

Empower Women – Benefit for All

Gender Livelihood and Socio Economic Study

Baseline Study Georgia



Empower Women
Benefit for All



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Developed by: Yuliya Fruman, Anna Samwel, Ida Bakhturidze, Nino Gamisonia, Rostom Gamisonia

Edited by: Margriet Samwel, WECF

All figures and tables are developed by the authors, unless mentioned

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Project Partners:

The Greens Movement of Georgia



Paros – Paros Women Organisation Ninotsminda

RCDA – Rural Communities Development Agency



SDCA – Social Development Center Akhaltsikhe



SEMA – Georgian Agricultural Association



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WECF – Women in Europe for a Common Future
The Netherlands / France / Germany

Website: www.wecf.eu; **Email:** wecf@wecf.eu

WECF The Netherlands

Korte Elisabethstraat 6
NI - 3511 JG, Utrecht
Netherlands
Tel.: +31 - 30 - 23 10 300
Fax: +31 - 30 - 23 40 878

WECF France

BP 100
F - 74103 Annemasse Cedex
France
Tel.: +33 - 450 - 49 97 38
Fax: +33 - 450 - 49 97 38

WECF e.V. Germany

St. Jakobs-Platz 10
D - 80331 Munich
Germany
Tel.: +49 - 89 - 23 23 938 - 0
Fax: +49 - 89 - 23 23 938 - 11

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List of acronyms

- EWA – Empowerment of Women – Benefit for All
 Paros – Paros Women Organisation Ninotsminda
 RCDA – Rural Communities Development Agency
 SDCA – Social Development Center Akhaltsikhe
 SEMA – Georgian Agricultural Agriculture Association
 WASH – Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
 UDDT – Urine Diverting Dry Toilet
 WECF – Women in Europe for a Common Future

Executive Summary

This article presents an analysis of the initial findings of the Women in Europe for a Common Future's (WECF) project, Empower Women, Benefit for All (EWA). WECF is an international network of over 100 women's, environmental and health organisations that is currently implementing projects in forty countries and advocates for a healthy environment for all. The EWA project is based on the goal of increasing women's economic and political participation in rural and peri-urban communities in six countries – Afghanistan, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, South Africa, Tajikistan, and Uganda. More specifically, both the role of women within the formal economy as well as increasing their access to the care economy is targeted by EWA. This, in combination with increasing women's political participation is also intended to generally lead to a reduction of gender inequality and poverty within the target groups. This article analyses the results of the initial interview process in Georgia, which also serves a baseline study for WECF and its partner organizations, the Paros, RCDA, SDCA, and SEMA.

1 Introduction

This report contains the analysis of the project 'Empower Women – Benefit for All' (EWA) participatory study of the livelihood situation in Georgia. EWA is a four-year programme that targets six countries (Afghanistan, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, South Africa, Tajikistan, and Uganda), one hundred communities, and at least 50,000 women and men. The objectives of the programme are:

- Increase economic self-reliance and women's political participation of women in low-income rural and peri-urban region through capacity building on sustainable economic empowerment of the target group the six aforementioned developing countries
- Increase women's participation and leadership role in policy and the economy, and strengthen policies and legal frameworks for gender equality and women's access to resources through experience sharing and policy advocacy in four developing countries (Brazil, Ghana, India, Kenya) and internationally.

To achieve these objectives, the EWA programme applies four strategies: focusing on women's livelihoods, income generation, women's participation and leadership roles, and gender advocacy. The combination¹ of increasing women's economic and political empowerment is intended to decrease gender equality and produce long-term poverty reduction with the target communities. The local capacity building is flanked by a political advocacy programme, enabling policy measures at local, national and international level.

This report focuses on an analysis of the EWA project in Georgia. This report serves as a baseline analysis that is obtained via quantitative and qualitative research conducted by WECF's Georgian partners: Paros, RCDA, SDCA, and SEMA.²

2 Georgia - background information

Georgia is a middle income country, with a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of 6000\$USD.³ Its main exports are citrus fruits, grapes, hazelnuts, vegetables and livestock, with a small industrial sector for metals, drinks (wine), machinery and chemicals. The main economic activity is agriculture.⁴

Georgia's total area is 69,700 square kilometers.⁵ Almost all gas and oil resources are imported.⁶ The population of Georgia is 4,555,911.⁷ The official language in Georgia is Georgian, but Russian, Armenian, and Azeri are commonly spoken by nine, seven, and six per cent of the population respectively. Other languages are spoken by another seven percent of the population.⁸

¹ Jewish Virtual Library (2013) 'Tajikistan' [accessed 19 August 2013] <<http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/vjw/Tajikistan.html>>

² The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) interviewed two communities of Akhaltsikhe and Akaltsikhe district. Sixty respondents were interviewed in total in Akhaltsikhe and in two villages of Akhaltsikhe district. There were thirty persons in Uraveli and thirty in Tskruti.

³ CIA worldfact book (2013) 'Georgia', [accessed 19/09/2013] <<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/gg.html>>

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Ibid.*

2.1 Gender

Women in rural communities generally tend to sustain a significant share of farm work, including crop cultivation, attending to livestock, and processing agricultural and dairy products. However, inadequate social services and the unreliability of public utilities have made the burden on Georgia's rural women even direr. What is more, due to the emigration of men in search of employment outside of Georgia, the quantity of homes, headed by women has grown considerably. On the whole, within rural communities, homes headed by women who have children are most vulnerable to poverty. For instance, according to International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), in certain rural regions of Georgia, such as Mtskheta-Mtianeti and Kakheti, women are four times more likely to be impoverished than in other, more urbanised regions. This is due to social and economic crises, which have led to a reversion of previous gains made towards gender equality. In spite of legislative gains that are designed to protect gender equality, families are largely patriarchal, especially within rural areas, where women are mostly expected to fulfil traditional gender roles as homemakers; women tend to have fewer opportunities for employment and when they do have employment within the formal sector, they receive lower wages than their male counterparts.⁹ Due to absence of men, or their inability to work, women have double burden for caring for the family and generating income.

2.2 Economic situation

The unemployment rate in Georgia is fifteen per cent.¹⁰ The main economic activities include cultivation of: grapes, citrus fruits, and hazelnuts; mining of manganese, copper, and gold are also common. Even though Georgia's economy has begun to grow in 2010, it has not fully recovered from the 2008 conflict with Russia. Furthermore, problems with tax revenue collection remain.¹¹ Consumption also expanded by 5.5 per cent, which is half as much as in 2011.¹² The current account deficit rose to 13.5 per cent of the GDP in 2012, which is up from 12.8 per cent in 2011.¹³ This is due to a worsening trade deficit; the trade deficit was partially offset by a rise in net services.¹⁴

The agricultural market contracted in 2012, when it shrunk by 3.3% 'after the 8.0% growth in 2011 and reflecting smaller harvests of crops and livestock. Services grew by 5.8%, up from 5.7% in 2011, because of better performance in the financial sector, tourism, transport and communications, and wholesale and retail trade.'¹⁵

2.3 Agriculture and Environment

Land degradation has been exasperated by climate change, and has also received minimal attention from authorities in spite of the immense ramifications of these factors on agriculture. As for today Agriculture, represents only 7% of country's GDP though it absorbs just over half the workforce. The societal and economic impacts of weather, climate, water and environmental conditions are great in Georgia –and they are growing. Today up to 25 percent of a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is sensitive to weather, climate and water. Extreme weather events due to climate variability and low capacity to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change aggravate food security risks. This situation is further compounded by rapid environmental degradation as a result of agricultural expansion and deforestation, inadequate knowledge and skills in the productive use and management of land and natural resources in rural areas.¹⁶

2.4 Water, Sanitation and Energy

Most rural households rely on firewood as the main fuel, which is often illegally logged or with an expensive license, and sold at very high prices to the households. The labour burden on women is high due to them having no access to warm water and energy inefficiency in the houses, which impacts on their health as they mainly use cold water for household tasks. This double burden also restricts their ability to participate in the economic or political sectors due to heavy burdens within the home and the care economy. Unhygienic pit latrines do not

⁹International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2009).

¹⁰CIA World Factbook (2013).

¹¹*Ibid.*

¹²Asian development bank (2013), 'Asian Development Outlook 2013 Asia's Energy Challenge: Georgia', p.129.

¹³*Ibidem*, p.130.

¹⁴*Ibid.*

¹⁵*Ibidem*, p.129.

¹⁶ RCDA 2013

respect the needs of women for privacy and dignity and pollute the ground water that is used as drinking water. This interrelated problematic situation also leads to epidemics. The rural population lacks awareness about the causes, consequences and solutions for their problems. Extreme climatic events and natural disasters such as recent droughts and flooding in 2009 and 2010 have exacerbated these problems. Such events disproportionately affect the poorer rural population, especially women, whose livelihoods depend on agriculture.

Georgia has vast resources of almost all types of renewable energy – solar, wind, geothermal, hydro, and biomass estimated to be able to provide the equivalent of one million tons of oil per annum. This is enough energy to meet over a third of Georgia’s annual energy needs. Yet adoption and implementation of renewable energy and energy efficiency has been lacking. Only a very small part of the potential is currently used; the share of renewable energy in Georgia’s energy balance is approximately one percent (excluding hydropower). Approximately 80% of Georgian energy needs depend on usage of wood or cow manure. 70% of the total primary energy supply in Georgia comes from imported resources. The biggest indigenous energy resource is hydro energy (18%), followed by firewood (12%). There exists no infrastructure or service for accessing affordable, alternative energy technologies in Georgia.



Map of Georgia

2.5 Local project partner and research areas

2.5.1. The RCDA (Rural Communities Development Association) manages two well-established demonstration centers where all proposed technologies on renewable energy, water and sanitation are exposed and tested, and where (practical) trainings can be organized, and from which up-scaling can be implemented. The RCDA obtained data from Kheta and Khamiskuri, 2 neighboring villages in **Khobi district**, Samegrelo.

Kheta is a small village extended through 2256 ha, with a population of 4271 and there are 1170 households (in 2010) and 232 currently employed people. The income per household is on average 2700 GEL/year. The main activity is agriculture, covering an area of 992 ha, and forests cover 124 ha. The community infrastructure consists of 2 schools, 2 kindergartens, 1 NGO and 1 policlinic. The average temperature ranges from +5°C in winter till 22°C in summer.

Water is obtained mainly from wells and piped springs, and there is no central sewage system. There is no piped gas.

Khamiskuri is a small village extended through 1836 ha, with a population of 1759 and there are 485 households (in 2010). 147 are currently officially employed people. The income per household is on average 2650 GEL/year. Main activity is agriculture, covering an area of 807 ha, and forests cover 95 ha. The community infrastructure consists of 1 school, 1 kindergarten, 1 NGO and 1 polyclinic. The average temperature ranges from +5°C in winter till 22°C in summer.

Water is obtained mainly from wells and piped springs, and there is no central sewage system. There is no piped gas.

2.5.2 SEMA (Georgian Ecological Agricultural Association) is an organic agricultural organization, which promotes sustainable agricultural practices and helps farmers to improve their livelihoods in general, having good ties with local farmers as well as the scientific community in Tbilisi. Sema conducted interviews in Tsilkani and Galavani in **Mtskheta district**.

Tsilkani - is situated in a mountainous region, with a population of 2767 people; 53 % are women. The village is extended through 900 ha. Community Center is village Ereda, which is located on Mukhrani plains, to the left side of river Narekvavi, in 10 km from Mtskheta. There is a public school in the village. The vast majority of the population is engaged in agriculture.

Galavani Community (Galavani Sakrebulo) is located at a distance of 30 km from Tbilisi and 8 km. from district centre. The total area of the community is 1455 ha. The area under agricultural lands is 958 ha among which arable lands comprise 585 ha.

The average land area per local household that is in private ownership is about 0.5 hectares and per IDP household is 0.2 hectares. The entire population of the community is 2611 out of which IDPs from South Osetia comprise 361. The number of households is 754 out of which IDP households comprise 122. The food supply and incomes of the households depend upon agricultural crops produced at their small plots of lands.

2.5.3 The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) is an NGO based in the region of Samckhe-Javakheti, Akhaltsikhe, concentrating on community development and alternative energy around Akhaltsikhe. SDCA conducted interviews in Uraveli and Tskruti in the district Akhaltsikhe

Uraveli is a village in Akhaltsikhe district that covers an area of 2236 ha, with a population of approx. 900 (in 2010). There are 228 households. The average income per household is 300 GEL/month. The main activity is agriculture, covering an area of 175 ha, and forests cover 1341 ha.

The community infrastructure consists of 1 school, 1 kindergarten, 2 NGOs, 3 enterprises and 1 polyclinic.

Tskruti is a village in Akhaltsikhe district with a population of approx. 1194 people (2002 count). The inhabitants are mainly ethnic Armenians. The main activity is agriculture. There is one public school.

2.5.4 Paros is a women NGO, based in the region of Samtse-Javakheti, Ninotsminda, concentrating on community development, agriculture and women empowerment. PAROS conducted interviews in Satkha and Gorelovka in the district Ninotsminda.

Satkha is a big village by Ninotsminda municipality standards, extended through 4017 ha, with a population of 1793 and there are 412 households (in 2010) and 74 currently employed people. The income per household is on average 4000 GEL/year (and more than 10 000\$ if the family has somebody in Russia). The main activity is agriculture (potato and milk production), covering an area of 3265 ha, and forests covering 410 ha. The community infrastructure consists of one Armenian school, one kindergarten and one village Council. The average temperature ranges from -23°C in winter till 22°C in summer.

Water is obtained mainly from piped springs, and there is no central sewage system. There is piped gas.

Gorelovka is a big village too by Ninotsminda municipality standards, extended through 7231 ha, with a population of 1274 (2% Dukhobirs, 5% Georgians and 93% Armenians) and there are 326 households (in 2010) and 93 currently employed people. The income per household is on average 5000 GEL/year (and more than 10 000\$ if the family has somebody in Russia). The main activity is agriculture (milk production, cheese factories), covering an area of 6265 ha. The community infrastructure consists of 1 Armenian school, 1 kindergarten, 1 Village Council. The average temperature ranges from -30°C in winter till 20°C in summer. Water is obtained mainly from wells and piped springs, and there is no central sewage system. There is piped gas.

The focus of this report is on the gender livelihood and socio-economic situation of the target communities in Georgia. The specific objectives of this participatory livelihood analysis are:

1. To establish the baseline situation for the result areas of the project
2. To verify the intervention strategies of said project for the target communities.
3. To raise awareness among the beneficiaries about their livelihood and gender situation, and about their needs and the role of the project to meet said needs.

The research for this report is based on structured, semi-formal group and individual interviews that were carried out by the local organisations Paros, RCDA, SDCA, and SEMA.

3. Methodology

3.1 The questionnaire

The interviews were carried out in a fashion that was gender sensitive. The interviews have been conducted in Georgian. Questionnaires and guidelines were available in Russian including methodologies for random selection and guidelines on moderation and interview techniques. Additional general information has been obtained through desk study.

The questionnaire contained 36 questions: 12 about the socio economic situation, 7 about food security, 6 about water, 4 about sanitation, 3 about hygiene and 4 questions on energy (energy was not assessed in this study as the focus was chosen to lie on the other issues).

The quantitative analysis was conducted with 106 respondents to interviews. 103 of these respondents were women. In total, participants' ages ranged from 23 to 66, and the average age was 46. Seven respondents are widowed, eighty-seven are married, three are divorced, eight are single, and one is separated. The most common family size is five family members, and the least common are nine and one family members. The ages of the children within the interviewed families range from one year old to thirty years old.

The breakdown of family sizes (including one or both living spouses and children) is visible in the table below.

Table 1: Family size

Family Size	Quantity of families
1	2
2	9
3	15
4	24
5	26
6	17
7	7
8	4
9	2

The interviewees varied in educational background; the most common level of completed education is vocational school, followed by higher education.

Table 2: Completed Education

Education	Female
Higher education	38
Primary education	1
Secondary school	20
University	2
Vocational school	45

3.2 Focus Group Discussions

8 Focus group discussions were held with 100 women and 61 men in 8 villages. The topics discussed are: gender, energy, agriculture, and WASH.

A focus group is a small group led through an open discussion by a skilled moderator. Focus groups are structured around a set of predetermined questions. A focus group discussion (FGD) aims to be more than a question-answer interaction and more meaningful quantitative data. The idea is that group members discuss the topic among themselves, with guidance from the facilitator in an open and frank atmosphere. The group contained between 6- 12 people and included both men and women of different age groups. It is the role of the facilitator to make sure that all group members can give their views and that no one is left out. The purpose is to obtain in-depth information which complements the quantitative data of the questionnaire.

3.3 Other used Tools

Tools that the partner organisations implemented include:

- The use of a Venn diagramme, consisting of:
 - A process of interviewees listing, ranking and connecting institutions, groups or individuals and communication systems and information sources that influence the community's decision-making in development.
 - The purpose of this activity is to facilitate a discussion about the importance of different groups in the community and who uses and controls resources in community.
- Gender analysis, including the use of a gender daily calendar analysis
 - This analyses the various day-to-day activities performed by men and women
- An activity profile
 - This discloses the activities men and women perform in regards to reproductive work, productive work and community work
- Access and control profiles
 - Access and control profiles assess whether men and women have access to the resources that are needed in order to carry out the activities listed in the activity profile, derive benefits from them and whether they have control over them

All interviews and activities were conducted in a gender sensitive fashion. Local gender relations were respected. When interviewers and interviewees were of the opposite sex, generally more physical distance was observed than when both were of the same sex.

4 Findings from Villages

This chapter presents the findings of the baseline interviews and research conducted in Georgia by Paros, RCDA, SDCA, and SEMA, and WECF. The results are divided into several sub-categories - gender, income generation, agriculture, WASH and energy. The chapter finishes with an overview of indicators, which villagers perceive as important measures for improved livelihood.

4.1 Gender

Qualitative interviews reveal that families in Georgia believe that decisions should be made jointly between men and women. For example, In Kheta, decisions regarding the use of resources are made by couples together.¹⁷ In some cases, women have more knowledge regarding resource allocation, and make decisions alone.¹⁸ Workload division in Kheta varies and depends on the kind of work that must be carried out. The general trend is that woman stay at home, and sometimes feel deprived of the opportunities for education and off farm employment, and unequal access to financial resources¹⁹ Because workload is not always evenly distributed between men and women, family conflicts are arising.²⁰ Generally, however, couples attempt to assist and support each other.

¹⁷Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

¹⁸Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

¹⁹Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

²⁰Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

In Akhaltsikhe, villagers agreed that women ought to have a larger role in managing their households.²¹ Furthermore, increasing women's independence and social positions by providing access to education and business skills acquirement was also acknowledged as a priority.²² In Akhaltsikhe, approximately sixty per cent of male respondents agree that women carry out nearly all of the household chores, and decisions regarding the home.²³ Furthermore, a large portion of male respondents agree that 'their family's well-being is directly correlated to women's education and development.'²⁴



Women should bring their ideas forward, which should be materialized after proper discussion as a family (Tsilkani)

Source photo: M. Samwel, WECF

In Tsilkani, villagers agree that women and men should make joint decisions; they also state that women should bring their ideas forward, which should be materialized after proper discussion as a family.²⁵

In Gorelovka, decisions are sometimes made by women.²⁶ In Satkha however, important decisions tend to be made by men²⁷. In both villages, participants explain that women remain active within the household, and that the work load is generally distributed equally, depending on the scope.²⁸ Many men have begun working on large farms, and help their wives to milk cows at home.²⁹

Furthermore, interviews in Gorelovka and Satkha revealed that when asked about change in gender equality, respondents tended to agree with statements such as the need to help each other, desire to change. When more specific questions were asked regarding housework, all respondents agree that there are men's and women's responsibilities. Examples of men's work performed by women were perceived as natural; however, when asked about helping women with household chores, both men and women responded hostilely.³⁰

²¹The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) (15 February 2013), 'Short Narrative Report, "Empower Women Benefit for All (EWA)'"

²²The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) (15 February 2013), 'Short Narrative Report, "Empower Women Benefit for All (EWA)'"

²³The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) (15 February 2013), 'Short Narrative Report, "Empower Women Benefit for All (EWA)'"

²⁴The Society Development Centre of Akhaltsikhe (SDCA) (15 February 2013), 'Short Narrative Report, "Empower Women Benefit for All (EWA)'"

²⁵Bitarishvili, Iago (30 September 2012), 'Focus group discussions on the topic of Agriculture', SEMA, Tsilkani, Georgia.

²⁶Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

²⁷Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

²⁸Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

²⁹Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

³⁰Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

According to Paros, the interviews they conducted on gender in Satkha and Gorelovka, produced both similar and differing responses. The former due to comparable socio-economic realities, and the latter due to the unique identities of the villages.³¹

The quantitative research reveals more specific details regarding decision making. This table below demonstrates that for all categories, at least half of the interviewed households make decisions together.

This chapter generally reveals that cooperation within households is fairly high within the targeted villages.

Table 3: Gender and decision making (by per cent)

	Wife	Husband	Both	Parents
Who takes the decision about crop production in agricultural field	7	34	58	1
If you have a surplus, who sells the products	33	6	58	3
Who decides on purchases of food for the household	33	5	62	
Who decides on purchases of furniture and tools within the house	11		89	
Who decides on the education of the children	13		87	
Who takes the decision in your family on medical care	16		84	
Who decides on participation in public activities	11	5	84	
Who decides on taking work outside the house	2	15	83	

4.2 Income generating

This chapter presents the views of villagers regarding income generation and specifically what villagers themselves perceive as promising means of gaining a profit and the current problems that they face.

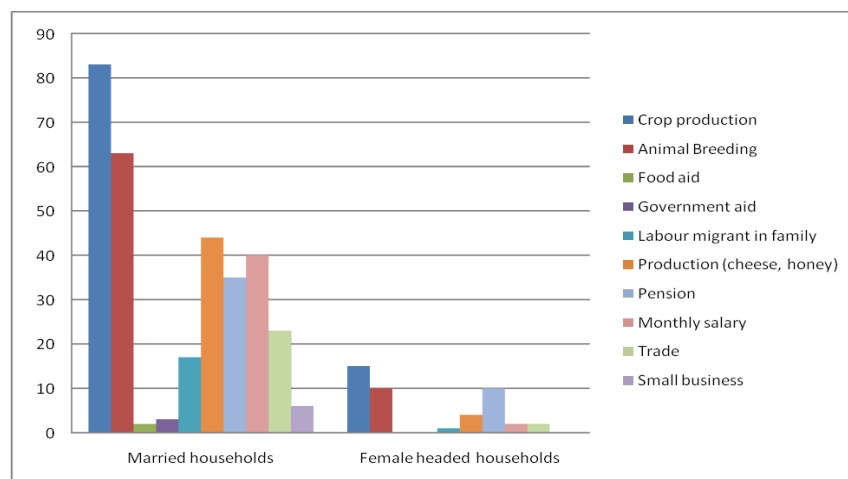
Sources of income

This section analyses the villagers' sources of income. Married households participate in a wider variety of income generating activities in comparison to female-headed households.

In both groups, crop production is the most common form of income generation. Following that, animal breeding is the second most common. Amongst married households, production of food products is the third most common form of income generation. Amongst female-headed households, receiving a pension is the third most common form of income generation.

³¹Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Satkha, Georgia.
Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Gender and livelihoods', Gorelovka, Georgia.

Graphic 1: Forms of income generating activities



The table below summarises the quantity of income generating activities in which households participate. A higher percentage of female headed households have 1, 2, and 3 sources of income. Some married households have seven sources of income.

Table 4: Quantity of sources of income

	1 source of income	2 sources of income	3 sources of income	4 sources of income	5 sources of income	6 sources of income	7 sources of income
Married households	7%	16%	23%	29%	7%	5%	13%
Female headed households	10%	40%	30%	5%	5%	10%	

In all households, personal savings are used by nearly all households in order to fund income-generating activities. After that a significant portion of households has loans in order to fund activities, both agricultural as well as other forms. The least common sources of funding are funding from NGOs and remittances from family abroad.

Table 5: Funding for income generating activities

	Sources of funds	Agriculture	Other income generating activities
Married couples	Bank	62%	60%
	Friends	43%	12%
	NGOs	8%	
	Personal funds/savings	97%	68%
	Remittances from family abroad	18%	4%
Female headed	Bank	65%	33%
	Friends	61%	33%

homes	Personal funds/savings	100%	100%
	NGOs	17%	33%
	Remittances from family abroad	39%	17%
Male headed households³²	Bank	50%	
	Friends	50%	
	NGO	50%	
	Personal funds/savings	100%	
	Remittances from family abroad	50%	

4.3 Promising income generation

There are some forms of income generation that are more adequate for increasing households' income. In Kheta and Khamiskuri for example, the only income generating crops are laurel, mandarins, hazelnuts and maize.³³ The prices of these products are not stable and villagers do know how much they can get from sales of these products.³⁴ However, villagers believe that they could improve the quality, than these items would provide the greatest income generating opportunities.³⁵ Others believe that flower and vegetable production in green houses could lead to increases in income.³⁶

In Tsilkani, several income generating activities exist – a beer factory, a chocolate manufactory, a water pumping station, growing vegetables; men tend to work in Tbilisi, while women manage the household as well as agricultural activities.³⁷

In Akhaltsikhe, households identified setting up of guest houses and drying fruits (adding value) as most promising opportunities, while in Ninotsminda district women decided that they would invest in agriculture and processing of agricultural products to increase their income.

In Satkha and Gorelovka, villagers agree that the most promising forms of income generation are production of quality food products as well as animal breeding. More specifically were mentioned processing and implementation of food products, such as corn, potatoes, and dairy products. Dairy products mentioned include cheese, butter, sour cream, and cottage cheese. Furthermore, the development of beekeeping, fisheries, and breeding of sheep and cattle are specifically mentioned. Processing the skins of bred animals are identified.³⁸

4.4 Agriculture and resources³⁹

There are several factors preventing villagers to obtain a higher income from agricultural activities. In all villages, this is related to the cost of quality fertilizer sand seeds. In Khamiskuri, there is a significant problem with low productivity of agricultural lands due to land erosion and degradation, low quality seeds, and lack of fertilizers.⁴⁰ The most pending problems for villagers from Kheta and Khamiskuri are seeds, fertilizers and lack of sufficient skills in order to manage sustainable agricultural practices.⁴¹

In Tsilkani fertilizers are lacking – even though they are accessible, they are too expensive to be purchased by villagers. Some villagers do not believe that purchasing fertilizers would resolve their problems; however in cases

³² Male headed households are considered to be those where the wife is working outside of the region, or is a labour migrant.

³³ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

³⁴ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

³⁵ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

³⁶ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

³⁷ Bitarishvili, Iago (30 September 2012), 'The role of women in managing the household', SEMA.

³⁸ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

³⁹ Sema conducted focus group discussions in Galvani and Tsilkani with 15 individuals (13 women and 2 men) on agriculture. Paros conducted focus group discussions in Satkha and Gorelovka. RCDA conducted focus group discussions in Kheta and Khamiskuri.

⁴⁰ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁴¹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

where organic fertilizer is used, it used incorrectly because villagers lack sufficient knowledge on how to properly utilise it.⁴² Again, in Tsilkani, lack of seed production within the country is identified as a significant problem.⁴³



Amongst others villagers mentioned as promising income generating activities: bee keeping, animal breeding, production of dairy products, including cheese, butter, sour cream and cottage cheese.

Source photo's: Margriet Samwel, WECF.

In Satkha and Gorelovka, lack of high quality fertilisers is also mentioned. The majority of villagers utilise a nitrogen based fertiliser obtained via state aid, but are unable to purchase other fertilisers due to their high cost.⁴⁴ Another problem identified in these villages is the high cost of seeds for potatoes and grains.⁴⁵ Good quality seeds are imported by private companies and are outside of the budget of villagers at a cost of approximately four to five lari per kilogram and one ha for planting requires four tons of potatoes. What is more, good quality pigs and cattle for dairy and meat are also lacking.⁴⁶

Villagers would also like to learn about ecological farming and the use of technology in order to improve food production.⁴⁷ Furthermore, due to decades of droughts from increases in temperature, the water draining system has become useless.⁴⁸ In Kheta, villagers explain that irrigation systems do not exist as villagers lack knowledge regarding irrigation.⁴⁹ In Satkha and Gorelovka, villagers also lack irrigation systems and equipment.⁵⁰

In Gorelovka and Satkha, villagers explain that there is a lack of a market for organic farming and lack of long-term loans for agricultural activities. Furthermore, a significant quantity of food products are imported at a lower price and lower quality. Lastly, there is a lack of support from the state.⁵¹

Another significant problem in Kheta is lack of information regarding market prices as well as demand. Villagers are not organised, nor can they properly advocate for themselves.⁵²

In Gorelovka, villagers explain that there is a lack of processing plants for dairy products in order to produce sour cream, yoghurt, and cream cheese in order to prevent imports of these products.⁵³

⁴² Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁴³ Bitarishvili, Iago (30 September 2012), 'The role of women in managing the household', SEMA.

⁴⁴ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁴⁵ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁴⁶ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁴⁷ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁴⁸ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁴⁹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁵⁰ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵¹ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵² Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁵³ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Farmers in Gorelovka and Satkha explain that cooperation in information sharing is important. However, this is prevented due to fear of small market as well as increasing competition over customers. Many farmers are also biased against the use of new technologies in these villages.⁵⁴

This chapter demonstrates that there are several resources that are lacking for villagers to generate a sufficient income from agricultural activities. The most common problems are lack of seeds and fertilizers. Furthermore, land degradation due to climate change is also altering agricultural patterns, causing additional problems for farmers.

4.5 WASH⁵⁵

This section analyses villagers' access to water, sanitation and hygiene. The results discussed here are based on the surveys conducted by the partner organisations.



Who fetches water and what is the distance from home?

Source photo: Gamisonia, RCDA

Table 6: Sources of water used by the households.

Water sources	Centralised piped water	Dug well	Irrigation water	Public street tap
Married households	95%	26%	1%	1%
Female headed households	100%	29%		
Male headed households	100%			

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵⁴Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Agriculture', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵⁵ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

Amongst female and male-headed households, all have piped water, either from a centralized system or piped springs. Amongst married households, nearly all of them have centralised piped water. About one quarter of married and female-headed households also have dug wells. A small portion of married households utilise irrigation water and utilise public street taps.

Table 7: Access to water

	24 hours/day	Two times per day more than five hours	Two times per day up to five hours	No water at home
Married households	96%	1%	1%	1%
Female headed households	97%		3%	
Male headed households	100%			

The majority of households have access to water twenty-four hours a day. A small portion of villagers also fetch water from outside the house; however, as previously mentioned, nearly all households have access to water within the home because they have centralised piped water.

All villagers in Gorelovka and Satkha note the importance of having a constant supply of water instead of having access to water for several hours a day.⁵⁶ The importance of having irrigation systems is also relevant here as this is not possible with a limited water supply, which also prevents good quality development of food products.⁵⁷ This in turn impacts villagers' livelihoods and incomes, proving the cyclical nature of the problems villagers are facing.⁵⁸ The majority of households in the participating villages have centralised piped water. However, some villagers living in Akhaltsikhe, Uraveli and Tskruti do not have access to water in the home. Of the households that fetch water, the table below summarises the time they spend gathering water.

The table below summarises who fetches water within the household. In nearly all households, all members of the family fetch water. In married households, sons, husbands and wives also fetch water solely.

Table 8. Who fetches water?

Who fetches water?	All	Boy	Husband	Wife
Married households	69%	7%	17%	7
Female headed households	100%			
Male headed households	100%			

Although most houses have access to water in the home, a few do spend time fetching water. The majority of these cases consist of less than fifteen minutes spent fetching water. Two per cent of married households spend

⁵⁶ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵⁷ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁵⁸ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

between fifteen minutes and over one hour fetching water. Three per cent of female-headed homes spend between fifteen minutes and one hour for fetching water.

Table 9: Time spent fetching water

Time spent fetching water	Not applicable	<15 minutes	15 min.- 1 hour	> 1 hour
Married households	83	14	1	1
Female headed households	79	17	3	
Male headed households	100			

In some households, water quality is tested annually. The table below summarises the degree to which villagers are aware of whether this takes place.

Table 10: Are villagers aware whether the drinking water quality is tested?

	Yes	No	Do not know
Akhaltsihe		17%	83%
Khamiskuri		64%	32%
Kheta		70%	30%
Tsilkani	100%		
Tskordza		100%	
Tskruti		97%	3%
Uraeli	22%	78%	

In the majority of villages, villagers either are not aware of whether water quality is tested or it is not tested. Only in Uraeli and Tsilkani, villages know that water quality is tested annually. All villagers in Satkha and Gorelovk explain that they have good quality water even though it is not checked.⁵⁹

The table below summarises villagers' satisfaction with their water quality. Opinions regarding this are varied. However, few households are completely satisfied with water as they fall in under thirty per cent of cases. There are also cases of villagers being generally satisfied with their water, yet desiring improvements. A significant portion of households are not satisfied with their water – thirty nine per cent if married households and forty eight per cent of female headed households. Small portions of respondents are completely unhappy with their water supply.

⁵⁹ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

Table 11: Level of satisfaction with water quality

	Fully satisfied	Satisfied, but improvements should be made	Not satisfied	Fully unsatisfied	Do not know
Akhaltsihe		100%			
Khamiskuri	48%	19%	33%		
Kheta	30%	43%	17%	4%	4%
Tsilkani		100%			
Tskordza			100%		
Tskruti	10%	3%	72%	14%	
Uraveli	33%	28%	33%	6%	

Another important WASH topic is the toilets that households have. The table below summarises the type of toilets villagers have. The most common toilet is a pit latrine. Pit latrines are problematic as waste may contaminate the ground water or reach the river, causing its contamination. Over twenty per cent of married and female-headed households do have flush toilets. A small portion of households has Urine Diverting Dry Toilets (UDDT).



The most common toilet is a pit latrine
Source photo: Margriet Samwel, WEFCF

Table 12: Type of toilet used by the households

Type of toilet (% households)	Flush toilet with sewerage	Flush toilet without sewerage	Pit Latrine	UDDT	Ventilated improved pit latrine
Married households	13%	10%	71%	1%	6%
Female headed households	12%	9%	67%	9%	3%
Male headed households	50%		50%		

Of the cases with pit latrines, the majority are located between ten and thirty meters from the home. The cases of toilets inside the home consist of flush toilets. Some toilets may also be adjacent to the home, which would fall in the category of toilets located less than ten meters from the house.

Table 13: Distance of toilet from home

	Inside home	< 10 meters	10 meters – 30 meters	>30 meters
Married households	15%	15%	63%	7%
Female headed households	19%	6%	58%	16%
Male headed households	50%		50%	

In the majority of cases, respondents are not satisfied with their toilets. There are several families that are fully satisfied, or satisfied although several points could be improved. However, significantly more households are not satisfied with their toilets.

Table 14: Degree of satisfaction with toilets

	Fully Satisfied	Satisfied with commentary	Not Satisfied	Fully unsatisfied
Married households	24%	18%	51%	7%
Female headed households	21%	25%	43%	11%
Male headed households			50%	50%

Due to the problems with the toilets that villagers currently have, an overwhelming majority would be willing to take out a micro-credit loan with a small interest rate in order to construct a UDDT. This information is summarised in the table below. Several women in Kheta explain that their village lacks adequate sanitary and hygienic conditions in the local kindergarten. Because they do not want their children to get an infectious disease, they do not take their children to kindergarten. The interviewees became very emotional while speaking about this topic.⁶⁰

Table 15: Willingness to take out a Micro-credit loan for UDDT

	Yes	No
Married households	96%	4%
Female headed households	97%	3%
Male headed households	50%	50%

⁶⁰Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

In Satkha and Gorelovka, responses regarding WASH tended to be similar. All interviewees understood the importance of water, sanitation, and hygiene. The main difference between these two villages was that UDDTs had been constructed in Gorelovka, which continue to function properly. This is a striking difference between households with UDDTs and those without, which also lack sewage systems.

What is more, hygienic practices concerning women's menstrual cycles tend to be poor, and women tend to utilise rags.⁶¹

Another important topic regarding hygiene and sanitation is access to hand washing facilities.

Table 16: Hygiene- Availability of wash facilities

	Permanent hand wash facility		Times that facility is not available?		Shower or banja?			
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Banja	Shower	Both	Neither
Married households	79%	21%	33%	67%	7%	49%	22%	22%
Female headed households	93%	7%	41%	59%	10%	48%	26%	16%
Male headed households	50%	50%		100%		50%		50%

In the majority of cases, a permanent hand washing facility is available. However, even though this facility is present, there are times when this facility is not available because of water cuts. Furthermore, a majority of cases do have showers, banjas, or both. However, there are still cases where families have neither, who wash themselves with buckets of water, which is often very time consuming and can be less hygienic.

All villagers in Satkha and Gorelovka agree with the importance of hygienic practices, such as hand washing.⁶² However, villagers were not able to state that these practices were always followed. In particular, they explain that it is extremely difficult to follow any sort of hygienic practices while working the land, where it is not possible to wash hands.⁶³ It was suggested by Paros that villagers carry wet wipes or sufficient water for hand washing; these ideas were rejected by villagers.⁶⁴

This section demonstrates that although satisfaction and access to water is fairly high, satisfaction with toilets and access to flush toilets is significantly lower. Generally, sanitation and hygiene require significantly more improvements than water. Access to water nonetheless does need improvements, especially as water quality is either not tested, or villagers lack sufficient knowledge regarding whether this takes place.

4.6 Energy⁶⁵

This section analyses villagers' access to energy, the cost thereof, uses for said energy, and the types of efforts that families go through in order to reduce their spending on it.

In Georgia, villagers have several sources of energy, including: electricity, coal, bottled gas, piped gas, and wood. During the summer, five per cent households utilise piped gas, and one per cent utilise coal. Of the interviewed households, all but ninety eight per cent of families utilise electricity. Ninety two per cent of households utilise bottled gas during the summer. Seventy eight per cent of households utilise wood during the summer. In the winter season, coal and piped gas remain rarely utilised; at one and five per cent of households respectively. Electricity remains the most common form of energy, and ninety eight per cent of households utilise electricity as an energy source. Eighty nine per cent of households utilise bottled gas in the winter, and ninety two per cent utilise wood. Wood is utilised more frequently during the winter than during the summer; bottled gas is utilised

⁶¹ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁶² Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁶³ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁶⁴ Paros (11 and 12 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Satkha, Georgia.

Paros (18 and 19 November 2012), 'Water, Sanitation , and Hygiene', Gorelovka, Georgia.

⁶⁵The RCDA conducted focus group discussions on energy in Khamiskuri with 14 respondents (8 women and 6 men).

more frequently during the summer than during the winter. This is due to the fact that the wood heated oven has the function to prepare food and heat water, besides its function to heat the room.

The table below summarises the amount of money that villagers spend on energy annually in euro.

Table 17: Amount of money spent on energy annually

Minimum	16 Euro
Maximum	220 Euro
Average	75 Euro

The average amount that villagers spend on energy annually is 430 euro, though the figure varies between families. Some families spend up to 1000 Euro on energy annually. This indicates high energy poverty; households spend 25-33% of their income on energy.

Respondents from Khamiskuri explain that they do not have electricity meters installed, which causes them to pay extra for electricity. This causes a significant quantity of problems within the village because residents believe they are also paying for individuals that plunder energy.⁶⁶ However, villagers agreed to lobby this problem in front of the new municipal government.⁶⁷

One of the purposes of utilising energy is for heating water. Heated water is utilised for a multitude of purposes, including: bathing, food preparation, hand washing laundry, showering, and washing dishes. The table below shows the use of water per village.

Table 4: Use of heating water

	Bath	Food Preparation	Laundry	Shower	Washing Dishes
Married households	53%	94%	69%	88%	90%
Female headed households	62%	76%	62%	79%	86%
Male headed households	50%	100%	50%	100%	100%

The overwhelming majority of families utilise heated water for food preparation, washing dishes, and showering. A large majority also utilise heated water for laundry and baths.

In many households in Khamiskuri, firewood is utilised for heating the home, water, and for cooking. Firewood is obtained from nearby forests, leaving them in poor conditions. Villagers must purchase a license to cut the wood; in poorer households, they do so themselves. In wealthier homes, they hire others to log the wood for them.⁶⁸ In Khamiskuri, villagers use electricity for purposes other than heating or cooking, but rather for household appliances, such as refrigerators and televisions.

93 per cent of all respondents agreed that if a micro credit loan were available for purchasing energy saving technologies, they would take it. Five per cent said they would not take a loan; one of the reasons cited was that the household already had taken out credit for business, and did not want to take out another loan.

Two per cent stated they would take out a loan if there would be a low interest rate.

⁶⁶ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁶⁷ A group of 3 persons 2 women a 1 man was delegated by the group to visit the municipal office and present their petition. Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁶⁸ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

In Khamiskuri, villagers agree that increasing energy efficiency, installing solar water heaters, solar heaters, constructing energy efficient stoves, and proper insulation in the home would reduce energy consumption.⁶⁹ All to purchase a solar hot water collector.⁷⁰ Surveyed villagers in Khamiskuri agree that they would take a micro credit loan with a small interest rate in order.



All surveyed villagers in Khamiskuri agree that they would take a micro credit loan with a small interest rate in order to purchase a solar hot water collector.

Source photo: Margriet Samwel, WECF

4.6.1 Problems with energy consumption

Villagers in Khamiskuri acknowledge that pressure exerted on natural resources may lead to conflict amongst community members.⁷¹ They also agree that high competition over energy resources may contribute to a higher price for energy.⁷² At the same time, villagers were unaware of their own contributions to environmental degradation, such as the logging of nearby forests.⁷³

Furthermore, the majority of the participants in a focus group in Khamiskuri view expensive firewood as the most urgent and second most urgent problem in the village.⁷⁴ Lack of gas was also acknowledged as the most pressing problem for other villagers.⁷⁵

Four men mentioned poor household insulation as the most urgent problem within their homes.⁷⁶ Four men and five women identified poor insulation as the second most urgent problem in the village.⁷⁷

Hot water and energy efficiency were also identified as urgent problems.⁷⁸

Frequent power cuts were also identified by villagers as a significant problem within the village.⁷⁹

Villagers identified several indicators that would reflect an improved energy use pattern by family and the community. These are the following:

- Decreased expenses to cover energy needs
- Every family have installed solar water collector
- The houses are insulated
- Households consume less fire-wood
- Fuel efficient stoves are installed⁸⁰

⁶⁹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁰ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷¹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷² Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷³ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁴ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁵ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁶ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁷ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁸ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁷⁹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

⁸⁰ Gamisonia, Nino and Kankia, Koba (September 2013), 'Focus group discussion – gender and energy', RCDA.

This chapter demonstrates energy use patterns require significant amelioration. Firewood is utilised significantly, contributing to deforestation. Lack of energy efficient insulation also contributes to energy loss, making this an urgent point of improvement.

4.6.2 Indicators of improved livelihoods

Villagers in Khamiskuri, Kheta Tsilkani and Galavani as pointing towards improved livelihoods have identified the following indicators.⁸¹⁸²:

1. Increased incomes
2. Marketing outlets for locally produced crops
3. Community value chain unit/enterprises is operative
4. Increased level of employment of women, girls and youth
5. Lower migration of men and youth to urban areas to find odd jobs
6. Women and men take decisions together
7. More knowledge
8. More information regarding the market
9. Improved nourishment

5 Conclusions

The analysis has revealed a scale of issues that concern rural households in Georgia, and how these hinder or foster the socio-economic situation. The EWA project is addressing most of these issues.

- The majority of the households explain that both partners in the households make decisions together and agree that men and women should cooperate together in making decisions regarding the home; however, there are exceptions. However there are gender stereotypes assigning different roles for men and women, with women usually having to carry a double burden with work in the house and income generation. There is a general lack in leadership of women.

This is addressed by the EWA project with trainings, round tables and workshop on gender addressing the rural communities but also local, regional and national decision makers and civil society organizations, promoting gender equality and mainstreaming. Women leadership is promoted as part of the project.

- Income generation remains a significant problem, and employment opportunities are low in the regions. Most households rely on subsistence farming for their income, producing high quality foods and animal breeding. Most households are striving to diversify their sources of income. In all households, personal savings are used by nearly all households in order to fund income-generating activities. There is a strong desire for more information and skills on marketing and business.

The business and income generation component in the EWA project are strongly developed, aiming to increase income of the beneficiaries by 20% through informing the population on business opportunities and marketing

- Villagers feel that they lack skills on food production - training and information are highly desired.
- Villagers as points of disconcertion frequently identify lack of seeds grown domestically, lack of irrigation and lack of fertilisers. Lack of agricultural inputs and agronomical knowledge and skills prevent revenues from agricultural activities to increase.

The EWA project foresees to train farmers on organic farming, improving their livelihoods and food security.

⁸¹ Gamisonia, Nino and Kiria, Igor (22 September 2013), 'Focus Group Discussion –Gender and Livelihood', RCDA.

⁸⁴ Bitarishvili, Iago (30 September 2012), 'Focus group discussions on the topic of Agriculture', SEMA, Tsilkani, Georgia.

- Water is frequently available within the home and 80% of the families have a shower or banja. Water quality is not structurally monitored in most villages and villagers don't know if water is monitored or not. In many villagers, the people are not satisfied with the water quality.
- Pit latrine is the most frequent form of sanitation and toilets require significant improvement. The vast majority of villagers are willing to construct a UDDT if an affordable credit was available.
- Problems with WASH are: lack of proper sewage and use of pit latrines, lack of permanent access to water twenty four hours a day, insufficient monitoring of water quality and informing citizen and poor hygienic practices.

WASH topic is addressed in trainings and awareness raising activities within the EWA project, including water quality monitoring.

- Energy is a significant problem for villagers especially due to poor insulation and the lack of renewable energy technologies. About 25 – 30% of the incomes are spent on energy, indicating high energy poverty.
- Wood is a main source of energy, contributing to deforestation within the region and poses high costs for the households.
- Villagers are interested in utilizing new technologies to increase energy efficiency. If low interest credits were available, villagers would be willing to invest in renewable energy and energy efficiency.

Energy is addressed mainly by introducing accessible and affordable energy efficient (house insulation) and renewable energy technology.

WECF Netherlands

Korte Elisabethstraat 6
NL – 3511 JG Utrecht
Phone: +31-30-2310300
Fax: +31-30-2340878

WECF Germany

St.-Jakobs-Platz 10
D - 80331 Munich
Phone: +49-89-23239380
Fax: +49-89-232393811

WECF France

Cité de la Solidarité Internationale
13 avenue Emile Zola
74100 Annemasse
Phone: + 33 (0) 450 834 810