

Empower Women Benefit for All

Gender Livelihood and Socio Economic Study

Tajikistan

Baseline Report



Empower Women
Benefit for All



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List of acronyms

EWA	Empowerment of Women – Benefit for All
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
UDDT	Urine Diverting Dry Toilet
VIP	Ventilated Improved Pit Latrine
WECF	Women in Europe for a Common Future
YEC	Youth Ecological Centre

1. Introduction

This report contains the analysis of the project 'Empower Women – Benefit for All' (EWA) participatory study of the livelihood situation in Tajikistan. 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:

- Increasing 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 in the six aforementioned developing countries.
- Increasing 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 combination of increasing women's economic and political empowerment is intended to decrease gender inequality and produce long-term poverty reduction within the target communities. The local capacity-building is flanked by a political advocacy programme for enabling policy measures at local, national and international level.



Map of Tajikistan with the targeted project region

Tajikistan¹ is one of the countries which faces gaps within its legal framework and practices in regards to gender equality. This gap is even more visible within rural communities. Traditional gender roles contribute to women having less time for independent financial pursuits, women tend to lack ownership and control over productive assets and inputs, lack professional skills, lack of access to finance and lack of decision-making

¹ Jewish Virtual Library, 'Tajikistan', 2013 (accessed 15 October 2014), see: www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/vjw/Tajikistan.html.

power. This problem has become even more acute since a substantial part of the male working population migrate to other countries like Russia and Kazakhstan.

The Human Development Index value of Tajikistan for 2013 is 0.607 positioning the country at 133 out of 187 countries². 39% of the population lives in multidimensional poverty³. According to the World Bank Tajikistan ranks first amongst European and Central Asian countries in terms of vulnerability to climate change⁴, in particular due to low adaptive capacity. Existing problems, such as the feminization of poverty, are expected to exacerbate and a particular increase of water shortage, as expected due to the disappearance of many small glaciers in Tajikistan⁵, will have severe effects on food security, inter alia, by lacking proper irrigation, and the use of land.

The EWA programme is implemented in collaboration with local partners. The collection of baseline data has been done by one of these partners, the Youth Ecological Centre (YEC). The other Tajik partner is ASDP Nau. A significant portion of data focuses on the Soghd and Hisor regions which have the highest poverty rate (50.3%/51%), and reaching 57.0% in the respective rural areas.

Mountains around Ayni



² UNDP, Human Development Report, Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience, New York, 2014, p.38.

³ UNDP, 2014, p. 183.

⁴ Shah, J., Tajikistan – Overview of Climate Change, Working Paper by World Bank Group, Washington, 2013, p.2.

⁵ Shah, J., Tajikistan – Overview of Climate Change, Working Paper by World Bank Group, Washington, 2013, p.4.

1.1 Methodology and research area

The focus of this report is on the socio-economic situation of the target communities in Tajikistan.

The specific objectives of this participatory livelihood analysis were:

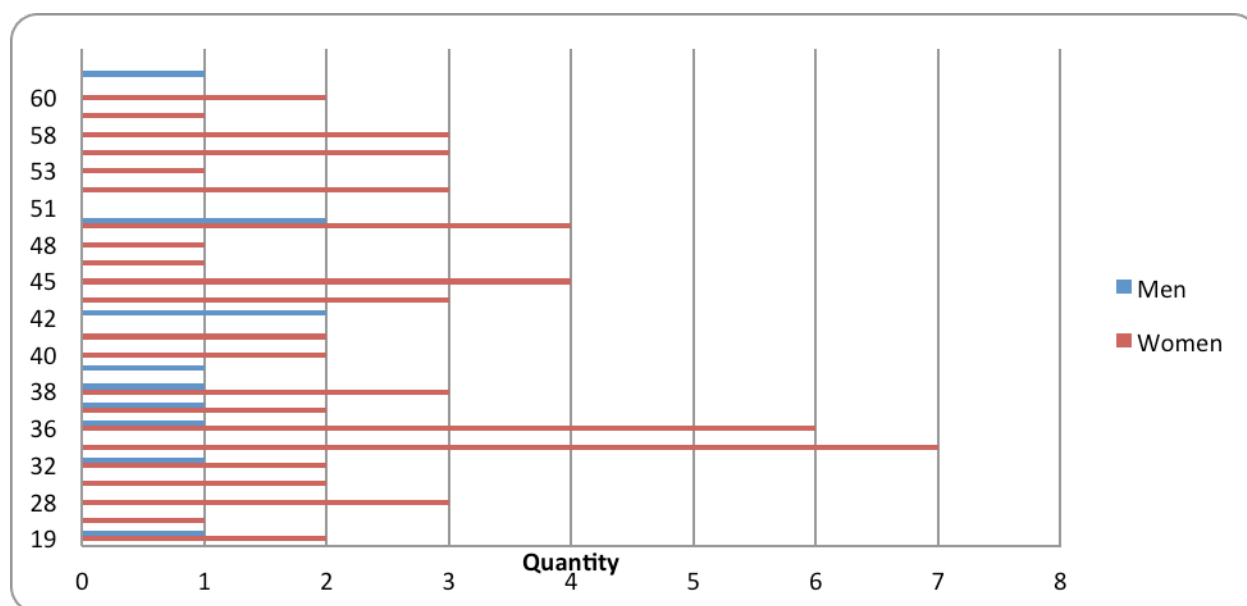
1. To establish the baseline situation for the result areas of the project;
2. To verify the intervention strategies of said project for the target communities;
3. To raise awareness among the beneficiaries about their livelihood and gender situation, and about their needs and the role of the project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

The research for this report is based on structured, semi-formal group and individual interviews that were carried out by YEC. The interviews were carried out in a gender sensitive way. The interviews have been conducted in Tajik. Questionnaires and guidelines were available in Russian including, a.o. methodologies for random selection and guidelines on moderation and interview techniques. The selection of the participants occurred randomly, 60 on-site interviews took place at 6 different cities. On location people were invited to attend the interviews (Beruni: 10, Kahramon: 10, Dehkanobod: 10, Sodiki: 10, Hodjamuso: 10, Langar: 10). Additional general information has been obtained through desk study.

Focus group discussions were held with 58 women and 9 men. The topics discussed were: gender, agriculture, and WASH (water, sanitation and hygiene). Qualitative data was obtained from sixty-seven respondents (eleven men and fifty-six women) in 7 villages (Biruni, Dekhanabad, Hodge-Muso, Kahramon, Langar, Pahtaobod, and Sodiki). The ages of the respondents range from nineteen to sixty-two. It was a programmatic choice to have at least 70% females amongst the respondents to ensure that women's opinions and perceptions were sufficiently taken into account and that identified activities and strategies fall within the scope of women's concerns.

The average age of male interviewees is forty-one and the average age of female interviewees is forty-two. The women range in age from nineteen to sixty and men from nineteen to sixty-two. The chart below represents the quantity of respondents per age.

Graph 1: Age of interviewed men and women



Five of the women interviewed are widows, one male is single, and all other interviewees are married. The breakdown of family sizes (including one or both living spouses and children) is visible in table 1.

Table 2: Family size

Family Size	Quantity of families
1	1
2	3
3	5
4	11
5	12
6	16
7	11
8	1
9	1
10	2
11	4
Total: 67	Average: 6.1

The total quantity of families including in this list is sixty-seven. The average family size is 6.1. The most common family size is six family members, and the least common are eight and nine family members. The ages of the children within the interviewed families range from six months old to twenty-eight years old.

The interviewees varied in educational background; the most common level of completed education is high school.

Table 3: Completed Education by sex

Education	Male	Female
Secondary School	27%	75%
Vocational Education	46%	14%
Higher Education	27%	11%

Tools that YEC used for data collection were: a Venn diagram and gender analysis, including the use of a gender daily calendar analysis, an activity profile, and access and control profiles. The Venn diagram consists 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 a community.

A gender daily calendar analyses the various day-to-day activities performed by men and women. An activity profile discloses the activities men and women perform in regard to reproductive work, productive work and community work. 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, showing which benefits can be gained and who has control over them.

All interviews and activities were conducted in a gender sensitive way. 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. In some communities due to strict traditional gender roles, a male researcher may have to ask consent from a woman's husband or father before he can interview her, or may have to employ a female research assistant to interview a woman.

1.2 Background information

Tajikistan has a population of 7,910,041⁶. The major ethnic groups in Tajikistan are Tajik (80% of the population), Uzbek (15%), Russian (1%), Kyrgyz (1%), and other smaller ethnic groups that equate to 3% of the population⁷.

Economic situation



Pomegranates at the market

⁶ CIA World Factbook, 2013, Tajikistan (accessed 15 October 2014), see: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ti.html>.

⁷ *Ibid.*

Tajikistan is one of the poorest of the former Soviet countries in Central Asia, with a gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of 2,200 USD.⁸ Tajikistan's GDP per capita is additionally one of the lowest in the world, ranking 190 out of 229, according to the CIA World Factbook.⁹ The current economic situation is unstable.¹⁰ Tajikistan has an extremely high percentage of labour migrants (approximately 88% of which are men) leaving to work mainly in the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan.¹¹ Approximately 47% of the Tajik GDP is made up of remittances sent from these migrants.¹² As already mentioned, 60 persons were randomly interviewed in conjunction with this study. Only 28 of them replied that they have a family member working abroad. This number seems to have little relation to reality.

Women generally account for a significantly smaller proportion of the participants in the labour market in Tajikistan, where women generally face many constraints due to existing gender stereotypes¹³. Men tend to be the main source of income within households, and control families' increasing or decreasing welfare and savings; in turn, women are not invested in as a form of human capital. All of this means that 'women are economically dependent on men, which increases their and their children's vulnerability.'¹⁴

A significant problem in Tajikistan is the feminisation of poverty, alongside the general impoverishment of rural communities, as is evident based on the table below.

Table 4: The main indicators of poverty among the population¹⁵

	Total	Women	Men	Urban areas	Rural areas
Rate of relative poverty	53.6	53.9	53.1	49.4	55.0
Rate of extreme or absolute poverty	17.1	22.9	16.0	18.9	16.4

The above table demonstrates that not only do women tend to be impoverished more than men, but rural regions tend to be more impoverished than urban ones, whereas the rate of extreme or absolute poverty is higher in urban than in rural areas.

⁸ CIA World Factbook, 2013, Tajikistan (accessed 15 October 2014), see: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ti.html>.

⁹ *Ibid.*

¹⁰ Transparency International, 2012, Corruption by country: Tajikistan (accessed 20 May 2013), see: www.transparency.org/country#TJK.

¹¹ International Labour Organisation, Migration and Development in Tajikistan – Emigration, Return and Diaspora, Moscow, 2010, International Labour Organisation, p.6.

¹² The World Bank, 2012, "Developing countries to receive over \$400 billion in remittances in 2012", says World Bank report (accessed 15 October 2014), see: www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2012/11/20/developing-countries-to-receive-over-400-billion-remittances-2012-world-bank-report.

¹³ United Nations in Tajikistan, (accessed 20 October 2014) see: http://www.untj.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=194&Itemid=645

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ Statistics Agency under the President of RT, Tajikistan Living Standards Survey for 2009, Poverty Assessment, December 2009, Report No. 51341-TJ. WB, 2010, pp. 14, 16, 17.



Tajik woman working in a sewing cooperative

The average monthly wages of women is 59.5% that of what men earn.¹⁶ In part, the feminisation of poverty in Tajikistan can be explained by women's lack of access to financial capital, natural and productive resources and physical capital; this is closely linked to women's lack of access to micro-credit services as well as income generating activities more broadly.¹⁷ According to the Tajik 2010 MDG report¹⁸, women in the country generally lack knowledge regarding their rights, especially their economic rights – they are unaware of 'procedures and rules to obtain land, property and other assets.'

What is more, gender segregation is evident within the Tajik economy. More specifically, women tend to be underrepresented in higher earning sectors – 'distribution trends of men and women by economic sector show that for the 2000 to 2009 period - in high-paying sectors such as industry and construction - the proportion of women has decreased more than 1.5 times.'¹⁹ Furthermore, the proportion of women that are employed in the agricultural sector, the lowest paid sector of the Tajik economy, has increased.²⁰ The ability to earn a stable income within the agricultural sector is related to land rights and titles. Mostly men hold land use certificates, even though by law men and women are eligible for these titles. However, women account for more than 80% of agricultural employees and only 12% of farm managers.²¹ Women tend to work as farm hands and carry out 'heavy low-paid jobs'.²²

¹⁶ Women and Men of the Republic of Tajikistan, Statistics Book, Dushanbe, 2010, p.69

¹⁷ Coalition of NGOs of Tajikistan, The Second Shadow Report on the Realization of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women by Public Organizations of Tajikistan, Dushanbe, 2012, p. 51.

¹⁸ Tajikistan, MDG Progress Report, UN, 2010.

¹⁹ *Ibid*, p. 57 et seqq.

²⁰ *Ibid*.

²¹ *Ibid*.

²² *Ibid*.

Gender

Equality between men and women is established by article 17 of the Constitution of the Republic of Tajikistan (1994). In Tajikistan men and women enjoy the full range of socio-economic, political and individual rights and freedoms

The country does have a strong patriarchal tradition and men are the dominant figures in the family and society in general. In rural regions of the country, women are particularly marginalised and often vulnerable and tend to be financially dependent on men. This is primarily due to the significant percentage of labour migration, which in some areas makes up almost 90% of the male population. Labour migrants work according to a seasonal cycle and usually return to Tajikistan for the winter season, if they can afford it, and go abroad for the rest of the year in the early spring. Many men stay overseas for many years, and women must in turn take care of in-laws, feed children, keep households, and harvest crops on family plots of land. Women in such families, thus, run the households alone for most of the year, a situation which creates acute problems of gender imbalance. The boundary between what is otherwise considered men's and women's work narrows. Women are forced to take upon themselves non-traditional responsibilities despite their limited access to resources (especially to land and other productive resources) or absence of experience with selling agricultural products, for instance.

Aside from labour migration, the male population in Tajikistan has also decreased due to severe losses in the Tajik Civil War (1993-1997). This war resulted in the deaths of approximately 50,000 to 100,000 individuals, where 56,000 women were left widowed, 55,000 children were orphaned, and 600,000 people displaced. On top of this, the war also caused more than 7 billion USD in damage.²³ The ramifications of this are still felt in present day Tajikistan. Some Tajik villages, due to the aforementioned reasons, are inhabited mainly by women and a few elderly or very young men, which makes it difficult for young women to find a partner.²⁴ In very traditional communities, there are cases where women agree to become a man's second or third wife, a practice which is not abandoned within Islam, but banned by secular Tajik laws.²⁵ Many men who seek work abroad never return home, some choosing to stay and raise new families in the receiving countries.²⁶ There is an increase of cases of women committing suicide as a result, despite the social stigma with which it is associated.²⁷

The Tajik labour market contains gender differentials; the available data does not indicate that women face significantly greater barriers in starting up self-employment in comparison to men. However, the type of private sector activity does vary by gender, where the majority of women in the non-state sector work in family businesses based on trade. Many of these are engaged in the sale of food and other products in local bazaars produced by the household or in the resale of products purchased from local collective farms. In contrast, men are nearly twice as likely as women to be engaged in (more lucrative) private companies. Factors that limit women's ability to engage in new private business initiatives include the lack of relevant entrepreneurial skills, access to credits, loans and other services as well as de facto gender discrimination.²⁸

²³ Megoran, N., Tajikistan, *New Internationalist*, Issue 398, 2007.

²⁴ OECD, Tajikistan - Social institutions and gender index, (accessed 15 October 2014), see: www.genderindex.org/country/Tajikistan.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ *Ibid.*

²⁷ Institute for War and Peace Reporting (IWPR), Female Suicide Epidemic in Tajikistan, 2009, (accessed 15 October 2014), see: www.iwpr.net/report-news/female-suicide-epidemic-tajikistan.

²⁸ Maltseva, I., Gender Equality in the Sphere of Employment, UNIFEM, 2007. p.6-11.



Rural Women's Leaders

Agriculture

7% of the Tajik territory is suitable for cultivation of agricultural products. There is a quota of 70-80% of land to be utilised for cotton production²⁹. (Cotton production still makes up 80 % of the total of all cultivated agricultural products). There is no efficient water management system, despite of the fact that Tajikistan holds the most water resources of the Central Asian region. As a result, almost 40% of water is taken from sources such as waste and drainage water. In the structure of water consumption, irrigated agriculture dominates (up to 84%), followed by household and agricultural water supply (8.5%), industry (4.5%) and fisheries (3%). Irrigated agriculture is also one of the main sources of water pollution due to broad use of mineral fertilizers and pesticides.

Water, sanitation and energy

Access to safe water, sanitation and energy sources is one of the most significant problems in Tajikistan. Approximately 12% of the population have access to sanitation facilities connected to a sewage system, of which 44.8 % are urban and 1.3% rural inhabitants.³⁰ Approximately, 40% of Tajik households have access to

²⁹ Sehring, J., The Politics of Water Institutional Reform in Neo-Patrimonial States: A Comparative Analysis of Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, 2009, p.96.

³⁰ Tajikistan, MDG Progress Report, 2010, p.111.

piped water in the home or outdoors,³¹ 8% utilise wells, 6% utilise bore holes, and 33% other, unsafe sources, such as rivers and irrigation canals. The Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) update on the progress of drinking water, published by UNICEF and WHO in 2012, reports in total 92% of the urban population and 54% of the rural population have access to an improved drinking water source. However, “access to improved drinking water” provides no clear indication about the safety and accessibility of the water. Overall, access to drinking water can be summarised as in the table below.

Table 5: Access to water in Tajikistan in percentage of the population (2010)³²

Use of drinking water sources	Total	Urban	Rural
Improved drinking water	64	92	54
Unimproved drinking water	36	8	46
Piped on premises	40	83	25
Surface water	34	6	44



Typical drinking water source in Tajikistan

Regular outbreaks of infectious diseases spreading through unsafe water and food have an impact not only on the individual level, but also for the whole economy.³³ The lack of appropriate infrastructure tends to affect

³¹ Although villagers have access to piped water, this does not mean the water is safe. Pipes may contain leaks, holes, or may be open, leading to contamination.

³² UNICEF/WHO, Progress on Drinking Water and Sanitation, Update 2012, p.52.

women more than men, as they are mostly responsible for water and energy, as well as food security for their families. Huge amount of unpaid care duties are the main barriers on the way to their economic self-reliance.



Hissar district: woman growing cucumbers

³³ WHO, Water and Sanitation: Tajikistan, 2012, (accessed 15 October 2014), see: www.euro.who.int/en/what-we-do/health-topics/environment-and-health/water-and-sanitation/news/news/2012/10/water-safety-project-success-stories-in-tajikistan.

2. Findings from the villages

This chapter presents the findings of the baseline interviews and research conducted in Tajikistan by YEC 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.

2.1 Gender

This section explores the degree of gender equality in Biruni, Dekhanobad, Kahramon, Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso with regards to decision-making and resources. Several topics are discussed, including the degree to which women are responsible for managing the household, the degree to which they work outside of the home, both within the agricultural sector and paid work, and the degree to which the men assist women with the daily chores. It also provides information on whether male heads of households are living at home or are working as labour migrants.

In Dehkanobad, the responsibilities of running the household, as well as assisting in farm labour tends to be carried out by women. For example, one female villager explains that 'in many households, the hard labour is done by women. In my family, my husband does not help with household chores.' In Biruni, Dehkanobad and Kahramon, in households where the husbands remain at home, the men tend to control all finances even when women carry out all household tasks as well as assist with farm work. In Biruni, one female respondent says that when it comes to decision-making, women know less.³⁴ Another explains that women do know how to execute decisions concerning farm labour (when, how, and what).³⁵

In Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, one male respondent explains that he controls the finances in the household, sells products, and helps his wife during the weekends.³⁶ Another example is where a male head of household helps his wife with field work and caring for animals.³⁷ In many households, women are responsible for all tasks pertaining to their households, including farm labour as well as managing financial resources because their husbands are abroad.³⁸ In the Sodiko, Langar and Hodge Musso villages, women and men tend to carry out the farm labour except in cases where the husbands are absent or deceased; in this case, women manage all responsibilities – financial and with regards to managing the household.³⁹

Another female villager gets assistance from her son and his wife because she is a widow; however, the majority of the work, she carries out herself. Another villager explains that 'the youth also works in the fields and take care of the farm animals. This is a very difficult labour for them, but it is a lesson for life.'⁴⁰ In Dekhanobad, some women get assistance from their husbands or other family members.⁴¹ This situation, where the male head of a household or other relatives assist in household chores, is a rarity; in most cases, women (and children) help all with the farm labour, while also managing the home.⁴²

³⁴ YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Sanavbar).

³⁵ YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Oigul; Fotima).

³⁶ YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012, (Qobil).

³⁷ YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012, (Rosia).

³⁸ Akhmedov, Mavlyuda, discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods": The village of Hissar district Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012. Khakimov, H., discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods" in the village of Hissar district Kahramon, 16 November 2012.

³⁹ Akhmedov, Mavlyuda, discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods": The village of Hissar district Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012. Mavlyuda, Akhmedov and Karimov, Sochida, discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods": Sodiko, Langar and Hodge Musso villages, Hissar district, 5 November 2012. Khakimov, H., discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods" in the village of Hissar district Kahramon, 16 November 2012.

⁴⁰ YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012, (Mavljud).⁴¹

⁴¹ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (lola).

⁴² YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012, (Dilabro, Mavljud).

Women explain that they need help from their husbands in managing their homes and in carrying out farm labour. Several women in Dehkanobad, Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso reiterate this statement in their interviews.⁴³ One particular interviewee states that she would like her husband and son to assist her with farm work.⁴⁴

Statistical analysis and surveys demonstrate that men and women take various decisions together as well as separately. This is summarised in the table below. This table does not include households where there is only a female head of household.

Table 6: Gender and decision-making

	Who takes the decision about crop production in agricultural field	If you have a surplus, who sells the products	Who decides on purchases of food for the household	Who decides on purchases of furniture and tools within the household	Who decides on the education of the children	Who takes the decision in your family on medical care	Who decides on participation in public activities	Who decides on taking on work outside of the house
Both	39%	20%	17%	27%	61%	29%	27%	17%
Husband	20%	49%	52%	69%	13%	16%	22%	83%
Parents		2%						
Wife	41%	29%	31%	4%	26%	55%	51%	0%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

This table demonstrates that women tend to make the majority of decisions regarding medical care within the family, and the participation in public activities. Men tend to make the majority of decisions regarding the purchase of food for the household, the purchase of tools and furniture and the work outside of the home. Notably, males make the overwhelming majority of decisions regarding working outside of the home in households with women and men present. Both husbands and wives make decisions regarding the education of their children in a slight majority of cases. In other cases, the results are mixed; however, joint decision-making is least common overall besides the parents of the spouses making decisions, which only occurred in one case.

One villager from Kahramon says that more men than women are involved in decision-making regarding the 'earth', or farming, and another female respondent explains that 'women listen to the men', or follow their instructions regarding farming.⁴⁵ Even though many women lack a say in the decision-making with regards to resources, they tend to be the ones carrying out the labour; this is explained by a female respondent in Kahramon who says that 'the main work in the fields is carried out by women'.⁴⁶ In short, in the words of one female from Kahramon – 'inequality with regards to this question [decision-making with regards to resources] is always visible because the work is fulfilled by women, while the decisions are made by men'.⁴⁷ In this village, interviews revealed that the reasons why this gender gap is present are that women tend to lack knowledge

⁴³ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (Mavljuda).

⁴⁴ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (Iola).

⁴⁵ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Chura; Zamira).

⁴⁶ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Nasiba).

⁴⁷ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Zamira).

regarding resource management. Furthermore, the respondents gave the impression that this is also due to the continuance of traditional gender roles where women obey men.⁴⁸

Overall, the interview process in Tajikistan revealed that women have a strong desire to improve their situation, whether by gaining access to more work opportunities outside of agriculture, or by getting more help from their husbands. Female villagers are also aware of the need for access to credits. This was mentioned by female respondents in Beruni, Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso. One female explains that women should have access to credit in order to gain economic independence and improve their livelihoods, including access to support to start up small businesses.⁴⁹ Women also want to have a bigger role in decision-making with regards to the running of their households as well as with the allocation of resources and farming.⁵⁰ One villager in Kahramon explains that men and women should work equally in order to provide for the family.⁵¹ While these respondents tend to agree that women should have increased opportunities for improving their livelihoods, the actual situation amongst Tajik families vary, and many times women are left with significant burdens of both managing the home and carrying out agricultural work. What is also consistent amongst all women in all villages is the desire for additional assistance from their husbands. As one female respondent from Biruni explains, 'men and women should work together, equally in order to feed their families'.⁵²

⁴⁸ Khakimov, H., discussion in the target group "Gender and livelihoods" in the village of Hissar district Kahramon', 16 November 2012.

⁴⁹ YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012, (Mavljud).

⁵⁰ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Zebo).

⁵¹ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Zamira).

⁵² YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Fotima).



Hissar district

2.2 Income generation

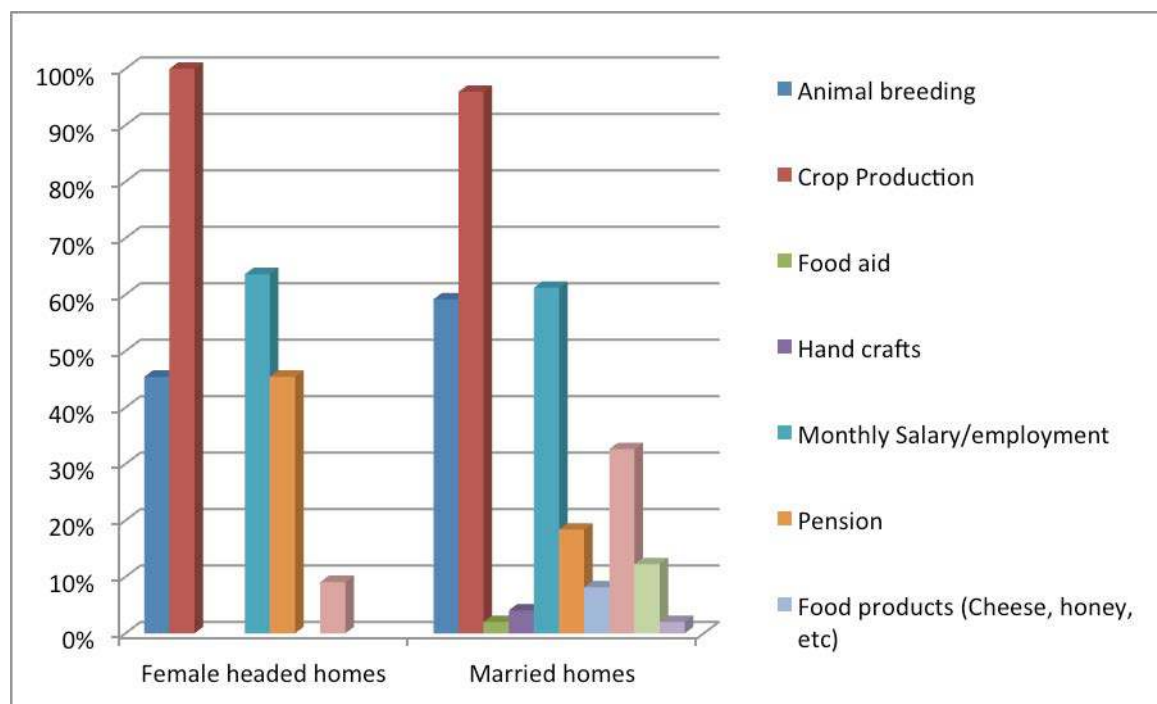
This section presents the views of villagers regarding income generation, specifically what villagers themselves perceive as promising means of gaining a profit and the current problems that they face.

Sources of income

The most common form of income generation in all villages is crop production. The crops that are most commonly grown are: raspberries, potatoes, tomatoes, eggplant, pepper, cauliflower, cucumber, grapes, and other fruits.

Villagers identified nine varying forms of income generation in total. The following graph represents the breakdown of type of income generating activity based on married households and those headed by women only. These are represented by per cent of households involved in these activities.

Graph 1: Forms of income generating activities



The most common form of income generation in all villages is crop production. All interviewed families participate in crop production with the exception of one. In both homes headed by females and married families, animal breeding and monthly salaries are common forms of income in addition to crop production. More married households are involved in small business than those headed by females. More female headed homes receive a pension than those that are married.

Out of female headed households, 36% have family members working abroad, which in all but one case is the son. In one case, a daughter is a labour migrant. In households with married couples, 40% of families have a member working outside of the district. In 56% of those cases, the husband is a labour migrant. In the remaining 44% of cases, a son is working abroad.

Thus, the interviewees participate in a variety of income generating activities, and there are minimal differences between villages. All families with the exception of one participate in several forms of income

generation. The table below provides a summary of the quantity of income generating activities carried out by the interviewed families.

Table 7: Households having 1-5 of sources of income

	1 source of income	2 sources of income	3 sources of income	4 sources of income	5 sources of income
Female headed households	10%	30%	50%	10%	0%
Married households	0%	35%	47%	14%	4%

Families use additional funding in order to maintain or start up their income generating activities. There are various sources for these funds, listed in the table below.

Table 8: Funding for income generating activities

Sources of funds	Married couples				Female headed homes
	Bank	Remittances from family abroad	Friends	Personal funds/savings	Personal funds/savings
Agriculture	9%	4%	4%	100%	100%
Other income generating activities	25%	10%	6%	77%	100%

The majority of villagers rely on personal funds and savings for the funding that they need. All households, whether married or with a female head, utilise personal savings to fund agricultural activities. The major difference between female headed homes and those with both, husband and wife, is that the former only utilise personal savings to fund income generating activities. The latter utilise other forms of funding, such as loans from the bank, remittances, and friends. Funding other than personal savings tends to be used more frequently for forms of income generation other than agriculture.

Although not many villagers take advantage of loans in order to finance income generating activities, they do have access to various forms of lending. Forty-six villagers explain that they have access to bank loans, six have

access to individual lends and thirty have access to micro-credit loans. One respondent stated that loans are not available because the lenders are located in the city centre. In total, eighteen households have taken out credit.

This section reveals that the interviewed families participate in multiple forms of income generation. As shown above, these tend to be crop production and animal husbandry. Some families have been able to open small business or work in trade. The majority, however, has not been able to do so. Villagers also have access to credit, yet the overwhelming majority has not taken out credit. Of those that have taken out credit, ten out of the twelve have credit for income generating activities.

2.3 Agriculture and resources

This section presents the findings of the qualitative data, consisting of focus group discussions, that reveals what villagers view as the biggest impediments to agriculture. One of the biggest concerns identified by Tajik farmers is access to resources. In all villages, farmers indicated that the resources they are lacking are – arable land, water for irrigation, electricity, mineral fertilizers (due to high prices) and vegetable seeds. Specific problems with seeds that have been identified include: the lack of quality seeds, the high prices of seeds, the lack of locally developed seeds.⁵³ Furthermore, in Biruni, a shortage of land and the lack of access to energy have been identified.⁵⁴ The water supplies in rivers is decreasing due to the impacts of climate change in recent years.⁵⁵ Another significant problem identified in the above mentioned villages is the presence of diseases of crops due to the presence of pest.⁵⁶

In Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, one of the most imperative resources that villagers lack is funding. They struggle to find sufficient financial resources in order to construct greenhouses, which have been identified as useful sources of income generation as they permit more frequent harvests. Additionally, villagers from Biruni have identified that a lack of funding inhibits renting a tractor which is an obstacle.⁵⁷ In the same village, a lack of storage facilities has been identified as another significant problem.⁵⁸ Access to agricultural technology (machinery and equipment) is identified as a hindrance in all villages as well as (more) access to diesel fuel (due to lack of availability and price) and storage locations are mentioned as lacking in all villages.

In Dehkanobad, one villager explained that residents have a lack of access to veterinary medicine in order to treat farm animals, and they also lack knowledge of how to use medicines themselves.⁵⁹ In Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, villagers explain that the selling of farm animals goes through several middle men before reaching a final buyer. Similarly, in Biruni, villagers say that if farmers were able to sell their products directly on the market, this could improve income generation from farming.⁶⁰ Similarly, in Dehkanobad, a significant obstacle to earning an income for farmers is the presence of intermediaries and wholesalers that prevent farmers from selling their products directly on the market.⁶¹ Additionally, the deception by wholesalers regarding the obtainment of money and the part of the income the farmers will finally receive for their products are identified as barriers in Biruni and Dehkanobad.⁶² A lack of licences needed for selling products is

⁵³ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012; YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012.

⁵⁴ Qalandarov, Khakimov, discussion/problem analysis regarding agriculture; Mahalla committees "Biruni", Hissar district center, 11 October 2012.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*

⁵⁶ *Ibid*; Khakimov, Nadir; Skochilov, Yuri and Qalandarov, Rustam, discussion in the target group Agriculture: Mahalla center "Biruni", Hissar district, 11 October 2012.

⁵⁷ YEC Interviews in Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Zuhro).

⁵⁸ Khakimov, Nadir; Skochilov, Yuri and Qalandarov, Rustam, discussion in the target group Agriculture: Mahalla center "Biruni", Hissar district, 11 October 2012.

⁵⁹ YEC Interviews in Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Mavlyuda).

⁶⁰ YEC Interviews in Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Oygu).

⁶¹ Qalandarov, Rustam and Akhmedov, Mavlyuda, discussion in the target group "Agriculture, Women's Center Parastu", Hissar district, building Dehkanobad, 11 leading participants, 10 October 2012.

⁶² *Ibid*; Khakimov, Nadir; Skochilov, Yuri and Qalandarov, Rustam, discussion in the target group Agriculture: Mahalla center "Biruni", Hissar district, 11 October 2012.

another issue. In the Hissar district, farmers explain that a permanent market stall would be highly productive and would limit the problems pertaining to wholesalers and middlemen.⁶³

In Biruni and Dehkanobod, farmers explain that the main source of their knowledge derives from their ancestors, and that they lack knowledge of new techniques and technologies.⁶⁴ Farmers explain that they would like to increase know-how about sustainable agriculture and new technologies, and to get some practical training.⁶⁵ One villager from Dehkanobod explains the need for practical trainings: training with regards to animals and chicken as well as a general exchange of knowledge. Another would like to have some practical training on processing fruits and vegetables. In Biruni, a female villager says that they lack knowledge on land use.⁶⁶ The lack of teaching aides has also been acknowledged as a barrier.⁶⁷

In the Hissar region, farmers have mentioned that they would like to improve the presentation of their goods, and would like to expand their operations to include the sale of environmentally friendly/organic products to other regions and cities.⁶⁸

The table below summarises the most common responses regarding resources that farmers are lacking.

Table 9: Resources that villagers are lacking

Resources Lacking	Beruni	Dehkanobod	Sodiko, Langar, Khoja Musso	Kahramon
Agricultural machinery	X	X	X	XX
Arable land		X		
Fertilisers (high price)	X	X	X	X
Fuel (due to cost)	X			X
Greenhouses		X		
Irrigation water	X	X	XX	
Knowledge of land use	X			
Land	X		X	
Money		X	X	
Quality Seeds	X	X	XX	X
Veterinary medicine		X		

⁶³ Qalandarov, Ahmedlova, discussion in the target agriculture: Women's Center "Parastu", Hissar district, 10 October 2012.

⁶⁴ Qalandarov, Khakimov, discussion/problem analysis regarding agriculture, Mahalla committees "Biruni", Hissar district center, 11 October 2012. Qalandarov, Rustam and Akhmedov, Mavlyuda, discussion in the target group Agriculture, Women's Center "Parastu", Hissar district, building Dehkanobod, 11 leading participants, 10 October 2012.

⁶⁵ Qalandarov, Khakimov, discussion/problem analysis regarding agriculture; Mahalla committees "Biruni", Hissar district center, 11 October 2012.

⁶⁶ YEC Interviews in Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Mavlyuda).

⁶⁷ Qalandarov, Ahmedlova, discussion in the target agriculture: Women's Center "Parastu", Hissar district, 10 October 2012.

⁶⁸ Qalandarov, Ahmedlova, discussion in the target agriculture: Women's Center "Parastu", Hissar district, 10 October 2012.

The most commonly identified resources that are lacking are quality seeds, fertilisers, and agricultural machinery. Irrigation water is the second most identified resource, followed by land, money, and fuel. These results are also comparable to the findings in the previous two sections that show that the fertility of the land is a significant barrier to income generation. An increased land fertility, better quality seeds, and access to irrigation water are all necessary prerequisites for more and better quality harvests for the farmers, which has been identified as one of the most promising forms of income generation in the section above.

Problems with agriculture

In all villages, some of the most significant hindrances to income generation are the low retail prices of local products on the market, especially dairy and agricultural products. For instance, milk is cited to be sold at 1,5 Tajik somoni in Dehkanobad, and 3 somoni at the market in Dushanbe.⁶⁹ Furthermore, access to machines and the mechanisation of agricultural work are mentioned to be crucial for income generation in all of the aforementioned villages. Villagers from Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso explained that if they were able to sell their products on the market in Dushanbe, resources could increase. In Biruni, transportation to the market has also been acknowledged as a barrier to income generation.⁷⁰

In Dehkanobad and Kahramon, villagers mention that if soil fertility was increased, and land degradation reduced, e.g. via the use of compost, income generation could improve.⁷¹ In Biruni, the cost of fertiliser was identified as a barrier to income generation, alongside the general cost of cultivation of the land. Another problem that has been identified in said village is the high taxes on land.⁷²

The table below summaries the findings of this section – what villagers identify as problems they face in regards to increasing income per village.

Table 10: Problems with income generation

Interferences with income generation	Beruni	Dehkanobad	Kahramon	Sodiko, Langar, Khoja Musso
Financial difficulties				X
High cost of land cultivation	X			
High taxes on land	X			
Lack of fertiliser	X		X	
Low prices of agricultural products on local markets	X	X	X	X
Processing agricultural products				X

⁶⁹ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012.

⁷⁰ YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Nemat).

⁷¹ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012; YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012.

⁷² YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Sanavbar).

This section generally confirms the findings of the section above regarding promising forms of income generation. Most results vary per village with the exception of the low prices of agricultural products, which was identified in all villages and the lack of fertiliser, which was found in two villages.

As was made evident in the section above, soil fertility is consistently named as a barrier to increased income. Additionally, villagers would like to have the ability to sell processed agricultural products (canned goods, dairy items, dried fruits), which was also identified in both sections.

What is working and promising

In all villages (Biruni, Dekhanobad, Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso) greenhouses and solar fruit driers have been identified as being some of the most promising means of income generation at the moment. The greenhouses allow vegetables to be harvested three times a year and the fruit driers help to conserve the harvest.⁷³ In Biruni, canning is also identified as a promising form of income generation.⁷⁴ In Kahramon, villagers explain that access to new technologies would be useful for better income generation.⁷⁵ In all villages where interviews were held, respondents would like to have at least three harvests per year as a means of income generation.⁷⁶

In Biruni, a villager says that only certified seeds should be used for growing crops.⁷⁷ A villager from Dekhanobad explains that specifically strawberries, currants and raspberries should be grown because they have an added value due to their nutrition facts and are in demand at the market. Another villager explains that milk products, such as cottage chakka, serve as a promising form of income generation.⁷⁸ Furthermore, additional products that were identified in Dekhanobad as being useful for income generation include: jams, stewed fruits, juices, tomato paste, and pickled cucumbers, tomatoes, and cauliflower.⁷⁹

In Biruni, farmers have collaborated and shared experiences of growing crops, such as best practices, advice regarding taxation, they also jointly grew crops, and gained access to the market.⁸⁰ This has allowed farmers to grow crops more efficiently, buy cheaper goods, and gain better sales.⁸¹ Farmers explain that cooperation could increase further in the areas of cultivation, drying, storage of fruits and vegetables, exchange of information, general use of equipment and tools, and hands-on-demonstration of business operations.⁸² However, several obstacles have been identified for achieving this, including the distance to the markets, a lack of transportation means, the lack of information about the markets, and a lack of communication in order to exchange market information.⁸³ Villagers from the Biruni would also like to create a demonstration site for teaching and exchange of knowledge.⁸⁴

In summary, the following forms of income generation have been identified by villagers:

⁷³ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (Dilrabo).

⁷⁴ YEC Interviews in Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Oygu).

⁷⁵ YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012, (Muhabbat).

⁷⁶ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012; YEC Interviews in Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, 5 November 2012; YEC Interviews in Kahramon, 16 November 2012.

⁷⁷ YEC Interviews in the village Biruni, 15 November 2012, (Dilbar).

⁷⁸ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (Iola).

⁷⁹ YEC Interviews in the village Dehkanobad, 4 November 2012, (Mavljud).

⁸⁰ Qalandarov, Khakimov, discussion/problem analysis regarding agriculture, Mahalla committees "Biruni", Hissar district center, 11 October 2012; Qalandarov, Ahmedlova, discussion in the target agriculture: Women's Center "Parastu". Hissar district', 10 October 2012.

⁸¹ *Ibid.*

⁸² *Ibid.*

⁸³ *Ibid.*

⁸⁴ Qalandarov, Ahmedlova, discussion in the target agriculture: Women's Center "Parastu", Hissar district, 10 October 2012.

Table 11: Income Generation

Promising income generation	Biruni	Dehkanobad	Kahramon	Sodiko, Langar, Khoja Musso
3-4 harvests per year	X	X	X	X
Access to fertilisers	X		X	
Access to new agricultural technologies			X	
Animal husbandry				X
Canning	X	X		X
Certified seeds	X			
Collaboration between farmers	X			
Compost		X		
Direct sale of products	X			
Greenhouses and solar fruit driers	X	X	X	X
Growing berries		X		X
Maximum use of land	X			
More crop	X			
More knowledge		X		X
More yield per hectare			X	
Sale of processed milk products		X		X
Soil fertility improved		X		

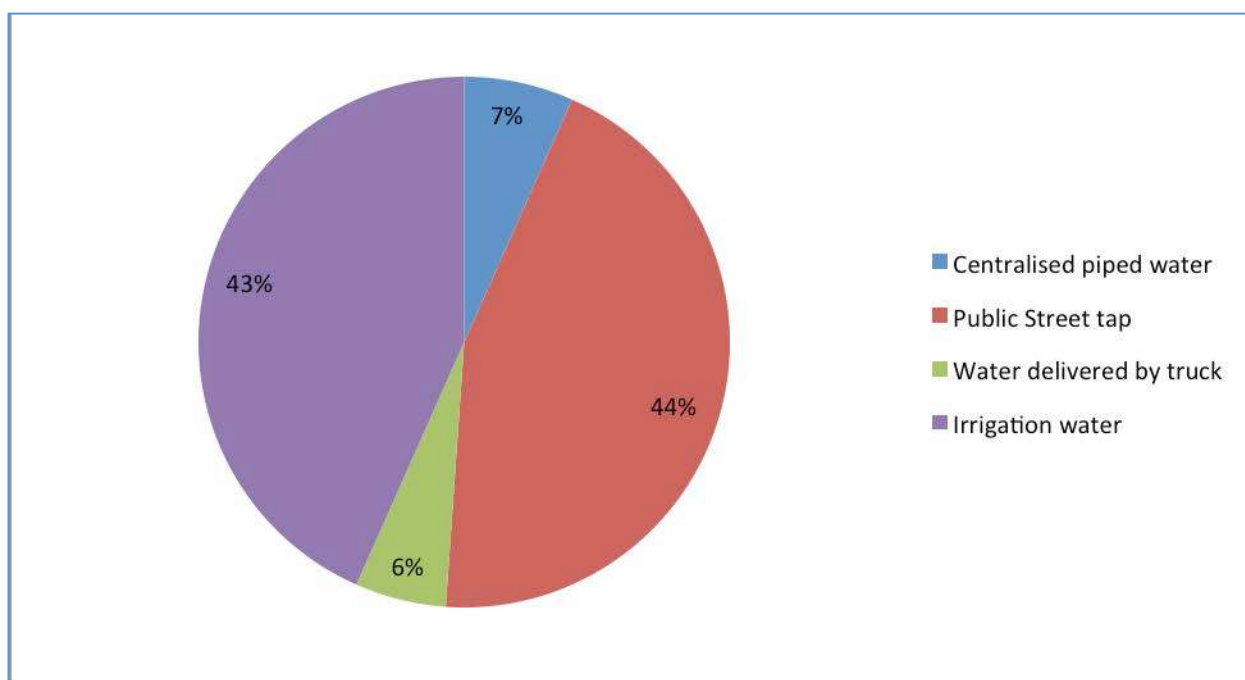
Most forms of income generation vary by village. However, 3-4 harvests per year and access to greenhouses and solar fruit driers have been the only forms identified in each village. After these, canning was also identified in all villages except Kahramon. Access to fertilisers, growing berries, sale of milk products, and increased knowledge were all identified in two out of four villages as promising forms of income generation. The results of this interview process demonstrate that what villagers perceive as being the most promising forms increasing income vary per village with a few exceptions.

2.4 Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH)

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

All but one household have access to water two times per day for up to five hours. Sources of water are listed to be: public street taps, centralised piped water, river/irrigation water, and water delivered by a truck. Only three households have centralised water. The chart below summarises the sources of water.

Graph 3: Sources of water



The quality of the water used by villagers tends to not be tested. Interviewees were asked whether the water quality was tested annually; four respondents did not know, and two said yes. Both villagers that identified water to be tested live in Beruni. All remaining respondents' water is not tested annually. Twenty respondents were fully satisfied with the quality of their water. Sixteen were satisfied but had 'remarks', or concerns, while twenty-four were not satisfied with the quality of their water. While there is no specific correlation between satisfaction of the quality of water and the source of water, all of the villagers with centralised piped water were satisfied with their water quality. Satisfaction with irrigation water and public taps varied from satisfied to not satisfied.

A significant portion of families utilise public street taps in order to obtain water. The majority (75% of the respondents) spend between fifteen minutes to one hour for the gathering of their water, 3% of the respondents said that they need more than 1 hour to fetch water.

In three cases, the husband solely is responsible for fetching water for the family. In one case both husband and wife will do the chore together. In twenty-three of the cases, the wife fetches water. In eleven, she does so alone, and in another eleven she is accompanied by children. In nineteen families, the children fetch water. These data are summarised below.

Table 12: Persons who fetch the water in the household

Who fetches water	No of households
All	15
Boys	6
Girls	13
Husband	3
Wife	11
Wife and children	11
Husband and wife	1

As previously mentioned, the majority of families lack running water in their home; even more lack flush toilets. Three of the interviewed families have flush toilets, and one has a pit latrine with enhanced ventilation options. The remaining families all utilise pit latrines, the majority of which are located between ten and thirty meters from their homes. The table below summarises the distances of toilets from the homes.

Table 13: Distance of toilet from home

Village	Indoor toilet	Less than 10 meters	Between 10 and 30 meters	More than 30 meters
Beruni		8	7	
Dekhanabad	1	6	7	
Hodzha-muso			4	
Kahramon			10	5
Langar	1	3	3	
Pahtaobod	1			
Sodiki		2	1	

The degree to which respondents are satisfied with their toilets varies, as is made evident in the table below:

Table 14: Degree of satisfaction with toilets

	Fully satisfied	Satisfied with remarks	Fully dissatisfied
Women	16%	39%	45%
Men	36%	27%	36%

More female respondents are dissatisfied with their toilets than males. More female respondents are satisfied with various points of dissatisfaction than their male equivalents, as well. Furthermore, even though twelve total respondents claim to be fully satisfied with their toilets and twenty two claim to be satisfied but have qualms, all but three respondents or 96% of the respondents would take out a micro credit loan with a small interest rate in order to construct an indoor or adjacent ecosan toilet.

Ten% of the respondents lack a hand-washing facility with access to soap and water. Of the households with access to a hand-washing facility, 24% explain that there are times when they are not able to utilise said facilities.

Furthermore, five families do not have access to showers or *banyas*. An additional five have only showers. Seven families have both *banyas* and showers, while the majority (42) has only *banyas*.

This section demonstrates that the majority of villagers interviewed lack access to plumbing and running water in their homes. This tends to lead to less hygienic circumstances in the home. The majority of villagers must travel between 15 minutes and one hour to obtain water. Furthermore, only twelve respondents are fully satisfied with their toilets and nearly all of them would be willing to obtain a micro credit loan in order to construct an ecosan toilet. Generally, this section demonstrates that respondents have minimal access to hygienic and sanitary conditions directly in the home.

2.5 Energy

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

In Tajikistan, villagers have several sources of energy, including: electricity, coal, bottled gas, piped gas, and wood. In general people use bottled gas for cooking as well as coal and sawdust (wood) for heating and cooking during wintertime. During summertime and other seasons electricity represents the most important source of energy.

All interviewee utilise electricity during the summer and winter; all but two utilise bottled gas in winter. Furthermore, only three of the interviewed villagers do not use bottled gas in the summer. 41% of the respondents utilise wood during the summer season, and two utilise coal during that time of year. During the winter, 85% of the respondents utilise wood as an energy source. One family utilises piped gas during the winter. One family has another source of energy during the summer season, and another has an alternative source during the winter season.

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

Table 15: Energy costs

	Married households	Female headed households
Average	114	235
Maximum	310	629
Minimum	30	58

The average annual spending on energy per female headed household is on average 120 Euro more than that of married households. The overall maximum spending for female headed households is three hundred Euro more than that of married households. The minimum spending for married households is also less than that of female headed households.

One of the main purposes of utilising energy is for heating water. Heated water is needed 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 16: Purpose of heating water

Village	Bath	Food preparation	Hand washing laundry	Shower	Washing Dishes
Beruni	5	13	15	8	14
Dekhanabad	1	14	14	13	14
Hodzha-muso		4	4	4	4
Kahramon		14	14	4	15
Langar	1	8	8	7	8
Pahtaobod	1	1	1		1
Sodiki		3	3	3	3

This table demonstrates that almost all villagers utilise heated water for washing dishes (with the exception of one family in Beruni), for food preparation (with the exception of two families in Beruni and one in Kahramon), and for hand washing laundry (with the exception of one family in Kahramon). A larger proportion of families do not use heated water for personal hygiene (showering or taking a bath). 23% of families do not heat water for this purpose.

Villagers have adopted several methods in order to reduce expenses with regards to energy. These include the use of energy efficient stoves, insulation, utilising less hours of energy, reducing the temperature, and utilising solar water heaters.

Table 17: What villagers do to reduce energy consumption

Village	Energy efficient stoves	Insulation	Less hours of energy/reduce temperature	Solar water heater
Beruni	3	12	14	4
Dekhanabad		13	10	
Hodzha-muso		4	3	
Kahramon	4	14	3	2
Langar		8	1	
Pahtaobod		1		
Sodiki	1	2	1	

The majority of villagers (89%) utilise insulation as a means of reducing energy costs. 52% reduce the temperature in their homes and/or use energy for less hours during the day. Only 13% utilise energy efficient stoves, and 10% utilise solar water heaters. **Plastic (politetilen) and clay** are the mainly used insulating material.

This section demonstrates that villagers tend to rely significantly on coal for their energy use in the winter, and also tend to spend the most on it. Utilising coal, however, may prove hazardous not only due to the negative ramifications it has on the environment, but also on the health of users. Villagers tend to use energy in order to obtain heated water, which they can use for personal hygiene, food preparation, washing laundry, and washing dishes. The overwhelming majority of villagers utilise heated water for food preparation, washing laundry, and washing dishes. Heated water is not utilised for personal hygiene by 23% of the families. Villagers utilise various methods in order to reduce energy consumption, including using energy efficient stoves, insulation, solar water heaters, reducing the temperature, and utilising less hours of energy. The latter three methods are most common and tend to be done in cohesion.

2.6 Indicators of improved situation

The villagers interviewed identified several factors that they perceive would indicate an improvement of their situation. In Dekhanobad, Sodiko, Langar, and Khoja Musso, villagers said that if the objectives discussed during roundtable meetings were met, that this would indicate an improvement in their situations (see sections: Problems with income generation and agriculture). In addition, other frequently mentioned indicators are:

- The quantity of products sold at the market
- The quantity of agricultural equipment acquired by farmers
- The size of harvests produced
- Having a permanent stall at the market
- Obtaining a monthly income
- General increase of income
- Quantity of processed food sold
- Quantity of personal businesses started
- Quantity of jobs created, and quantity of business partners
- Soil quality increased
- Increased quantity of land
- Improved seed quality and diversity

3 Conclusions

The baseline research conducted in Tajikistan has produced several main points. Firstly, the study of gender shows that women are aware of their situation and aim for a change. They tend to be responsible for assisting the male heads of the household with agricultural responsibilities, while simultaneously managing the home. The male heads of the household tend to be responsible for allocating resources, and in rare cases do assist their wives with household chores. Another common situation is that women are responsible for both providing for their families and managing the homes because they are widows or their husbands are abroad and they are responsible for all agricultural and household duties. Furthermore, in the majority of families, women or men make decisions separately based on the respective issue. Joint decision-making is least common. Women and men are showing interest in starting small businesses, and particularly women have expressed a strong desire for gaining economic independence and improving their livelihoods. However, the actual situation amongst Tajik families vary, and many times women are left with significant burdens where they both manage the households and are working on the land.

Villagers must obtain funding in order to start up various forms of incoming generating activities; the majority utilise personal funds, while other sources include the bank, family living abroad, and friends. The baseline research in Tajikistan demonstrates that villagers participate in several forms of income generation, which includes: animal breeding, crop production, they obtain food aid, sell hand crafted items, have a monthly salary, obtain a pension, sell processed food products (such as chakka and honey), own a small business, and/or participate in trade. Crop production, monthly salaries, and animal breeding are the most common forms of employment. All except one family participate in multiple forms of income generating activities as the revenue from one would not be sufficient to cover the costs of day-to-day living.

The results regarding potential forms of income generation also vary per village. The most frequently identified forms are increasing the quantity of harvests to three to four per year and access to greenhouses as well as to solar fruit driers. Also repeatedly identified are canning (identified in all villages except Kahramon). Access to fertilisers, growing berries, sale of milk products, and increased knowledge are also said to be promising in two out of four villages. There are also current problems with income generation, which are related to the aforementioned factors. The most frequently identified problems are lack of soil fertility, and inability to sell processed agricultural products (canned goods, dairy items, dried fruits). A lack of solar fruit driers and greenhouses are also a significant barrier to income generation, according to villagers.

Furthermore, there are several problems with regards to agriculture - lack of quality seeds, fertilisers, and agricultural machinery. Again, irrigation water is the second most identified resource, followed by land, money, and fuel which are decreasing or completely missing. The overall results regarding problems with income generation and agriculture, demonstrate the relevance of increasing soil fertility and access to irrigation water. Furthermore, depletion of the land, lack of fertilisers (and/or poor soil fertility), and lack of irrigation water are all connected as they have negative ramifications for land and the quantity/quality of harvests.

Additionally, surveys were carried out in order to assess the use of energy amongst villagers. Coal is one of the most expensive and commonly utilised forms of energy in spite of the adverse effects this has on the environment and health of its users. Electricity is also used significantly during the winter. Energy is needed to obtain heated water. The overwhelming majority of villagers use energy for food preparation, washing laundry, and washing dishes. Water is not as frequently used for personal hygiene, however. Furthermore, the majority of villagers interviewed lack access to plumbing and running water in their homes.

The overall results of the baseline research in Tajikistan demonstrate that not only are the general goals of the EWA project relevant and pertinent to the situation in the country regarding women's livelihood, but that the specific focus on gender and women's political and economic empowerment is needed.

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