associated with the use of violent discipline in Georgia. It was calculated as a ratio of the total number of household members and bedrooms available for the household. Households have been grouped in two categories: up to two persons per bedroom, more than two persons per bedroom.

Analysis illustrates that violent discipline is more common in crowded households (X2 (1, N = 6797) = 28.568, P < .001). Differences are largest in the physical punishment subgroup. The rate of physical punishment is 25 per cent in the households with no more than two persons per bedroom, while the same indicator is 36 per cent in the households where number of persons per bedroom is higher than two (X2 (1, N = 6979) = 96.965, P < .001).

Figure 15 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by density of the household



Further analysis shows that after accounting for child and household characteristics, the effect of household density remains significant. Moreover, it explains the effect of some other variables in the model (See Annexes 5-17, 5-20).

CAREGIVERS

EDUCATION OF CAREGIVER

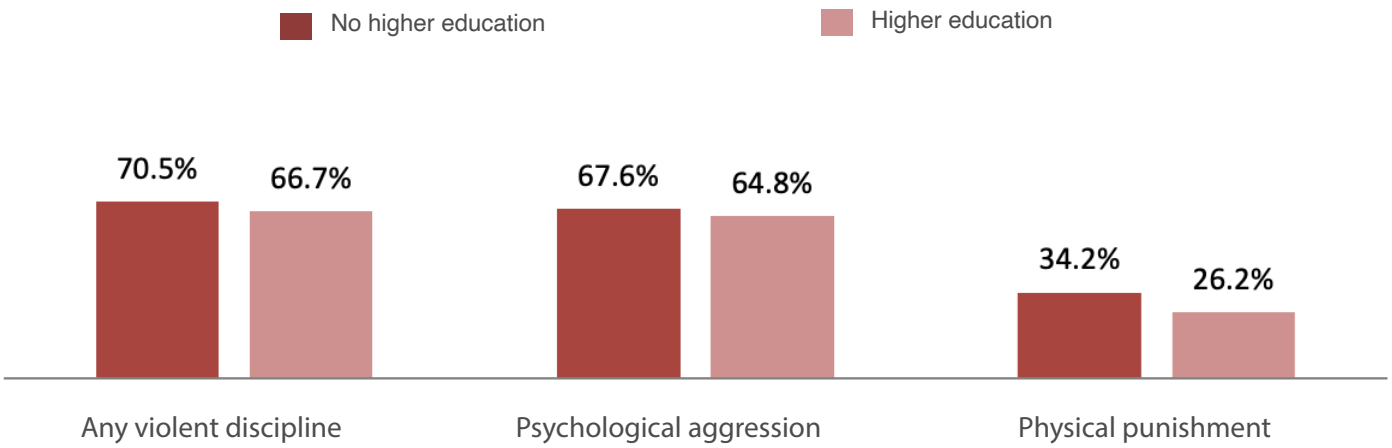
Research consistently shows a negative relationship between a caregiver's education status and the scale of violent discipline. In particular, previous cycles of the MICS illustrated a general trend that the higher the level of education of the caregivers, the lower the chances of the use of violent discipline methods. [50]

Analysis in Georgia reveals the same trend.

For the purpose of the analysis, five categories of education initially available in the MICS were merged in two larger groups – caregivers with higher education and those without. As can be seen from the analysis, the caregivers with higher education were less likely to apply violent methods of discipline than those without. The differences were larger in the subgroup of physical punishment ($X2$ (1, $N = 6796$) = 50.717, $P < .001$).

Figure 16 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by education of the caregiver

50 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15



The effect remains significant after accounting for child and household location variables. However, the effect disappears when ethnicity and other characteristics of the household head are included. Apparently, the effect of the caregiver's higher education can be explained by the aforementioned variables (See Annexes 5-18, 5-21).

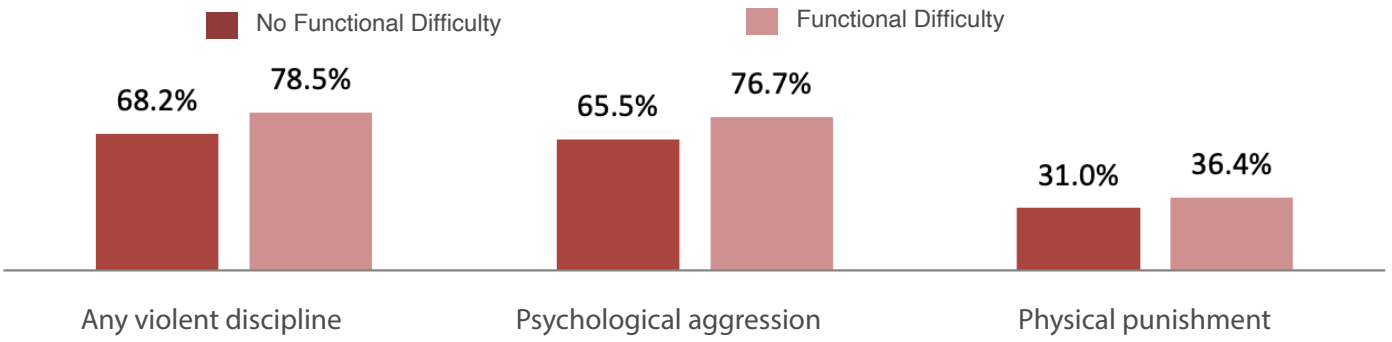
FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTIES OF THE CAREGIVER

The Adult Functioning module is based on the "short set" of questions developed by the Washington Group on Disability Statistics (WG), a UN City Group established under the United Nations Statistical Commission. These questions reflect six domains for measuring disability: seeing, hearing, walking, cognition, self-care, and communication.

The MICS standard questionnaires included these questions in the individual questionnaires. For women and men, between 18 and 49 years of age, data sets were obtained directly from the respondents themselves.

The analysis in Georgia illustrates that the caregiver's functional difficulties pose a risk factor for violent child discipline. A statistically significant association between the caregiver's functional difficulty status and violent discipline is found for both physical punishment ($X2 (1, N = 6419) = 8.122, P < .01$) and psychological aggression ($X2 (1, N = 6420) = 33.260, P < .001$).

Figure 17 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by caregiver's functional difficulties



Accounting for other background variables, such as child and household characteristics, doesn't reduce the effect of the caregiver's functional difficulties. Results illustrate that the likelihood of becoming a subject of violent discipline is, on average, two times higher for children whose parents have functional difficulties (See Annex 5-15).

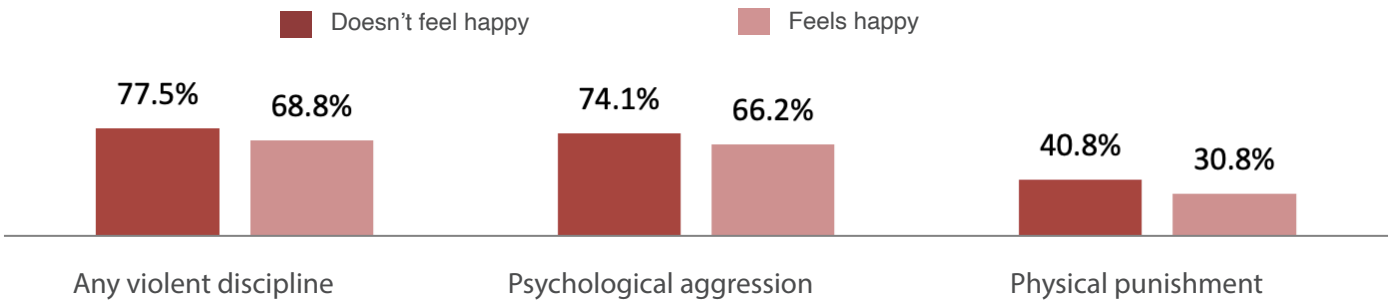
The magnitude of the effect of the factor is somewhat smaller for physical punishment compared to psychological punishment. However, it remains significant for both forms of violent discipline (See Annexes 5-18, 5-21).

SUBJECTIVE WELL- BEING OF THE CAREGIVER

Subjective perceptions of individuals' incomes, health, living environments, and the like play a significant role in their lives and can impact their perception of well-being irrespective of objective conditions such as actual income and physical health status. [51]

The 2018 Georgia MICS included a question about caregivers' perception of their own happiness. To assist respondents in answering the question on happiness, they were shown a card with a range of facial expressions (from a smiling to frowning face) that corresponded to the response categories 'very happy', 'somewhat happy', 'neither happy nor unhappy', 'somewhat unhappy' and 'very unhappy'. For the purposes of this analysis, 'somewhat unhappy' and 'very unhappy' were combined into a single category, as were the rest of the response categories. The differences between the two groups in the rates of violent discipline are significant for both physical punishment $X2\ (1, N = 6372) = 23.432$, $P < .001$), and psychological aggression $X2\ (1, N = 6372) = 14.217$, $P < .001$).

Figure 18 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by caregiver's subjective well-being (feeling happy)



Results show that caregivers who consider themselves to be happy are less likely to apply methods of violent discipline. The effect remains significant after accounting for all other background variables (See Annexes 5-18, 5-21).

51 UNICEF (2010). „Child Disciplinary Practices at Home", 15.

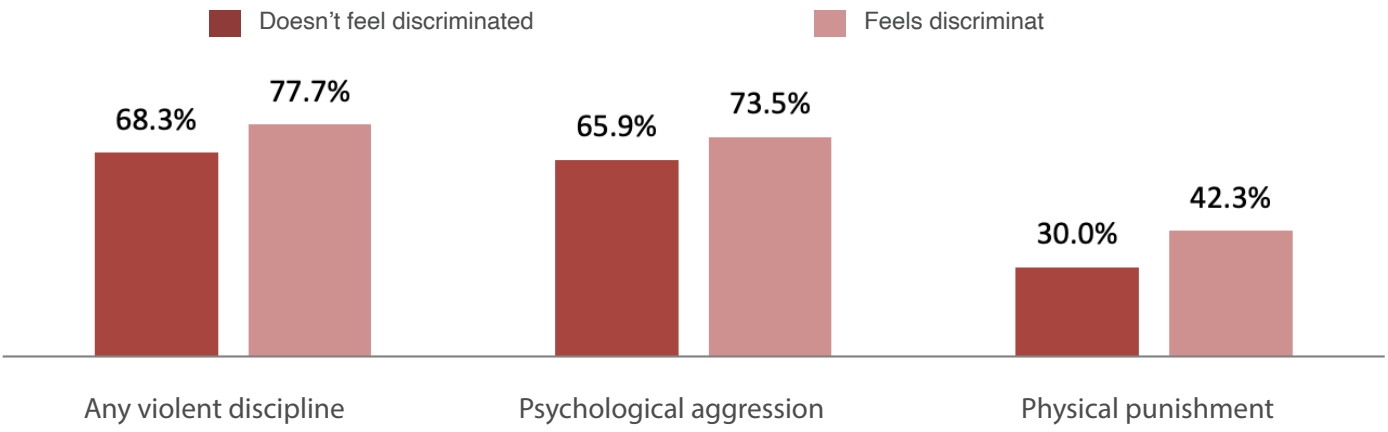
CAREGIVER SUBJECT TO DISCRIMINATION AND HARASSMENT

The MICS questions were designed to measure the discrimination and harassment the caregivers experienced in the 12 months before the survey. The questions included potential sources of discrimination and harassment, which can increase the respondents' recall of events, including: ethnic or immigration origin, sex, sexual orientation, age, religion or belief, and disability. In order to ensure sufficient cases for the analysis, the subgroups of respondents who reported discrimination on any grounds listed above were

merged together and compared to those who did not report experiencing any types of discrimination in the 12 months before the survey.

Results show that children are more likely to experience violent discipline practices if their caregivers consider themselves subjects of discrimination and harassment $X2 (1, N = 6796) = 13.715, P < .001$)

Figure 19 Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by caregiver's perception of discrimination (feeling discriminated against)



Further analysis illustrates the persistence of the effect even after controlling for background variables such as location and characteristics of the household as well as other variables related to the child and caregiver (See Annexes 5-18, 5-21). The effect is larger in the case of physical punishment. In particular, the children with parents who consider themselves discriminated against are 1.6 times more likely to experience physical punishment.

VIOLENT DISCIPLINE AND PARENTING PRACTICES

As child discipline practice is a part of a wider context of home environment and patterns of interaction with caregivers, there are many other important aspects of the child-caregiver relationship that influence a child's social, emotional, and cognitive development, together with discipline.[52] In this context, various aspects of responsive parenting (such as prompt, contingent, and appropriate interactions between mother and chi¬ld) and parents' support and care are important determinants of child healthy development, especially at an early age. [53] Research illustrates that experience with responsive parenting can buffer the negative effects of some parental practices and is especially effective with families from high-risk social backgrounds. [54]

The MICS questionnaire included several questions on the engagement of adults in activities with children including the presence of books and play things in the home for the child, if the caretaker helps the child with homework, and other conditions of care.

A specific focus of the analysis in this section was to see if there is an association between the patterns of disciplinary practices and responsive care. In other words, to see if children exposed to violent discipline are also more likely to be deprived of different forms of positive parenting.

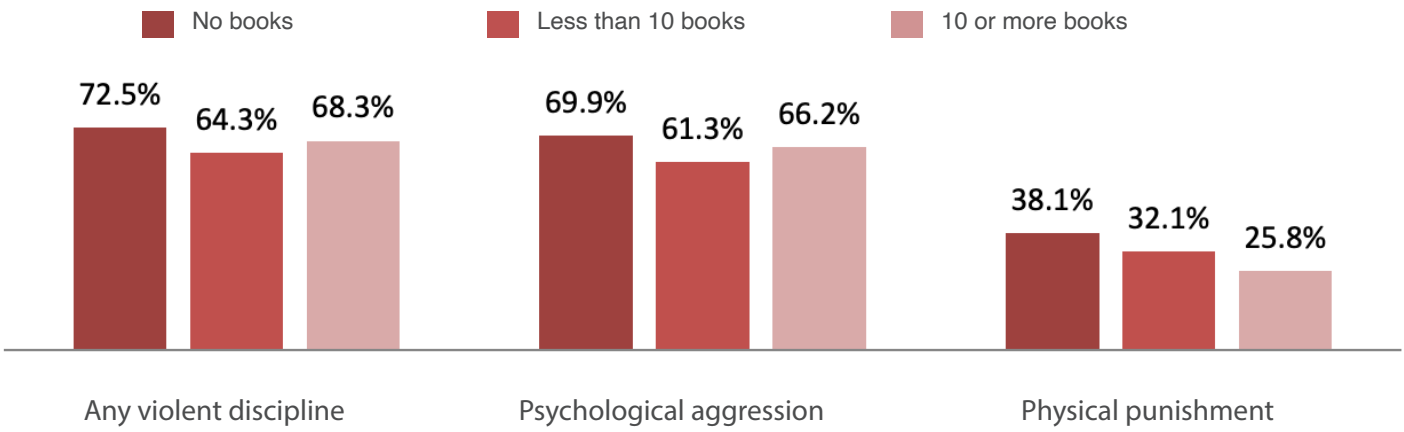
BOOKS AT HOME

The MICS survey included two questions that assessed the number of books in the home. Respondents estimated how many children's and non-children's books (including books for adults and non-picture books for children) were in the home. The analysis considers the total number of books of any kind available in the home. Households are then divided into the following three categories: no books, 1 to 9 books, and 10 or more books.

The findings in Georgia show an association between book ownership and the reduced use of violent discipline. Unlike international evidence which illustrates mixed results, a strong association was found in Georgia with both of the forms of violent discipline – psychological and physical punishment. Households with more books are less likely to employ violent forms of punishment with children. $X2 (2, N = 5741) = 20.051, P < .001$). Differences are larger for physical punishment, and amount to 12 per cent between the subgroup of households with no books and those with more than 10 books in the household. $X2 (2, N = 5742) = 62.852, P < .001$).

Figure 20 Percentage of children, between 2 and 4 years of age, by types of discipline experienced in the past month and by number of books at home

52 Eshel, N., Daelmans, B., Mello, M. C. D., & Martines, J. (2006). Responsive parenting: interventions and outcomes. Bulletin of the World Health Organization, 84, 991-998.
53 Landry, S. H. (2008). The role of parents in early childhood learning. Encyclopedia on early childhood development, 1-6.
54 Taylor, C. (2004). Underpinning knowledge for child care practice: reconsidering child development theory. Child & Family Social Work, 9(3), 225-235.



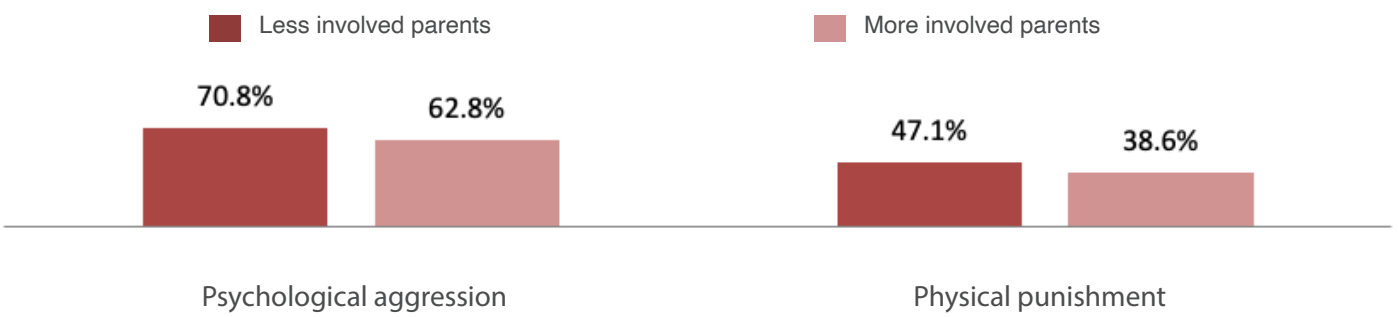
Further analysis shows that, after accounting for child characteristics and household location, the effect of book ownership remains significant. However, it disappears when household characteristics, such as density and ethnicity of the household head, are added to the model. This finding suggests that part of the differences between the households with more or less books and the prevalence of violent discipline can be explained by other household characteristics (See Annexes 5-15, 5-18, 5-21).

EARLY STIMULATION AND POSITIVE PARENTING

The MICS survey collected information on a number of activities that provide children with early stimulation and responsive care. These included the involvement of adults in the household with children in the following activities: reading books or looking at picture books, telling stories, singing songs, taking children outside the home, compound, or yard, playing with children, and spending time with children naming, counting, or drawing things. Caregivers were asked if they were engaged in the listed activities during the last three days. Those engaged in four or more activities were grouped in a category of more involved parents, and then compared to the rest.

A comparison of the prevalence of violent discipline in the two categories illustrates statistically significant differences. The use of psychological and physical punishment is lower in households with more actively involved parents with stimulating environments $X2 (1, N = 1606, 1605) = 7.956, 8.301, P < .05, P < .01$).

Figure 21 Percentage of subjects of violent discipline (children between 2 and 4 years of age) by types of discipline and parent involvement



SUPERVISION OF CHILDREN

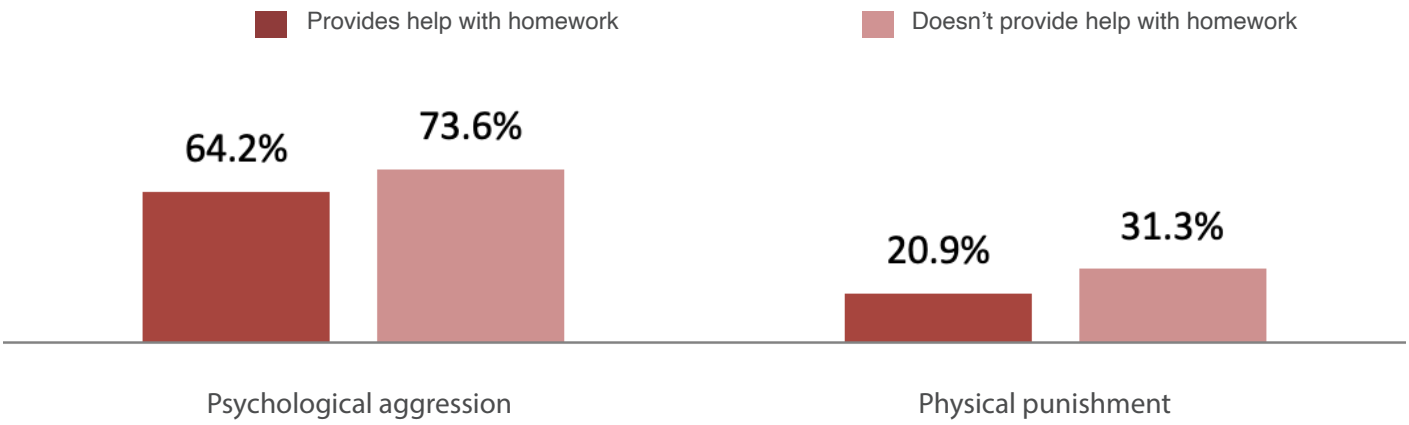
In the MICS, two questions were asked to find out whether children, between 0 and 59 months old, were left alone during the week preceding the interview, and whether children were left in the care of other children under 10 years of age.

Although the Georgian sample doesn't provide sufficient data for valid conclusions, the initial analysis illustrates the trend that there might be an association between inadequate supervision and physical and psychological punishment rates.

HELP WITH HOMEWORK

One of the interesting findings of the report is the positive association between the involvement of parents in helping their children with homework and the likelihood of the use of violent discipline. In other words, children who get more help with homework are more likely to experience psychological aggression (X2 (1, N = 3643) = 37.057, P < .001) and physical punishment (X2 (1, N = 3642) = 48.045, P < .001).

Figure 22 Percentage of victims of violent discipline by parent help in homework (parent helped child with homework within the last 12 months)



This finding contains an important message: while driven by best motives, parents may make big mistakes in child rearing. A recent qualitative study on the interpretation of PIRLS[55] results by teachers and children in Georgia clearly showed that more informational and educational programmes are needed for parents to help them better understand their role in helping children to learn and to apply more effective strategies and methods for parenting in this respect. [56]

55 The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) is an international comparative assessment that measures student learning in reading. Since 2001, PIRLS has been administered every 5 years. PIRLS documents worldwide trends in the reading knowledge of 4th-graders as well as school and teacher practices related to instruction. Georgia participates in PIRLS since 2006.
56 NAEC (2019). Interpretation of PIRLS results in Georgia – the view of students and teachers.

VIOLENT DISCIPLINE AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT

The MICS survey included a separate module to measure early childhood development patterns. Early childhood development is a multidimensional concept and involves an ordered progression of motor, cognitive, language, socio-emotional, and regulatory skills and capacities across the first few years of life.[57] Physical growth, literacy, and numeracy skills, socio-emotional development, and readiness to learn are important aspects of a child's overall development, which build the foundation for later life and set the trajectory for health, learning, and well-being. [58]

A 10-item module was used to calculate the Early Child Development Index (ECDI). The primary purpose of the ECDI is to inform public policy decisions regarding the developmental status of children in Georgia. The index is based on selected milestones that children are expected to achieve between 3 and 4 years of age. The 10 items are used to determine if children are developmentally on track in four domains:

- Literacy-numeracy: Children are identified as being developmentally on track based on whether they can identify/name at least 10 letters of the alphabet, whether they can read at least four simple, popular words, and whether they know the name and recognize the symbols of all numbers from 1 to 10. If at least two of these are true, then the child is considered developmentally on track.

- Physical: If the child can pick up a small object with two fingers, like a stick or a rock from the ground and/or the mother/caretaker does not indicate that the child is sometimes too sick to play, then the child is regarded as being developmentally on track in the physical domain.

- Social-emotional: Children are considered to be developmentally on track if two of the following are true: If the child gets along well with other children, if the child does not kick, bite, or hit other children, and if the child does not get distracted easily.

- Learning: If the child follows simple directions on how to do something correctly and/or when given something to do, is able to do it independently, then the child is considered to be developmentally on track in this domain.

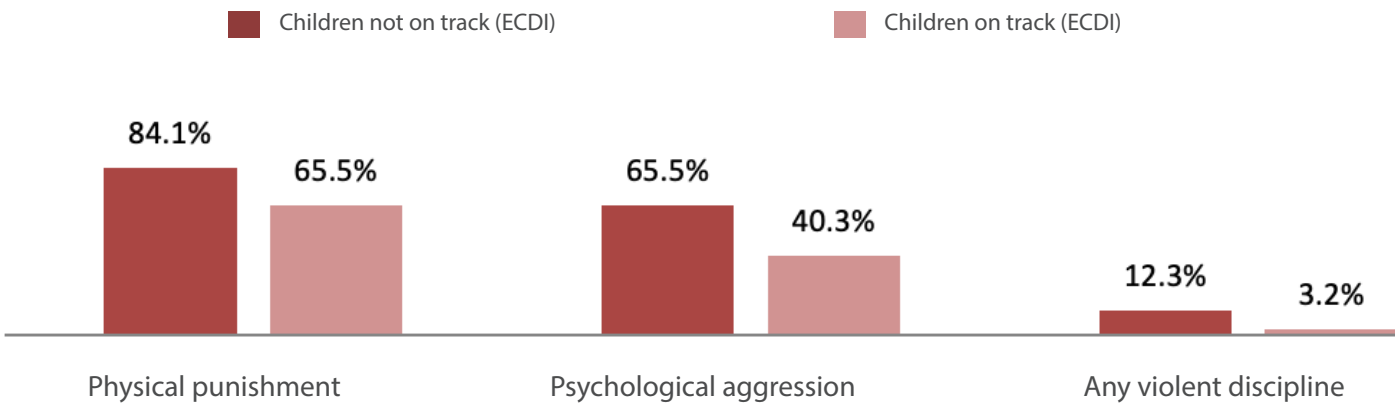
The ECDI is then calculated as the percentage of children who are developmentally on track in at least three of these four domains.[59]

In order to analyse the relationship between violent discipline practice and early childhood development, the rates of violent discipline were compared in subgroups of children considered as being or not being on track according to the ECDI.

57 UNICEF et al. Advancing Early Childhood Development: From Science to Scale. Executive Summary. The Lancet, 2016. https://www.thelancet.com/pb-assets/Lancet/stories/series/ecd/Lancet_ECD_Executive_Summary.pdf.
58 Shonkoff, J. and D. Phillips. From Neurons to Neighborhoods: The Science of Early Childhood Development. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 2000; United Nations Children's Fund, Early Moments Matter, New York: UNICEF, 2017.
59 National Statistics Office of Georgia. (2019). Georgia Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2018, 15.

Analysis illustrates significantly higher rates of violent discipline in the subgroup of children who are not considered being currently on track in the ECDI. The difference between the two groups is 19 per cent for psychological punishment (X2 (1, N = 1095) =1 5.942, P <.001) and 25 per cent for physical punishment. The effect remains significant after controlling for all other background variables such as child and household characteristics (X2 (1, 1095) =26.186, P <.001).

Figure 23 Percentage of victims of violent discipline (children between 2 and 4 years of age) by types of discipline and the ECDI



DEVELOPMENT IN OLDER CHILDREN

As discussed earlier in this report, child discipline practices and other aspects of parenting have long-term consequences on child development.[60]

This particular section focuses on correlations between the use of violent discipline methods and developing patterns in specific functional domains of children, between 5 and 17 years of age, such as: learning, concentrating, accepting change, controlling behaviour, making friends, anxiety, and depression. Although the MICS survey does not provide sufficient data for sound conclusions, the analysis of the associations between the aforementioned variables with violent discipline clearly illustrates important trends.

Children with difficulties in the listed domains are also more likely to experience violent discipline.

- Those with learning difficulties are more likely to be the victims of physical and psychological punishment.
- Also, children with anxiety problems include larger shares of victims of physical and psychological punishment.
- Physical punishment and psychological aggression rates are higher in children with difficulties in controlling behaviour, concentration, accepting change, and making friends compared to the reference group of children with no difficulties in the mentioned domains (See Figure 24).

60 American Psychological Association. (2019). Resolution on physical discipline of children by parents; Patterson, G. R., DeBaryshe, B. D., & Ramsey, E. (1989). A developmental perspective on antisocial behavior (Vol. 44, No. 2, p. 329). American Psychological Association. Gershoff, E.T. (2002a) "Corporal punishment by parents and associated child behaviors and experiences: A meta-analytic and theoretical review" Psychological Bulletin, 128(4):539–579; Gershoff, E.T. (2002b) "Corporal punishment, physical abuse, and the burden of proof: Reply to Baumrind, Larzelere, and Cowan (2002), Holden (2002), and Parke (2002)" Psychological Bulletin, 128(4):602–611

Figure 24 Percentage of subjects of violent discipline (children between 5 and 14 years of age) by difficulties in functional domains

	Psychological aggression		Physical punishment	
LEARNING DIFFICULTIES				
No Learning Difficulties	69%		27%	
Learning difficulties	75%		44%	
ANXIETY PROBLEMS				
No anxiety	64%		26%	
Anxiety problems	73%		30%	
CONCENTRATION DIFFICULTIES				
No concentration problems	69%		28%	
Concentration problems	80%		37%	
DIFFICULTIES ACCEPTING CHANGE				
No difficulties accepting change	69%		28%	
Difficulties accepting change	73%		32%	
DIFFICULTIES IN CONTROLLING BEHAVIOR				
No difficulties controlling behavior	68%		26%	
Difficulties controlling behavior	83%		46%	
DIFFICULTIES IN MAKING FRIENDS				
No difficulties making friends	70%		28%	
Difficulties making friends	71%		35%	

The MICS survey results cannot lead us to simple conclusions about cause-effect relationships. However, the findings do highlight the importance of seeing violent discipline as one aspect in the interrelated set of challenges victims might face, rather than an isolated problem.

MAIN FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The MICS survey represents the first comprehensive effort to gather and systematically analyse information on violent discipline as a form of child maltreatment in Georgia. Despite certain limitations of the data gathering process and possible bias related to the application of self-reporting methods, the information provided by caregivers offers important insights for understanding the scale of the problem, its causes and effects, and helps to identify the areas for intervention and prevention.

Overall, the spectrum of problems and challenges revealed, in the specific context of Georgia, does not depart significantly from general trends identified worldwide.

Neither of the current snapshots of the situation in the country differ significantly from what were described as the main problems related to child discipline a decade ago.

The analysis of the MICS data suggests that violent discipline practices are widespread in Georgia:

- 70 per cent of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, were victims of violent discipline during the month preceding the survey.
- 66 per cent of children experienced psychological aggression, while about 31 per cent were subjected to physical punishment. A certain fraction of victims of physical punishment (5 per cent) were victims of severe forms of corporal punishment during the reported period.
- A closer examination of the individual items that comprise the measurement scale for any violent discipline reveals that more than half of households reported shouting at the child. An alarming signal is that 20 per cent of children experienced hitting or slapping.
- Non-violent practices, especially explaining why a behaviour is wrong, are generally the most common forms of discipline used by households. However, they are mostly used in combination with different forms of violent discipline. Additionally, most respondents reported that children experienced more than one form of violent discipline. Only 28 per cent of children experienced exclusively non-violent discipline methods.

The prevalence of a negative perception of physical punishment among caregivers is an important and very promising finding of the study. However, the discrepancy between attitudes and actual practices, which is consistent with the international trends identified by earlier cycles of the MICS, highlights the need for more work with caregivers to build skills and knowledge for the effective implementation of positive parenting principles

- It is not surprising that mothers/primary caregivers' attitudes towards physical punishment are correlated with actual disciplinary practices in the household. The association between the attitude and practice remains significant after accounting for various background variables related to both the child and the household, such as the sex of the child, functional difficulties, and household characteristics. After accounting for the mentioned background variables, the likelihood of becoming a subject of physical violence is 3 times higher in households where the caregiver considers physical punishment as a necessary form of discipline.
- Yet, it is interesting that physical punishment is also widespread among those caregivers who do not consider it necessary. Only 7 per cent of caregivers in Georgia believe that physical punishment is needed in order to bring up children properly, although the percentage of

those who apply physical punishment is much higher. There is a significant share of households where violent discipline is used despite negative attitude of caregivers towards physical punishment.

Younger children and children with functional difficulties are exposed to a higher risk of violent discipline:

- Violent discipline is more prevalent among younger children. Georgian data coincides with the results of meta-analysis in different countries, and shows that the prevalence of violent discipline initially increases with age, peaks between 5 and 9 years of age, and then falls in older age groups. However, some differences are observed when comparing the trend of association between child age and violent discipline rates across two subgroups of physical punishment and psychological aggression. In particular, the peak for physical punishment in Georgia is between 3 and 4 years of age, and the peak for psychological aggression is between 5 and 9 years of age.

- Boys face a slightly higher risk of violent discipline than girls, but like in many other countries, the differences are small. The rates of psychological aggression are statistically different by sex only when it comes to children older than 5 years of age, and the rates of physical punishment differ only in the age category between 1 and 2 years of age. Overall, the data indicates that children are at risk of violent discipline irrespective of their gender.

- Unlike with a child's sex, children's functional difficulties seem to be strongly associated with the violent discipline scale. In a specific subgroup of victims of severe physical punishment, after accounting for the background variables, the odds of becoming a victim are 3 times higher for children with functional difficulties compared to the reference group of children with no functional difficulties. This finding singles out the caregivers of children with functional difficulties as a key target group for specific information and education programmes to help parents more effectively apply methods of positive parenting.

An examination of socio-demographic characteristics at the household level shows that, as in many countries, violent disciplinary methods occur in many different settings and are used by families of differing backgrounds. However, the survey also illustrates some associations which might be important in planning targeted intervention strategies.

- Regarding the overall prevalence of violent discipline, significant differences are observed between regions. The highest rate of physical punishment was reported in Kvemo Kartli (40 per cent) and the lowest in Imereti, Racha-Lechkhumi and Kvemo svaneti, which were merged in the study as a single unit (23 per cent). The highest rate of psychological punishment was reported in Guria and Shida Kartli (74 per cent) and the lowest in Samtskhe –Javakheti (56 per cent).

- When urbanity was controlled, the rate of use of violent discipline methods was significantly higher in these four regions of Georgia – Kvemo and Shida Kartli, Adjara, and Guria – than it was in Tbilisi. Additionally, Samegrelo-zemo svaneti and Kakheti appeared in the list, when the data was specifically analysed for physical and psychological punishment, as subtypes of violent discipline. The remaining regions – Imereti (together with other regions in the cluster), Samtskhe-Javakheti, and Mtskheta-Mtianeti didn't differ significantly from Tbilisi, neither by the overall rate of violent discipline, nor by the rate of specific types of violent discipline (such as physical or psychological punishment).

Some of the differences in the rates of violent discipline can be viewed as a function of household characteristics.

- Ethnicity of the household head explains most of the differences between Kvemo Kartli and Tbilisi when analysing the rates of violent discipline.
- Another factor that is associated with higher rates of violent discipline is the IDP status of a household head.
- Household density is another strong factor that correlates with the use of violent discipline in Georgia. Household density was calculated as a ratio of the total number of household members and bedrooms available for the household. The greater the density of the household, the higher the risk of the use of violent discipline methods.
- Results don't show consistent association of household wealth and violent discipline in Georgia. However, detailed analysis by types of violent discipline shows some differences. Although no association had been found between family wealth and psychological violence, this factor shows a moderately strong negative relationship with violent discipline that takes the form of physical punishment. In particular, more wealthy households are less likely to apply methods of physical punishment on their children than poorer households.

The rates of violent discipline in Georgia are associated with certain characteristics of the caregiver, including: level of education, functional difficulties, and subjective well-being.

- Like in many other countries, the caregivers with higher education are less likely to apply violent discipline methods.
- The analysis also found that a caregiver's functional difficulties pose a risk factor for violent child discipline. A statistically significant association between the caregiver's functional difficulty status and the use of violent discipline is found for both physical and psychological punishment.
- One of the predictors of the use of violent discipline is the caregiver's subjective well-being. In particular, those that consider themselves happy are less likely to apply methods of violent discipline. The effect remains significant after accounting for all the other background variables.
- Results also show that children are more likely to experience violent discipline practices if their caregivers consider themselves to be the subjects of discrimination and harassment.

Children who are exposed to violent discipline are also more likely to be deprived of different forms of positive parenting. Significant associations are found between the patterns of discipline practices and responsive care.

- The rate of violent discipline is higher in households where caregivers are less engaged in activities that provide children with early stimulation and responsive care, including: reading books or looking at picture books, telling stories, singing songs, taking children outside the home, compound or yard, playing with children, and spending time with children naming, counting, or drawing things. Households with fewer books are more likely to employ violent forms of punishment with children.
- Although the Georgian sample doesn't provide sufficient data for valid conclusions, an initial analysis illustrates the trend that there might be an association between leaving a child without

appropriate supervision (for example, leaving them alone or in the care of an older child) and higher rates of psychological aggression and physical punishment of children, between 2 and 4 years of age.

- One of the interesting findings of the report is the positive association between the involvement of parents in helping children with their homework, and the likelihood of the use of violent discipline. While driven by best motives, parents may make big mistakes in child rearing.

The analysis reveals an association between the application of violent discipline methods and the development patterns of a child.

- Significantly higher rates of violent discipline were found in the subgroup of children who are not considered to be currently on track in the Early Childhood Development Index of the MICS. Early Childhood Development is a multidimensional concept and involves an ordered progression of motor, cognitive, language, socio-emotional, and regulatory skills and capacities across the first few years of life.

- A similar trend is evident with older children (between 5 and 14 years of age). Those with learning difficulties are more likely to be victims of physical punishment.

- Also, physical and psychological punishment victims include larger share of children with anxiety problems.

- Physical punishment and psychological aggression rates are higher in children (between 5 and 14 years of age) with difficulties in controlling behaviour, concentration, accepting change, and making friends compared to the reference group of children with no difficulties in the mentioned domains (See Figure 24, Annexes 5-25, 5-26).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite numerous efforts at national and international levels, much remains to be done to construct and effectively manage intervention and prevention strategies and actions, as well as to build a sound knowledge base on prevalence, influencing factors, and the effects of violent child discipline to support informed decisions.

Addressing the problem of child maltreatment requires systemic and consistent interventions. The existence of a long-term vision, the coordinated efforts of all stakeholders, and the continuity of reforms are the main prerequisites for success.

The following recommendations are grouped in three main categories: the first two recommendations address the two key battlefields – policy making and research – and the third highlights the importance of seeking strategic advancement that builds on their interrelation.

Our suggestions reflect the general spirit of the Global Status Report on Violence Against Children 2020, and emphasize the importance of a flexible but consistent practice of policy cycle management, coupled with sound research, and data management that forms the basis for evidence-based decision making.

POLICY DIMENSION – STEPS FORWARD

- **The prevalence of violent forms of child discipline and discrepancies between attitudes and practice clearly show the need for a more coordinated and systemic approach to parental education in Georgia.** Current efforts in this direction should be further consolidated around two main goals:

  a) shifting public norms towards condemning specific violent forms of child discipline; and
  b) building public awareness on specific effective methods of child rearing.

  Experts in the field suggest that parental education in positive parenting should become a state priority, and should be reflected in different mutually enriching and complementary state and municipal informational and educational programmes.

- **Vulnerable groups such as IDPs, single mothers, minorities, and parents of children with developmental disabilities should be the primary focus of such programmes.** Efforts should be applied and incentives should be introduced to ensure a) better alignment of the content of parent education programmes to their specific needs; as well as b) better participation of parents and caregivers in such programmes.

  An important prerequisite for the success of such initiatives is the effective coordination among Georgian governmental actors, in particular the Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health, and Social Affairs, as well as the Ministry of Education, Science, Culture, and Sport. However, several other line ministries, state agencies, and local government are also concerned. **This calls for a clear mapping of competences and tasks that are directly or indirectly related to child development at large.**

- The Study reveals that the happier the parents, the less violent discipline they use. High life satisfaction and high sense of well-being are associated with a lower risk of violent discipline. Thus, **parental well-being and mental health should be considered as a crucial factor for developing positive disciplinary practices in families.** Accordingly, along with psychoeducation programmes, parents

and caregivers representing risk groups should receive psychological counselling, psychotherapy, and support.

Specific target groups for this type of programme may include IDPs and representatives of minority groups, those with low socio-economic status, and parents and caregivers of children with special needs. Experience of psychological practices in Tbilisi shows that many caregivers have high anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, low marital satisfaction, which influences the child's psychological well-being and worsens behaviour. Psychological services for parents can be incorporated into existing State programmes for children and youth.

- **State programmes focused on children's physical and mental health should be paralleled with programmes for parents of children with chronic illnesses and developmental disabilities** to better incorporate support and psychological counselling for caregivers.

- Pre-school educational institutions and schools represent strategically important shared spaces, where parents are in touch with each other, children, and teachers. Thus, **educational institutions must be considered as focal points to pilot and disseminate new models of stakeholder cooperation on the issue of effective parenting.** The initiatives on this level may incorporate parental education activities on child behaviour management, ways of proper communication with a child, and positive parenting issues. While planned and implemented in cooperation with specialists and organizations working on parent psychoeducation, these initiatives should facilitate the development of parent education units, led by parents themselves, and aim at strengthening local networks of specialists, practitioners, and school community representatives at a municipal level.

- **Special attention should be paid to the selection of internationally approved and validated approaches and strategies of parental education and training, which have, at the same time, a good potential for adjustment to the local context and specifics.** Among the list of available alternatives, the International Child Development Programme (ICDP) can be considered as one of the interesting examples. An important characteristic of this widespread and well-known programme is that it implies an understanding of the local context as a precondition for its successful implementation. The main steps of the design process imply identification and then the building on local cultural practices to stimulate development that is authentic and sustainable. It increases the self-confidence of parents, and facilitates self-reflection by promoting a positive image of both children and parents. This programme could be used with families, especially those experiencing stress and poverty, with foster families, with ethnic minority families, and with school and kindergarten teachers. The results of this research illustrated that the beneficiaries of the ICDP training show significantly higher scores on parenting measures, less loneliness, and improved self-efficacy compared to the comparison group 6 to 12 months after programme completion (Skar A.S., et al., 2015).

- **Future parents must be considered as another important target group for educational and informational programmes.** This subgroup of interventions will help future parents gain confidence and the necessary skills and knowledge for supporting and stimulating child development. Possible options for channelling such programmes could be monitoring systems for pregnant women, maternity homes, and obstetrics divisions. The involvement of local governments could be an important strategic approach to better align the programmes to local specifics, ensure flexibility, and increase the sustainability of initiatives through building human capacity and infrastructure.

- **More capacity building programmes are needed for professionals working on the issue of violence against children.** This implies the improvement of both the in-service and pre-service training in the fields of psychology, social work, occupational therapy, early education, elementary school education and teacher preparation. A special priority is to increase the availability of positive parenting facilitators and parent coaches across the regions of Georgia.

- A last key priority is to **improve information management systems.** Existing national action plans should be critically reviewed against best practice standards and, where necessary, revised to ensure that they are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound. In line with the recommendation of the Global Status Report on Preventing Violence Against Children 2020, the government should invest more in monitoring the uptake, reach, and impact of evidence-based prevention and response approaches to balance the focus on measurement of the problem with equal attention to the measurement of solutions.

BUILDING THE KNOWLEDGE BASE – TASKS FOR RESEARCHERS

- **Further efforts are needed to better conceptualize variables that capture the essential components of parental discipline.** This implies the creation of better synergies between strategies of data gathering, the adoption of new data gathering and analysis methods, the determining of divergences and contradictions derived from the triangulation of findings obtained through different methods, and the creation of conceptual frameworks that cut across methodological specifics.

- **An accurate assessment on both ends of parenting practice will fill the current gap in measuring the diverse patterns within the practice.** Existing instruments place a main focus on violent forms of child discipline, while overlooking positive parenting practices. A balanced focus is important for a deeper understanding of the practices. Accurate assessment of parenting at the low or problematic end is useful in understanding child abuse or neglect, and characterizing minimum standards of parental competence.[61] However, specifying the high or effective end of the parenting continuum can contribute to efforts aimed at identifying and promoting conditions and socialization practices conducive to healthy child development.

- **Better developmental mapping is needed to inform targeted policies for specific age groups of children.** The methods of discipline and nurture change across a child's development. While some practices may remain consistent throughout children's adolescence, others are discontinued, and new practices are introduced. Meta-analysis of the available instruments shows that most of them don't allow for comparison across different age categories or the entire timespan of child development.

- **Instruments measuring child discipline practices should better capture the more effective types of discipline practices without engendering a social-desirability bias.** Respondents tend to avoid mentioning parenting styles that are perceived to be less socially acceptable. This creates significant risks in terms of survey validity. Many instruments present items without relating them to a specific context. For a given item, respondents may feel that their discipline is context-dependent and that they apply different practices depending on the specific child situation. The challenge is better contextualizing the assessment of effective and ineffective practices while maintaining reasonable generalizability.[62]

- **Investing more in context-specific research is essential for understanding how different disciplinary practices work in different cultures and contexts.** Notably, the cultural appropriateness of discipline measuring instruments should be further strengthened. There is a pressing need to conduct studies of measurement equivalence that would help to validate and refine existing or new measures. As it currently stands, apparent cultural variation in parenting practices could be due to measurement problems, to actual cultural differences, or to both. The identification and explication of universal, as well as culturally unique, parenting practices is dependent first on the establishment of measurement equivalence across cultural groups.

61 Budd, K. S. (2001). Assessing parenting competence in child protection cases: a clinical practice model. Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 4, 1–18.
62 Sanders, M. R. (1999). Triple P—Positive Parenting Program: towards an empirically validated multilevel parenting and family support strategy for the prevention of behavior and emotional problems in children. Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 2, 71–90.

CREATING THE LINK – COUPLING RESEARCH TO PRACTICE

Efforts to strengthen the impact and value of research and policymaking need to pay attention to the interrelation between the production and the use of knowledge, and to their linkage. Researchers alone cannot ensure the effective use of research, but they do play an important role. Similarly, placing the task of linking research and practice at the centre of the policy agenda can be considered a crucial step in establishing informed decisions on preventing and fighting child maltreatment. [63]

- Policy-makers can support universities and other research institutions in knowledge mobilization across institutions and disciplines through communicating long-term policy goals and challenges, and strengthening the input of potential users in the planning and review of research. There are many cases where early discussion between researchers and users would result in stronger studies as well as enhanced interest by potential users.

- Another strategic direction is to build networks between educational institutions, research institutions, policy planning agencies, and implementing agencies with common interests as a way of developing larger-scale programmes of research with a stronger component in applied research. Networks can be important in increasing the attention given to knowledge mobilization and in building stronger, more coherent research programmes on child discipline, its causes, and its effects.

- Finally, research will not have an impact unless potential users are interested enough to look for it, and are able to make proper use of it. Thus, it is of crucial importance to develop the capacity of users to find, understand, and use research, and to create the capacity to "translate" research results into plain language for dissemination among non-specialist audiences.

63 Levin, B. (2004). Making research matter more. Education Policy Analysis Archives, 12(56).

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: Benefits of Positive Parenting

Positive parenting style or intervention	Benefits	Citation
Autonomy-supportive Parenting	Better school adjustment among children Increased motivation among infants Higher internalization among toddlers Better psychosocial functioning among adolescents	Joussemet, Landry & Koestner, 2008
	Reduced depressive symptoms among adolescents Increased self-esteem among adolescents	Duineveld, Parker, Ryan, Ciarrochi, & Salmela-Aro, 2017
	Increased optimism among children	Hasan & Power, 2002
Sensitive/Responsive Parenting that Promotes a Secure Parent-Child Attachment	Increased self-esteem among older adolescents	Liable-Gustavo & Roesch, 2004
	Increased social self-efficacy among adolescents	Coleman, 2003
	Multiple positive outcomes among children, such as secure parental attachments, and better cognitive and social development	Juffer, Bakermans-Kranenburg & van Ijzendoorn, 2008
Interventions that Enhance Positive Parenting Practices	Improved attachment security among toddlers Improved school adjustment among children	Forgatch & DeGarmo, 1999
	Increased cognitive and social outcomes among pre-schoolers	Smith, Landry, & Swank, 2000
	Numerous reductions in problem behaviours and increases in competences among children and adolescents— such as self-esteem, coping efficacy, educational goals, and job aspirations	Sandler, Wolchik, Tein, & Winslow, 2015

Positive parenting style or intervention	Benefits	Citation
	Reduced behavioural problems among children Lower dysfunctional parenting styles Higher sense of parenting competence	Sanders, Calam, Durand, Liversidge, & Carmont, 2008
	Long-term reductions in behavioural problems among children	de Graaf, Speetjens, Smit, Wolff, & Tavecchio, 2008
	Decreased family conflict and stress Decreased behavioural problems and conduct disorders among children Improved family cohesion, communication, and organization Improved resilience among children and parents	Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1998
	Reduced problem behaviours and increased positive development among children	Knox, Burkhard, & Cromly, 2013
Responsive Parenting (i.e., involves tolerating and working through emotions)	Increased emotion regulation associated with various positive outcomes among children and adolescents	See studies cited in Bornstein 2002
Involved Parenting (i.e., uses rules and guidelines, and involves children in decision-making)	Increased compliance and self-regulation among children	See studies cited in Bornstein 2002
Developmental Parenting as Characterized by Parental Affection, Teaching & Encouragement	Numerous positive outcomes among children and adolescents such as increased compliance, greater cognitive abilities, more school readiness, less negativity, more willingness to try new things, better cognitive and social development, better language development, better conversational skills, and less antisocial behaviour	See studies cited in Roggman, Boyce, & Innocenti, 2008
Supportive Families	Increased resilience among children and adolescents	Newman & Blackburn, 2002
Parental Attachment, Positive Family Climate, & Other Positive Parenting Factors	Increased social skills among adolescents	Engels, Deković, & Meeus, 2002
Warm, Democratic, and Firm Parenting Style (e.g., Authoritative)	Increased school achievement among adolescents	Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989
Family Supervision and Monitoring; Effective Communication of Expectations and Family Values/ Norms; and Regular Positive Family Time	Improved ability to resist negative peer influences among adolescents	Lochman, 2000

Source: Lonczak H.S. (2020). What is positive parenting? A look at the research and benefits

ANNEX 2: Examples of Positive Parenting Programmes

Programmes	Description
Parents' Circle programme (Pearson & Anderson, 2001):	Recognizing that positive parenting begins EARLY, this programme helped parents of infants in the neonatal intensive care unit to enhance their parenting skills in order to better parent their fragile newborns.
The Home Visiting Programme (Ammaniti, Speranza, & Tambelli, et al., 2006):	Also focused on babies, this programme aimed to increase parental sensitivity in order to improve secure mother-infant attachments. In doing so, psychologists visited high-risk mothers at their homes in order to improve parental sensitivity to their infants' signals.
The Early Head Start Home-based Programme (Roggman, Boyce, & Cook, 2009):	This home-based programme was also focused on promoting parent-child attachment. Parents in semirural areas received weekly home-based visits from a family educator who taught them positive strategies aimed at promoting healthy parent-child interactions and engagement in children's activities.
American Psychological Association's ACT Raising Safe Kids (RSK) programme (Knox, Burkhard, & Cromly, 2013):	The goal of this programme was to improve parents' positive parenting knowledge and skills by teaching nonviolent discipline, anger management, social problem-solving skills, and other techniques intended to protect children from aggression and violence.
New Beginnings Programme (Wolchik, Sandler, Weiss, & Winslow, 2007):	This empirically-based 10-session programme was designed to teach positive parenting skills to families experiencing divorce or separation. Parents learned how to nurture positive and warm relationships with children, use effective discipline, and protect their children from divorce-related conflict. The underlying goal of the New Beginnings Programme was to promote child resilience during this difficult time.
Family Bereavement Programme (Sandler, Wolchik, Ayers, Tein, & Luecken, 2013):	This intervention was aimed at promoting resilience in parents and children experiencing extreme adversity: the death of a parent. This 10-meeting supportive group environment helped bereaved parents learn a number of resilience-promoting parenting skills (i.e., active listening, using effective rules, supporting children's coping, strengthening family bonds, and using adequate self-care).
The Positive Parent (Suárez, Rodríguez, & López, 2016):	This Spanish online programme was aimed at enhancing positive parenting by helping parents to learn about child development and alternative child-rearing techniques to become more aware, creative, and independent in terms of parenting practices; to establish supportive connections with other parents; and to feel more competent and satisfied with their parenting.
Healthy Families Alaska Programmes (Calderaa, Burrellb, & Rodriguez, 2007):	he objective of this home visiting programme was to promote positive parenting and healthy child development outcomes in Alaska. Paraprofessionals worked with parents to improve positive parenting attitudes, parent-child interactions, child development knowledge, and home environment quality.

Programmes	Description
The Strengthening Families Programme (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1998):	This programme has been widely used to teach parents a large array of positive parenting practices. Following family systems and cognitive-behavioural philosophies, the programme has taught parenting skills such as engagement in positive interactions with children, positive communication, effective discipline, rewarding positive behaviours, and the use of family meetings to promote organization. The programme's overall goal was to enhance child and family protective factors, to promote children's resilience, and to improve children's social and life skills.
Incredible Years Programme (Webster-Stratton& Reid, 2013):	This programme refers to a widely implemented and evaluated group-based intervention designed to reduce emotional problems and aggression among children, and to improve their social and emotional competence. Parent groups received 12 to 20 weekly group sessions focused on nurturing relationships, using positive discipline, promoting school readiness and academic skills, reducing conduct problems, and increasing other aspects of children's healthy psychosocial development. This programme has also been used for children with ADHD.
Evidence-Based Positive Parenting Programmes Implemented in Spain (Ministers of the Council of Europe, in Rodrigo et al., 2012):	In a special issue of Psychosocial Intervention, multiple evaluation studies of positive parenting programmes delivered across Spain are presented. Among the programmes included are those delivered in groups, at home, and online; each of which is aimed at positive parenting support services. This issue provides an informative resource for understanding which parents most benefited from various types of evidence-based programmes aimed at promoting positive parenting among parents attending family support services.
Triple P Positive Parenting Programme (Sanders, 2008):	This programme is a highly comprehensive parenting programme with the objective of providing parents of high-risk children with the knowledge, confidence, and skills needed to promote healthy psychological health and adjustment in their children. While these programmes are multifaceted, an overarching focus of the Triple P programmes is to improve children's self-regulation.
Teen Triple P Programme (Ralph & Sanders, 2004):	Triple P is tailored toward teens and involves teaching parents a variety of skills aimed at increasing their own knowledge and confidence. The programme also promotes various prosocial qualities in teens - such as social competence, health, and resourcefulness - such that they will be able to avoid engaging in problem behaviours (e.g. substance use, risky sex, delinquency, bulimia, etc.). This approach enables parents to replace harsh discipline styles for those that are more nurturing, without being permissive. It aims to minimize parent-teen conflict while providing teens with the tools and ability to make healthy choices (Ralph & Sanders, 2004).

Source: Lonczak H.S. (2020). What is positive parenting? A look at the research and benefits

ANNEX 3: Some Instruments Measuring Child Discipline

Instrument	Source	Child age	Discipline	Format	Reliability	Validity
Behavioural Management Self-Assessment (BMSA)	August, Realmuto, Crosby, & MacDonald, 1995	C	E + N	15; EL	I .81, R .71 –.74	C
Child Management Questionnaire	Covell, Grusec, & King, 1995	T	E + N	13; FR, O	NR	C
Computer Presented Social Situations (CPSS)	Holden, 1988; Holden & Ritchie, 1991	T-C	E + N	73; MC, FDR, O	NR	C, Cr
Daily Checklist	Pomerantz &Ruble, 1998	C-EA	E	12; FDR	I .72, II .41, R .50	C
Discipline Record Booklet (DRB)	Larzelere et al., 1996	T	E + N	21; FDR	R-SS .52 –.94	C
Discipline Questionnaire	Culp et al., 1999	T	N	17; FR, O	NR	Cr
Family Evaluation Form— Revised	Emery, Weintraub, & Neale, 1984	T-C	E + N	128; EL	NR	Cv
Iowa Parent Behaviour Inventory	Crase, Clark, & Pease,1980	C	E	36; FR	I .62 –.84	Cr

Instrument	Source	Child age	Discipline	Format	Reliability	Validity
Monitoring and Control Questionnaire	Kotchick et al., 1997	C-EA	E + N	26; FR	I .84	C, Cv
Parent Behaviour Inventory (PBI-a)	Love & Kaswan, Kaswan,m1983	C	N	14; FR	I-SS.50 –.82	C
Parent Behaviour Inventory (PBI-b)	Kaswan, Budd, Riner, & Brockman, 1983	C	E + N	10; FR	I-SS 0.63	C
Parent Behaviour Checklist (PBC)	Fox, 1992	T	N	100; FR	I-SS .82 –.97, .81 –.98	C, Cr, Ct, D
Parent–Child Activity Questionnaire	Stuckey, McGhee, & Bell, 1982	T		21; FR	NR	C
Parent–Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI)	Gerard, 1994	T-C	E + N	55; EL	I-SS .80 –.88, R.73 –.93-SS	C, Cr
Parent Practices Scale	Strayhorn & Weidman, 1988	T	E + N	34; MC	I .78 –.79, R .70 –.79	C, Cr
Parent Report	Dibble & Cohen, 1974	T-A	E + N	48; FR	R-SS .60 –.72	C, Cr, Ct
Parent Self-Evaluation Instrument	Edgmon et al., 1996	NR		29; EL	NR	Ct
Parental Affection to the Child Scale	Savin-Williams & Small, 1986	C		7; FR	IT .55 –.85, I .89	Cv
Parental Disciplinary Orientations	Abelman, 1986	C	E + N	72; EL	NR	Cr
Parental Discipline Techniques	Gardner et al., 1980	T-A	E + N	16; O	NR	NR
Parental Responses to Child Misbehaviour	Holden & Zambarano, 1992	T	E + N	9; FR	NR	Cv
Parental Style Questionnaire	Bornstein, 1989	T	E	16; FR	I-SS .62 –.66	C, Cr
Parenting Dimensions Inventory	Slater & Power, 1987	T-EA	E + N	54; MC, EL, FR	I-SS .49 –.95	C, Cr
Parenting Practices	Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992	EA-A		10; EL	I .76 –.90, R .87 –.91	C

Instrument	Source	Child age	Discipline	Format	Reliability	Validity
Parenting Questionnaire	McCabe, Clark, & Barnett, 1999	EA	N	50; EL, FR	I-SS .65 –.90	Cr, Cv
Parenting Scale (PS)	Arnold et al., 1993	T-EA	N	30; EL	I .84, I-SS .63 –.83, R .84, R-SS	C, Cr
Porter Parental Acceptance Scale (PPAS)	Porter, 1954	C		40; MC	SH .76	Ct
Response Questionnaire Reward Scale	Dix et al., 1989	T-EA	E + N	10; EL	NR	C
Child report only						
Approval Support Scale for Children (ASSC)	Harter & Robinson, 1988	EA-A		4; EL	I-SS .91	C
Children's Expectations of Social Behaviour Questionnaire	Rudolph, Hammen, & Burge, 1995	C	E + N	10; EL	I-SS .74 –.78, R-SS.82 –.86	C
Family Climate Inventory	Kurdek, Fine, & Sinclair, 1995	EA	N	24; EL	I-SS .75 –.91	C
Lifetime Experiences Survey	Jacobvitz & Bush, 1996	R:C-A		16; MC, FR, O	I .84, R .93	C, Cv

Child age: T = toddler/early childhood, C = child, EA= early adolescent, A= adolescent, R = adult retrospective report about childhood. Discipline: E = effective, N = noneffective. Format: EL = endorsement via Likert, ETF = endorsement via true/false, FR = frequency rating, FDR = daily freq. rate, MC = multiple choice, O = open-ended, QS = Q-sort, NR = not reported. Reliability: R = test – retest, I = internal consistency, II = interitem correlation, IT = item– total correlation, SH = split-half, default = total scale, SS = subscale, NR = not reported. Validity: C = concurrent, Cn = construct, Cr = criterion, Ct = construct, Cv = convergent, D = discriminant, P = predictive.

Source: Locke, L. M., & Prinz, R. J. (2002). Measurement of parental discipline and nurturance. Clinical psychology review, 22(6), 895-929.

ANNEX 4: Technical Notes on the Analysis

Odds Ratio

While analysing the effect of different factors on discipline practices, the report relies mostly on calculating odds ratios. The Odds Ratio is the measure of the relative likelihood of a particular outcome across two groups. For example, the report states that the likelihood of becoming a victim of physical punishment is three times higher in children with functional difficulties compared to the reference group of those without functional difficulties. The calculation of the odds ratio for observing the outcome when the antecedent is present is based on the following formula:

$$OR = \frac{(P_{11} / P_{12})}{(P_{21} / P_{22})}$$

Where P_{11}/ P_{12} represents the "odds" of observing the outcome when the antecedent is present (in our example – the child has a functional difficulty), and P_{21}/ P_{22} represents the "odds" of observing the outcome when the antecedent is not present (the child doesn't have a functional difficulty).

In order to estimate odds ratios, the logistic regression is used. The exponentiated logit coefficient (Exp. (B)) for a binary variable is equivalent to the odds ratio. A "generalized" odds ratio, after accounting for other differences across groups, is estimated by introducing control variables in the logistic regression. For example, the report illustrates that after accounting for specific household characteristics, the likelihood of becoming a victim of violent discipline remains three times higher for children with functional difficulties. Control variables are gradually added to the regression. Each step is shown in the Annexes as a separate model. For example, the Annex describing the effects of urbanity, regions, and child characteristics on the likelihood of the use of violent disciplinary methods includes three different regression models. The first model contains variables reflecting urbanity and regions, the second – child characteristics, and the third – all three sets of variables together.

Significance Tests

The statistics in this report represent estimates of the national picture based on a sample of parents and children, rather than values that could be calculated if every parent and child in the country had answered every question. Consequently, it is important to measure the degree of uncertainty of the estimates.

In many cases, readers are primarily interested in whether a given value in a particular sample is different from the relevant value from the whole population of the country. Throughout the report, significance tests were undertaken to assess the statistical significance of the comparisons made. In the tables and charts used in the report, differences that are statistically significant are labelled with an asterisk.

ANNEX 5: Additional Tables

Annex 5 1 Prevalence of any violent discipline (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced any violent discipline during the last month) by urbanity and regions of Georgia

URBANITY	% Subjects of any violent discipline	Number of subjects of any violent discipline	X2	DF	P
Urban	68.9%	2887	.028a	1	.444
Rural	68.7%	1789			
REGION					
Tbilisi	67.8%	1578	56.273a	9	.000
Adjara A.R.	71.5%	519			
Guria	77.4%	127			
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	62.3%	535			
Kakheti	69.0%	319			
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	64.9%	100			
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	68.7%	340			
Samtskhe-Javakheti	59.9%	148			
Kvemo Kartli	73.4%	646			
Shida Kartli	75.8%	364			

Annex 5 2: Prevalence of any violent discipline (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age , who experienced any violent discipline during the last month) by characteristics of the child

CHILD AGE	% Subjects of any violent discipline	Number of subjects of any violent discipline	X2	DF	P
1-2 years	52.3%	505	160.257a	3	.000
3-4 years	71.4%	782			
5-9 years	74.0%	1996			
10-14 years	68.4%	1393			
CHILD SEX					
Female	66.5%	2187	16.207a	1	.000
Male	71.0%	2490			
CHILD FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTY					
No functional difficulty	70.3%	4110	11.460a	1	.000
Functional difficulty	77.5%	382			

Annex 5 3: Prevalence of any violent discipline (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced any violent discipline during the last month) by characteristics of the household

Household wealth index	% Subjects of any violent discipline	Number of subjects of any violent discipline	X2	DF	P
Poorest	70.7%	822	17.369a	4	.002
Second	66.4%	899			
Third	70.8%	926			
Fourth	70.9%	991			
Richest	65.8%	1039			
IDP status of household head					
No IDP status	68.5%	4419	6.327a	1	.006
IDP status	74.9%	257			
Ethnicity of household head					
Georgian	67.6%	3996	57.912a	3	.000
Azeri	83.6%	428			
Armenian	64.8%	164			
Other	70.6%	89			
Both parents present in the household					
Neither parent present	66.4%	807	4.108a	1	.024
Both parents present	69.3%	3869			
Caregiver's marital status					
Currently married/in union	69.5%	4149	1.082a	2	.582
Formerly married/in union	70.6%	300			
Never married/in union	60.0%	12			
Household density					
Two or less persons per bedroom	65.8%	2217	28.568a	1	.000
More than two persons per bedroom	71.8%	2459			
Number of children in the household					
One	60.4%	1224	106.377a	2	.000
Two or three	71.7%	3116			
More than three	79.3%	337			
Books at home					
No books	72.5%	783	20.051a	1	.000
Less than 10 books	64.3%	989			
10 or more books	68.3%	2132			

Annex 5 4: Prevalence of any violent discipline (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced any violent discipline during the last month) by characteristics of the caregiver

Attitude towards physical punishment	% Subjects of any violent discipline	Number of subjects of any violent discipline	X2	DF	P
Child should not be physically punished	68.0%	3443	100.413	1	.000
Child should be physically punished	90.2%	423			
Caregiver's age					
20-24 years of age	67.1%	239	35.251'	5	.000
25-29 years of age	71.9%	1090			
30-34 years of age	72.8%	1423			
35-39 years of age	67.7%	995			
40-44 years of age	65.8%	490			
45-49 years of age	60.1%	191			
Mother with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	70.5%	2627	11.522	1	.000
HE	66.7%	2050			
Father with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	73.2%	2297	52.743	1	.000
HE	64.2%	1634			
Caregiver functional difficulty					
No Functional Difficulty	68.2%	3927	29.329	1	.000
Functional Difficulty	78.5%	521			
Caregiver feels discriminated					
No	68.3%	4401	13.715	1	.000
Yes	77.7%	275			
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)					
No	77.5%	430	17.997	1	.000
Yes	68.8%	4001			
Caregiver victim of robbery or assault (last 12 months)					
No	69.5%	4452	1.615	1	.155
Yes	83.3%	15			
Caregiver victim of Physical attack (last 12 months)					
No	69.5%	4451	1.616	1	1.616
Yes	83.3%	15			

Annex 5 5: Prevalence of psychological punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced psychological punishment during the last month) by urbanity and regions of Georgia

URBANITY	% Subjects of psychological punishment	Number of subjects of psychological punishment	X2	DF	P
Urban	66.8%	2800	1.194		.143
Rural	65.5%	1706			
REGION					
Tbilisi	65.8%	1532	58.383	9	.000
Adjara A.R.	68.3%	496			
Guria	74.4%	122			
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	60.0%	515			
Kakheti	66.5%	308			
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	63.0%	97			
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	63.3%	314			
Samtskhe-Javakheti	56.3%	139			
Kvemo Kartli	71.2%	627			
Shida Kartli	74.2%	356			

Annex 5 6: Prevalence of psychological punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced psychological punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the child

CHILD AGE	% Subjects of psychological punishment	Number of subjects of psychological punishment	X2	DF	P
1-2 years of age	47.6%	460	191.850	3	.000
3-4 years of age	67.4%	738			
5-9 years of age	72.1%	1944			
10-14 years of age	67.0%	1364			
CHILD SEX					
Female	64.1%	2109	13.694	1	.000
Male	68.3%	2397			
CHILD FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTY					
No functional difficulty	67.9%	3973	11.951		.000
Functional difficulty	75.5%	372			

Annex 5 7: Prevalence of psychological punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced psychological punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the household

Household wealth index	% Subjects of psychological punishment	Number of subjects of psychological punishment	X2	DF	P
Poorest	67.1%	780	9.167	4	.058
Second	63.6%	861			
Third	68.1%	889			
Forth	67.9%	948			
Richest	65.0%	1027			
IDP status of household head					
No IDP status	66.0%	4261	3.814	1	.028
IDP status	71.1%	244			
Ethnicity of household head					
Georgian	65.2%	3852	58.415	3	.000
Azeri	81.4%	417			
Armenian	61.7%	156			
Other	64.0%	80			
Both parents present in the household					
Neither parent present	64.3%	782	2.598	1	.108
Both parents present	66.7%	3723			
Caregiver's marital status					
Currently married/in union	66.9%	3994	.459	2	.795
Formerly married/in union	67.3%	286			
Never married/in union	60.0%	12			
Household density					
Two or less persons per bedroom	63.5%	2141	23.317		.000
More than two persons per bedroom	69.0%	2365			
Number of children in the household					
One	57.3%	1161	116.187		.000
Two or three	69.4%	3016			
More than three	77.4%	329			
Books at home					
No books	69.9%	756	62.852		.000
Less than 10 books	61.3%	944			
10 or more books	66.2%	2066			

Annex 5 8: Prevalence of psychological punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced psychological punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the caregiver

Attitude towards physical punishment	% Subjects of psychological punishment	Number of subjects of psychological punishment	X2	DF	P
Child should not be physically punished	65.6%	3323	108.205	1	.000
Child should be physically punished	89.1%	418			
Caregiver's age					
20-24 years of age	63.6%	227	30.395	5	.000
25-29 years of age	67.8%	1028			
30-34 years of age	70.6%	1381			
35-39 years of age	66.0%	969			
40-44 years of age	63.0%	469			
45-49 years of age	58.5%	186			
Mother with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	67.6%	2516	5.925	1	.008
HE	64.8%	1990			
Father with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	70.2%	2204	41.895	1	.000
HE	62.1%	1579			
Caregiver functional difficulty					
No Functional Difficulty	65.5%	3771	33.260	1	.000
Functional Difficulty	76.7%	509			
Caregiver feels discriminated					
No	65.9%	4245	8.755	1	.002
Yes	73.5%	261			
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)					
No	74.1%	412	14.217	1	.000
Yes	66.2%	3851			
Caregiver victim of robbery or assault (last 12 months)					
No	66.9%	4284	.957		.238
Yes	77.8%	14			
Caregiver victim of Physical attack (last 12 months)					
No	66.9%	4284	.959		.238
Yes	77.8%	14			

Annex 5 9: Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced physical punishment during the last month) by urbanity and regions of Georgia

URBANITY	% Subjects of Physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
Urban	28.6%	1198	21.694		.000
Rural	33.9%	884			
REGION					
Tbilisi	26.0%	606	118.28		.000
Adjara A.R.	33.0%	239			
Guria	33.5%	55			
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	23.5%	202			
Kakheti	37.4%	173			
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	24.7%	38			
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	33.1%	164			
Samtskhe-Javakheti	25.2%	62			
Kvemo Kartli	40.2%	354			
Shida Kartli	39.2%	188			

Annex 5 10: Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced physical punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the child

CHILD AGE	% Subjects of physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
1-2 years of age	26.1%	252	238.633	3	.000
3-4 years of age	42.9%	470			
5-9 years of age	35.7%	962			
10-14 years of age	19.5%	397			
CHILD SEX					
Female	0.29	958	6.735	1	.005
Male	0.32	1123			
CHILD FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTY					
No functional difficulty	31.2%	1826	7.824	1	.003
Functional difficulty	37.3%	184			

Annex 5 11: Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced physical punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the household

Household wealth index	% Subjects of physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
Poorest	37.8%	440	45.327	4	.000
Second	31.0%	419			
Third	30.2%	395			
Forth	30.0%	419			
Richest	25.9%	409			
IDP status of household head					
No IDP status	30.3%	1956	6.142	1	.016
IDP status	36.6%	126			
Ethnicity of household head					
Georgian	28.5%	1681	139.084	3	.000
Azeri	53.3%	273			
Armenian	34.4%	87			
Other	32.5%	41			
Both parents present in the household					
Neither parent present	25.8%	314	16.246	1	.000
Both parents present	31.7%	1768			
Caregiver's marital status					
Currently married/in union	31.8%	1896	4.829		.089
Formerly married/in union	30.1%	128			
Never married/in union	10.0%	2			
Household density					
Two or less persons per bedroom	25.1%	845	96.965		.000
More than two persons per bedroom	36.1%	1236			
Number of children in the household					
One	28.3%	574	7.512		.023
Two or three	31.5%	1369			
More than three	32.7%	139			
Books at home					
No books	38.1%	412	62.852		.000
Less than 10 books	32.1%	494			
10 or more books	25.8%	807			

Annex 5 12: Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children, between 1 and 14 years of age, who experienced physical punishment during the last month) by characteristics of the caregiver

Attitude towards physical punishment	% Subjects of physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
Child should not be physically punished	27.1%	1372	275.170	1	.000
Child should be physically punished	63.8%	300			
Caregiver's age					
20-24 years of age	40.1%	143	89.971	5	.000
25-29 years of age	36.0%	546			
30-34 years of age	34.3%	671			
35-39 years of age	26.4%	387			
40-44 years of age	29.9%	223			
45-49 years of age	15.4%	49			
Mother with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	34.2%	1275	50.717	1	.000
HE	26.2%	806			
Father with Higher Education (HE)					
No HE	35.3%	1108	48.637	1	.000
HE	26.7%	678			
Caregiver functional difficulty					
No Functional Difficulty	31.0%	1785	8.122	1	.005
Functional Difficulty	36.4%	242			
Caregiver feels discriminated					
Yes	42.3%	150	23.878	1	.000
No	30.0%	1931			
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)					
No	40.8%	227	23.432	1	.000
Yes	30.8%	1793			
Caregiver victim of robbery or assault (last 12 months)					
No	31.5%	2018	7.273	1	.009
Yes	61.1%	11			
Caregiver victim of Physical attack (last 12 months)					
No	31.5%	2014	22.345	1	.000
Yes	83.3%	15			

Annex 5 13: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of any violent discipline – Urbanity, Region, Child characteristics)

	Model 1 Exp.(B)	Model 2 Exp.(B)	Model 3 Exp(B)
Constant	1.975***	1.465***	1.173
Urbanity (Urban)	1.168*		1.180*
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)			
Adjara A.R.	1.328**		1.350**
Guria	1.823**		1.868**
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	.856		.873
Kakheti	1.268		1.279
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	1.017		1.053
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	1.132		1.156
Samtskhe-Javakheti	.780		.812
Kvemo Kartli	1.378***		1.422***
Shida Kartli	1.679***		1.694***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)			
3-4 years of age		1.504***	1.485***
5-9 years of age		1.660***	1.661***
10-14 years of age		1.258*	1.252*
Child sex (Male)		1.283***	1.278***
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.419**	1.427**
Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.01*	*.03*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.01*	*.02*
Percentage correct	*70.8*	*70.8*	*70.8*
Chi-square	*54.01*	*64.65*	*118.24*
DF	*10*	*5*	*15*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 14: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of any violent discipline – Household characteristics)

	Model 4 Exp.(B)	Model 5 Exp.(B)	Model 6 Exp.(B)	Model 7 Exp.(B)	Model 8 Exp.(B)	Model 9 Exp.(B)
Constant	1.955***	.848	1.522***	.760*	1.459***	.707*
Urbanity (Urban)		1.318***		1.352***		1.367***
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)						
Adjara A.R.		1.467***		1.432***		1.434***
Guria		2.126***		2.117***		2.134***
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)		.954		.959		.970
Kakheti		1.378*		1.404**		1.414**
Mtskheta-Mtianeti		1.124		1.081		1.079
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti		1.249		1.233		1.247
Samtskhe-Javakheti		.879		.853		.847
Kvemo Kartli		1.012		.995		.987
Shida Kartli		1.780***		1.772***		1.767***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)						
3-4 years of age		1.508***		1.477***		1.469***
5-9 years of age		1.681***		1.335**		1.372**
10-14 years of age		1.300*		1.061		1.114
Child sex (Male)		1.274***		1.300***		1.307***
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.419**		1.401**		1.377**
IDP status of household head (IDP)	1.366*	1.374*	1.332*	1.338*	1.316*	1.323*
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)						
Ethnicity (Azeri)	2.418***	2.969***	2.267***	2.807***	2.168***	2.732***
Ethnicity (Armenian)	.866	1.094	.875	1.125	.880	1.138
Ethnicity (Other)	1.228	1.184	1.158	1.109	1.144	1.096
Both parents present in the household	1.204**	1.204**	1.162*	1.145	1.131	1.125
Number of children in the household (Ref. group – One child)						
2-3 children in the household			1.457***	1.488***	1.426***	1.439***
More than 3 children in the household			2.071***	2.166***	1.971***	2.035***
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)					1.193**	1.175**
Nagelkerke R Square	*.02*	*.04*	*.03*	*.05*	*.03*	*.05*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.03*	*.02*	*.04*	*.02*	*.04*
Percentage correct	*70.8*	*70.9*	*70.8*	*70.8*	*70.8*	*70.8*
Chi-square	*68.16*	*185.30*	*121.08*	*232.57*	*130.52*	*239.81*
DF	*5*	*20*	*7*	*22*	*8*	*23*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 15: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of any violent discipline – Caregiver characteristics)

	Model 10 Exp.(B)	Model 11 Exp.(B)	Model 12 Exp.(B)	Model 13 Exp.(B)	Model 14 Exp.(B)	Model 15 Exp.(B)	Model 16 Exp.(B)
Constant	2.577***	2.01***	.964	1.604*	4.80***	1.706*	1.359
Urbanity (Urban)		1.162	1.343***	1.325***		1.294**	1.290**
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)							
Adjara A.R.		1.301*	1.403**	1.406**		1.557***	1.462**
Guria		1.977**	2.378***	2.328***		2.584***	2.655***
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)		.864	.944	.918		1.042	1.059
Kakheti		1.500**	1.670***	1.636**		1.704**	1.637**
Mtskheta-Mtianeti		1.087	1.161	1.096		1.278	1.289
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti		1.149	1.272	1.283		1.481**	1.492*
Samtskhe-Javakheti		.848	1.032	.993		.970	.978
Kvemo Kartli		1.407**	1.052	.996		1.027	1.051
Shida Kartli		2.052***	2.176***	2.103**		2.162***	2.031***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)							
3-4 years of age			1.256	1.263		1.290	1.405*
5-9 years of age			1.054	1.075		.983	1.059
10-14 years of age			.877	.898		.816	.880
Child sex (Male)			1.276***	1.265***		1.337***	1.357***
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)			1.465**	1.562***		1.785***	1.722***
IDP status of household head (IDP)			1.169	1.271		1.378	1.374
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)							
Ethnicity (Azeri)			2.692***	2.521***		2.385***	2.285***
Ethnicity (Armenian)			.876	.883		1.092	1.125
Ethnicity (Other)			.831	.919		.787	.788
Both parents present in the household			1.080	.959		.914	.939
Number of children in the household (Ref. group – One child)							
2-3 children in the household			1.329***	1.394***		1.440***	1.418***
More than 3 children in the household			2.062***	2.178***		2.515***	2.553***
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)			1.173*	1.172*		1.131	1.143
Caregiver's attitude towards physical punishment							4.423***
Mother with higher education	.85**	.88	.949				
Caregiver's functional difficulty	1.98***	2.01***	2.01***		2.315***	2.255***	2.091***
Caregiver felt discriminated				1.497**	1.084	1.070	1.037
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)				.700**	.646**	.638**	.672**
Books at home (Ref. group – No books)							
1-9 books at home					.650***	.797	.803
10 or more books at home					0.71***	.938	.961
Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.03*	*.06*	*.06*	*.03*	*.08*	*.10*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.02*	*.04*	*.04*	*.02*	*.05*	*.07*
Percentage correct	*71.75*	*71.75*	*71.85*	*72.08*	*71.69*	*71.70*	*71.44*
Chi-square	*44.31*	*93.91*	*215.11*	*195.02*	*76.11*	*220.03*	*294.60*
DF	*2.00*	*12.00*	*25.00*	*26.00*	*5.00*	*28.00*	*29.00*
P	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 16: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of psychological punishment – Urbanity, Region, Child characteristics)

	Model 1 Exp.(B)	Model 2 Exp.(B)	Model 3 Exp.(B)
Constant	2.119***	1.123 **	1.197
Urbanity (Ref. group Urban)	.832**		.824**
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)			
Adjara A.R.	1.249*		1.272*
Guria	1.818**		1.846**
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	.854		.871
Kakheti	1.274		1.286*
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	1.048		1.085
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	.993		1.005
Samtskhe-Javakheti	.742*		.765
Kvemo Kartli	1.394***		1.436***
Shida Kartli	1.705***		1.725***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)			
3-4 years of age of age		1.484***	1.471***
5-9 years of age of age		1.797***	1.808***
10-14 years of age of age		1.407***	1.411***
Child sex (Ref. group Male)		1.256***	1.251***
Child functional difficulty (Ref. group Functional difficulty)		1.394**	1.395**

Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.02*	*.03*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.01*	*.02*
Percentage correct	*68.50*	*68.50*	*68.40*
Chi-square	*60.61*	*68.36*	*128.89*
DF	*10.00*	*5.00*	*15.00*
P	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 17: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of psychological punishment – Household characteristics)

	Model 4 Exp.(B)	Model 5 Exp.(B)	Model 6 Exp.(B)	Model 7 Exp.(B)	Model 8 Exp.(B)	Model 9 Exp.(B)
Constant	1.82***	.737*	1.384***	.66**	1.331***	.612***
Urbanity (Urban)		1.350***		1.385 ***		1.400***
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)						
Adjara A.R.		1.370**		1.336**		1.339**
Guria		2.074***		2.068***		2.085***
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)		.939		.945		.956
Kakheti		1.38**		1.408**		1.418**
Mtskheta-Mtianeti		1.156		1.113		1.111
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti		1.078		1.064		1.076
Samtskhe-Javakheti		.834		.808		.803
Kvemo Kartli		1.029		1.013		1.004
Shida Kartli		1.815***		1.809***		1.804***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)						
3-4 years of age		1.489***		1.460***		1.451***
5-9 years of age		1.826***		1.459***		1.50***
10-14 years of age		1.462***		1.199		1.261*
Child sex (Male)		1.25 ***		1.27***		1.282***
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.38 **		1.365**		1.342**
IDP status of household head (IDP)	1.286*	1.285*	1.252	1.253	1.238	1.239
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)						
Ethnicity (Azeri)	2.349***	2.822***	2.193***	2.670***	2.106***	2.598***
Ethnicity (Armenian)	.830	1.050	.839	1.079	.843	1.093
Ethnicity (Other)	.941	.893	.882	.829	.871	.819
Both parents present in the household	1.168*	1.181*	1.125	1.127	1.098	1.107
Number of children in the household (Ref. group – One child)						
2-3 children in the household			1.497***	1.472***	1.469***	1.422***
More than 3 children in the household			2.185***	2.187***	2.089***	2.050***
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)					1.172**	1.180**
Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.04*	*.03*	*.05*	*.03*	*.05*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.03*	*.02*	*.04*	*.02*	*.04*
Percentage correct	*68.51*	*68.42*	*68.51*	*68.53*	*68.51*	*68.37*
Chi-square	*66.00*	*192.27*	*129.57*	*240.86*	*137.62*	*248.79*
DF	*5.00*	*20.00*	*7.00*	*22.00*	*8.00*	*23.00*
P	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 18: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of psychological punishment – Caregiver characteristics)

	Model 10 Exp.(B)	Model 11 Exp.(B)	Model 12 Exp.(B)	Model 13 Exp.(B)	Model 14 Exp.(B)	Model 15 Exp.(B)	Model 16 Exp.(B)
Constant	1.985***	1.328	.859	.779	1.196	1.328	1.056
Urbanity (Urban)	1.199*	1.213**	1.373***	1.379***	1.376***	1.283**	1.279**
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)							
Adjara A.R.	1.148	1.167	1.224	1.317*	1.293*	1.430**	1.342*
Guria	1.699*	1.769**	2.00**	2.366***	2.255***	2.325**	2.387***
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	0.818*	.831	.908	.935	.889	.973	.988
Kakheti	1.317*	1.326*	1.487**	1.700***	1.641**	1.648**	1.585**
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	1.042	1.075	1.086	1.208	1.126	1.255	1.268
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	.954	.981	1.038	1.118	1.104	1.247	1.255
Samtskhe-Javakheti	0.668**	0.699*	.759	.945	.898	.836	.842
Kvemo Kartli	1.31**	1.352**	.992	1.066	1.004	1.028	1.055
Shida Kartli	1.589***	1.590***	1.681***	2.124***	2.023***	2.069***	1.948***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)							
3-4 years of age		1.384*	1.304	1.284	1.280	1.308	1.420*
5-9 years of age		1.429**	1.137	1.113	1.133	1.103	1.185
10-14 years of age		1.135	.966	.967	.987	.913	.984
Child sex (Male)		1.232***	1.261***	1.257***	1.244***	1.321***	1.342***
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.396**	1.352**	1.407**	1.509**	1.740***	1.678***
IDP status of household head (IDP)			1.184	1.167	1.268	1.319	1.319
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)							
Ethnicity (Azeri)			2.387***	2.567***	2.376***	2.251***	2.153***
Ethnicity (Armenian)			.974	.901	.891	1.036	1.064
Ethnicity (Other)			.732	.645	.714	.557	.553**
Both parents present in the household			1.113	1.109	.980	.959	.986
Number of children in the HH (Ref. group – One child)							
2-3 children in the household			1.422***	1.358***	1.417***	1.445***	1.423***
More than 3 children in the household			2.386***	2.148***	2.256***	2.398***	2.432***
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)			1.152*	1.157*	1.153*	1.122	1.134
Caregiver's attitude towards physical punishment							4.176**
Mother with higher education	.881*	.881*	.934	1.002			
Caregiver's functional difficulty				2.050***		2.41***	2.238***
Caregiver felt discriminated					1.377*	1.061	1.029
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)					.785*	.741*	.783
Books at home (Ref. group – No books)							
1-9 books at home						.769*	.774*
10 or more books at home						.886	.907
Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.02*	*.05*	*.06*	*.05*	*.08*	*.10*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.02*	*.04*	*.04*	*.04*	*.05*	*.07*
Percentage correct	*68.9*	*69.06*	*69.07*	*69.82*	*70.06*	*69.65*	*69.73*
Chi-square	*53.41*	*90.91*	*191.61*	*220.31*	*188.81*	*225.10*	*300.64*
DF	*11.00*	*16.00*	*24.00*	*25.00*	*26.00*	*28.00*	*29.00*
P	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*	*.00*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 19: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of physical punishment – Urbanity, Region, Child characteristics)

	Model 1 Exp.(B)	Model 2 Exp.(B)	Model 3 Exp.(B)
Constant	.382***	.497***	.392***
Urbanity (Ref. group Urban)	.969		.989
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)			
Adjara A.R.	1.375***		1.395***
Guria	1.373		1.518*
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	.862		.893
Kakheti	1.734***		1.842***
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	.867		.906
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	1.313*		1.441**
Samtskhe-Javakheti	.913		1.023
Kvemo Kartli	1.924***		2.133***
Shida Kartli	1.779***		1.801***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)			
3-4 years of age		1.399**	1.396**
5-9 years of age		.991	1.004
10-14 years of age		0.430***	0.417***
Child sex (Ref. group Male)		1.160**	1.147**
Child functional difficulty (Ref. group Functional difficulty)		1.492***	1.504***
Nagelkerke R Square	*.026*	*.056*	*.083*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.018*	*.040*	*.059*
Percentage correct	*68.3*	*68.3*	*68.92*
Chi-square	*117.964*	*259.564*	*387.158*
DF	*10*	*5*	*15*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 20: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of physical punishment – Household characteristics)

	Model 4 Exp.(B)	Model 5 Exp.(B)	Model 6 Exp.(B)	Model 7 Exp.(B)	Model 8 Exp.(B)	Model 9 Exp.(B)
Constant	.337***	.264***	.334***	.244***	.291***	.215***
Urbanity (Urban)		1.236**		1.254**		1.230*
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)						
Adjara A.R.		1.558***		1.539***		1.563***
Guria		1.750**		1.752**		1.816**
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)		.987		.986		1.018
Kakheti		1.965***		1.992***		2.055***
Mtskheta-Mtianeti		.978		.962		.972
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti		1.506**		1.496**		1.570***
Samtskhe-Javakheti		.953		.939		.942
Kvemo Kartli		1.387**		1.372**		1.360**
Shida Kartli		1.872***		1.860***		1.879***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)						
3-4 years of age		1.424**		1.407**		1.400**
5-9 years of age		1.014		.882		.921
10-14 years of age		.430***		.380***		.411***
Child sex (Male)		1.146*		1.159**		1.168**
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.473***		1.467***		1.436***
Household wealth	.893***	.923	.893***	.922	.92*	.958
IDP status of household head (IDP)	1.535***	1.591***	1.533***	1.567***	1.475***	1.534***
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)						
Ethnicity (Azeri)	2.819***	3.025***	2.815***	2.944***	2.616***	2.887***
Ethnicity (Armenian)	1.298	1.583**	1.297	1.605**	1.325*	1.651***
Ethnicity (Other)	1.395	1.378	1.403	1.344	1.363	1.325
Both parents present in the household	1.334***	1.209**	1.331***	1.170*	1.247**	1.133
Number of children in the household (Ref. group – One child)						
2-3 children in the household			1.022	1.310***	.970	1.240**
More than 3 children in the household			.984	1.395**	.870	1.259
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)					1.543***	1.305***
Nagelkerke R Square	*.038*	*.105*	*.038*	*.108*	*.050*	*.112*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.027*	*.075*	*.027*	*.077*	*.036*	*.080*
Percentage correct	*69*	*70*	*69*	*70*	*69*	*71*
Chi-square	*172.931*	*493.927*	*173.127*	*508.887*	*230.693*	*528.120*
DF	*6*	*21.000*	*8.000*	*23.000*	*9.000*	*24.000*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 21: Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of physical punishment – Caregiver characteristics)

	Model 10 Exp.(B)	Model 11 Exp.(B)	Model 12 Exp.(B)	Model 13 Exp.(B)
Constant	.528***	.374***	.624*	.429***
Urbanity (Urban)		1.150	1.044	1.038
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)				
Adjara A.R.		1.387**	1.255	1.096
Guria		1.64*	1.619	1.696*
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)		1.051	.929	.962
Kakheti		2.00***	1.890***	1.801***
Mtskheta-Mtianeti		.914	.867	.869
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti		1.397*	1.325	1.342
Samtskhe-Javakheti		.992	.831	.854
Kvemo Kartli		1.398**	1.184	1.256
Shida Kartli		2.061***	1.863***	1.717***
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)				
3-4 years of age		1.256	1.348*	1.520**
5-9 years of age		.737*	.709*	.779
10-14 years of age		.343***	.332***	.358***
Child sex (Male)		1.081	1.003	1.028
Child functional difficulty (Functional difficulty)		1.530***	1.713***	1.649***
Household wealth		1.003	1.139	1.127
IDP status of household head (IDP)		1.595***	2.020***	2.079***
Ethnicity (Ref. group Georgian)				
Ethnicity (Azeri)		2.952***	2.466***	2.407***
Ethnicity (Armenian)		1.322	1.737**	1.809**
Ethnicity (Other)		.858	.718	.777
Both parents present in the household		.992	1.058	1.127
Number of children in the HH (Ref. group – One child)				
2-3 children in the household		1.130	1.277*	1.231*
More than 3 children in the household		1.330*	1.374*	1.369
Household density (More than 2 persons per bedroom)		1.251***	1.165*	1.167*
Caregiver's attitude towards physical punishment				4.110***
Mother with higher education	.667***	.795**	.863	.912
Caregiver's functional difficulty		1.591***	1.656***	1.439**
Caregiver felt discriminated			1.655***	1.563**
Caregiver's subjective well-being (feels happy)			.660***	.731**
Caregiver victim of robbery or physical assault (last 12 months)			.987	1.065
Caregiver victim of physical attack (last 12 months)			8.613**	9.057**
Books at home (Ref. group – No books)				
1-9 books at home			.785*	.811
10 or more books at home			.777*	.799
Nagelkerke R Square	*.01*	*.12*	*.14*	*.18*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.008*	*.086*	*.101*	*.130*
Percentage correct	*69.316*	*70.500*	*71.874*	*73.556*
Chi-square	*45.256*	*448.248*	*424.910*	*556.146*
DF	*1.000*	*26.000*	*32.000*	*33.000*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*

Annex 5 22: Share of victims of violent discipline (between 3 and 4 years of age) by ECDI score

	%	Number	X^2	DF	P
Psychological aggression					
Children not on track	84.1%	95	15.942a	1	.000
Children on Track	65.5%	643			
Physical punishment					
Children not on track	65.5%	74	26.186a	1	.000
Children on Track	40.3%	396			

Annex 5 23: Share of victims of violent discipline (between 2 and 4 years of age) by parent involvement (Parent/caregiver was involved in more than 4 activities with a child during the last three days preceding the survey)

	%	Number	X^2	DF	P
Psychological aggression					
Less involved parents	70.8%	255	7.956a	1	0.003
More involved parents	62.8%	782			
Physical punishment					
Less involved parents	47.1%	169	8.301a	1	0.002
More involved parents	38.6%	481			

Annex 5 24: Share of victims of violent discipline by parent's help with homework (Parent helped a child with homework during the last 12 months preceding the survey)

	%	Number	X^2	DF	P
Psychological aggression					
Parent doesn't help with homework	64.2%	942	37.057a	1	.000
Parent helps with homework	73.6%	1601			
physical punishment					
Parent doesn't help with homework	20.9%	306	48.045	1	.000
Parent helps with homework	31.3%	680			

Annex 5 25: Share of victims of Psychological aggression by specific development problems in older children (between 5 and 14 years of age)

Learning difficulties	%	Number	Total cases	X2	DF	P
No learning difficulties	69.4%	3030	4726	4.571a	1	.018
Learning difficulties	74.7%	278				
Anxiety problems						
No anxiety	63.8%	1031	4726	43.605a	1	.000
With anxiety	73.1%	2273				
Concentration difficulties						
No concentration problems	69.3%	3120	4734	11.827a	1	.000
Concentration problems	79.9%	187				
Difficulties accepting change						
No difficulties in accepting changes	69.4%	2887	4735	3.437a	1	.035
Difficulties in accepting change	73.2%	420				
Difficulties in controlling behaviour						
No difficulties in controlling behaviour	67.7%	2757	4735	61.868a	1	.000
Difficulties in controlling behaviour	82.8%	550				
Difficulties in making friends						
No difficulties in making friends	69.7%	3041	4735	.230a	1	.339
Difficulties in making friends	70.9%	266				

Annex 5 27: Tables for severe physical punishment

a. Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children between 1 and 14 years of age who experienced severe physical punishment during the last month) by urbanity and regions

URBANITY	% Subjects of Physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
Urban	4%	162	7.442a		.004
Rural	5%	137			
REGION					
Tbilisi	4%	100	42.247a		.000
Adjara A.R.	3%	24			
Guria	2%	4			
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	3%	23			
Kakheti	7%	32			
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	3%	4			
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	5%	24			
Samtskhe-Javakheti	3%	7			
Kvemo Kartli	8%	66			
Shida Kartli	3%	14			

b. Prevalence of physical punishment (Percentage of children between 1 and 14 years of age who experienced physical punishment during the last month) by characteristics of a child

CHILD AGE	% Subjects of physical punishment	Number of subjects of physical punishment	X2	DF	P
1-2 years of age	2%	24	34.91		.000
3-4 years of age	4%	44			
5-9 years of age	6%	165			
10-14 years of age	3%	65			
CHILD SEX					
Female	5%	150	.389a		.286
Male	4%	149			
CHILD FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTY					
No functional difficulty	4%	232	83.370a		.000
Functional difficulty	13%	64			

c. Logistic regression (Effects of different factors on likelihood of becoming a victim of psychological punishment – Urbanity, Region, Child characteristics)

	Model 1 Exp.(B)	Model 2 Exp.(B)	Model 3 Exp.(B)
Constant	.047***	.042***	.039***
Urbanity (Ref. group Urban)	1.480**		1.402*
Region (Ref. group Tbilisi)			
Adjara A.R.	.621*		.678
Guria	.457		.493
Imereti (Racha-Lechkhumi, Qvemo Svaneti)	.526**		.578*
Kakheti	1.268		1.301
Mtskheta-Mtianeti	.451		.501
Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti	.956		1.087
Samtskhe-Javakheti	.490		.548
Kvemo Kartli	1.434		1.664**
Shida Kartli	.516*		.532*
Child age (Ref. group between 1 and 2 years of age)			
3-4 years of age		1.014	1.014
5-9 years of age		1.304	1.323
10-14 years of age		.662	.648
Child sex (Ref. group Male)		.940	.921
Child functional difficulty (Ref. group Functional difficulty)		3.631***	3.621***
Nagelkerke R Square	*.02*	*.04*	*.06*
Cox & Snell R Square	*.01*	*.01*	*.02*
Percentage correct	*95.32*	*95.32*	*95.32*
Chi-square	*46.798*	*82.653*	*130.101*
DF	*10*	*5*	*15*
P	*.000*	*.000*	*.000*

**** P<0.001 ** P <0.01 *P <0.05*