Report on Findings from the 2003 National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) in Rural Afghanistan

The Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) Unit
of the World Food Programme

and

The Vulnerability Analysis Unit (VAU)
of the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development

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Acknowledgements

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2003 of rural Afghanistan is a good example of what can be achieved through the collaboration and dedication of the Afghan Government and its people together with its supporting partners – the United Nations, Non-Governmental Organizations, and a myriad of other interested bodies and individuals – in trying to understand the issues facing rural Afghan livelihoods and determining the priorities and needs required to address them.

This collective approach has allowed an extensive data set to be collected through an immense effort of consultation, methodological development, and field, administrative, and logistical work – at many times frustrating, yet always with an underlying sense of excitement on whether such an enormous assessment could be achieved. As this report shows, as do the other NRVA reports, that yes, this was possible and the outputs provide the most in-depth, detailed understanding of the risks and vulnerabilities facing rural livelihoods in Afghanistan.

The Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit (AREU) supported through DFID receives the first acknowledgement, for initiating the stakeholder review of previous assessments that ultimately led to the creation of the NRVA.

The Afghan staff of the WFP Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping Unit (VAM) Afghanistan, the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD), the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry (MoAAH), the Ministry of Health (MoH), the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA) and GOAL whom, with support from WFP VAM Afghanistan and Headquarters, advisors to the MRRD, and the World Bank, FAO, UNICEF, GOAL, SC-US, TUFTS, and AREU are acknowledged for the development of the NRVA methodology..

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It is now up to us, our responsibility, to use what they have told us to best address their needs with the ultimate aim of trying to help them in improving their own lives.

For more information on the NRVA or this report, visit the following website:

www.mrrd.gov.af/vau

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Executive Summary

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) 2003 was conducted after the best cereal harvest in many years and particularly good rains preceding four years of below normal precipitation in many areas of Afghanistan.

The NRVA represents an expansion of the WFP conducted countrywide assessments that had taken place in the three preceding years, and tries to describe many aspects of rural livelihoods beyond just food-security.

This report presents data in two ways; by wealth group, or socio-economic profiling breakdowns in the text, and provincial means in the annexes. Most of the report consists of descriptive statistics by wealth group for key indicators, in particular to those related to basic service access such as health, education and markets. Aspects of vulnerability, related to household composition and coping strategies used to deal with both covariate and idiosyncratic shocks are presented.

The agro-ecological zones that are more than half rain-fed, wholly rain-fed, and comprise of grazing land have the worst ranking in respect to most of the risks and vulnerability indicators, such as: lack of water, less available land, poor access to education and health, reduced options for income generating activities, seasonality of access to markets, reduced fertility of land (due partly to the recent drought and partly to inadequacy of fertilizers, seeds and agricultural tools), and reduced revenues/yields from cash crops.

Insufficient agricultural and fertile land, water, inability to expand cash crop production, no alternate sources of income, and poor access to health, education, and markets (particularly in the winter) have prevented the majority of people from being able to improve their livelihoods. Years of conflict and drought have had a huge impact on the average rural household's ability to acquire and maintain assets as well as their ability to manage the adverse effects of repeated shocks to their livelihoods. Reducing both quality and quantity of meals, as the primary or most frequent coping strategy for impoverished households, further degrades what is already very poor diet diversity for many rural Afghans.

Livelihoods in rural Afghanistan are primarily based on agricultural activities and thus are strongly related to agricultural seasons. The production of food crops, cash cropping, animal husbandry and agricultural wage labour are the main income generating activities, though regional differences exist due to diverse irrigation systems, (i.e. kariz in the southern region; springs in the north), and variations in altitude, climate, and vegetation. Other minor activities in which households are engaged throughout the year are mainly connected to in-house production of handicrafts, weaving, embroidery and tailoring.

Provinces with relatively higher access to cultivated land are the north-eastern and northern provinces. Limited access to land can be found in Kabul and the neighbouring provinces of Logar, Parwan, Wardak, and Kapisa which have higher population in relation to the amount of land available for agriculture. A typical medium wealth group household is more likely to grow other non-wheat food and cash crops than poor and very poor households. Hence, medium wealth group households are likely to be advantaged in terms of access to a more diverse diet and extra income sources through cash crop production. The very poor wealth groups generally own very few livestock, with the exception of poultry. The three most significant farming constraints faced by households in 2003 were lack of irrigation water (31%), lack of oxen/traction power (26%), lack of availability of farming land (18%), and lack of seeds (14%). Other localized farming constraints include lack of credit/cash in Baghlan (26%) and Jawzjan (12%) provinces.

Non-agricultural based income activities are linked to daily wage labour in urban centres (such as construction), and barter and trade, particularly in those provinces that lie across major road networks, or border with Iran and Pakistan. Barter and trade activities are undertaken throughout the year, with just a slight reduction during wintertime. Construction and harvesting of crops were the most frequently available labouring opportunities, but these typically offer only between 1 and 2 months of employment, regardless of wealth group.

Overall, very few women are involved in agricultural activities, (<1% of wealth groups), though there are distinct provincial exceptions, such as Nuristan where 72% of women from the wealth groups reported to be engaged in agricultural activities. Throughout the NRVA women widely reported that they engage in embroidery, handicraft, weaving, and/or tailoring. The medium wealth groups had higher involvement than the very poor groups, particularly evident for tailoring. The poorer wealth groups produce more handicrafts. The level of income generated through women's activities outside the village is almost negligible; 5-8% for medium and poor wealth groups. However, very poor households seem to be more involved in generating income through activities outside the village (such as trade, domestic work), suggesting that economic necessity dominates over cultural constraints. Nuristan and Laghman provinces report the highest percentage for both poor and very poor households for female income generating activities outside the home.

The covariate shocks occurring throughout the country between the summer harvests of 2002 and 2003 all appear to directly impact the primary livelihood activities across all agro-ecological zones. Drought had reduced water availability for drinking, agricultural production, and pasturelands (reportedly more acutely in the grazing and irrigated, and partly irrigated lands); late frosts and crop diseases affected production (particularly in partly and wholly rain-fed areas); high levels of livestock diseases (reportedly severe in grazing lands); and although there was a low national prevalence of insecurity (reported by 5% of households), Logar (15%), Kunduz (28%), and Uruzgan (67%) reported much higher levels of insecurity or violence in the past year indicating that insecurity is often a highly localized event.

The most commonly cited coping strategy that is used first by households when dealing with shocks was a reduction in diet quality or quantity, followed by a decrease in expenditures. Other common coping strategies are spending savings or investments (more so for the medium wealth groups), or loans from family or friends (more so for the poor and very poor wealth groups, and particularly more by settled populations). Kuchi households more often used increased collection and sale of natural resources, out-migration for work, work on relief programs, mortgage of property and sales of household assets as coping strategies.

Water quality and quantity problems exist throughout the country. Nearly 60% of all sampled households in the southern provinces reported having experienced reduced water quality/quantity in the previous year, and most households with water problems stated that they have yet to recover from this shock. Only 24% of households reported accessing drinking water from safe sources. Other sources of drinking water were open wells (26%), springs (22%), rivers/lakes/canals (17%) and kariz (6%). Many of the provinces with the best access to safe drinking water (Farah and Nimroz) have experienced a significant decrease in water quality and/or quantity.

Aggravating factors to health are poor water and sanitation, poor housing and inadequate heating, poor diets, and severe temperatures, all of which are common throughout Afghanistan. Furthermore, there is widespread lack of available health post facilities, comprehensive centers and hospitals across all agro-ecological zones, and particularly so in the grazing lands and rainfed areas. There is significant variation in health services used between provinces. Nearly 20% reported no access at all to a health facility, and more than 35% of all households reported being more than ½ day away from a health facility. Three provinces have a particularly high percent of households that are greater than ½ day away from, or have no access to, a health facility: Ghor (71%), Kunar (53%), and Nuristan (52%). The Kuchi population appears to utilize traditional healers less often than the settled populations while making greater use of the services of private doctors. Illness or accident of a working member of the household was the most commonly reported idiosyncratic shock experienced by sample households, which can only be a shock that is exacerbated by poor access to quality health services. Nationally, there is a striking contrast in mortality rates found in the NRVA sample between the better off households, where 37% of all deaths are children under 5, and the very poor, where 62% of all deaths are children under 5 years.

Lack of available and accessible formal education is a problem across rural Afghanistan, particularly in the rain-fed areas and grazing lands. Literacy disparities between men and

women are high, and gender disparities of school going children exist throughout the country.

The lack of education, particularly for women, will limit the ability of illiterate individuals and their families to seek better paying labour opportunities or to identify alternative sources of income that could effectively reduce the vulnerability of the family. The ability of the head of household to read and write was often positively associated with higher welfare of the household. The highest head of household literacy rate was found in Parwan (36%), Wardak (35%) and Kunduz (35%), while the lowest was in Kandahar (6%), Badghis (7%), Nimroz (8%) and Jawzjan (8%).

Poor levels of school attendance were experienced across all wealth groups, and was particularly acute for girls. The provinces of Uruzgan, Badghis, Nimroz, Zabul, Kandahar, and Ghor have the lowest school attendance for boys and girls. The highest levels were found in Kunduz and Samangan provinces where more than 60% of children were attending school. The greatest gender differences in school attendance were found in Zabul and Hilmand where no girls appeared to be attending school at all. Girl's attendance was also very low in Kandahar, Paktika and Ghor. Overall, availability and access are the main issues restricting school attendance for rural Afghans, except for the very poorest of households who cited expenses as the major barrier to school attendance for their children. As households become better off, issues of family commitments and culture become more prevalent reasons for preventing girls receiving education.

Kuchi populations have limited access to the national education system. For around 90% of boys and girls, lack of available schools is the main reason for not attending schools. Among the settled populations this reason was only given by around 20% of the wealth groups for boys and 50% for girls respectively. For "settled" boys, school attendance has increased over the year for nearly 70% of the sample communities; this has only been the case for 11% of boys belonging to the Kuchi population. A similar result was obtained for girls - 41% versus 1 percent.

Public transport is limited throughout the country, and could be seen as an indication of a lack of transport of any kind, limiting opportunities for out of village labour opportunities, accessing markets, health facilities, and schools. This lack of transport was found to be more acute in the west, central highlands, north and north eastern parts of the country, particularly in the partly and wholly rain-fed areas which typically have the longest winters, making travel during this season even more difficult.

Market access differed across agro-ecological zone. Irrigated areas reported the least vulnerable conditions compared to others zones in regards to proximity to markets, and a tendency to use more markets in the provincial centers when compared to rainfed areas. In rainfed zones more markets were accessible within the district boundaries, due to the common practice of having mobile markets convening in different locations each day of the week in these areas. Costs associated with transporting commodities back to a village, as well as social factors, are likely to influence decisions by female-headed households on how to best access the markets. In irrigated areas, higher transport costs are incurred and more women were found to be going to the markets on their own. In rain-fed areas however, where the transport costs of commodities are likely to be already included in the retail price by the trader, female-headed households prefer paying someone else to go the markets on their behalf. Female-headed households living in the grazing lands face the hardest conditions, with very few women accessing the market at all, and mostly relying on relatives to go to the market to purchase goods on their behalf.

Household composition is a good indicator of welfare status, with very poor households being the least likely to have a member available for productive work. The greatest percentages of households with no able-bodied workers or headed by females was found to be much higher in both the poor and very poor wealth groups, particularly in the rain-fed and more than half rain-fed zones. The highest percentage of poor households headed by women were found in Faryab (16%), Badakhshan (15%), and Badghis (15%) provinces while the highest percentage of very poor female headed households were found in Farah (49%), Jawzjan (44%), and Sari Pul (41%) provinces. The correlation between a higher prevalence of female-headed households and higher prevalence of women generating

income, particularly in the rain-fed areas, may indicate that these vulnerable households are more likely to participate in labour activities, either by choice or by circumstance.

Asset ownership is significantly related to food consumption and poverty among Afghan households in the sample. If asset ownership is used as a proxy of wealth, then the irrigated and rain-fed lands from west to east in the central and northern parts of Afghanistan were where the poorest people in the rural NRVA sample live. There is also a clear relationship between the food consumption groups, wealth group status, perception of the ability to meet food needs and perception of change in economic situation. In general, the poorer households have lower asset ownership and worse perceptions of economic status and of their ability to satisfy food needs, and low kilocalorie consumption and poor dietary diversity. This is also apparent when looking at households consuming more than 2100 kcal/capita/day, yet with differing diets – the higher the diversity the household has, then the greater their asset ownership, ability to satisfy food needs, perception of improved economic situation, and wealth group status than those households with lower dietary diversity. Thus, perceived food need is a robust indicator of food insecurity, as measured against other qualitative and quantitative indicators.

When considering both the caloric intake per capita and household dietary diversity, about 38% of the sample is estimated to be food-insecure at some time of the year, although this figure was only 21% just after the main cereal harvest, at the time of the NRVA data collection. For the Kuchi household samples, only 16% had a dietary consumption below the minimum requirements of 2100 kcal/capita/day. Kuchi households tend to have the same or slightly lower percent of their calories contributed from all food groups except dairy, compared to the non-Kuchi population.

Both the kilocalorie consumption and dietary diversity analysis found similar trends in highlighting areas of vulnerable populations. Although every province in the sample shows poor dietary diversity and vulnerable households to varying degrees, the areas found to have some of the highest percentages of households with very poor dietary diversity regardless of kilocalories consumed, were in the western province of Farah, the south-western provinces of Uruzgan, Zabul, and Kandahar, the southern provinces of Ghazni and Paktika, and the central provinces of Wardak, Logar and Parwan. The agro-ecological zones in these areas are mostly kariz or canal irrigated, and supplemented with small pockets of rain-fed lands.

There has been much debate upon the relative merits of cash and in kind assistance for compensation for labour based public works. Contrary to the anticipation that rural Afghans would prefer one or the other, there were clear seasonal preferences. In winter and spring the most preferred assistance is food-for-work in all wealth groups, due to the higher prices of wheat and costs of market access and, in some cases, the inability to access markets. Cash-for-work was preferred in the summer due the low price of wheat in the markets and ease of market access, coupled with the increased flexibility of choice on how to spend cash. There was also a significant group that suggested a combination of both cash and food for work was appropriate, particularly in the fall. This was due to the greater chance of being included in the programme, a more appropriate selection of beneficiaries, and the benefits of food-for-work combined with flexibility of cash. In all seasons the very poor wealth groups give relatively higher preference for food-for-work.

The main priorities identified across the sample appear to be directly related to improving livelihoods and addressing constraints – improved water supply, roads, health, education, and better veterinary services. Both female and male shura's prioritized improved drinking water quality and quantity as a first priority, underscoring the scarcity of water generally in Afghanistan and the poor quality of most drinking sources. Men also emphasized improved rural access, whereas both men and women prioritize improvements to health and education service provision. Both female and male Kuchi have a strong preference for the improvement of health facilities, followed by improved drinking water and veterinary services. As may be expected, they perceive rehabilitation of irrigation systems and rehabilitation of roads as less important than the settled groups. However, within agro-ecological zones, provinces, wealth groups and gender, these priorities may shift in rank, or be superceded by others such as the need for micro-credit schemes or vocational training. These identified needs do thus provide the opportunity for a more integrated

approach to planning and implementation, using all available resources in a complimentary manner to address stated needs.

Nearly half the households in the sample had at least one member participate in a cash-for-work, food-for-work, relief food or other Government/NGO program in the past year. The highest overall participation was in food-for-work programs as reported by 34% of all sample households; nearly 20% of the sample households had benefited from cash-for-work programs; and relief food was distributed to 13% of the sample households in the past year.

Targeting of assistance requires further improvements. Household participation in various relief programs indicated that both food and cash-for-work participation is relatively uniform across the welfare range with no positive indications that these programmes are effectively prioritizing the poorest households. Food for work activities were found to be higher in rain-fed areas, which could indicate a better geographical targeting, yet it was extremely low in the grazing lands whilst cash for work activities were more evenly distributed across all agro-ecological zones. A greater proportion of free food was received by the very poor and poor households, especially in the rain-fed areas, again suggesting better targeting to the most vulnerable households and agro-ecological zones. Nevertheless, targeting of assistance has been problematic, as evident in the range of households in all wealth groups or dietary diversity profiles reported as having received assistance. This raises the challenge of all partners to improve social targeting within programs that are designed to support poor households through the offering of labour opportunities, either awarded by food or cash.

Part I - Introduction

Introduction

Afghanistan has recently emerged from two and half decades of civil strife, resulting in large numbers of refugees and displaced communities, the destruction of infrastructure and the deterioration in the political, economic and social environment, supporting the development and maintenance of livelihood assets. To further compound this situation, a severe drought spread throughout the country in 1999, and localized natural calamities - earthquakes, floods, landslides, agricultural pests - placed even greater strains on populations, particularly in the rural areas.

The 2003 National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) was conducted throughout rural Afghanistan, where it is estimated that four out of five Afghans reside. Most of these people are connected to agriculture for their livelihoods, either as farmers, farm labourers, livestock rearers, or agricultural traders. Livelihoods of rural Afghans are extremely complex, composed of a myriad of strategies and coping behaviors that go beyond sole reliance on agricultural activities. This has allowed them to survive, often with the help of external assistance, through years of devastating hardship. This resilience and adaptiveness, however, has limitations and the destructive nature of recent events has permanently impacted many households' ability to provide food and income for themselves, leaving many below an acceptable standard of living.

The last recorded 'normal' harvests in Afghanistan were in 1998. The following year, a drought began to spread throughout the country, initially affecting the southern irrigated lands before spreading northwards and impacting the 2000 and 2001 agricultural year. During the 2001 and 2002 cropping season, despite having cultivated less land than in normal years, increased precipitation and distributions of improved seeds and fertilizers resulted in many farmers harvesting higher yields per hectare when compared to pre-drought levels, especially in the north and central regions of the country. In 2002, a joint FAO-WFP Crop and Food Supply Assessment Mission (CFSAM) was conducted across the nation with participation from the Ministry of Agriculture. The Mission forecast an 82 % improvement in cereal production over the 2000-2001 season, though still slightly below 1998 production levels.

However, these improvements were not found throughout the entire country and several agricultural areas, particularly irrigated lands in the south, still suffered from reduced crop production as compared to pre-drought levels, due to lack of rainfall. WFP, along with other stakeholders, conducted a countrywide assessment of rural populations after the 2002 harvest, which estimated that 4.3 million people settled in rural areas would still not have access to sufficient resources to meet basic food needs.

Autumn rains in late 2002 brought respite to some parts of the country, particularly in the rainfed areas of the north. As a result, large expanses of land that had lain fallow during the drought years were cultivated, and the expectation of increased harvests for many farmers was high. Given the increases in area cultivated, agricultural labour opportunities for many rural poor and subsequent increased cash availability, the slow process of rebuilding livelihoods for many people could begin.

The 2003 cereal harvest proved to be a record in Afghanistan, though much of this production emanated from the northern rainfed belt and the fertile grain-producing areas of Kunduz and Takhar provinces. As a result, local wheat prices dropped, favouring the rural poor, and high demands for labour to harvest grains from the fields increased casual farm labour prices.

Despite the agricultural improvements of 2003 however, not all rural Afghans will have benefited from this record harvest as not all livelihoods are driven by agriculture - many rural poor are either small land-holders or are landless, and there are still high levels of indebtedness accumulated over trying to cope with years of conflict and drought. It was against this backdrop that the 2003 rural NRVA was conducted - shortly after the bumper cereal harvests of 2003. As such, the data and following analyses attempt to provide a snapshot of the rural Afghan poor living in the villages assessed during the survey.

Part II - National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment

Section 2.1 - Background

Since the onset of the drought in 1999, the Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) Unit of WFP in Afghanistan began conducting yearly assessments to determine food needs for populations across the country. In order to be able to compare food needs between different regions of Afghanistan, the methodology developed for these assessments was based on a cereal equivalent model. This model assumed that all available income for communities in rural Afghanistan was considered as purchasing power for grain. Potential purchases, when combined with actual household agricultural production, were used to estimate food needs of rural populations over a 12 month period.

Although these assessments were effective in indicating levels of food insecurity by geographical areas, and despite yearly improvements to the methodology to increase reliability of findings, the assessment was geared primarily towards determining food aid needs for WFP and partner programming purposes.

With the establishment of the Interim Government of Afghanistan in 2002, the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development called for a stakeholder review of the WFP VAM Afghanistan methodology in November 2002. The objective of the review was to explore ways in which this methodology could be expanded to meet greater information needs of stakeholders in the country, and could be used to guide Government policies and plan longer term food and non-food interventions.

The review was successfully coordinated and completed by the Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit (AREU) in the first quarter of 2003, and through consultations with other stakeholders, established a concrete plan for the way forward[1].

With facilitation by WFP VAM and the AREU, and critical inputs by FAO, UNICEF, and the World Bank, a team of 30 Afghan men and women from the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development, the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Women's Affairs, WFP and GOAL began building on the previous WFP VAM countrywide assessments, in Mazar-I-Sharif in April 2003.

The result was the development of a larger, expanded methodology and instruments that explored the needs, risks, and vulnerabilities of rural Afghans beyond food deficits. This was then presented to and reviewed by stakeholders in Afghanistan from the Government, Donor, Aid Agency, and NGO communities. This process has lead to the creation of what was to become the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (the NRVA) of Afghanistan, launched in July 2003.

Data collection for the NRVA was conducted between July and October 2003 across Afghanistan, with data being collected between two to four weeks after the main summer harvests in each village visited during the survey. Data were collected at the district, shura[2], socio-economic (wealth group), and household levels.

As such, the analyses in this report are then based on data collected during this timeframe, so findings are representative of the situation as reported by communities after the harvest. When reviewing these findings, one must then consider that they reflect a time of the year where it can be assumed that agricultural production, and thus, household food security, was at its best.

[1] Pinney, A. National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment 2003: A Stakeholder-Generated Methodology. Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit Working Paper Series. January 2004.

[2] Shura is a local term for a community-level group of decision makers, usually men. Female shura is used in this report to refer to a group of women formed to answer the questions specific to women, representing the same group of households (usually a village) as the male shura.

Section 2.2 - Objectives

The **primary objective** of the study is to collect information at community and household level to better understand livelihoods of rural settled populations and nomadic pastoralists (Kuchi) throughout the country, and to determine the types of risks and vulnerabilities they face throughout the year. The many stakeholders can then use the findings of the study to develop strategies to address the short, medium, and long-term needs of these populations through appropriate and timely **policy development** and **intervention strategies**.

Section 2.3 - Methodology

2.3.1 – Instruments

The **district questionnaire** was used to collect information from Key Informants, such as District Authorities, Kuchi leaders, and Veterinary Field Units, in order to determine the different agro-ecological or livelihood zones within a district. This information was used to rank districts according to their vulnerability to food insecurity. The ranking exercise used information on access and availability to markets, health facilities, water, and education as well as the general physical environment, security, and presence and location of land mines. In addition, population estimates were collected to facilitate planning and targeting of potential interventions. It is understood that these are rough estimates that will need to be updated by the pre-census survey currently being undertaken by the Central Statistics Office (CSO).

Through focus group discussions and key informant interviews, the **shura questionnaire** provides an overview of the **community access** to markets and health facilities, along with estimates of education levels and literacy, past and anticipated exposure to shocks, and priorities for community members. The shura's were also asked to stratify the households in the community into wealth groups: very poor, poor, medium, and better off families. This information was then used to estimate the population in each category. Where possible, both male and female focus groups were interviewed. Women's discussions focused more on their roles in the community and households, education, constraints to livelihoods, female-headed households and women's decision-making roles. Where it was not possible to conduct female shura focus groups, the male focus group was asked to provide information on female labour activities and opportunities.

Focus group discussions for the **wealth group questionnaire** were conducted for community members in the very poor, poor, and medium wealth groups only. Separate male and female wealth group interviews were conducted where possible. The better-off groups were excluded because they were not expected to be vulnerable. The focus group interviews collected information on: typical agricultural activities, livestock, labour and income (activities and amounts), and access to markets, health and education. In addition, focus groups also provided their inputs on priority interventions to improve the quality of life for members of their communities.

For the **household questionnaire,** approximately 6-7 household interviews were conducted in each community. The questionnaires included modules on household demography, education, health, migration, housing, income activities, household asset ownership, risk exposure and response, agricultural activities, livestock ownership, and food consumption (7-day food frequency).

2.3.2 – Sampling

Afghanistan's last census was implemented in 1979**.** While the Central Statistical Office (CSO) is currently conducting a pre-census exercise, the lack of current census data hindered the ability to design a sample that was based on a framework that would allow the estimation of representative statistics at national or sub-national levels. Instead, the **sample design** was implemented in two stages: (i) the community selection was done using a number of agro-ecological zones based on estimated land areas for each zone; and (ii) selection of households within a community was based on three wealth group classifications which were defined during the community interviews.

The lack of a population-based sampling frame implies that results from the NRVA do not statistically represent all of rural Afghanistan and are relative, rather than absolute. Still, a number of questions in the NRVA related to the community and wealth group population allow the correction of the household selection probabilities. Therefore, all sample estimates calculated are corrected to adjust the intra-community selection probabilities of each household (see Section 2.3.3).

Beyond the NRVA sample, the data do not represent more aggregate rural regions or provinces, so all results and conclusions derived from the survey can be used only to make **relative comparisons** across provinces and agro-ecological zones.

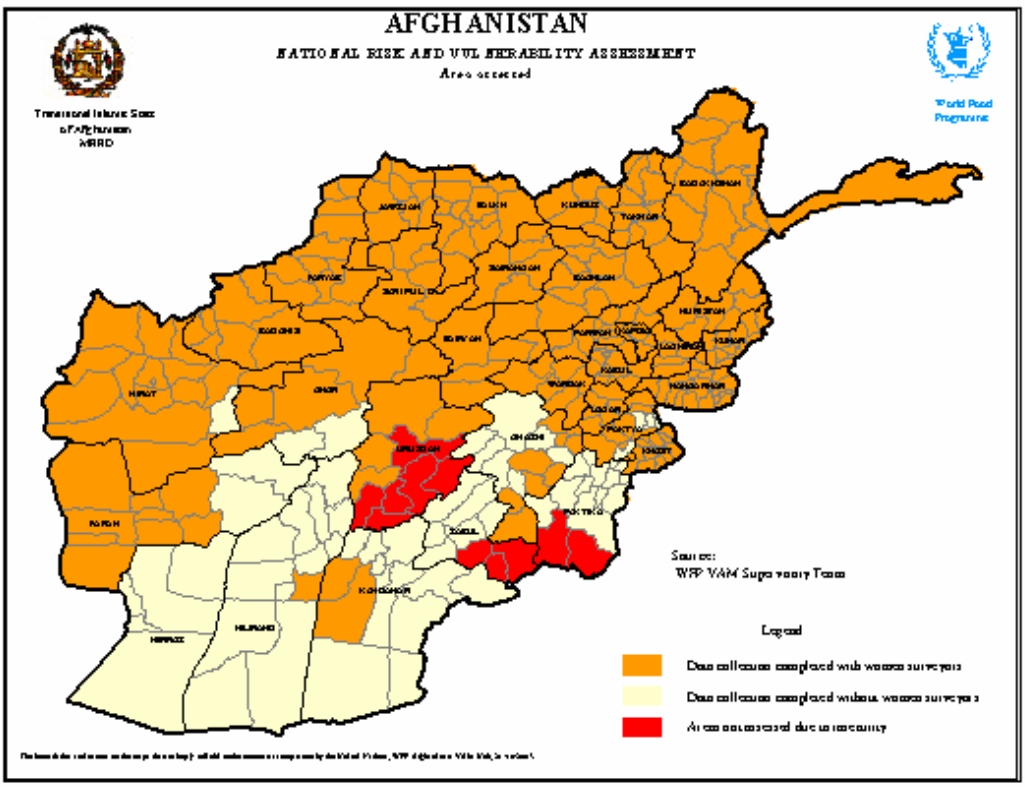
Coverage

- All 32 provinces
- 368 districts (11 omitted due to security reasons)
- 1,853 shuras, of which 1,445 included separate male and female shura interviews
- 5,559 wealth groups, of which 4,148 included separate male and female wealth group interviews

The household data includes:
- 11,757 households
- 85,577 individuals

The data is weighted to be representative of:
- 173,681 households
- 1,302,701 individuals
- Approximately 8% of the estimated rural population of 16,060,000 (Central Statistics Office)

Map 1



2.3.3 - Weighting systems

The **system of weights** used when analyzing the NRVA data was devised to adjust the sample to be representative of the communities from which the data was sampled. This weighting does not allow one to make statistical inferences at the national or provincial level, but does allow one to make inferences only to the sample population (see Section 2.3.2). A detailed description of these weighting systems can be found in Annex I.

2.3.4 - Data collection and analysis

The NRVA was launched in the third quarter of 2003 with WFP VAM taking on the role of coordinating the assessment on behalf of the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD). The **data collection** for the NRVA was implemented between July and September 2003.

Eleven trainings were run by the VAM team with support from TUFTS University throughout all WFP Area Offices[3] in July, to prepare the enumerators for the data collection component of the NRVA. The training sessions, which were both theoretical and practical, lasted 5 days and were followed by a test to ensure that only those participants that clearly understood how to collect the data were selected as surveyors. Of the total 351 participants that were trained, 158 men and 111 women were selected and actively participated in the NRVA data collection. Of these, 114 were from various line Ministries and the remainder were from other agencies, NGOs, or were locally hired and recruited.

In the middle of July, the data collection began, with most teams comprised of two men and two women visiting District Authorities and villages, conducting focus group discussions, and household interviews.

The original plan was to include villages throughout the country, though insecurity in some areas (mostly in Uruzgan, Zabul, and Paktika provinces) resulted in these areas not being fully assessed. Throughout the south, insecurity also prevented women from participating in the assessment in many districts. For those populations, extrapolations and comparisons from surrounding areas will form the basis of understanding their situation. In all, more than 90 villages originally selected for the assessment were not visited (see map in Section 2.3.2) for security reasons.

Each enumerating team had a Team Leader who was responsible for quality control. Each province and/or region had a VAM Team Coordinator, whose responsibility was to visit the enumerating teams, providing technical support. On completion of the survey in a region, teams were brought together by the Team Coordinators for a final screening of the questionnaires and a debriefing, prior to sending the questionnaires to Kabul for data entry.

Although the NRVA was logistically implemented and coordinated by WFP VAM, a rotating coordinator from the stakeholder group of the NRVA took the lead in providing information updates and assisting field teams with any key problems that may have arisen. This initiative also proved to be successful in increasing the understanding and ownership of the NRVA as a Ministry led multi-stakeholder assessment.

Data entry was conducted in three ways, depending on the data level. Data from the district questionnaires were entered manually by VAM teams in WFP Area Offices, and sent electronically to Kabul. Shura and wealth group data was transcribed by VAM and key enumerator staff onto scannable formats, and forwarded to Kabul for electronic scanning into an Access database using TELEform Enterprise, a data scanning software package licensed by Cardiff Software. Household questionnaires were forwarded to Kabul and entered by staff from the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development, and the Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry. Data cleaning and analysis utilized a broad variety of software packages, including Access, Excel, SPSS, and GenSTAT.

For this report, the data were analysed by a team of experts brought together by WFP VAM-HQ and Afghanistan with support from MRRD. The univariate and bivariate analyses were conducted using SPSS while multivariate analysis was conducted with Adatti software.

The food consumption data was converted to calories using "as purchased" caloric values quoted in FAO's ***Food Composition Tables for the Near East***[4]. It contains information for foods consumed in the following countries: Afghanistan, Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran,

[3] Kabul, Hirat, Kandahar, Faizabad and Mazar-i-Sharif
[4] It is available online at http://www.fao.org/DOCREP/003/X6879E/Ac

Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syria and Yemen. "As purchased" calorific values were used because it includes partial wastage, or refuse percent between food purchased and calories used. The refuse is the portion of the food as purchased which is commonly not eaten. It may represent an inedible part of the food such as the shell of a nut, or an edible part of a food which may or may not be consumed, such as the peel of an apple. The refuse value of a food item varies depending on the food.

2.3.5 - Data Constraints and Limitations

The NRVA data is able to answer many questions about the status of populations in rural Afghanistan. However, there are several **constraints and limitations** to the data that must be taken into account when interpreting the results. These data limitations may also serve as a guide for improving future assessments.

1. When **mapping data at the district level**, the 1984 AIMS districts are used. However, these districts do not consistently line up with the current district definitions. Province definition has not changed, and is accurately represented in the maps.

2. The use of **'agro-ecological zones'** in data collection and analysis is subjective. In a country as topographically and climatically diverse as Afghanistan, the variation of agro-ecological zones is immense and cannot be fully represented by only five zones. For example, irrigated land in the north is different from that in the south. Seasonality of crops, number of crops per season, and other factors can vary significantly within one agro-ecological zone.

3. It is important to highlight the **non-random method of village selection**. An attempt was made to represent all agro-ecological zones present in each district, using a purposeful sample. Due to the lack of sampling frame (see Section 2.3.2), this method of selection was chosen. Although confidence intervals, standard deviations, and p-values can be calculated, they are only reliable when making estimates to the sampled population, and not to the provincial or national level.

4. These constraints in the strata and sampling mean that results cannot be reliably inferred to a level higher than the population selected from (as described in Section 2.3.2). Certain data, such as the shock of an earthquake flood, or insecurity, may be more reliably applied to the district or provincial level. Other data such as frosts, access to health services or public transportation may also be relatively robust despite the non-random sampling. However, data such as literacy, dietary diversity, school attendance, and labour must be interpreted carefully. **National or provincial estimates** for these indicators then serve as benchmarks for relative comparisons or for monitoring trends rather than actual estimates. In these cases, two-way and multi-way analyses will provide information that may be more reliable.

5. The term 'Wealth group' is used throughout the report. The data collection was structured around the **concept of four wealth groups** (better off, medium, poor, and very poor). Households were categorized into these 4 groups by village shuras, based on perceptions of social economic status. However, the perception of wealth group is subjective, and the definition of wealth group can differ between communities.

6. Further, the wealth group data was not gathered, for most indicators, from the **better off households**. However, in order to be able to more accurately make general statements about the populations, the medium wealth group was weighted to include the better off population. This means that the better off households are represented by the medium households which may result in the population, when not stratified by wealth group, appearing poorer than it actually is.

7. It is also important to highlight again that female **shura and female wealth group** data have not been gathered in several districts, particularly in the south, due to cultural and security restrictions. This is important to note when interpreting any of the female shura or wealth group data results (see map in Section 2.3.2) for these areas.

8. The **consumption data** are simply an estimate of the weight of the different types of food consumed by the household in the past 7 days without the use of scales or other measuring devices. The number of people in a household was determined using the household register section of the questionnaire. Due to an oversight in questionnaire design the number of people specifically present at meal times during the 7 day recall period was not recorded. Also, the method did not provide an opportunity to account for food wasted or fed to animals.

Part III – Agro-ecological zones

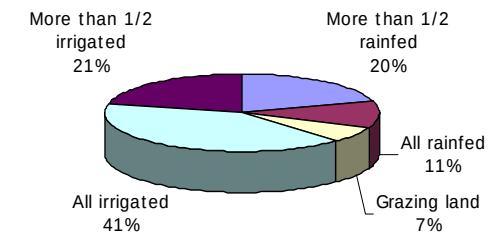
Afghanistan is highly diverse topographically and climatically. Even within a province or district, growing season, land type, elevation, land use, and irrigation methods can be extremely varied. Therefore, the NRVA sought to gather data on geography, topography, and irrigation methods at the district and shura level. Through the multi-strata questionnaire five agro-ecological zones were identified:

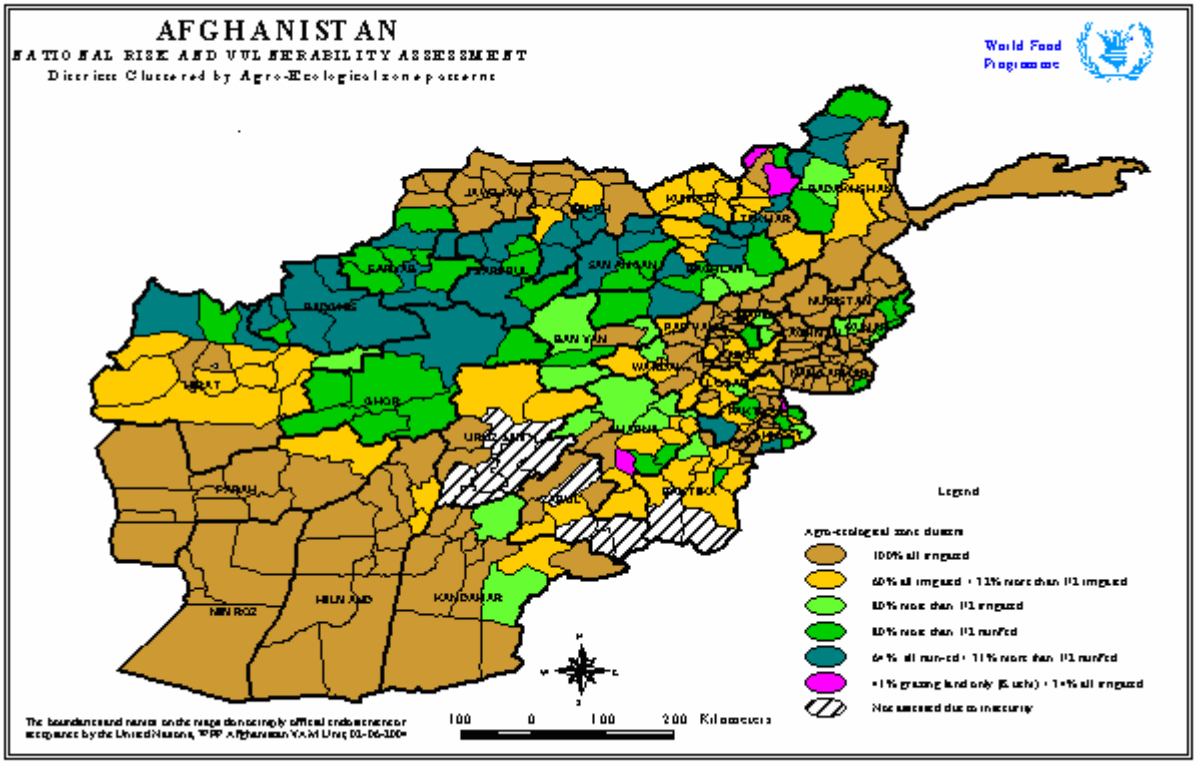
- **Zone 1** = all irrigated land
- **Zone 2** = more than half-irrigated
- **Zone 3** = more than half rain fed
- **Zone 4** = all rain fed
- **Zone 5** = grazing land - *75% of households are Kuchi.*

Note: Zone numbers are used through the report in reference to the zones.

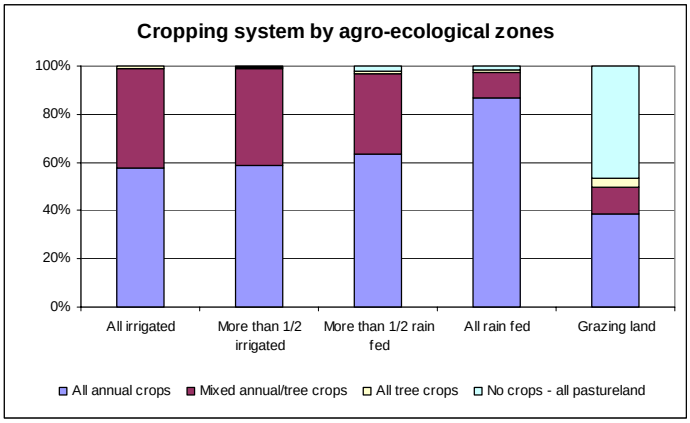
Although there may be large differences within agro-ecological zones, analysis of wealth group data by these five zones can still provide important information on risk and vulnerability. The distribution of these five agro-ecological zones by district is illustrated in the map below.

Distribution of agro-ecological zones in NRVA sample



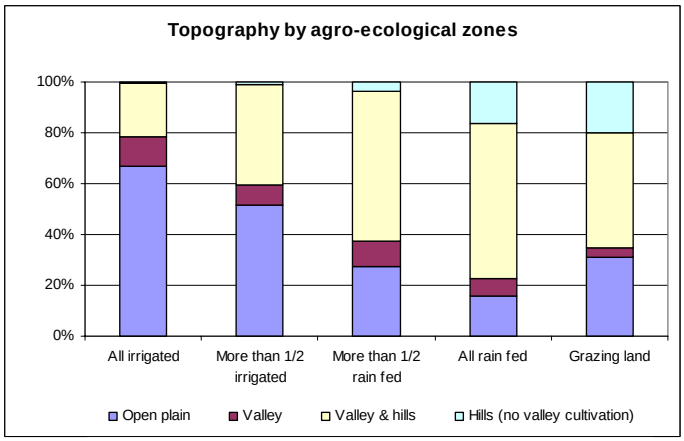


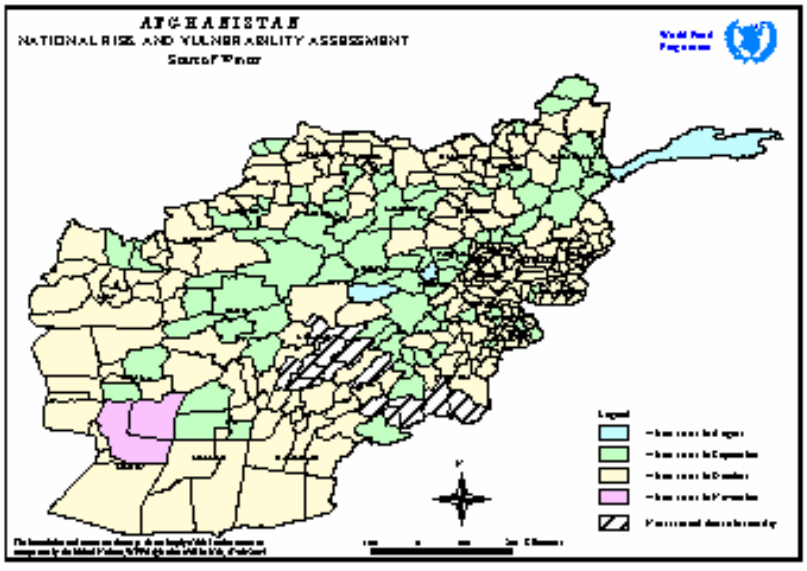
3.1 – Cropping, topography and seasonal access to water



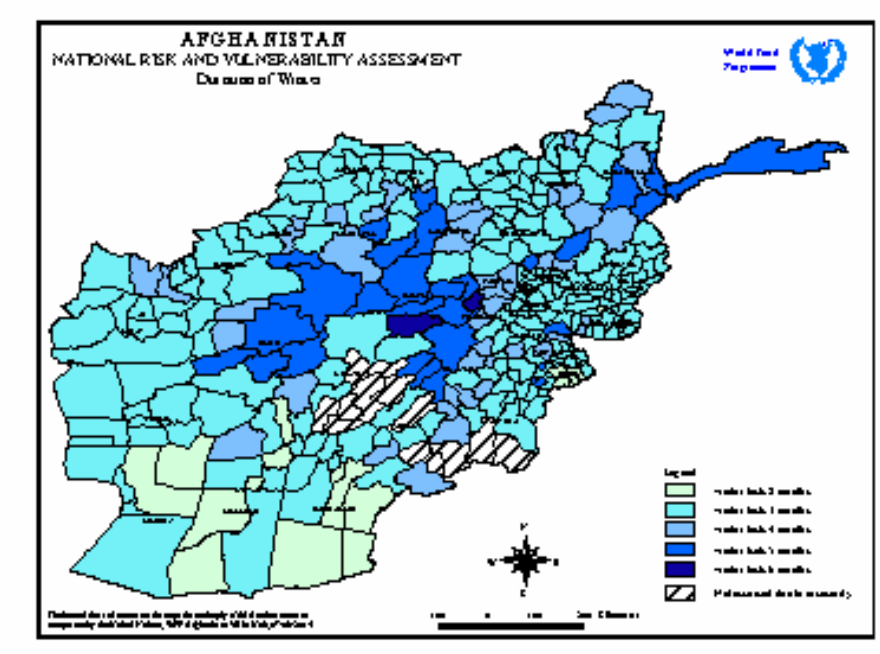
The **cropping system** chart to the left illustrates the varied proportions of cropping options available by agro-ecological zones. Zones 1 to 4 are characterized by mostly annual crops (wheat and maize) and mixed annual with tree crops (apples, apricot), but with over 80% of Zone 4 being annual crops. Zone 5 is characterized by a mix of pasture land (Kuchi grazing land) with some annual crops.

The graph to the right clearly depicts how **topography** varies between the agro-ecological zones. Zones 1 & 2 are mostly open plain with some valley and hills while Zone 3 is mostly valley and hills with some open plain. Zone 4 is mostly valley and hills but with some open plains and some hills with no valley cultivation. Zone 5 shows a similar topography but with less valley and hills. This variation in topography relates to water availability, agricultural practices, and livelihood diversification.





Both topography and latitude have a great influence on season duration, as well. The following maps show the onset and duration of winter, as recorded in the male shura questionnaire. The northern and mountainous areas typically have longer winters, up to 6 months, starting as early as August or September. The southern and lower elevations typically have shorter winters (2 to 3 months in duration), starting later in the year (October or November).



In about 40% of shuras that report having irrigated land, this land is located upstream. There is little variation between Zones 1, 2 or 3 in location of irrigated land. The downstream irrigation areas may have a reduction in water supply, as compared to upstream land.

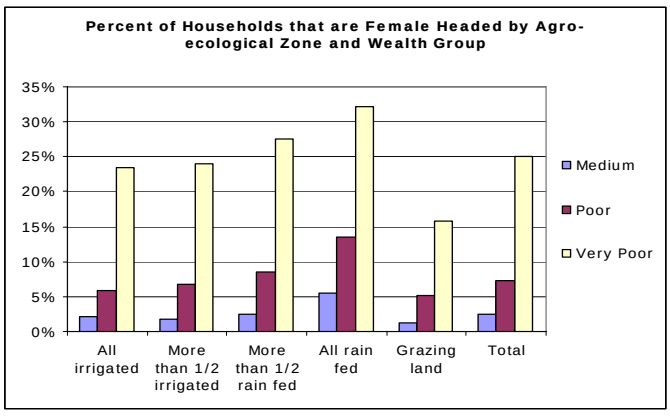
Province	% downstream irrigation	Province	% downstream irrigation
Kapisa	91%	Khost	53%
Uruzgan	82%	Balkh	49%
Parwan	80%	Jawzjan	48%
Nimroz	73%	Paktya	47%
Baghlan	72%	Paktika	44%
Kunar	69%	Samangan	44%
Kunduz	68%	Hirat	43%
Faryab	64%	Takhar	41%
Logar	64%	Nuristan	39%
Kabul	63%	Kandahar	38%
Laghman	61%	Ghor	38%
Nangarhar	60%	Hilmand	37%
Wardak	57%	Sari Pul	36%
Bamyan	57%	Zabul	35%
Farah	56%	Badakhshan	28%
Ghazni	54%	Badghis	15%

Water shortages might be expected at these locations, and water flow can be dramatically limited in cases of prolonged drought, as is currently happening in Afghanistan. Relationships between communities can also be negatively affected by their relative position to each other in regards to irrigation. The use of water by upstream communities can limit the amount of water to downstream communities.

It can be noted in the table that downstream irrigation systems were reported most often in Kapisa, Uruzgan, Parwan, Nimroz, Baghlan, Kunar and Kunduz while they are less common in Badghis and Badakhshan provinces.

Section 3.2 – Household demography

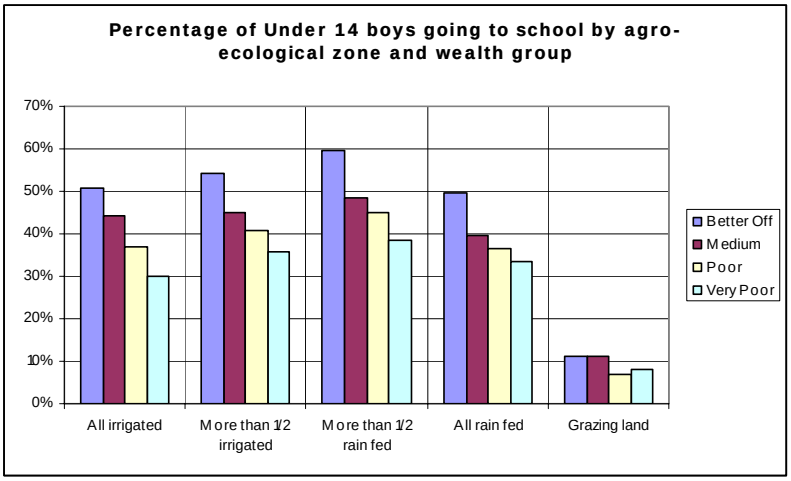
From the wealth group data some differences in household composition between zones can be found. For all zones, between 25% and 35% of the very poor households have no able bodied worker. However, this is highest in Zone 4 – all rainfed and Zone 3 – more than half rainfed, and lowest in Zone 1 – all irrigated.



According to the female shura level data, the percentage of **female-headed** households in the community is also highest in the poorer wealth groups of Zones 3 and 4 - the predominantly rain-fed areas.

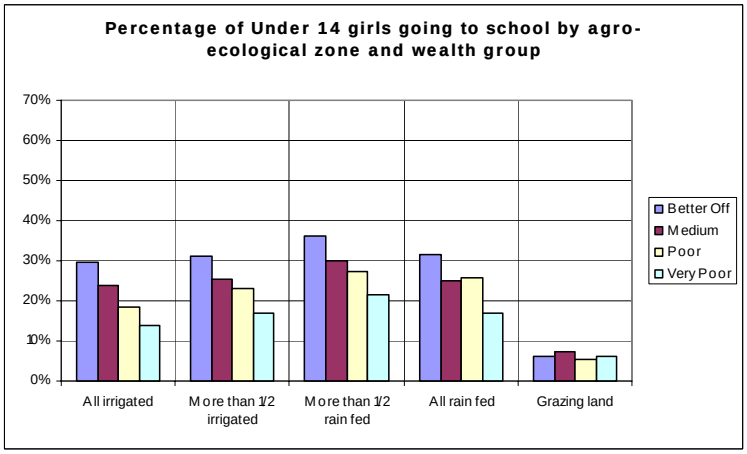
Section 3.3 – Access to education and health

The graphs presented in this section show the differences in access to education for children 6-14 years of age, by wealth group and agro-ecological zone. This information was collected during shura level interviews.

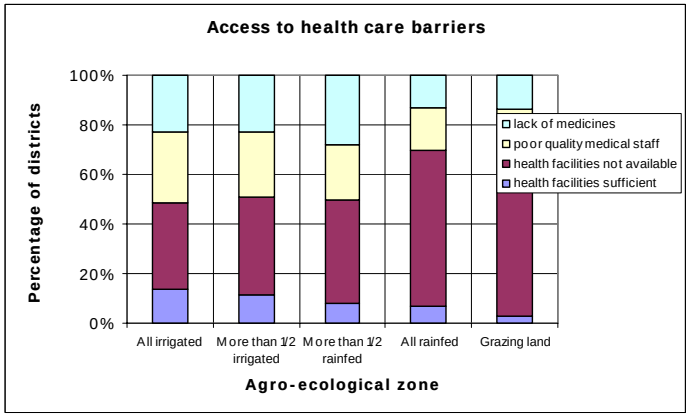


Boys from the better off families had the best access to education in every zone, except Zone 5 – grazing land. Overall, it appears that boys in Zone 3 have the best access to education with little difference between Zones 1, 2 and 4. Attendance was particularly low in Zone 5 with little difference between socio-economic groups.

Fewer girls under 14 years of age appear to be going to school when compared to the boys. Only around 30% of the girls from the best off households are enrolled and attending school. This is highest in communities located in Zone 3 with little difference between the other zones. However, attendance in Zone 5 is very low, as it was for boys, with little difference between socio-economic groups.

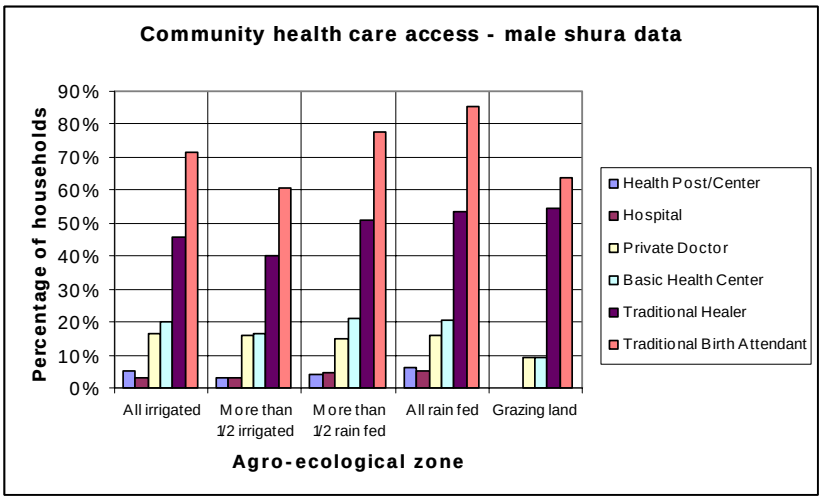


According to the district level data, the main **reasons for insufficient education** is the lack of schools in Zone 5 (78%) while lack of books and supplies and poor quality of teachers are the main problems in Zones 1 (33% and 27%) and 3 (33% and 30%). For Zone 2, the main problems are a lack of books and supplies (25%), poor quality teachers (23%) and lack of school facilities for girls (22%). Zone 4 has the same problems but also a lack of schools for both boys and girls.



Access to health facilities is slightly higher in Zones 1 and 2 but is still quite poor overall. Lack of health facilities, qualified staff and medicines are major problems for

communities in all of the agro-ecological zones, with almost no availability of health care found in Zone 5.



In rural Afghanistan there is little choice for sick people but to seek help at the closest and cheapest option possible. According to male shura data across the five agro-ecological zones, health care is often provided by **traditional healers** and **traditional birth attendants**. The other options, though less accessible, for the Afghan population is to visit the closest **basic health center** (up to 20% in Zones 1, 3 and 4) or **private doctors** (around 15% for Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4) though this is expensive.

In addition to these findings, the shura survey figures show that there is widespread lack of available health post facilities, comprehensive centers and hospital across all agro-ecological zones – less than 5% for almost all zones.

Section 3.4 – Income activities

The district level survey provides details on the main important livelihood characteristics and prevalent agricultural farm and non-farm activities in each zone.

Despite the different patterns of irrigation systems and water available per agro-ecological zones, it appears that Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4 have a predominance of **food cropping** (above 60%), especially for wheat and maize, as it was widely selected as the most important livelihood activity. **Livestock raising** (more than 70%) is the top income activity for Zone 5 and is clearly related to the livelihoods of Kuchi nomadic pastoralists who live in these areas. These people rely mainly on **forest products** and food cropping as other main activities.

Livestock raising is by far the most common second most important income activity for people in Zones 4 (54%), 3 (45%) and 1 (35%) and lesser so in Zone 2 (27%). For those zones other common activities include food and cash cropping. **Opium poppy** production was mentioned in about 10% of districts in Zones 2 and 4. For Zone 5 (grazing land), the second most important income activities were the same for food cropping, livestock raising and other, with some forest product collection.

Over 50% of communities in all 5 agro-ecological zones report **labor** as their main **off-farm livelihood characteristic.** It is particularly prevalent in Farah (100%), Logar (93%), Sari Pul (91%), Zabul (86%) and Kunar (85%).

Shop keeping and **petty trading** are second options in Zones 1 and 2 and 3. Zone 4 has a reduced level of non-farm activities, with some carpet weaving and petty trading only. Zone 5 is characterized as having a high prevalence of **no significant** non-farm activities, possibly due to the nomadic characteristics of its inhabitants; however, petty trading and smuggling remain the preferred options after raising livestock.

Shura level data show that other off farm labor mainly includes **construction activities** (or re-construction) as the most common type of work across all agro-ecological zones. Construction activities start in spring, peak during summer season and decline in fall, with a virtual halt in wintertime.

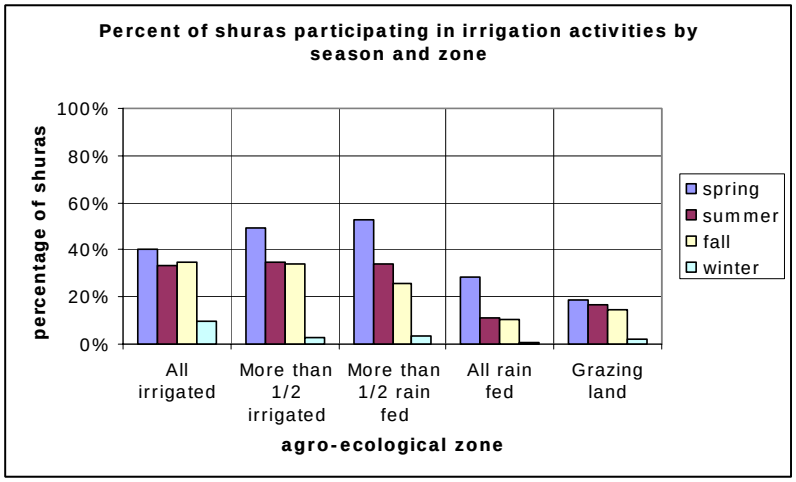
Shepherding is typically undertaken in Zones 2, 3 and 4 with an increase for Zone 5, due to the Kuchi migratory livelihoods patters. The activity is quite constant during spring,

summer and fall, with a sharp decrease during winter, especially for Badakhshan, Takhar, Baghlan, Kunduz, Nuristan and Bamyan provinces.

Collection of firewood is another necessary household activity, starting in summer and reaching the peak in fall right before the cold season. It is more common in Zones 3 and 4 and less so in Zone 5.

Given the differences between regions and agro-ecological zones, with some areas having two harvests per year (i.e. cultivating rice after wheat has been harvested), the planting season reaches its peak in fall and in spring, depending on the land, climate, and altitude. Populations living in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4 engaged in **planting activities** reach around 60% during these two seasons.

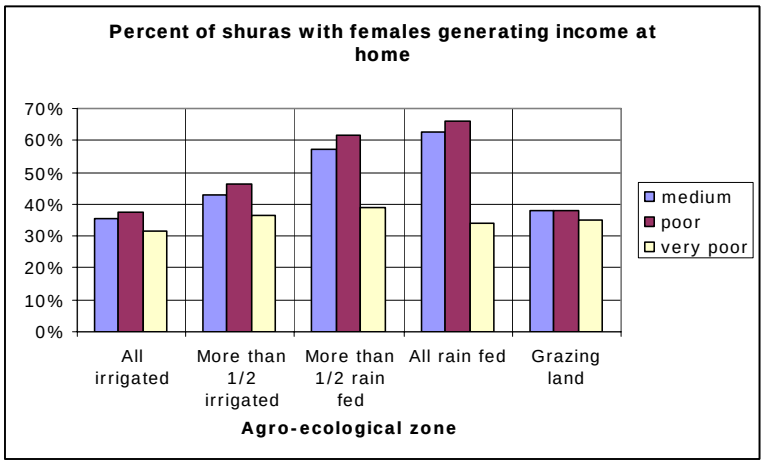
Irrigation of crops are generally undertaken across agro-ecological zones, during spring, summer and fall, peaking in spring and gradually declining in the following seasons with minimal irrigation during winter.

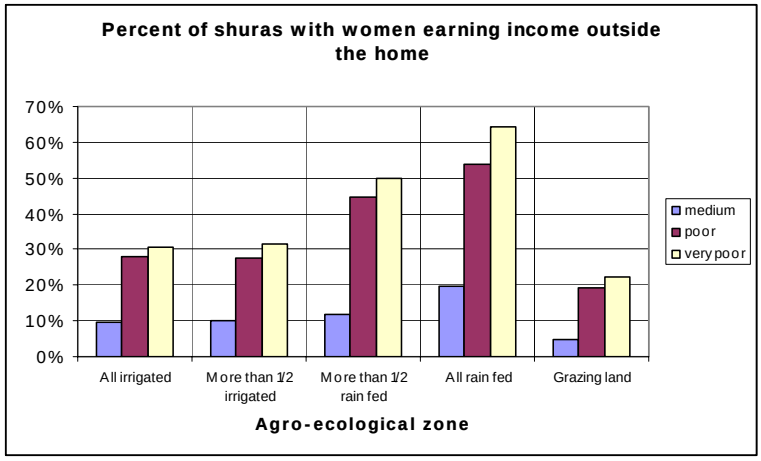


The peak of the **harvesting activities** is throughout the summer season across all of the agro-ecological zones, and then rapidly declines in fall. During the spring, some harvesting of green crops is expected to take place.

Barter and trade are activities undertaken throughout the year, across agro-ecological zones, keeping a steady trend with a slight reduction during wintertime. Zones 1, 2, and 5 have slightly higher percentages of engagement in these activities than compared to the other two zones. However, spring, summer, and fall have very similar levels of barter and trade opportunities.

Women are engaged in **income generating activities at home** more often in Zones 3 and 4. There may be a correlation between the higher numbers of female-headed households in Zones 3 and 4 and a higher percentage of women generating income at home in those same zones. Medium and Poor households are more likely to have women engaged in home-based income activities, whilst very poor households might not be able to afford the basic inputs (i.e. looms) and, more likely, will have to find other sources of income outside the home. Female income activities at home are mostly **rug weaving, sewing,** and **tailoring**.

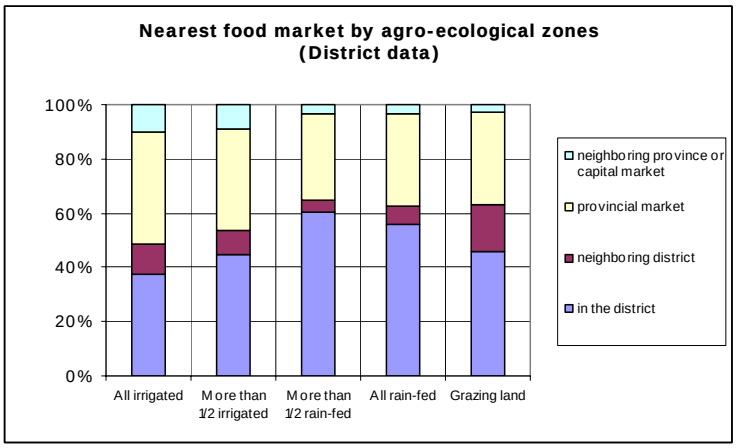




When analyzing the wealth groups' variation in terms of women generating income **outside** the **home**, the same pattern applies for the agro-ecological Zones, with 3 and 4 having a higher occurrence of these activities. However, the medium groups are less likely to be engaged in generating income outside the home than compared to poor and very poor households.

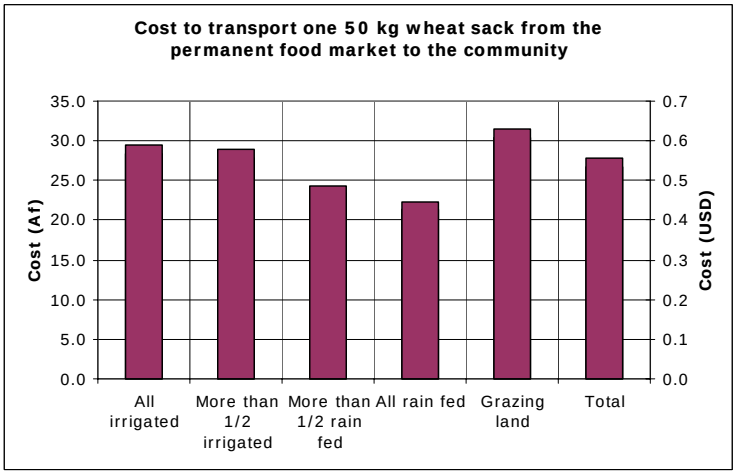
Section 3.5 – Market access

According to the district level data, access to food markets by agro-ecological zones is mostly defined by availability of markets in the district and in the province. However, **lack of transport facilities** increases the time to reach the market.



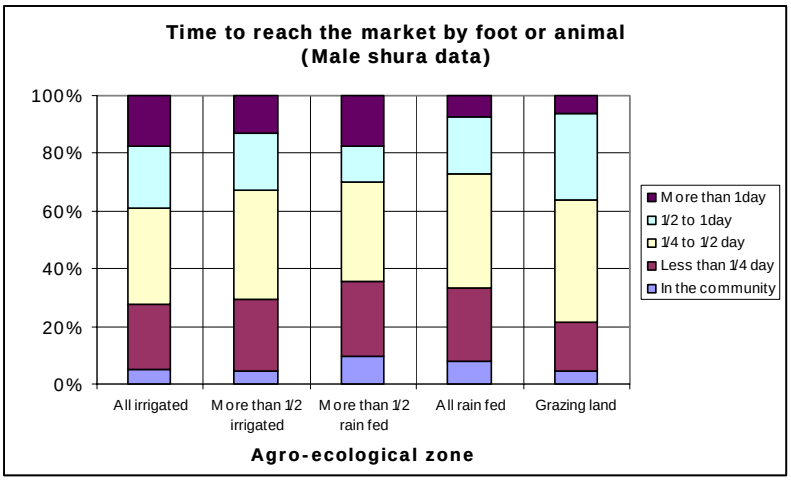
Zones 1 and 2 have a similar proportion of **access to district and provincial markets**, while Zones 3 and 4 are more likely to find a market within their district boundaries. For these rain-fed areas, it is common to have a mobile market that convenes in different locations each day of the week. Zone 5 for Kuchi has more options to reach markets at district, neighboring district and provincial levels though they are likely to be farther away. However, Kuchi populations will most likely use market facilities along their migration routes.

The district data indicate that the **market input supply** is good throughout the year, with some exceptions in the winter season, when re-supply is more limited due to climatic conditions (such as snow) and difficulties in reaching markets, both for suppliers and customers. Market supply hampered by winter constraints is increasingly higher for Zones 5, 3, and 4.



The **cost of transporting a 50 Kg sack of wheat** from the permanent food market to the community, as recorded in the male shura questionnaire, closely follows the same trend as the district data. Zones 1, 2, and 5, which report less access to within district food markets, report a higher cost of transporting grain than Zones 3 and 4, which have greater access, or more mobile food markets, within their

district. Thus, it is likely that transport costs for grains within Zones 3 and 4 have already been included in the market price by mobile traders, whilst those people living in Zones 1, 2, and 5 would be purchasing grains at established markets yet incurring the transport costs.

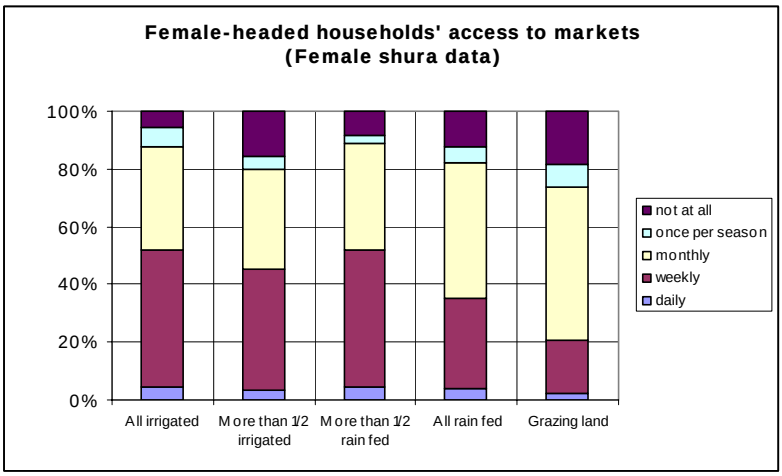


Shura level data show that **food markets** are most commonly ¼ to ½ day away by foot or animal, as seen in the chart to the left.

The presence of permanent markets in the community is lacking for all agro-ecological zones with only zone 3 reaching a bare 10%. Main markets available to the population are located outside the community perimeters and can be reached by foot or animal in an average time of ¼ to ½ day. Zone 5, grazing land, has a particularly long travel time to markets, peaking at ½ to 1 day distance. On top of these constraints, it should be noted that frequency of local transport by vehicle to markets is very limited, usually once per week across all agro-ecological zones.

Shura level data allows us to look at **access to markets for female headed households**. Across Zones 1, 2, 3, and 4 the trend is quite similar with female-headed households relying on **relatives** to go to the market – between 25-35%, as reported from female shura data. In Zone 5, more than 60% of female-headed households rely on relatives for market access. Across all zones, about 15-20% of female shuras reported that women go to the market **with somebody else**. However in Zone 2, more than 20% of female shuras mentioned that female headed households **go by themselves** to the market. In Zone 4, they would rather **pay somebody** else (25%) – mainly in Balkh (34%), Kapisa (37%) and Laghman (52%).

For female-headed households, the **frequency of access** to markets is very limited. In Zones 1, 2 and 3 the frequency is weekly, followed by monthly. Zones 4 and 5 have the most limited access with most reaching the markets only on a monthly basis. Grazing land, Zone 5, has the worst situation, with 18% of female-headed households never accessing the markets.



Most of the female-headed households (27-75%) do not have access to the market by vehicle, or have access by vehicle sometimes (14-27%). In Zone 1 only, more than half of female-headed households have access to markets by vehicle.

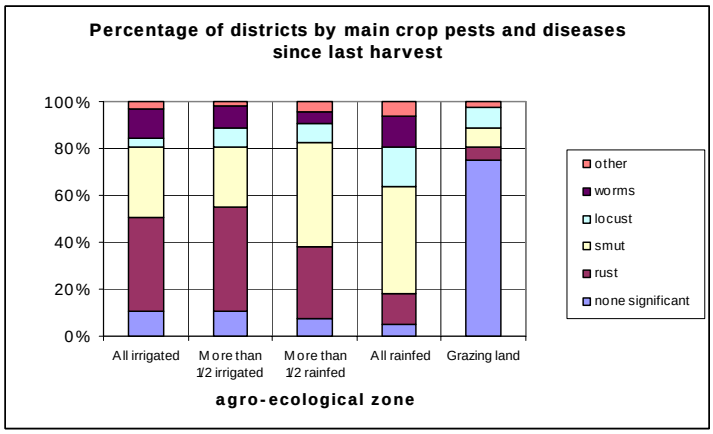
Section 3.6 – Hazards and vulnerability

At the district level, District Authorities provided information on the perceived levels of vulnerability in each agro-ecological zone within their district in terms of **hazard risk** or being particularly prone to poverty or **food insecurity**. In general, an improved security situation had been experienced by all zones except for Zone 5.

From a comparison of the multiple response tables among agro-ecological zones, it emerges that there is still a **perception of vulnerability** to most of the hazards leading towards mid to worse conditions. However, Zones 1 and 2 reported the least vulnerable conditions than compared to others zones, especially in regards to availability of water and proximity to markets. Zone 3 is in the middle with Zones 4 and 5 reporting the highest levels of poor or hazardous conditions.

The **typical hazards** affecting the zones and reported by District Authorities are summarized as follows:

- Lack of water (particularly high in Zones 4 and 5)
- Less land available for family (across Zones)
- Poor access to education (particularly high for 3, 4 and 5 Zones)
- Poor access to health (across Zones, but severe in 3, 4 and 5)
- No other sources of income (higher for Zones 4 and 5)
- Far from market (particularly Zones 4 and 5)
- Less fertile land (particularly Zones 4 and 5)
- Less cash crops grown (across Zones, but more often in 4 and 5)



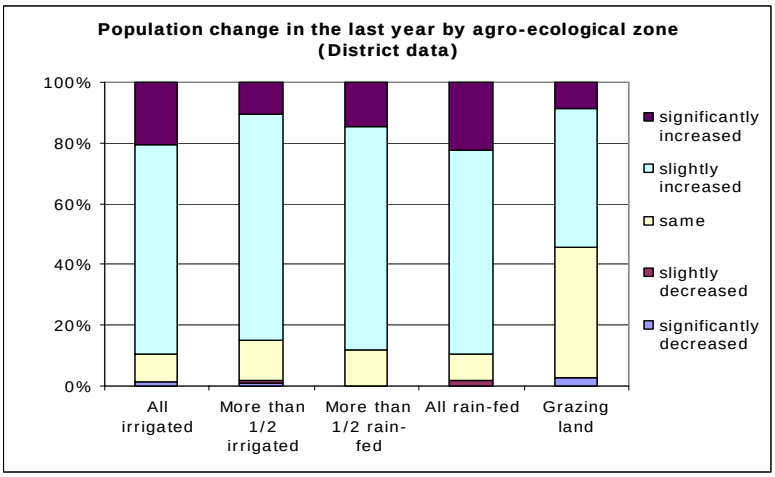
According to the district level data, with the reduced levels of insecurity last year (apart from Zone 5), the main **shocks** experienced in the zones are linked to poor physical infrastructure and natural calamities:

- Reduced water quality and quantity (across Zones, but higher in 3 and 5)
- High crop disease (especially in Zones 2, 3 and 4)
- High livestock disease (across zones, but higher in Zone 5)
- Reduced grazing land (especially in Zones 3, 4 and 5)
- Late or damaging frost (especially in Zones 2, 3 and 4)

Section 3.7 – Migration

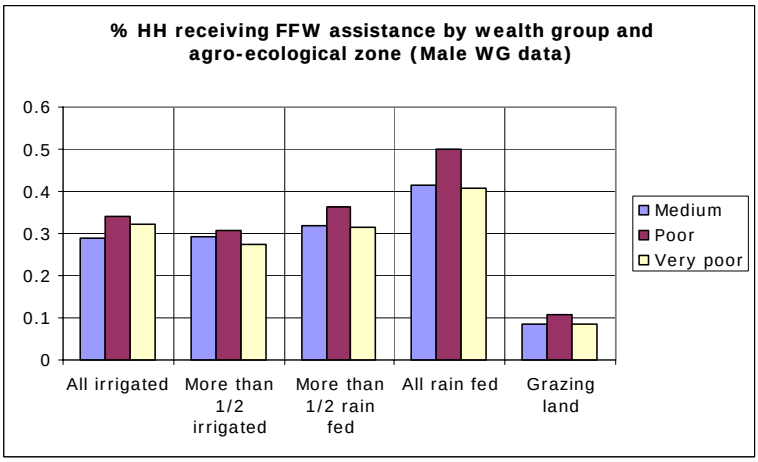
Over the last two and a half decades of conflict, millions of Afghans were forced to flee. According to a WFP survey conducted in November 2003 of Afghan households living in refugee camps in Iran, 82% of households reported insecurity as the main reason for not returning, followed by no land, and an inability to find labor in Afghanistan.

According to the district level data, all of the five agro-ecological zones have reported a similar pace of **population change** since last year's main wheat harvest due to the influx of returnees, particularly from Iran and Pakistan. The usual trend is a slight increase of incoming population across the livelihood zones with the exception of Zone 5, Kuchi grazing land, where there is a comparable amount of same population/slight increase. Zones 1 and 4 show a relatively higher increase in population as compared to the other zones as depicted in the following graph.



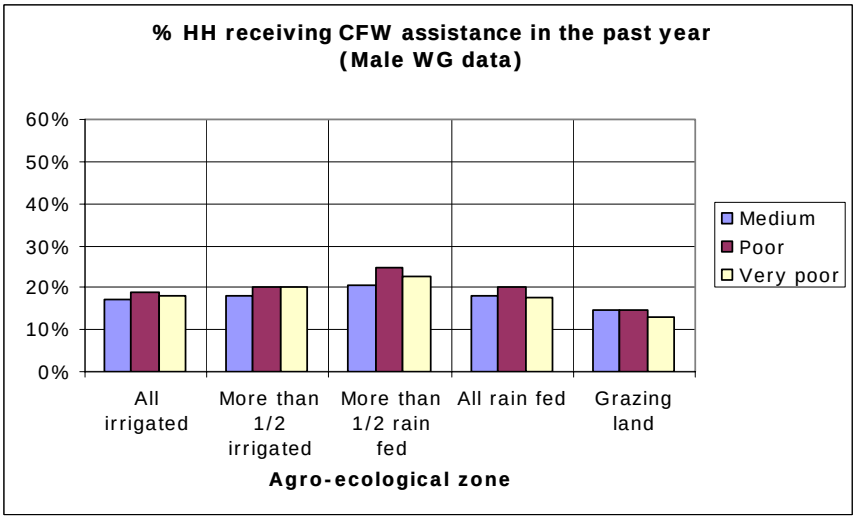
According to the shura level data, the mean percentage of returnee households by wealth group is around 10% of the total households per group. The very poor wealth group tends to have a slightly higher percent of returnee households in Zones 3 and 4. The very poor wealth group in zone 5 has a significantly elevated percent of returnee households.

Section 3.8 – Program participation

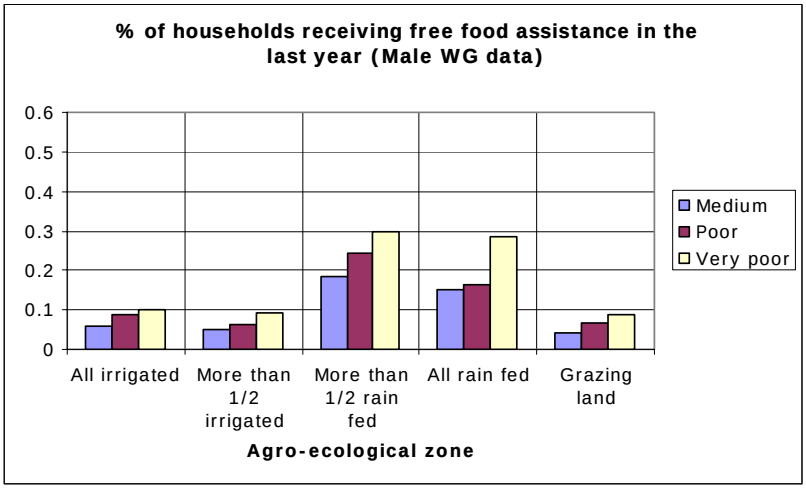


The percentage of households taking part in **food for work activities** is shown in the graph. The participation is relatively uniform, with the poor wealth group slightly more likely to be engaged in food for work projects, especially in Kandahar, Nimroz and Badghis provinces. Despite the possibility that there may be food insecure households in the medium wealth group, the high percentage of medium wealth group households participating in food for work, coupled with the higher number of households in the medium wealth groups (as compared to the very poor) indicates a targeting issue.

Participation in **cash for work activities** shows a similar pattern to food for work programs, as seen in the graph, with a higher percent of male shuras reporting that poor households participate in cash for work programs. Again, this may indicate a targeting issue.



Targeting of groups for **free food distribution** received last year seems to properly address the most vulnerable very poor and poor households, especially in Zones 3 and 4, as compared to medium wealth groups, as shown in the chart below.



The percent of households that received free food distribution is higher in Jawzjan (60%), Ghor (44%) and Sari Pul (48%) provinces.

According to the female shura data, both cash-for-work and food-for-work projects are spread evenly throughout provinces and by wealth groups. Between 51% and 64% of wealth groups within all agro-ecological zones report no food for work project in the area. Hardly any female shuras report that women work in food-for-work projects or cash-for-work projects.

Part IV - Socio-economic situation in rural areas

The socio-economic situation in rural areas is defined here by language, household demographics, housing, water and sanitation, household asset ownership, access and utilization of education and health facilities, livelihood activities, agricultural production and livestock ownership. Information from the various levels of data collection are presented in different strata (provincial, wealth group, gender) in order to present a broader picture of the households represented in the sample.

Note on wealth group data: It is important to define the *average number of households* in a given community in each agro-ecological zone, as well as in the entire sample (using the male shura data). The overall mean number of households in a community by wealth group is:

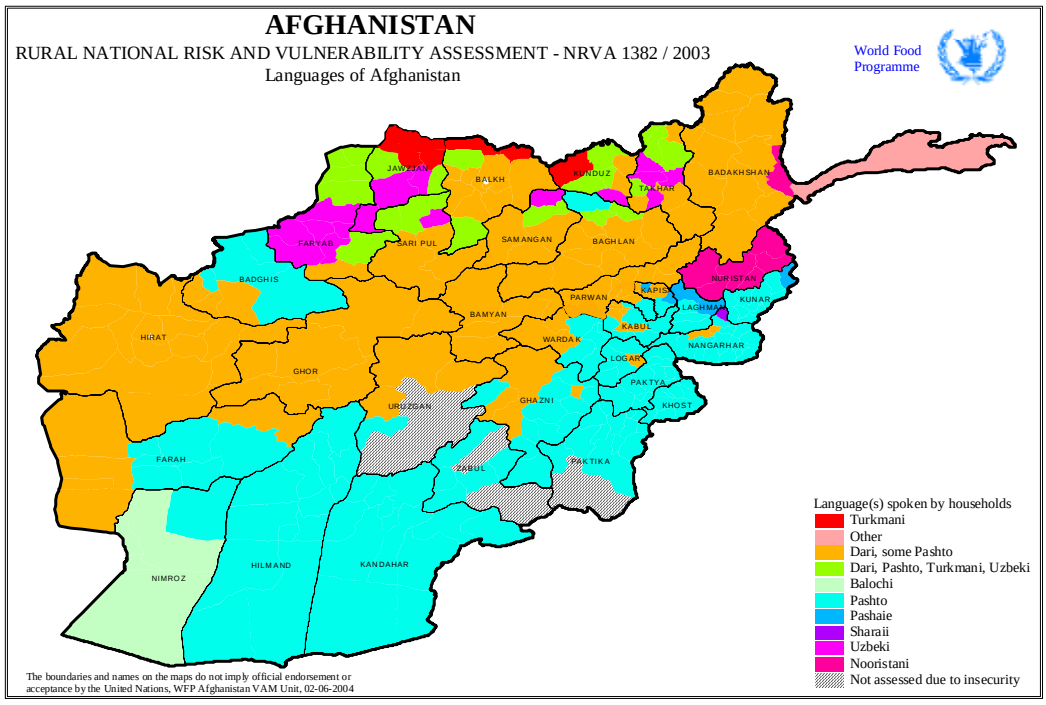
- 13 households in Better Off wealth groups
- 41 households in Medium wealth groups
- 37 households in Poor wealth groups
- 15 households in Very Poor wealth groups
- 106 households in the entire community

It is important to keep this in mind when interpreting the **percent of households by wealth group for any indicator in the report.** In most communities, the medium and poor wealth groups have a larger number of households, and therefore for any particular indicator, it is possible that smaller percentages of a certain response in these wealth groups can mean *higher actual numbers* of households than the less numerous very poor wealth group, even if the very poor have a higher percentage of the same response.

Section 4.1 - Household demographics

4.1.1 - Language

Dari and Pashto are the most commonly spoken **languages** with 35% of the sample population speaking Dari, and 50% speaking Pashto. The map below shows the main language(s) spoken in each district.



4.1.2 – Household size and headship

For the sample, the median size of rural households was 7 persons. Across the provinces, the median number of household members ranged from 6 persons in Jawzjan and Balkh to 9 persons in Nuristan and Paktya. The median for the rest was either 7 or 8 persons.

The percentage of households headed by females was calculated from the household questionnaire. These percentages are meant to be for comparison purposes only and should not be interpreted to be absolute. From the map below it is possible to see that the highest percentage of female headed households in the sample are located in Balkh and Faryab provinces while there were almost none found in the south-western provinces of Kandahar, Paktika and Zabul.

From the wealth group data additional information was collected on female headed households. The highest percentage of poor households headed by women are found in Faryab (16%), Badakhshan (15%), and Badghis (15%) provinces while the highest percentage of very poor households female headed households are found in Farah (49%), Jawzjan (44%), and Sari Pul (41%) provinces (see Table 4.1.2 in Annex II).

Information from the household questionnaire was also used to determine the functional literacy of the head of the household. The ability of the head of household to read and write is often associated with higher welfare of the household. In the sample, the highest head literacy was found in Parwan (36%), Wardak (35%), Kunduz (35%), and Kapisa (33%) while the lowest was in Kandahar (6%), Badghis (7%), Nimroz (8%) and Jawzjan (8%). Complete provincial information can be found in Table 4.1.1 in Annex II while additional information on literacy and education will be presented in the next section.

4.1.3 – Household composition

The percentage of households without an able-bodied worker increases with poverty; the very poor households are the least likely to have a member available for productive work. For the sample, 29% of very poor male headed households had no able bodied worker, as compared to 8% of poor households and only 3% of medium households. A similar pattern was found among female headed households. According to the shura level data, poor wealth groups with a high percentage of households with no able-bodied worker are located in Farah (16%), Balkh (15%) and Badghis (15%). Very poor households with no-

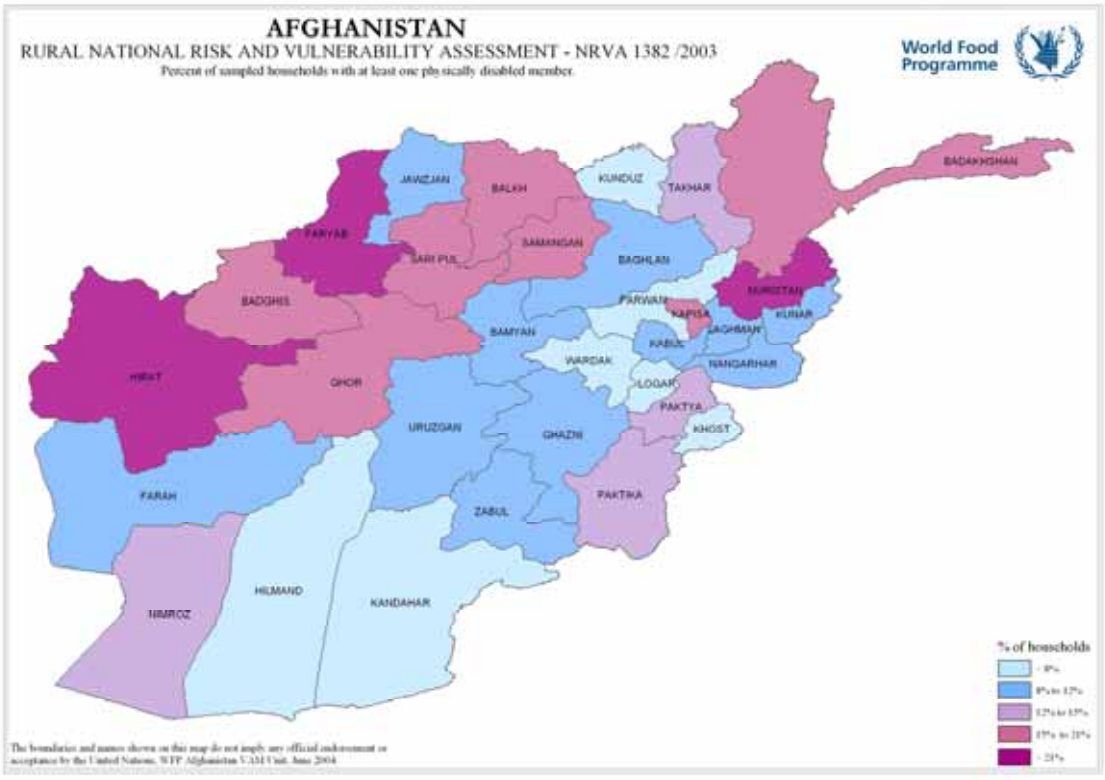
able-bodied worker are particularly found in Farah (53%), Sari Pul (48%) and Jawzjan (68%) provinces (Table 4.1.2, Annex II).

According to the individual data within the household questionnaire, the ratio of males to females in the sample was 97.2, meaning that for every 100 females, there are 97 males. The average reported age of individuals in the survey was 22 years.

From the same data, about 9% of children under 16 years have one or both parents deceased. For the entire sample, about 6% of children (< 16 years) have only a mother alive (paternal orphan) while only 1% of the children were with only a father (maternal orphan). The provinces with the highest percentage of households with paternal orphans are Sari Pul (15%), Balkh (14%), Kunar (13%), Nuristan (13%), and Faryab (10%). Four percent of children < 16 years in Nimroz and 3% in Ghor, Kunar, Paktika and Parwan were maternal orphans. The highest percentage of double orphans (both mother and father deceased) were found in Sari Pul (7%). These data are outlined in Table 4.1.3 in Annex II.

4.1.4 – Disability and death

According to individual level data, of the persons represented by the household sample, 2% are **physically disabled**, and about 1% are **mentally disabled**. From the household level data, about 17% of the sample has at least one person who is either physically or mentally disabled at home. The map below shows the percentage of households with at least one person who is physically disabled, by province.



Of the sample, the provinces with the highest percentage of households with at least one physically disabled member are Nuristan (27%), Hirat (24%) and Faryab (23%) while the lowest are found in Kunduz (5%), Hilmand (5%), Kandahar (8%), Logar (8%), and Wardak (8%). These data can be found in Table 4.1.1 in Annex II.

At the shura level, total **number of deaths** in the community in the last year was recorded by wealth group, as well as the number of under 5 deaths. However, total population of the community was not recorded, so the death rate cannot be accurately calculated. Nationally, there is a striking contrast between the better off, where 37% of all deaths are children under 5, and the very poor, where 62% of all deaths are children under five years. As shown in Table 4.3.2c in Annex II, Ghor has the highest reported

under 5 deaths as a percentage of the total (73%), followed by Badakhshan (70%), Baghlan (69%), Laghman (62%), and Balkh (61%).

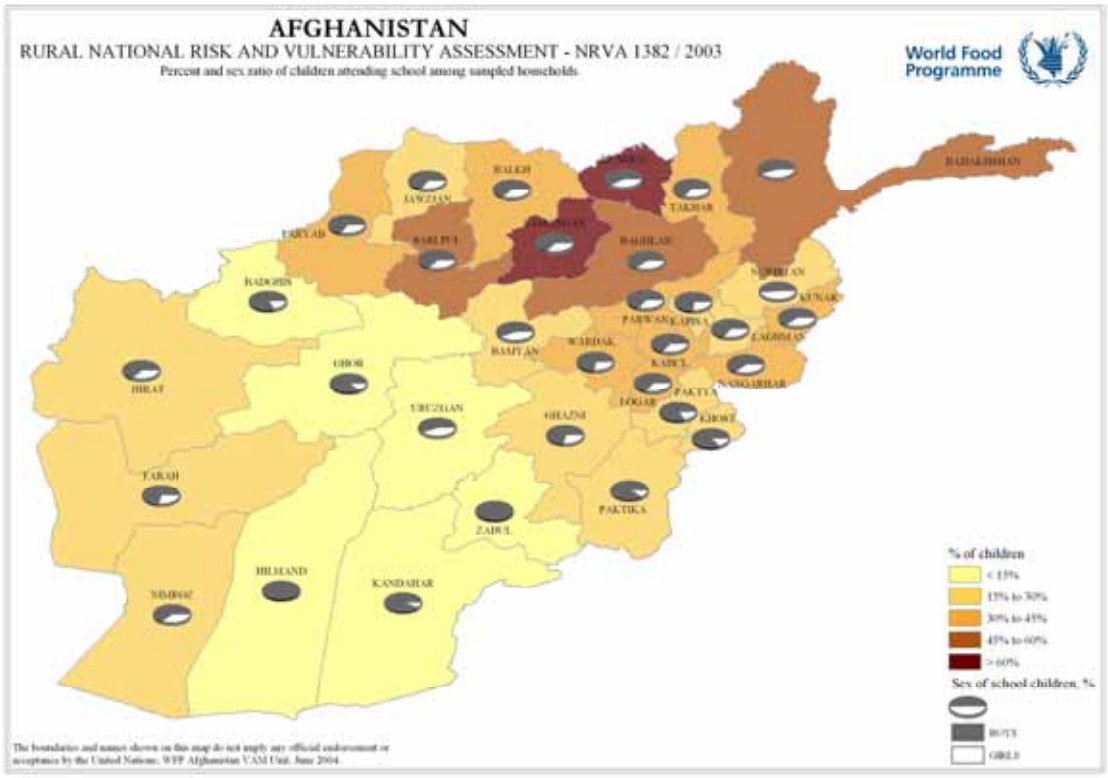
Section 4.2 - Education

4.2.1 - Literacy

The **literacy rate** in Afghanistan is one of the lowest among developing countries, with some of the poorest figures related to female education.

At the individual level, the question was asked "can … read and write?" of all household members 6 years and older. One quarter of all individuals over 6 years old were reported as being able to read and write. However, only 10% of women, compared to 37% of men, report being literate. The data does not allow calculation of literacy rates by age strata. The literacy rates for men and women by province can be found in Table 4.2.1 in Annex II.

Male reported literacy in the sample is highest in Wardak (57%), Parwan (56%) and Kapisa (53%) and lowest in Jawzjan (11%), Kandahar (12%), Nimroz (12%) and Badghis (13%) provinces. Literacy in females from the sample was reported to be highest in Baghlan (22%), Badakhshan (21%) and Kunduz (21%) and lowest in Kandahar (<1%), Zabul (1%), Hilmand (2%) and Badghis (2%) provinces.



4.2.2 – School attendance

At the male shura level, the question was asked "how many boys/girls under 14 in the community are going to school?" as well as the total number of boys/girls in the community. These estimates were used to estimate the percentage of children under 14 attending school.

According to this data, attendance increased with wealth group for both boys and girls under 14 years of age. However, poor levels of attendance remain across all wealth groups, especially for girls. The provinces of Uruzgan, Badghis, Nimroz, Zabul, Kandahar, and Ghor have the lowest school attendance for boys and girls, as illustrated in the map above. The highest levels were found in Kunduz and Samangan provinces where more than 60% of children were attending school. However, the greatest gender differences in

school attendance were found in Zabul and Hilmand where no girls appeared to be attending school. Girl's attendance was very low in Kandahar, Paktika and Ghor as well.

The male focus groups had the option to state that all boys/girls of the respective wealth group are attending school. The results are shown in Table 4.2.2 in Annex II. In all wealth groups, girls are attending school at a lower rate than boys, whereas the difference in attendance between the very poor and the mean of all wealth groups is less apparent. Across wealth groups Ghor, Hirat, Logar, Bamyan, Takhar, and Badakhshan are the provinces where the very poor wealth groups are most disadvantaged in terms of school attendance, compared to the mean of all wealth groups in the respective province.

4.2.3 – Education barriers

Focus group discussions and district interviews collected information on perceived barriers to school attendance and education for the children of Afghanistan. District data also show that the **lack of available schools** for both boys and girls is particularly high in Paktika (43%), Zabul (43%) and Badghis (36%). Schools are not available for girls in Hilmand (33%), Uruzgan (43%) and Khost (63%).

For the entire sample, **lack of books and teaching materials** was the most frequent complaint, followed by **poor quality of teachers**, which was usually accompanied by **absenteeism**. With respect to the Kuchi environment, the overall lack of schools available for either boys or girls is likely to be related to the nomadic patterns of the communities.

Wealth group interviews indicated that for boys' education, the very poor households cited **expense** as a barrier much more often than the other wealth groups. For girls in very poor households, this was also the case. However, the poor and medium wealth group households cited **family commitment** and **marriage/tradition** as barriers to girls' education more often than the very poor households.

Table 4.2.3 in Annex II provides the main causes of school non-attendance disaggregated by province. Overall, availability and access are the main issues restricting school attendance.

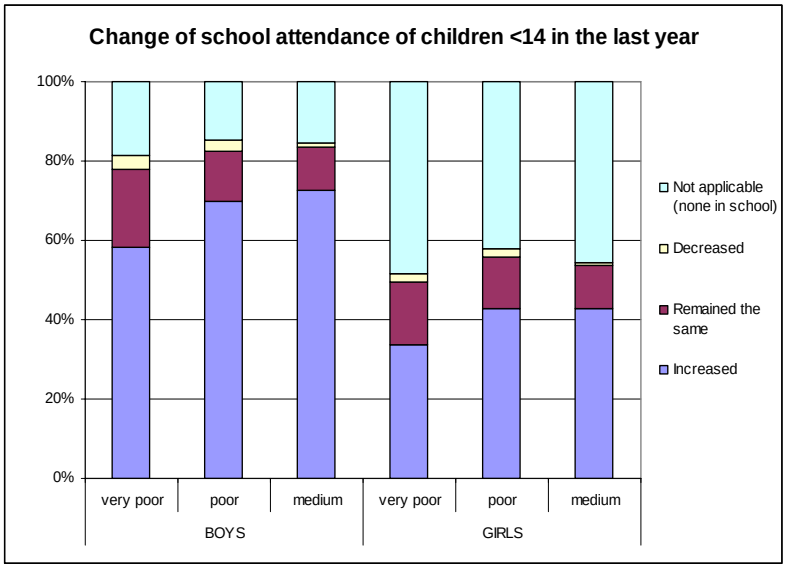
- Nearly all households in Uruzgan, Badghis and Zabul cited **lack of available schools** was a barrier for boys.[5]
- For girls the situation is even more severe, where in 13 of 32 provinces, over 70% of all wealth groups conclude that **unavailability of schools** is the main reason for girls not attending schools.
- Schools being "**too far away**" were mostly mentioned for boys in Kapisa, Parwan, Khost, and surprisingly in Kabul. It is possible that despite the high number of schools in the city of Kabul, the rural populations surveyed have few schools in their communities, and the schools in the city are not accessible. It could also be linked to the high number of returnees to the Kabul area, making the number of schools available insufficient.
- Populations from all wealth groups in Sari Pul define "**expensive**" as the main reason for not sending children to school, although "expensive is not clearly defined.
- "**Family commitments, marriage, and tradition**" is mentioned as the main reason for girls in more than 50% of the interviews in Nangarhar, Nuristan, Kunar and Baghlan, whereas in Samangan, Badghis, Zabul, and Uruzgan it appears that these factors play no role at all. However, in the two latter ones, as mentioned above, girls have no access because there are **very few or no schools** available, which may also be related to existing cultural values and traditions.
- Faryab and Samangan are two provinces where "**employment**" is the main reason hindering boys and girls from going to school.
- The only province where **health and disabilities** play a role is Badakhshan with 14% for boys and 11% for girls.
- "**Poor security**" is a main issue for boys in Logar, Kandahar and Paktika, and for girls mainly in Kunduz. In each of these provinces, insecurity is cited more often in certain

[5] A number of districts within Uruzgan, Paktika and Zabul could not be accessed due to insecurity, hence all results related to these provinces should be interpreted with caution (see the map in Section 2.3.2)

districts, which match closely with districts listing insecurity as one of their shocks in the household data.

4.2.4 – Changes in attendance

The survey also assessed perceived **changes in school attendance** within the last year with the results summarized in the graph below. The provincial results can be found in Table 4.2.4a and 4.2.4b in Annex II. Although attendance of boys has increased in all wealth groups, the medium wealth group benefited more than the poor, and the poor more than the very poor groups. Girls show similar results, however, at a lower level as nearly 50% of all focus groups opted for "not applicable (none in school)".



The highest increases in **attendance for boys** of all wealth groups can be observed in Kabul, Wardak, Parwan, Nangarhar, Badakhshan, Samangan, Balkh, Kunduz, Laghman, and Logar. The smallest increases are seen in Uruzgan, Badghis, Zabul, Kandahar and Nimroz. A similar pattern is reflected in the data of the very poor wealth group only.

For **girls**, the main increases were achieved in Bamyan, Balkh, Kabul, Baghlan, Parwan, Kunduz, Nangarhar, and Badakhshan provinces. The smallest increases are observed in Zabul, Hilmand, Kandahar, Ghor and Badghis. Comparing increases reported for girls with boys, the highest **gender gaps** can be found in Wardak, Hilmand, Khost, Paktya, Paktika and Ghor.

4.2.5 – Access to schools

As household level data indicates, the **time to primary school** is very different between provinces (see Table 4.2.5a, Annex II). Nearly half the households reported having a primary school in the community but not differentiating between schools for boys and schools for girls). One-fifth of households reported the primary school as being more than ¼ day away, or 'not applicable', making school attendance difficult or impossible. Badghis province, in particular, reports long travel times to primary school. Just over 10% of households reported 'not applicable', suggesting that there is no access at all to a primary school. In particular, Uruzgan (70%), Nimroz (47%), and Nuristan (31%) have high percentages of households answering 'not applicable'.

Secondary schools appear to be much less common than primary schools, according to household level data (Table 4.2.5b, Annex II). Over 40% of households report 'not applicable', suggesting that two-fifths of rural households in the sample do not have an accessible secondary school. However, 46% of households have a secondary school in the community, or less than ¼ day away.

Section 4.3 - Health care and mortality

4.3.1 – Barriers to health care

Another major factor affecting the well-being of Afghan people is the universal lack of functioning **health facilities**. High child and maternal mortality rates, incidence and recurrence of diseases, and the impoverishment of health affect productivity, and all these realities are related to an overall insufficient preventive health system.

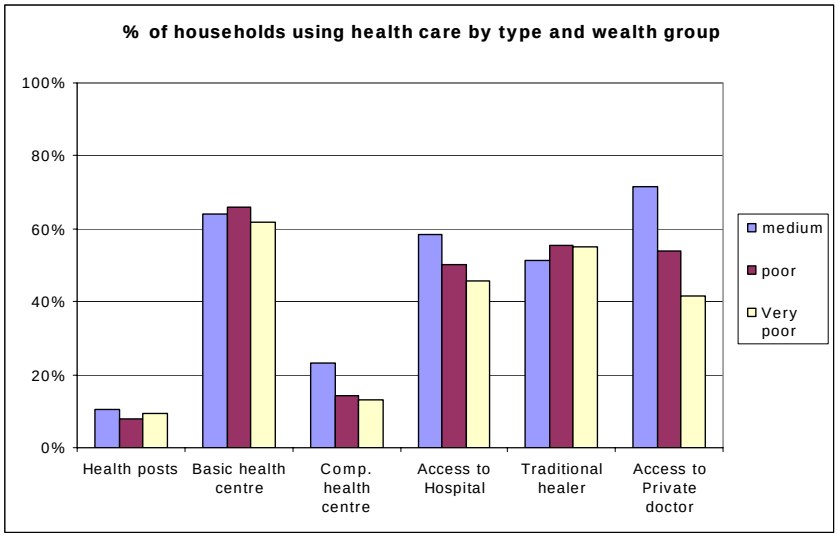
At the district level the main concerns of local authorities in respect to health are centered on the **lack of health facilities**. **Poor quality of medical staff** and **lack of medicines** are second reasons, according to the district level data.

4.3.2 – Use of health care

In rural Afghanistan there is little choice for sick people but to seek for help at the closest and cheapest option possible. According to male shura data, health care is often provided by **traditional healers** and **traditional birth attendants**. The other options, though less accessible, are to visit the closest **basic health centre** or **private doctors** which, however, charge a consultation fee.

According to female shura data, the most frequently used health facility for sick members of female headed households are **traditional healers** (56%), followed by **basic health centres** (55%), and **private doctors** (37%). Hospitals may be accessed by 20-40% of **female headed households**, while health posts and comprehensive health centres fall at the bottom, with just around 15% female headed households accessing them.

In the **male wealth group interviews** it was asked which of six health care providers would people typically use if they were sick. There is little difference between wealth groups in health care choices, except for private doctors, where only 42% of the very poor typically use this option as compare to 72% of the medium group. Overall, only 9% of households would use a health post, and 19% a comprehensive health centre, but over 50% would use a basic health centre, hospital, traditional healer, or private doctor.



There is significant variation in health services used between provinces. Table 4.3.2a in Annex II outlines the use of the different health facilities by province. Nearly 40% of communities in Wardak and Kandahar use a **health post** while no communities in Badghis, Farah, Jawzjan, Kunar, Laghman, Nimroz, Nuristan and Sari Pul used these facilities. **Basic health centres** are the main source of health care for communities in Badghis (91%), Logar (91%), Kabul (90%), and Wardak (90%). The districts with the highest use of **comprehensive health centres** were Uruzgan (51%), Wardak (42%) and Ghazni (39%) while not used at all for communities in Baghlan, Ghor, Kunduz, Nimroz and Nuristan. **Hospitals** were used by 98% of households in Kandahar, 96% in Hilmand, 92% in Bamyan and 90% in Wardak. Those with the lowest use of hospitals are Baghlan (5%), Laghman (6%) and Kunduz (7%). The districts with the highest use of **traditional**

healers for health care are Laghman (96%), Nuristan (92%), Kunduz (90%), Kunar (86%), and Takhar (86%).

According to the household level data, **health facilities** are present in only 7% of communities (Table 4.3.2b, Annex II). Nearly 20% of households reported 'not applicable', indicating that there is no access at all to a health facility. More than 35% of all households reported being more than ½ day away from a health facility. Three provinces have a particularly high percent of households that are greater than ½ day away from, or have no access to, a health facility: Ghor (71%), Kunar (53%), and Nuristan (52%).

Section 4.4 - Housing and household facilities

In the household survey, families were asked about the main materials of their walls, roof and floor in order to have a better understanding of the quality of shelter. In addition, information was collected on main sources of lighting, electricity, cooking fuel, drinking water and sanitation.

4.4.1 - Housing

For the sample, nearly three-quarters of families are living in houses with roofs of **mud and wood beams**. An additional 23% have roofs of **mud bricks**. Less than 1% report having corrugated iron, concrete or other roof material while 4% report having tent roofs, which are almost all Kuchi. At the provincial level, households in Farah (86%) and Hirat (83%) are most likely to have mud brick roofs while nearly all households in Kunar, Nuristan, Laghman, and Takhar have houses with roofs of mud and wood beams. The highest percent of houses with tent roofs were found in Badghis (15%), Logar (13%), Jawzjan (12%), Kabul (10%) and Paktya (10%).

Around 60% of households represented by the survey have **mud walls**, 34% have **soft brick walls** and only 2% report having fire bricks, wood, concrete, or other wall materials, while 4% report having tent walls which are almost all Kuchi households. The provinces with the highest percentage of houses with mud walls are Kunar (96%), Nuristan (94%), and Sari Pul (92%) while those with the highest use of soft bricks for their walls were found in Farah (78%), Kabul (56%), Logar (54%) and Wardak (54%). Again, the highest percentages of households with tented walls were found in Badghis (15%), Logar (13%) and Jawzjan (12%).

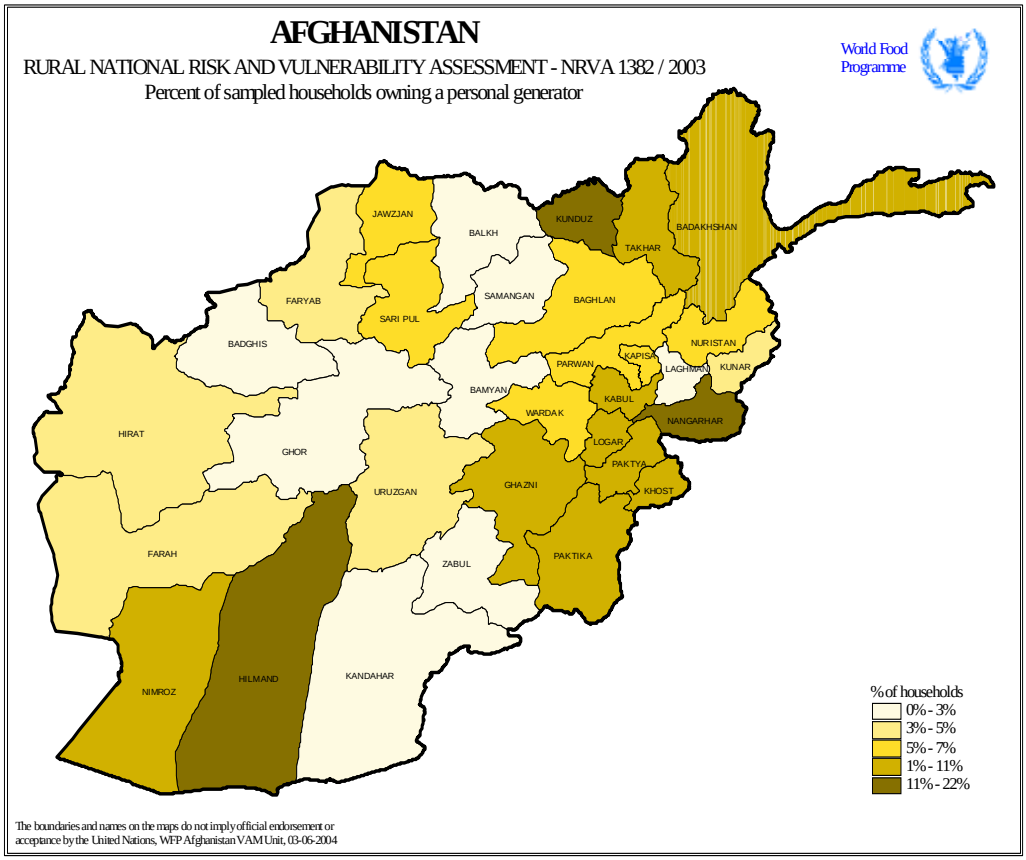
Additional information on wall and roof construction by province can be found in Table 4.4.1a and Table 4.4.1b in Annex II.

4.4.2 - Lighting, electricity, and cooking fuel

Electricity supply in rural areas is uncommon throughout the country - 84% of households reported having no access to electricity. Public supply is available for less than 3% where slightly more than 7% of households have a personal generator and 6% have access to electricity through a village generator. These generators may either be diesel operated, or micro hydro-operated generators, particularly Nuristan, which has a greater occurrence of fast flowing water. Ten provinces (Badghis, Kandahar, Zabul, Ghor, Samangan, Bamyan, Uruzgan, Farah, Baghlan and Hirat) have more than 90% of households with no available electricity. Badghis leads with more than 99%, followed closely by Kandahar with more than 98 percent.

At the provincial level, the highest percentages of households with access to electricity from any source are reported in Paktya (40%) and Khost (31%), followed by Nuristan (29%). Village generators are the main electricity source in these three provinces. Generators also provide energy to slightly less than 27% of households in Paktya, 23% in Nuristan and 19% in Khost.

The highest percentage of households using a **public** supply of electricity is in Balkh, with 17% (out of the total 21% of households that have electricity) accessing it from a public source. Jawzjan and Hilmand provinces follow with 11% and 10% of households served by public supply (out of 18% and 23% respectively of total households that access electricity).



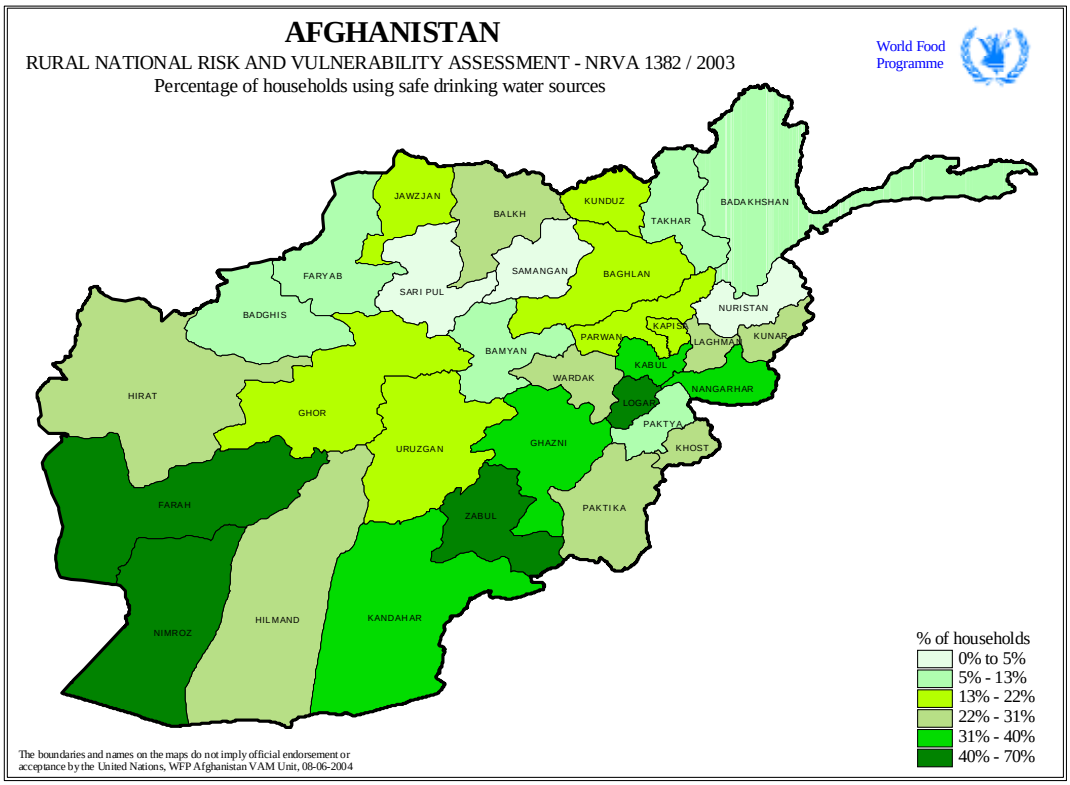
The most common source of **household lighting** in the sample is oil lamp (84%). The second most important source for household lighting comes from generators, which provide light to 7% of total households. Three provinces stand out from the rest in generator use: 27% of households in Paktya, 25% in Paktika and 24% in Khost get their light from generators. As noted before, village generators are the more widespread source of electricity for these provinces. Electricity is the light source for only 4% of sampled households. The highest percentages are found in Hilmand (15%) and Kunar (12%) provinces while no households have reported to use electricity for lighting in Paktika, Uruzgan, Kunduz, Zabul, Kandahar, and Ghor.

Bushes and *ping (*a local shrub) are the most commonly used **cooking fuel** for rural households in 40% of the sample, while firewood is used by 31% of households, and animal dung by 25 percent. Bushes and *ping* are most commonly used in Ghor (92%), Kandahar (85%), and Badghis (59%), and least commonly used in Nuristan (5%). Firewood is used by 88% of households in Nimroz. Animal dung is most commonly used in Kunduz (82%) and Sari Pul (67%), and least commonly used in Nuristan (<1%), Nimroz (1%), Kandahar (3%), Paktya (4%), and Ghor (4%). Badghis has the highest use of crop residue/sawdust use, at 17 percent of the sample.

4.4.3 - Water and sanitation

In the 2003 NRVA, **safe drinking water** was defined as water from hand pumps only while all other water sources surveyed are considered unsafe, as per the UNICEF definition. At the household level, only 24% of households reported accessing drinking water from safe sources. Other sources of drinking water were open wells (26%), springs (22%), rivers/lakes/canals (17%) and **kariz**[6] (6%). The breakdown of household water supply by province is shown in Table 4.4.3a in Annex II.

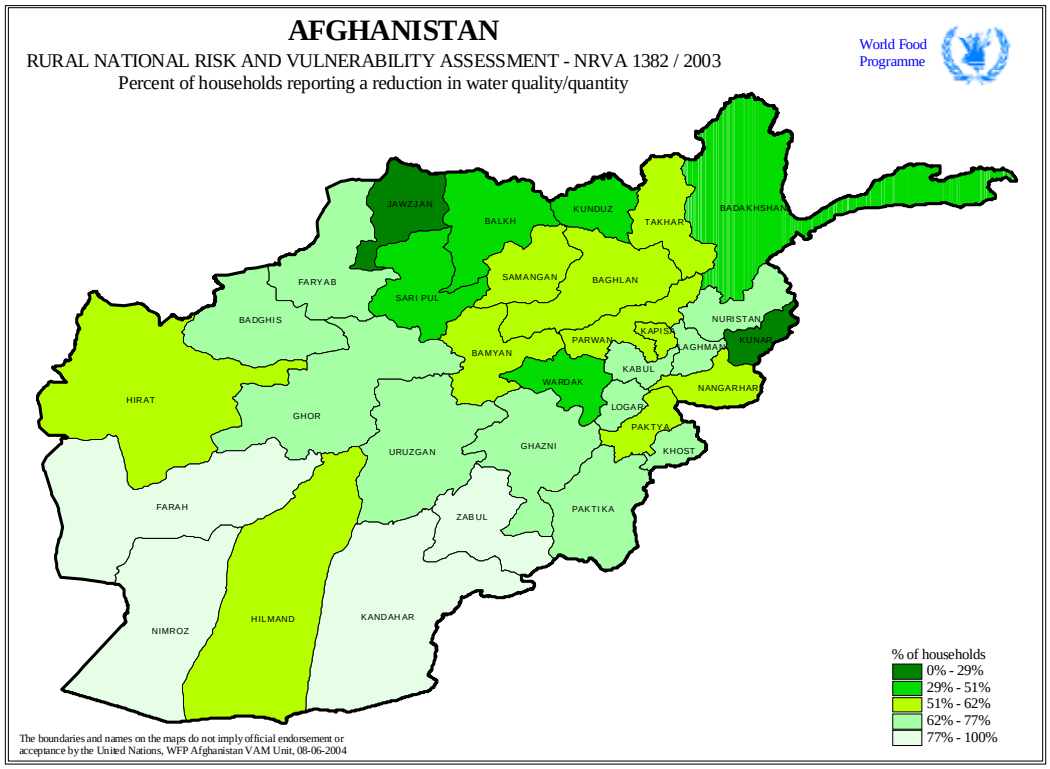
[6] Traditional underground water channels/network of wells, connected through underground tunnels.



The map above depicts percentages of sampled households using **safe drinking water** by province. In Nuristan, no households reported using drinking water from safe sources, followed by only 1% in Samangan. Only 5-10% of households in Sari Pul, Badakhshan and Takhar used water from safe sources. The best access to safe water sources was found in Zabul (70%), followed by 66% of households in Farah province.

The map on the following page shows the prevalence by province of households reporting a reduction in water quantity/quality as a shock in the previous year. It is interesting to note that many of the provinces with the best access to safe drinking water (Farah and Nimroz, for example) also have experienced a decrease in water quality and/or quantity, likely due to the drop in underground water tables.

In many areas, particularly in the northern and central provinces, there is sufficient access to water in the form of springs, lakes, rivers, and other open (and hence, unsafe) sources. In the drier areas of the south, hand pumps (a safe water source) are likely to be a more common source of water, due to the lack of open water sources. This contrast highlights the importance of distinguishing the need for water in general (whether for drinking or other uses) from the need for safe drinking water.



As measured at the household level, overall, 88% of households have a **drinking water source** in the community. In general, households in Faryab (37%), Badghis (30%) Badakhshan (24%) and Uruzgan (23%) had the highest percentage of households with a drinking water source outside the community. However, most households are less than ¼ day away from drinking water. The distance from a drinking water source by province is shown in Table 4.4.3b in Annex II.

For the entire sample, 28% of households report having **no toilet** facility with the rest of the households reporting having a **traditional latrine**. Less than 1% report having an improved latrine or other toilet facility which, by UNICEF definitions, are considered safe sanitation facilities.

Laghman (74%), Ghor (60%), and Badghis (57%) have the highest percentage of households with no sanitation facility. Those provinces with the highest percentage of households using a traditional or improved latrine are found in Wardak (94%), Kapisa (93%) and Zabul (90%).

Households were also asked if they considered their current toilet facility to be adequate. Of the households with no toilet facilities, only 3% reported that it was adequate while 8% of the households with traditional latrines reported that they considered them to be adequate. Perceived adequacy of toilet facilities was highest in households in Hilmand (22%) and Takhar (20%) provinces and lowest in Farah (1%), Jawzjan (1%) and Uruzgan (1%).

Table 4.4.3c in Annex II shows the prevalence of toilet type and perception of sanitation adequacy by province.

Section 4.5 - Household asset ownership

4.5.1 - Assets

The household questionnaire collected information on each household's ownership of twelve basic and productive assets. A complete summary of asset ownership by province is shown in Tables 4.5.1a and 4.5.1b in Annex II.

The most commonly owed household asset was a **mattress**, which was found in 98% of the sample households. All households in Badghis, Hilmand, Kunduz, Nuristan, and Uruzgan owned mattresses. Households in Kabul (92%) and Logar (93%) were least likely to own a mattress.

A **watch or clock** was found in 76% of households with the highest level of ownership found in Nimroz and Paktika (90%) and Khost and Kunduz (88%). Households in Samangan province had the lowest level of ownership (47%).

Radios were owned by 65% of the sample with ownership being most common in households found in Nimroz and Paktya - more than 80% of households own a radio. Ownership was lowest in Jawzjan (37%) and Hirat (47%) provinces.

Overall, 31% of households in the sample own a **sewing machine** with the highest ownership being 59% in Kunduz, followed by Nimroz (48%) and Sari Pul (47%). Sewing machine ownership was lowest in Badghis (3%) and Jawzjan (13%) provinces.

Ownership of small mobility/working assets like bicycles and carts was investigated, and found to be closely related to terrain, with rugged mountainous and desert areas, as well as areas lacking rural roads presenting lower levels of ownership. Almost one-quarter of the households possess a **bicycle**. This figure varies by province, with Hilmand (56%), Nimroz (44%) and Kunduz (43%) having the highest percentages of ownership, while there were no households in Nuristan owning a bicycle. **Cart** ownership shows similar percentages by province with 50% of households in Hilmand and 45% in Nimroz owning a cart, while no households reported possessing one in Nuristan or in Jawzjan.

On average, just over 20% of households own **carpets**. In Bamyan and Wardak, 49% of households possess carpets, and in Paktika, 48% own carpets. No households reported having carpets in Jawzjan, indicating that perhaps most of the carpets produced in that area are sold. **Jewellery** is owned by 10% of households. Provincially, this figure is highest in Kunduz (30%), followed by Ghazni and Khost (20%), while no households have reported possessing jewellery in Badghis, and only 1% of households in Baghlan and Ghor.

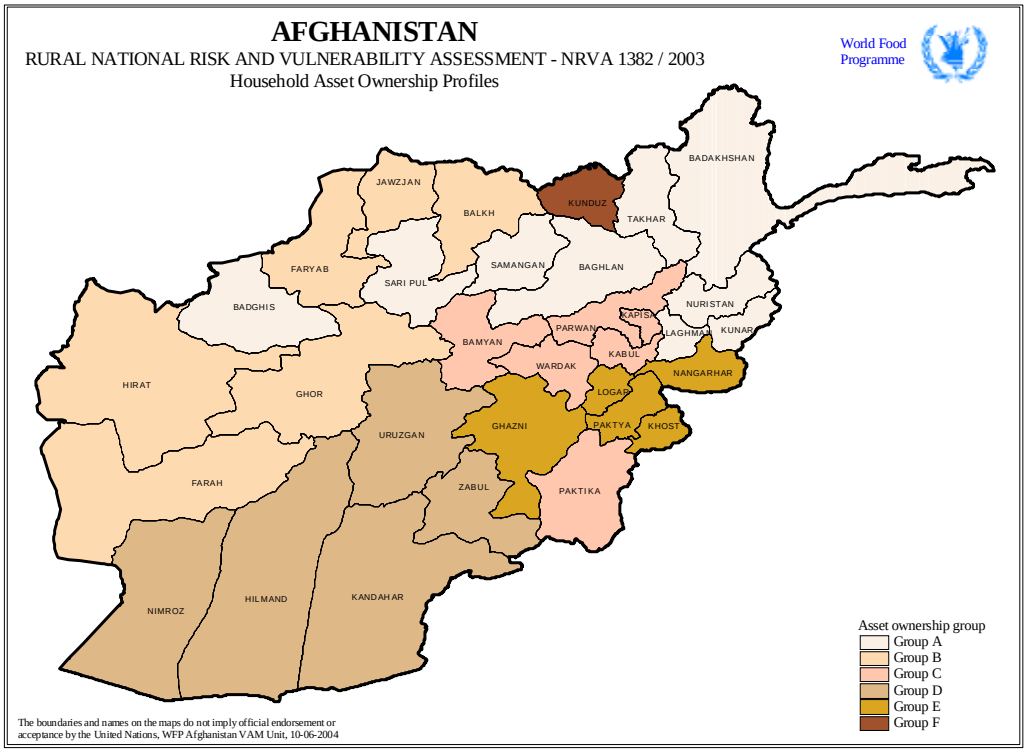
The least frequently owned assets were cars/trucks, televisions/DVDs, rug weaving looms, and motorcycles. These assets have figures between 4% (car or truck) and 8% (motorcycle). These assets present interesting ownership characteristics at the provincial level. Khost, Paktya, Logar and Ghazni have the highest percentages of households owning **cars or trucks** together with Hilmand ranging from 10% and 15 percent. **Motorcycle** ownership is also interesting. Nimroz, Hilmand, Kandahar, Zabul and Uruzgan report 22% to 28% of households owning a motorcycle. Paktika and Ghazni in the south and Faryab and Kunduz in the north of the country have lower but still important levels of ownership, between 10 and 18 percent. These areas are located along borders where motorcycles may be used in both formal and informal border trading activities.

Rug weaving looms are more commonly found in the typical rug producing areas of the north and west, including the provinces of Jawzjan (28%), Farah (25%) and Faryab (20%). Only 5% of the sample households own **televisions or DVDs** with the highest found in Kunduz (15%), while no households sampled in Badghis, Baghlan, Jawzjan or Laghman owned these items.

4.5.2 – Asset groups by province

Six different **patterns of asset ownership** have been constructed clustering the 32 provinces according to the different patterns of asset ownership.

Group A – Low overall asset ownership. Badakhshan, Takhar, Laghman, Kunar, Badghis, Nuristan, Samangan, Baghlan and Sari Pul – This group contains the provinces with the lowest values in term of percentages of household levels of asset ownership. The ownership figures are below the sample average for every asset. On average, 68% of the households possess watches or clocks, 62% radios, 29% sewing machines, 11% carpets, 10% bicycles, 7% jewellery, 5% carts. Looms, televisions or DVDs, motorcycles, and cars or trucks account for 2% each.



Group B – **Low asset ownership, high loom ownership**. Faryab, Jawzjan, Ghor, Hirat, Balkh, Farah – These provinces have household ownership lower than the sample average for all assets, especially radios, which account for an average of 50%. The only exception is rug weaving looms: 19% of households possess one, more than three times the average country value (6%).

Group C – **Average asset ownership, high carpet ownership.** Kabul, Kapisa, Paktika, Bamyan, Parwan and Wardak – These provinces have high levels of carpet ownership - 43%, compared to an average of 22% for the whole country. Ownership of other items are close to the sample averages. Watches or clocks, jewellery, bicycles and carts are a few points above the average values, while the rest follow the average or are a few percentage points below.

Group D – **High asset ownership, very high motorcycle ownership.** Nimroz, Hilmand, Kandahar, Zabul and Uruzgan – Households in these provinces have high levels of watch/clock, radio, sewing machine, bicycle, and cart ownership. More than one-quarter of households possess a motorcycle, more than three times the level of the overall sample (8%) while 7% of households report owning a car - only 1 percent lower than the sample average.

Group E – **High asset ownership, low loom ownership**. Khost, Logar, Paktya, Ghazni and Nangarhar – These provinces stand out from the rest for having high ownership for all household assets except weaving looms (1%) and motorcycles (7%) More than 80% of the households own a watch or clock, 77% radios, 39% sewing machines, 29% bicycles, 27% carpets, 24% carts, and 18% jewellery. On average, 10% of households possess a car or a truck; more than double the sample average. Television or DVD ownership, at 6%, is higher than the sample average of 4 percent.

Group F – **Very High asset ownership**. Kunduz – This is not a legitimate cluster, as it is composed of one province only. Kunduz province also presents high levels of asset ownership; 88% of households possess watches or clocks, 75% radios, slightly less than 60% sewing machines, 34% carpets and 30% jewellery. Ownerships of working or mobility assets such as bicycles (43%), carts (23%) or motorcycles (11%) are quite widespread. Kunduz province has the highest level of televisions/DVD ownership - 15% of households and more than three times the sample average (4%).

Section 4.6 - Household income and labour

4.6.1 - Household income

According to the male shura data, the majority of the Afghan population is traditionally engaged in **agricultural** activities, with regional and across agro-ecological zones differences to be considered due to geological features, diverse irrigation systems (i.e. the kariz in the southern region and springs in the north), and variation in altitude, climate, and vegetation.

Other **minor activities** in which households are engaged throughout the year are mainly connected to in-house production of handicrafts, weaving, embroidery and tailoring. All of these activities, typically practiced by females, are constant across seasons and reported in 10-20% of communities, with the exception of the Kuchi in the grazing areas, where only weaving is practiced.

Labour opportunities, especially in the rural areas focus of the NRVA study, are strongly related to the agricultural seasons. Nonetheless, additional labour opportunities might be related to construction, barter and trade. **Other on-farm labour activities** such as irrigating, weeding and collection of firewood are prevalent (around 50%) during spring and summer with a slight reduction in fall. These activities are less important in the grazing land.

From the household survey it was possible to get a general idea of the income earning activities employed by **male heads** of household only. The heads of household were asked if they had worked in the **past 7 days** and then the sector and type of work. In the sample, 80% of the male heads of household had worked in the past week, ranging from highs of 98% in Laghman, 94% in Logar, 92% in Paktika and 90% in Kunar to lows of 63% in Nangarhar, 64% in Takhar, and 67% in Hirat.

From the household questionnaire it was possible to determine only the general sector and types of work rather than more specific activities usually employed by rural households. Most household heads were self-employed (75%) which, according to the type of work, is normally agricultural work. More than 90% of household heads in Baghlan, Kunduz, Nuristan, and Khost are self-employed. Fifteen percent of male household heads worked in private business, which was most common in Laghman (36%), Zabul (33%), Hirat (28%), Nimroz (28%) and Farah (28%). This was least common in Baghlan, Kunduz and Parwan where no male household heads worked in private business. Nearly10% of the male heads in the sample were employed by the Government, ranging from highs of 15% in Nangarhar and Parwan to 0% in Badghis, Farah, Hilmand, Kandahar, Khost, Kunduz, Nimroz, Nuristan, Takhar, Uruzgan and Zabul. Only 1% of the overall sample was employed by the military – in more than half the provinces, no male heads were military employees. However, 11% of the male heads in the Parwan sample were employed by the military, followed by 6% in Wardak and 4% in Paktika. Detailed information can be found in Table 4.6.1a and Table 4.6.1b in Annex II.

As already mentioned, more than 60% of the male heads of household were earning money in the **agricultural** sector. This was most common in Takhar (92%), Uruzgan (89%), Nuristan (89%) and Badghis (86%) and least common in Nimroz (16%), Ghazni (39%), Zabul (43%) and Paktya (45%) provinces.

Construction work was the main source of income for 12% of the male heads in the sample. Half of the households in Zabul rely on construction for family income, followed by 37% in Nimroz, 33% in Kandahar and 32% in Ghazni. Hardly any household heads relied on income from construction in Baghlan, Kunduz, Faryab, Sari Pul and Takhar. When opportunities for **construction** labour are analyzed in greater detail, it is possible to define four clusters of provinces in which construction activities are particularly common:

Cluster 1: Kabul, Kapisa, Parwan, Logar and Nuristan
Cluster 2: Uruzgan, Paktika, Zabul and Ghazni
Cluster 3: Kandahar and Hilmand
Cluster 4: Ghor, Badghis, Hirat and Farah

Clusters 1, 3 and 4 include the major urban settlements of Kabul, Kandahar and Hirat where major reconstruction is occurring (particularly in Kabul and Kandahar), has high levels of returnee's, and which act as catchment areas for construction labour opportunities for neighbouring provinces. Similarly, high levels of return in **Cluster 2** highlight the relationship between construction and borders/security, and the need for the rebuilding of destroyed infrastructure and shelters.

Trade was the main income activity for 7% of the households in the sample ranging from highs in Nimroz (36%) and Baghlan (25%) to lows of zero percent in Balkh and Jawzjan. Additional analyses indicate that the provinces of Nangarhar, Kunduz, Baghlan and Farah have particularly **high activities of barter and trade** since they are either located in privileged positions across major trade roads and/or close to neighbouring countries (Tajikistan, Iran and Pakistan).

Four percent of the male heads of household earned income in the **education or health** fields. This was most often reported in Jawzjan (9%) and Faryab (8%) but only found in 1% of households in Ghazni and Nuristan and no households in Kandahar, Uruzgan and Zabul provinces. Income from **transport** was most common in Paktya (11%), Kapisa (8%) and Parwan (8%) while income from Administrative positions was found most often in Wardak (12%) and Parwan (9%). More than ten percent of male household heads in Paktika relied on **hunting and gathering** for income. Detailed provincial level information on type of work can be found in Table 4.6.1a and Table 4.6.1b in Annex II.

4.6.2 - Additional labour activities

Table 4.6.2a in Annex II outlines the median number of months **men are able to participate in labour activities**, by province, according to the male wealth group data. Construction and harvesting of crops are the most available activities offering an average of 2 and 1 months of employment for the sample. Men in Zabul can participate in **construction** for half the year, followed by 5 months of work for men in Farah and Hilmand. **Crop harvesting** can provide 3 months of work for men in Zabul and at least 2 months in Balkh, Faryab, Jawzjan, Samangan and Uruzgan. Men in Nuristan could earn money for 2 months by **collecting firewood** while men in Kunduz could earn money for 3 months through **barter and trade** activities. There is little difference between wealth groups in relation to number of months men are able to participate in labour activities.

More than half of the households in the sample have access to **other labour opportunities** in the community than agriculture or paid labour, as outlined in Table 4.6.2b in Annex II. Nearly 90% of households in Nimroz and 83% in Paktya relied on these activities for income. The lowest reliance on other labour opportunities was found in the provinces of Takhar (5%), Ghor (8%), Samangan (15%), Uruzgan (15%) and Badghis (18%).

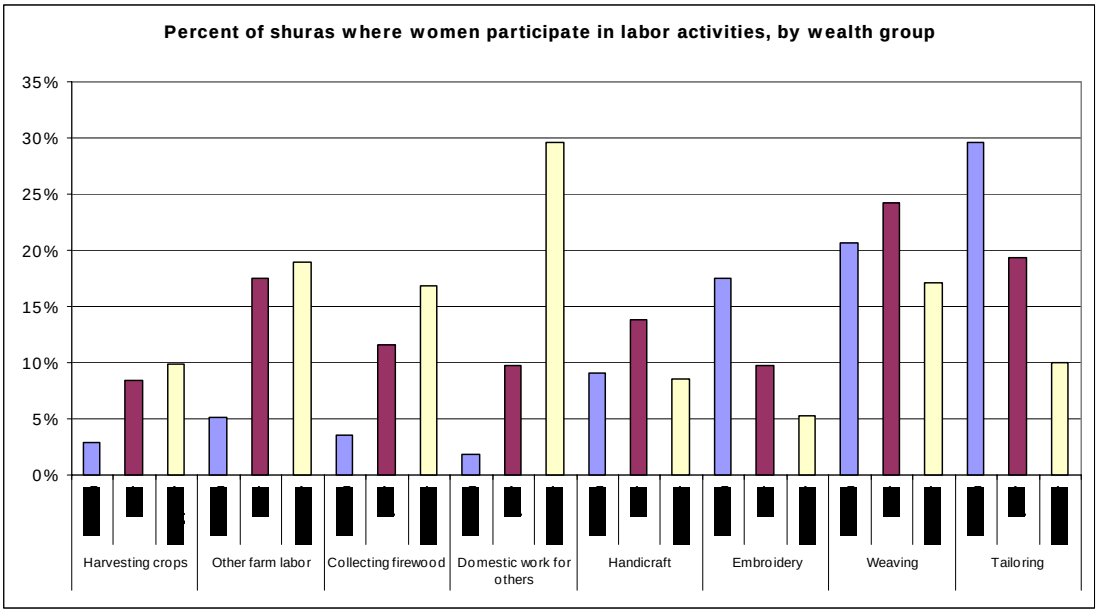
According to the male shura data, the most common non agriculture income activity was not clear in that half of the communities named 'other', indicating that there are other important alternative labour opportunities than those surveyed. Specifically, 18% of the households participating in non-agriculture activities earned income as **small traders**, followed by 16% earning from collecting and selling **wild plants** and 11% involved in **rug weaving**. Wild plant sales are most common in Samangan and Takhar provinces while rug weaving is most common in Jawzjan (84%), Faryab (65%), Sari Pul (60%) and Wardak (42%).

4.6.3 - Female income activities

In those provinces where female surveyors were able to conduct the NRVA survey, **female wealth group data** gives an insight into **female labour opportunities**. Table 4.6.3a and Table 4.6.3b in Annex II indicate the percent of female wealth groups that reported that women are involved in various income activities for at least 1 month within the course of one year.

Very few women are involved in **agricultural activities**. Less than 1% of communities in any wealth group report that women engage in **planting or irrigation of crops**. However, some female wealth groups in Nuristan (72%), Baghlan (32%), Kapisa (21%) and Kunar (15%) reported to participate in the harvesting of crops. Overall very poor and

poor wealth groups reported more often to be involved in **harvesting** than the medium wealth group, as illustrated in the chart below.



Many wealth groups reported that women engage in **embroidery, handicraft, weaving,** and/or **tailoring**. Across wealth groups for all four activities, medium wealth groups have a higher involvement than the very poor groups, (see chart above). The difference is particularly evident for tailoring (and to a lesser extent embroidery), while the involvement in weaving is fairly evenly distributed. The poor wealth groups dominate in producing handicrafts.

Across all wealth groups, 8% of women engage in **domestic work for others** which is most common in Nuristan (48%) and Balkh (28%) provinces. Across wealth groups, the very poor engage much more often in these activities as compared to the medium and poor.

A relatively high proportion of women in Laghman, Kunar, Balkh and Nuristan participate in the **collection of firewood**, where again the very poor groups are more likely to be occupied with this activity than women from other wealth groups. **Collection of other resources, relief activities**, and **other activities** are all reported in less than 4% of all female wealth groups, with Takhar province as the only notable exception, where 11% of all female wealth groups are involved in **relief activities**.

The provinces with the highest percentage of women involved in income generating activities outside the home for the **poor** wealth groups are: Nuristan (84%), Laghman (83%), Sari Pul (71%), Balkh (69%) and Ghor (63%). The **very poor** households with women engaged in these activities are mainly located in Nuristan (85%), Laghman (83%), Sari Pul (79%), Balkh (70%) and Badghis (68%). Nuristan and Laghman provinces report the highest percentage for both poor and very poor households.

The percent of female shuras that report having **income generated through women's activities outside the village** is almost negligible; it hardly reaches 5-8% for medium and poor wealth groups. However, the very poor households seem to be more involved in generating income through activities outside the village (i.e. trade, domestic work).

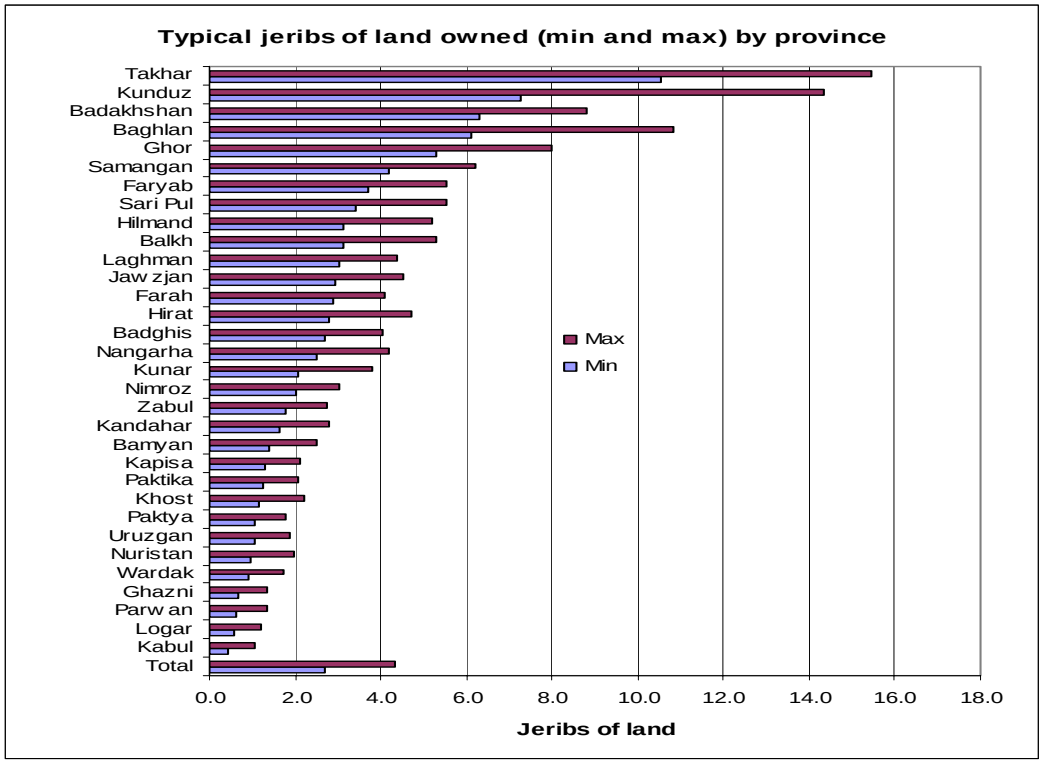
Section 4.7 - Agriculture and livestock

The following section gives an overview of a limited portion of the available agriculture-related NRVA data. Given that agriculture is such an important part of the livelihoods of rural Afghans, this component will be analyzed as a separate theme report by the NRVA stakeholders to provide a more comprehensive look at this data.

4.7.1 - Land tenure

In almost all areas of the country, most households own the land they access for agricultural production. However, medium wealth groups typically own larger plots than very poor households. For the very poor, the most common land tenure is through share cropping practices. Wealth groups were asked to estimate the range in *jeribs* of cultivated land available to a typical household in their respective group. Means of minimum and maximum by wealth group are shown in table below.

	Jeribs of land owned		Jeribs of land sharecropped		Jeribs of land rented	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Medium	4.1	6.4	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2
Poor	1.5	2.8	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.0
Very poor	0.5	0.9	0.6	1.0	0.0	0.1
Total	**2.7**	**4.4**	**0.3**	**0.5**	**0.1**	**0.1**



The chart above illustrates **land ownership** across provinces. Provinces with relatively higher access to cultivated land are the north-eastern and northern provinces. Limited access to land can be observed in Kabul and the neighbouring provinces of Logar, Parwan, Wardak, Kapisa, which have higher population in relation to the amount of land available for agriculture. Limited access to land can also be observed in the eastern and some central provinces. South-western and southern provinces tend to fall in the middle.

The typical jeribs of **land sharecropped** is much lower than those owned. As with owned land, the north and northeast provinces tend to cultivate a larger amount of sharecropped land while central, southern, and south-western provinces tend to farm little or no sharecropped land.

In most provinces, the amount of **land rented** for cultivation is very low compared to land owned. In Balkh, Faryab, Baghlan, Takhar and Samangan, the average jeribs of land rented is highest, ranging between 0.2 and 0.5 jeribs. However, in more than half the provinces the practice of renting agricultural land is uncommon. Again, northern and north-eastern provinces tend to cultivate more rented land than other areas.

Tables 4.7.1a, 4.7.1b, and 4.7.1c in Annex II show the minimum and maximum jeribs of cultivated land owned, sharecropped, or rented by wealth group and province.

4.7.2 - Crop production

The table below presents typical ranges of land cultivated for cereals, other food crops or cash crops, as recorded in the male wealth group interviews. While cereal cultivation dominates overall, the very poor have less land to grow cereals compared to the poor and medium groups. Other food crops and cash crops are of less importance; however, a typical household belonging to the medium wealth group is more likely to grow other food and cash crops than poor and very poor households. Hence, medium households are likely to be advantaged in terms of access to a more diverse diet and extra income sources through cash crop production.

	Jeribs of land: Cereals		**Jeribs of land: Other food crops**		**Jeribs of land: Other cash crops**		**Total jeribs under cultivation**	
	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
medium	3.6	5.4	0.3	0.6	0.3	0.6	4.2	6.6
poor	1.6	2.8	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.8	3.3
very poor	0.9	1.7	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	1.1	2.5
Total	**2.5**	**4.0**	**0.2**	**0.5**	**0.2**	**0.4**	**2.9**	**4.9**

Across the country, the north-eastern provinces are more advantaged in terms of amount of land used for **cereal** production. From the survey, the province of Takhar reported the greatest number of jeribs of land cultivated under cereals (8 to 12), followed by Badghis (6 to 8), Ghor (6 to 8), Baghlan (4 to 7) and Kunduz (4 to 8). The lowest levels were found in Kabul (0.5 to 1), followed by Logar, Parwan, Ghazni and Uruzgan, at 0.5 to 1.5 jeribs.

A similar trend is seen in the amount of land cultivated with other food crops, and with cash crops. Communities in Takhar and Kunduz cultivate between 2 and 4 jeribs of land for **other food crops**, followed by Baghlan (1.5 to 2.5) and Badakhshan (0.75 to 2.25). For more than half of the provinces, very little or no land is cultivated with other food crops.

Communities in Kunduz also reported the highest amount of land cultivated with other cash crops - 2 to 4.5 jeribs. Takhar follows with 1.5 to 2.5 jeribs, Baghlan (1 to 2), Hirat (0.5 to 1) and Badakhshan (0.5 to 1). Cash cropping is not commonly practiced in the sample communities in Paktika, Logar, Nimroz, Nuristan, Parwan, Zabul and Kandahar.

Wealth groups were also asked to estimate the range of cereal seed that would be saved for the next planting season as an indicator of farming households' ability to produce their own food. Medium wealth groups were able to save much more seeds than the poor wealth groups, while the very poor wealth groups show the lowest rates. Across the country, the north-eastern provinces of Badakhshan, Takhar, Kunduz, and Baghlan have the highest seed savings rates. Particularly low rates can be observed in Nimroz, Farah, Kabul, Logar, Parwan, Badghis, Khost, Nuristan, Kapisa, Ghor, Bamyan, Wardak, Ghazni, Paktya, Uruzgan, and Kandahar.

4.7.3 - Poppy production

According to the district level data, 19 provinces have at least one district that reports **poppy** as the first, second or third most important agricultural activity. The provinces of Nangarhar, Badakhshan, Takhar, Kunduz, Farah, Kabul, Nimroz, and Uruzgan have districts that report poppy as the most important agricultural activity - all in irrigated areas except for Takhar which reported poppy cultivation in the rainfed areas. Paktya, Ghazni, Baghlan, Balkh, Faryab, Ghor, Khost, Wardak, Badghis, Zabul, and Sari Pul all have some districts that report poppy as the second or third most important agricultural activity.

4.7.4 - Livestock

According to the male wealth group data, throughout the sample, the medium wealth groups tend to own more livestock. This is true for all types of livestock, and is

particularly evident for milking cows, bulls/calves, and oxen. The very poor wealth groups generally own very few livestock, with the exception of poultry.

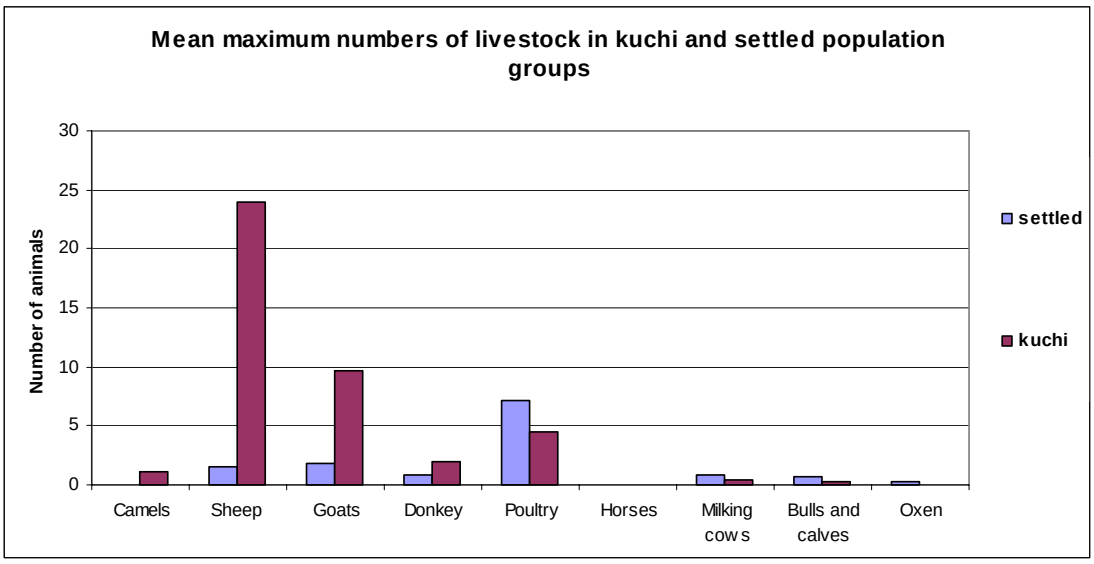
From the household survey sample, it was possible to estimate the percentage of households owning livestock by province (see Table 4.7.4 in Annex II for provincial breakdowns). **Poultry** were owned by 86% of the sample households, ranging from highs in Nuristan (99%), Khost (98%), Laghman (97%), Nangarhar (96%), Nimroz (96%), Paktya (96%) and Sari Pul (95%) to lows in Badghis (25%) and Jawzjan (57%) samples.

Donkeys were owned by 55% of the sample households while horses were owned by 4% and camels by only 2% of the sample. **Donkey** ownership was highest in Sari Pul (92%), followed by Ghor (89%), Samangan (82%) and Faryab (80%). Only 23% of sample households in Laghman, 29% in Kabul, and 31% in Khost owned donkeys. Forty-five percent of the sample households in Kunduz owned **horses**, followed by 18% in Badakhshan and Baghlan households. No horse ownership was reported by households in Farah, Hilmand, Hirat, Kabul, Khost, Kunar, Laghman, Logar, Nimroz, Paktika, Paktya, Parwan, Uruzgan and Zabul. **Camel** owners were found in about half the provinces and most often found in Kunduz (10%), Jawzjan (7%), Badghis (5%), Kapisa (5%) and Paktika (5%) sample households.

Goat ownership was highest in Nuristan (96%), Farah (88%), Badakhshan (82%) and Kunar (77%) and lowest in Kapisa (24%), Balkh (29%), Kabul (30%) and Khost (33%) sample households. Additionally, nearly half the sample households owned **sheep**, which was highest in Bamyan (78%), Uruzgan (78%), Badakhshan (75%), Ghazni (75%) and Badghis (73%) provinces. Sheep ownership was lowest in Khost (18%), Kunar (23%), Farah (26%), Laghman (27%) and Nuristan (27%) sample households.

Milking cows were owned by 45% of the sample households while oxen were owned by 16 percent. More than 90% of households in the Laghman sample reported owning **milking cows**, followed by Kapisa (78%), Nangarhar (76%), Kunar (74%), Kunduz (72%) and Nuristan (71%). Only 3% of the sample households in Badghis, 12% in Nimroz and 13% in Jawzjan owned milking cows. Nearly 60% of households in Kunduz, 50% in Baghlan, 49% in Badakhshan and 48% in Ghor owned **oxen** while oxen were found in no sample households in Nimroz and only 1-2% of households in Farah, Khost, Logar, Paktika and Zabul households.

The graph below illustrates the average number of livestock, by type, based on the maximum values provided in wealth group interviews by both Kuchi and settled populations. Camels were only found in Kuchi households, while the highest mean numbers of sheep, goats, and donkeys are also raised by Kuchi. However, the highest mean number of cattle can be found in settled households.



Across provinces, the highest mean number of sheep are raised in provinces around Kabul and close to the Pakistani border; goats are raised in Paktika, Badakhshan, Ghor, Laghman, and Farah, while Nuristan shows by far the highest rates with a range from 8 to 12 goats per household. According to these sources, cattle are most commonly found in Nuristan, Laghman, Nangarhar, and Kunar provinces.

4.7.5 – Constraints to Agriculture

The household questionnaire asked farmers to name the three most significant farming constraints faced by households in 2003. For the entire sample, the most common responses were lack of irrigation water (31%) and lack of oxen/traction power (26%), followed by lack of availability of farming land (18%), and lack of seeds (14%). Other localized farming constraints include lack of credit/cash in Baghlan (26%) and Jawzjan (12%) provinces, and lack of rainfall in Kandahar (17%), Ghor (16%), Nangarhar (15%), Khost (15%) and Uruzgan (13%) provinces.

A **lack of irrigation water** was named most often by households in Nimroz (95%), Farah (71%), Kabul (71%) and Ghazni (65%) provinces while **lack of oxen or traction power** was most common in Badghis (96%), Sari Pul (68%), Samangan (59%) and Faryab (57%) provinces. Households in Nuristan (63%) were most often constrained by a **lack of available farm land**, followed by Laghman (52%), Kunar (42%) and Kunduz (41%). The provincial samples that were constrained most often by a **lack of seeds** were found in Uruzgan (38%), Kandahar (37%), Zabul (32%) and Paktya (26%). Table 4.7.5 in Annex II provides breakdowns of agricultural constraints by province.

Section 4.8 - Market and transport access

4.8.1 - Access to markets

Wealth group focus groups were asked to identify how often the typical household visited the market. Overall, 63% of households report visiting the market once weekly (similar to the male shura data). There are only slight differences between wealth groups, with the very poor visiting slightly less often than the poor or medium wealth groups. Similar to the shura level data, most households visit the market once weekly.

There is also little difference between wealth groups regarding the mode of transport to markets. Nearly 40% of households in the sample report travelling by foot or animal, as opposed to vehicle. The very poor wealth groups report travelling by foot or animal - slightly more often than the poor or medium wealth groups.

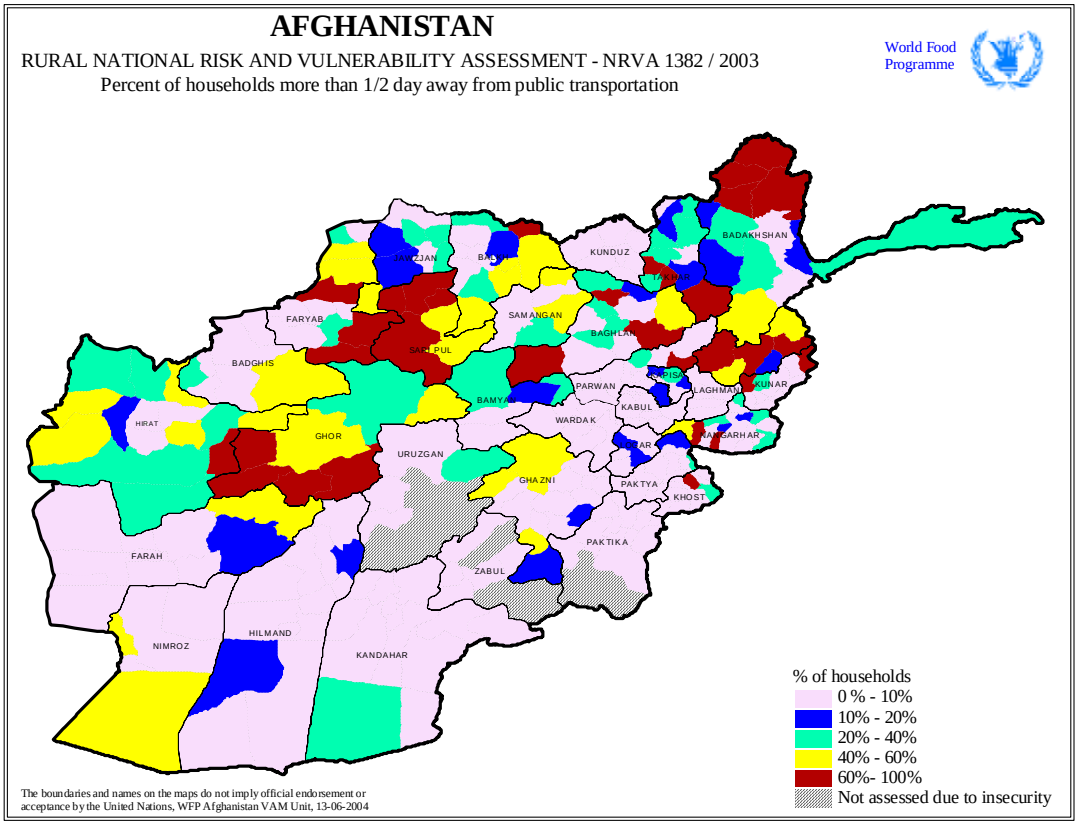
When looking at the frequency of access to markets and travel method by province as observed in the male wealth group data, a wide variation is observed. The highest percentage of communities with **daily access** to markets are found in Nimroz (37%), Uruzgan (20%) and Badakhshan (17%) provinces while daily access is not found in any communities in Kunar, Nuristan or Zabul. Conversely, 34% of communities in Ghor, 13% in Nuristan and 10% in Wardak visit the market only **once each season**. In summary, less than 50% of households are reported to visit the market daily or weekly in the provinces of Ghor, Nuristan, Kunar, Hirat, and Wardak. These provincial level data are outlined in Table 4.8.1a in Annex II.

More than 60% of the sample communities travel to food markets by vehicle and the rest by animal or on foot. Provinces with the greatest access to markets by **vehicle** are Zabul (98%), Nuristan (95%), Wardak (95%), Nangarhar (94%) and Khost (93%). Those provinces where communities regularly access markets **by animal or on foot** are Faryab (98%), Badghis (96%), Kapisa (91%), Ghor (88%) and Sari Pul (80%).

According to the household data, time to **permanent food market** varies greatly between provinces. Only 5% of households in the sample report having a permanent food market in the community, and 47% are less than ¼ day away. However, only 6% report a permanent food market to be more than a day away, and 1% as not applicable (this might be interpreted as no access). Six provinces report greater than 10% of households more than a day away from a permanent food market: Baghlan (12%), Samangan (14%), Hirat (15%), Sari Pul (19%), Nuristan (39%), and Ghor (41%). These data are outlined in Table 4.8.1b in Annex II.

4.8.2 - Public transport

Household data indicate that time to **public transportation** varies greatly by province. Overall, 69% of households report having public transportation in the community or less than ¼ day away. However, 10% of households report 'not applicable', suggesting that there is no access to public transport for those households. The data are presented in Table 4.8.2 in Annex II, and in the map below.



Although district level data is less reliable due to the low sample size, the map above indicates a pattern of poor access to public transportation in the central, northern, western, and north eastern areas of the country, particularly in the highlands, where there is less access to roads for public transport.

Provinces where communities indicated the lowest access (half day or more) to public transport are Sari Pul (70%), Nuristan (55%), and Ghor (44%). The provinces where communities most often have access to transport within ¼ day away are Zabul (98%), Kandahar (97%), Logar (97%), Laghman (96%), Kabul (95%), Hilmand (93%) and Paktika (92%).

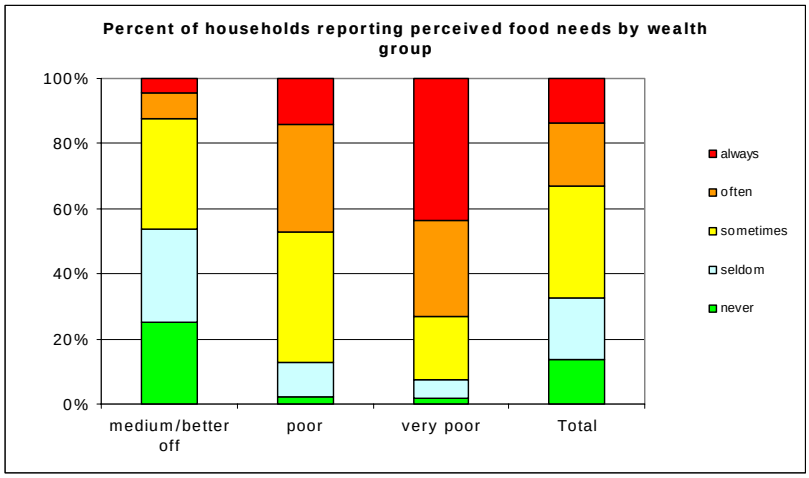
Section 4.9 - Perception of food needs and economic situation

4.9.1 - Perception of food needs

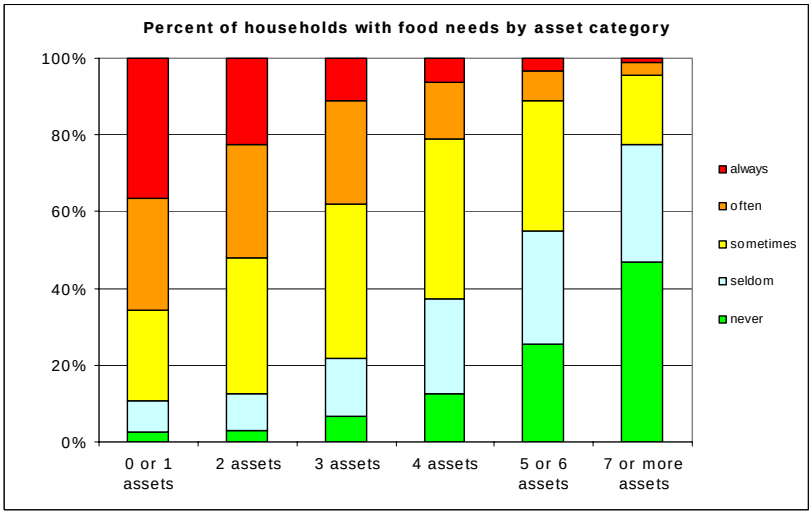
Perceived food needs were measured by asking the question at the household level "How often in the last year did you have problems satisfying the food needs of the household?" The sample results are presented in the figure below. The results by province are shown in Table 4.9.1 in Annex II. The provinces where the highest percentage of the household sample reported that they 'often' or 'always' had trouble meeting their food needs in 2002-03 were: Farah (48%), Laghman (45%), Sari Pul (44%), Jawzjan (42%), Faryab (41%) and Bamyan (40%).

Provinces where sample households most often reported 'seldom' or 'never' having had problems satisfying their food needs in the previous year were: Kunduz (54%), Ghor

(44%), Laghman (44%), Takhar (44%), Logar (43%), Baghlan (42%), Nangarhar (42%) and Uruzgan (42%).

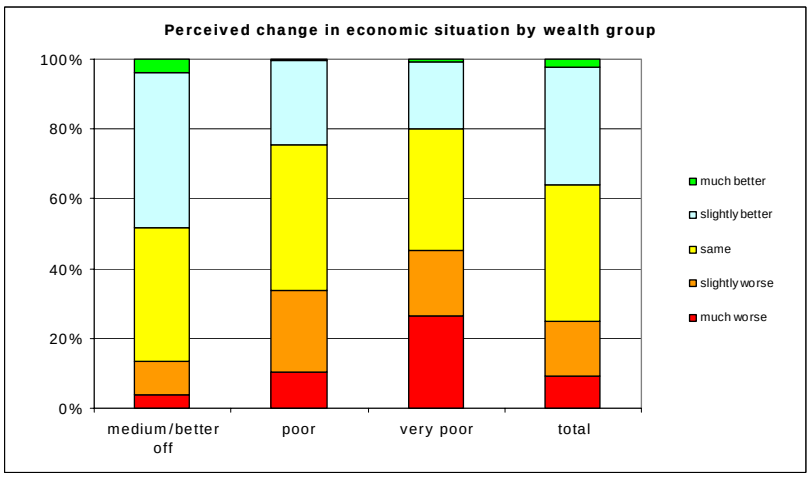


When looking within wealth groups, as indicated in the graph to the left, 73% of households in the very poor group reported 'always' or 'often' having trouble meeting food needs in the last year, compared to only 12% of the medium/better off wealth group.



The graph on the right shows reported food needs by household asset ownership, as described in Section 4.5. A clear relationship is seen in every province between asset ownership group and reported food needs frequency. As number of assets increases, food need frequency decreases. The discrepancy between numbers of assets with respect to food need frequency can also be seen in these figures. Asset ownership, as a proxy of relative wealth shows that, in this sample, **perceived** household food security appears to be directly related to poverty.

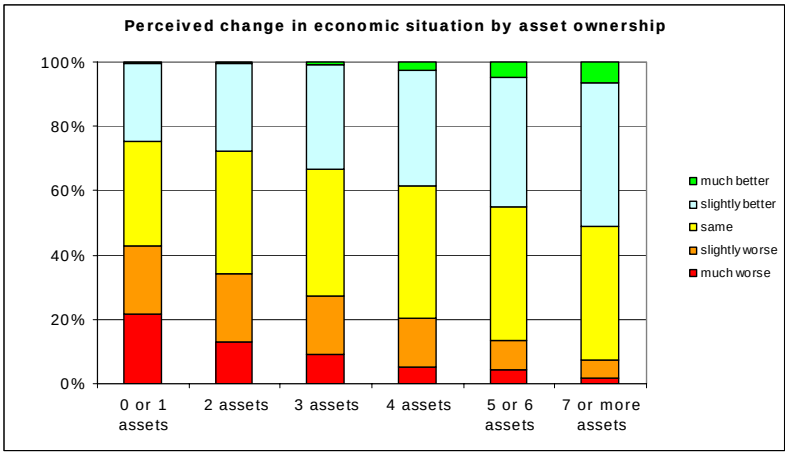
4.9.2 - Perception of economic situation

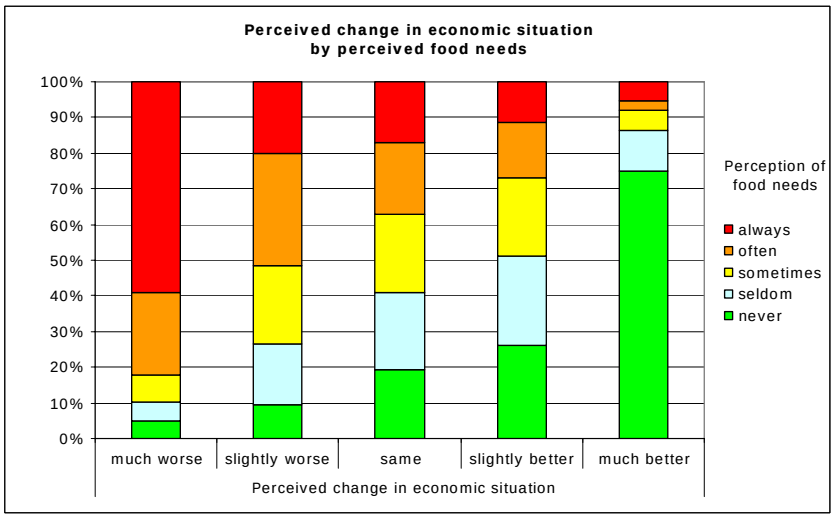


The **perception of the change in the economic situation** as compared to the previous year was also measured at the household level. Table 4.9.2 in Annex II shows the responses by province to the question: How do you compare the overall economic situation of the household with one year ago? There is only slight variation

between provinces with nearly 40% of households represented by the sample reporting 'no change', and 34% report that their economic situation is 'slightly better'. In the graph above, perceived economic situation change is broken down by wealth group. There is a clear relationship between wealth group and perceived change in economic situation, with the very poor reporting a 'worse' situation more frequently than the medium wealth group.

The relationship between perceived changes in household economic situation by asset ownership is illustrated in the graph to the right. Those households with fewer assets are more likely to report a worse economic situation while those with higher levels of asset ownership are more likely to report a better economic situation.





Nearly 60% of households that reported a much worse economic situation also reported always having trouble meeting their food needs in the past year. Conversely, of those households reporting a much better economic situation, 75% also reported never having trouble meeting their households' food needs in the past year.

Part V – Shocks and coping strategies

Shocks are defined as an event that has negative consequences for individuals, households, or communities. They can be natural, economic, political, or social in nature. The NRVA household questionnaire splits shocks into covariate shocks, such as natural disasters or insecurity which affect a number of households, villages or a wider area; and idiosyncratic shocks, which typically occur at a household level, such as loss of employment or the death of a household member, and investigates these two shock types separately.

Risk is defined as the likelihood of a particular shock occurring. Communities in earthquake-prone areas, for example, are at greater risk of suffering the shock of an earthquake.

Coping strategies are defined as the ways a community, household, or individual adjusts their livelihood strategies in response to a shock or risk. Coping strategies may involve changing diet habits to incorporate less expensive foods. They may also involve the use of savings, either in the form of money, or in the sale of assets. When normal coping strategies are exhausted, households will use crisis strategies, such as selling productive assets (female livestock, looms, etc.) or decreasing the number of meals eaten.

Repeated shocks and the use of crisis strategies to manage their effects can lead to increased vulnerability and a decrease in food security at the individual, household, community, and national level.

Section 5.1 - Covariate shocks and coping strategies

Covariate shocks are those such as natural hazards or epidemics that can possibly affect an entire community. Each household was asked if it had experienced each of **15 covariate shocks** in the past 12 months (Tables 5.1.1a through Table 5.1.1f in Annex II present this data by province). The households that had experienced any shocks were then asked to identify the two shocks that had the most significant impact on the household. From these top two shocks, they were asked the **impact of each shock** (loss of income/in-kind receipts and/or loss of assets), which of **24 coping strategies** were employed, and if the household had yet recovered from the effects of the shock (refer Table 5.1.2 in Annex II).

More than 80% of households in the sample reported having experienced at least one **covariate shock** in the previous 12 months. The median number of covariate shocks experienced by households in the sample was three, ranging from highs of 7 in Samangan, 6 in Uruzgan and 5 in Badghis, and Laghman to lows of zero in Jawzjan and Kunar and 1 in Nimroz, Hilmand, Kandahar and Zabul (Table 5.1.3 in Annex II).

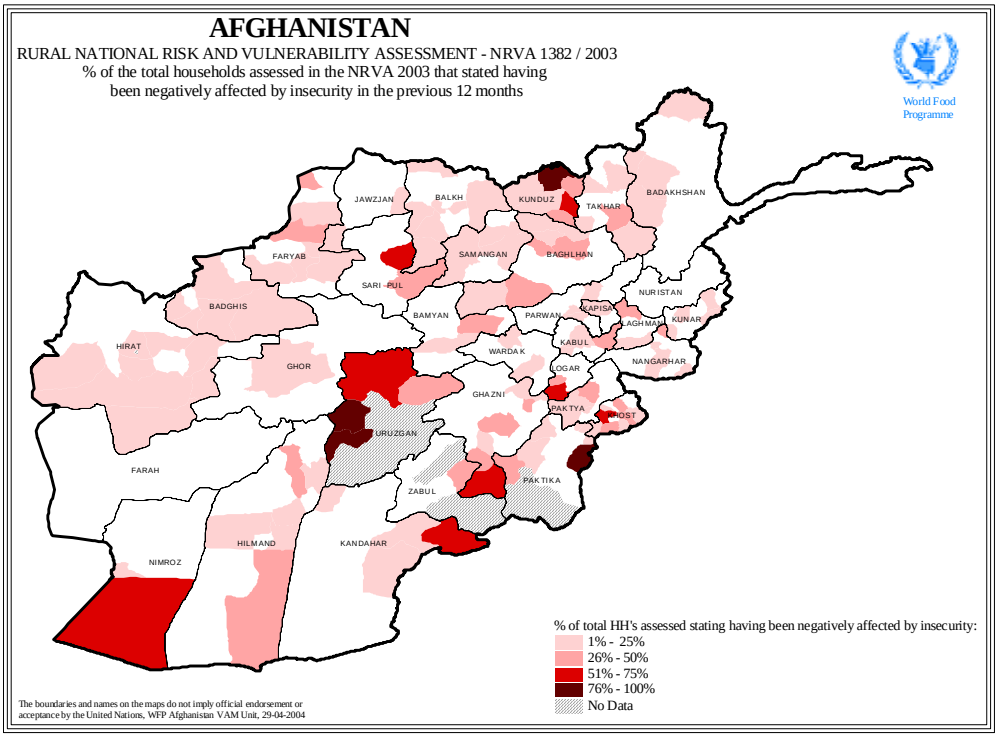
Water quality/quantity problems exist throughout the country, most likely related to the effects of drought. Nearly 60% of all sampled households report experiencing reduced water quality/quantity in the last year – in the southern provinces, nearly all households reported this shock. Reduced water quality and quantity was the most frequently reported shock in the overall sample, as well as in 24 of the 32 provinces. Only the province of Jawzjan appears to be relatively less impacted by water reductions, with only 9% of households reporting reduced water quality/quantity. Households experiencing this shock report a decrease in income as the main consequence, with a reduction in the quality/quantity of diet and a decrease in expenditures as the main coping strategies. Most households with water problems in the past year report that they have yet to recover from this shock.

Crop pests/disease was reported most frequently in the provinces of Badghis, Farah, Uruzgan, Laghman, Samangan, and Kunduz by more than 60% of the households. In addition to a modification of diet and expenditure, households experiencing crop pests/disease commonly report the use of savings as a coping mechanism. District level data indicates that rust and smut were the most common crop diseases.

Livestock disease was reported most frequently in Uruzgan (88%), Laghman (85%) and Badghis (76%) households. Between 40% and 60% of households in Farah, Kunduz, Takhar, Samangan, Baghlan, Nuristan, and Kapisa provinces also reported livestock

disease as one of the shocks in the previous year. One frequently reported coping mechanism is the selling of female reproductive livestock. Many of the provinces reporting crop pests/diseases as a common shock also report livestock disease. The district data above indicates that foot and mouth disease was the most common livestock problem.

Insecurity or violence was reported as a covariate shock by only 5% of the households in the sample. However, Logar (15%), Kunduz (28%), and Uruzgan (67%) reported much higher levels of insecurity or violence in the past year. Although district prevalence must be interpreted with caution due to the relatively small sample size per district, it is important to note that insecurity or violence is often a geographically focused event, giving rise to very high incidence in a few districts. The map below highlights the districts where insecurity or violence was commonly reported.



Late damaging frosts affected mainly the northern provinces as well as several central/eastern provinces, particularly Balkh (72%), Sari Pul (64%), Samangan (67%), Bamyan (57%), Paktika (54%) and Faryab (52%). Common coping mechanisms are diet modification and reduced expenditure, as well as the use of savings.

Flooding in 2003 was most often reported by sample households in Paktya (44%) and Khost (41%) provinces. It was also reported to a lesser extend in Parwan (31%) and Kapisa (27%). Both income and assets are affected by flooding. Diet modification and reduced expenditure are reported along with the spending of savings as coping mechanisms.

An unusual **increase in food prices** was reported by more than 45% of households in almost all of the western and north-western provinces. Many of these households report a modification in diet and expenditure, as well as taking loans from family or friends as their main coping mechanisms.

Section 5.2 - Idiosyncratic shocks and coping strategies

Idiosyncratic shocks are those that do not directly affect all members of a community but rather are likely to affect individual households. One-quarter of the sample households reported at least one **idiosyncratic shock**.

Illness or accident of a working member of the household was the most commonly reported idiosyncratic shock experienced by sample households. In Samangan province,

64% of households report experiencing this problem in the previous year which was much higher than any other province. Other high values were found in Laghman (33%), Balkh (32%) and Faryab (30%) provinces. This shock normally resulted in a decrease in income and loss of assets. Commonly used coping strategies are reduced quality/quantity of diet, decreased expenditures, spending savings and loans from family and friends. Only some had recovered partially while others had not recovered at all from this shock.

Eight percent of the sample households had experienced the **loss of employment** of a family member. Nearly half the households in Laghman had experienced this shock, followed by 23% in Uruzgan and 15% each in Balkh and Faryab. Loss of employment usually caused a decrease in income and loss of assets. Most households coped by reducing the quality and quantity of diet, decreasing expenditures and taking loans from family and friends with no recovery at all.

Salary reduction was reported as household shock by 6% of the sample and was found most often in Laghman (43%), Balkh (18%), Faryab (16%) and Samangan (16%). This shock usually resulted in a decrease of income and loss of assets and was dealt with by reducing quality and quantity of diet, decreasing expenditure and taking loans from family and friends but with no recovery at all.

Other significant idiosyncratic shocks include **bankruptcy of family business** in 15% of sample households in Nimroz, 13% in Badakhshan, and 12% in Kandahar, Takhar and Uruzgan. Death of a working household member was reported in 14% of households in Samangan, 7% in Balkh and 7% in Kapisa while **death of other household member** was reported by 28% of households in Samangan, 18% in Laghman, 17% in Balkh and 17% in Nuristan. Lastly, 20% of households in Nimroz reported being affected by **theft or violence**, followed by 15% in Samangan and 10% in Balkh. The effect on these households was a loss of assets and they spent savings, took loans from family or friends, and sold assets to cope with the shock.

Refer to Table 5.2.1 (Annex II) for provincial data on idiosyncratic shocks, and Table 5.2.2 (Annex II) for household effects and coping strategies.

Section 5.3 - Coping strategies by wealth group

Male and female wealth group focus groups were asked to rank the top five **coping strategies** used by the **typical household in their wealth group** in the last year. Table 5.3.1 in Annex II summarizes the main coping strategy used, by wealth group and gender. For both sexes, a reduction in diet quality or quantity is the most common answer in all wealth groups, followed by a decrease in expenditures, except for the medium wealth group, which more often reported using no coping strategy. The medium wealth group also reports spending savings or investments more often than the poor or very poor wealth groups.

Table 5.3.2 in Annex II summarizes the top five coping strategies used by **households**, by wealth group and gender. Again, a reduction in diet quality or quantity is the most common answer, followed by a decrease in expenditures. Other common coping strategies are spending savings or investments (more so for the medium wealth groups), or loans from family or friends (more so for the poor and very poor wealth groups).

The poor also reported more often that they used “worked for food only” (25-33%) while the very poor used “increased child labour” (15% male and 16% female respondents) and “sold child brides< 13 years of age” (18% male and 15% female respondents) as one of their coping strategies in the past year. The medium group households were more likely to out migrate to look for work than the very poor groups, while the very poor of the male wealth groups more often chose “begging” (15%) as a coping strategy.

There are geographical variations between provinces with regard to using no coping strategies, reduction in quality or quantity of diet and decrease in expenditures. In Badakhshan, Uruzgan and Kunduz more than 40% of the wealth groups reported that **no coping strategies** were used in the last year, while all groups in Badghis, Sari Pul, Farah, Jawzjan and Kapisa had used at least one coping strategy.

In all provinces **reduced quality /quantity of food** is the first applied coping strategy, except for Kunduz and Samangan, where reduced expenditures is the first coping strategy used. More than 70% of all male wealth groups in Farah, Jawzjan, Kapisa, Faryab, Kandahar, Sari Pul, Zabul and Laghman reported that this reduction in diet was the main coping strategy applied. **Decreased expenditure** is particularly high in Samangan (50%) and in Badghis (35%).

Section 5.4 - Coping strategies and female headed households

Information from the female shura survey was used to better understand the use of coping strategies by female headed households in the previous year. Among the set of 24 different coping strategies mentioned in the household questionnaire, the following five are the most reported as one of the top five coping strategies used by female-headed households:

1. Increased collection and sale of natural resources
2. Decreased expenditure
3. Loans from employer/moneylenders
4. Worked for food only
5. Sold household assets, furniture, jewellery

In the future, if female-headed households were required to use these **coping strategies** again, the most frequently used coping strategy - increased collection and sale of natural resources - would be used by 60-70% of these households. Between 75% and 85% predicted that they would decrease expenditure in the future. On the other hand, the third, fourth and fifth coping strategies might not be used again - particularly loans from employers and sale of household assets, since they imply an increase in indebtedness and the depletion of household assets, thus reducing the capability to cope with unexpected shocks in the future.

Part VI – Past program participation

Participation in development and humanitarian assistance programs was surveyed at the shura and household levels, referring to the 12 months preceding the 2003 harvest. This time reference is the period from the poor cereal harvest in 2002 across Afghanistan, to the 2003 harvest which was, in some parts of the country, much improved. A distinction between WFP programs, and other Government, UN, or NGO programs is not made. The following analysis, therefore, is an aggregate of all activities implemented by Government, UN agency, or NGO's.

For the **household level data**, program participation is defined as any household member having participated in a food for work, cash for work, relief food, or other Government, UN, or NGO program in the previous 12 months.

Table 6.1.1 in Annex II summarizes participation in each type of program by province. Each household may have had a participating member in more than one type of program. Nearly half the households in the sample had at least one member participate in a program in the past year. Highest participation was found in the sample households in Sari Pul (86%), Jawzjan (85%), Ghor (82%) and Balkh (78%) provinces. Lowest past participation was in Paktya (6%), Kapisa (12%), Ghazni (19%) and Farah (21%) provinces.

By program, the highest overall participation was in **food-for-work** programs as reported by 34% of all sample households. Nearly three-quarters of households in Jawzjan had participated in food-for-work programs, followed by Badghis (67%), Nimroz (63%) and Kandahar (62%). This type of program reached only 3% of the Paktya sample, 5% in Paktika, 6% in Kapisa and 9% in Parwan.

Nearly 20% of the sample households had benefited from **cash-for-work** programs in the past year, from highs in Jawzjan (54%), Samangan (49%), Baghlan (45%) and Wardak (42%) to lows in Farah (none), Paktya (3%), Uruzgan (3%) and Kunar (5%).

Relief food was distributed to 13% of the sample households in the past year. More than 70% of the sample households in Sari Pul had received free food distributions, followed by 47% in Jawzjan, 44% in Ghor and 34% in Faryab provinces. There were no households in Kunar or Paktya that received free food assistance while only 1% of the sample households in Kapisa, Nuristan, Paktika and Wardak were beneficiaries.

Part VII - Dietary diversity and food security profiling

Household caloric sufficiency was investigated through information collected from a seven day dietary recall from the households interviewed during the NRVA. Sixty-four food items belonging to nine different food groups were listed, and the amount consumed weekly by each household was transformed into total kilocalories/capita/day. The nine food groups were: cereals, tubers, vegetables, fruit, pulses and nuts, meat/fish and eggs, dairy products, oil and fats, sugar and honey.

This section presents an overview of the average rural Afghan diet. Households are then grouped according to kcalorie/capita/day cut-off points. Within these groups, dietary diversity is explored, creating a total of 10 household diet typologies based on calorie consumption and source. Next, the households are grouped solely based on dietary diversity, into 6 groups. The patterns of other socio-economic and food security indicators are then compared within the 10 group and 6 group systems. Finally, the geographical distribution of low caloric and poor diet quality households is explored.

Section 7.1 - Household profiles by dietary diversity only

The first set of analyses have been conducted to only investigate the quality of the household diet as determined through a more diverse diet, without considering the kilocalorie intake per capita consumed by each household. This **dietary diversity analysis** bypasses the problem of the reliability of caloric intake information, as it may be difficult for all households to precisely recall amounts consumed.

Multivariate analyses have been run at household level on six main food groups: carbohydrates, animal protein, vegetable protein, fruits and vegetables, dairy products, and oils and fats. Households have been clustered in groups according to their reported consumption of a diverse diet of items both between and within the food groups.

Three typologies of dietary diversity have been created for each food group: low, medium, and high diversity, according to the number of different items the household has reportedly consumed (out of the total choice) from each food group in the last seven days.

A further step of the analysis identified typologies of dietary diversity for all six food groups together, and has clustered households according to these diet patterns. Through the analysis, **six household clusters** have been created according to their dietary diversity:

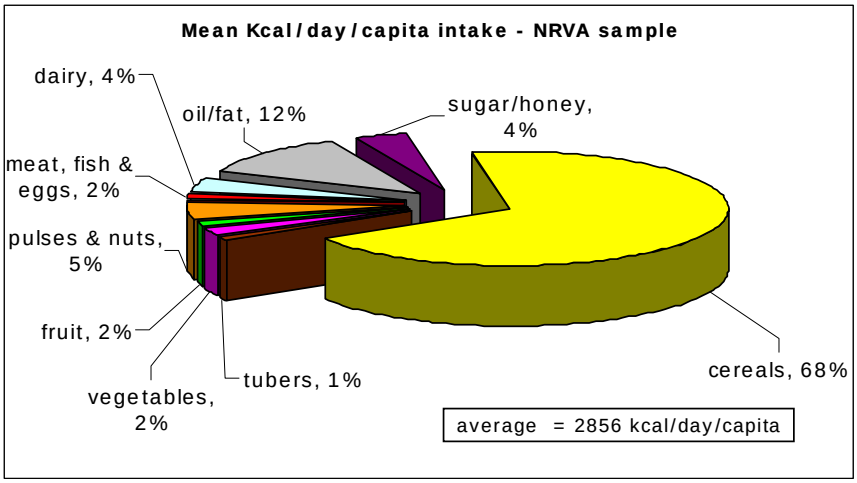
1. Households with low dietary diversity in all food groups (**57%** of the total sample).
2. Households with medium dietary diversity in carbohydrate source items, but low dietary diversity in other food groups (**10%** of the total sample).
3. Households with high dietary diversity in oil and fats, but low-medium in all other food groups (**5%** of the total sample).
4. Households with medium dietary diversity in all food groups (**20%** of the sample).
5. Households with high dietary diversity in animal protein source items, but low-medium in other food groups (**3%** of the total sample).
6. Households with high dietary diversity in vegetables and fruit, but low-medium in other food groups (**4%** of the total sample).

Section 7.2 - Household profiles by caloric intake and dietary diversity

The total number of households represented by the NRVA sample presents low dietary diversity even if the average caloric intake per capita is set above the 2100 kcal/capita/day cut-off line[7]. The average value is 2856 kcal/capita/day.

[7] The age and sex adjusted kilocalorie/capita/day requirement for the sample is 2070 kilocalories. Comparing the standard 2100 cut off and the age/sex adjusted cut-off, a total of 692 households or 5.9% of the sample was inappropriately classified calorie deficient or not, because of the lack of age/sex adjustment for their household calorie requirement.

The largest part of this caloric intake comes from the **cereal food group** (68%). The second most important food group in the sample diet is **oil and fats** (12%). **Pulses and nuts** provide 5% of caloric intake; **dairy products** and **sugar or honey** 4% each. All other food groups provide small caloric shares: **meat, fish and eggs** (the main sources of animal proteins), and **vegetables and fruit**, account for 2% each. **Tubers** provide only 1% of average caloric intake per capita.



A first level of analysis identified 20% of households which had kcal/capita levels that are below the reference point of 2100 kcal/capita/day, with an average value of 1700 kcal/capita/day. However, using only this standard cut-off point cannot explain the variance in the diet of the rural Afghan sample households.

A second level of analysis consisted of stratifying the sample households into **5 different groups based upon kcal/capita/day** consumption**.** The "below 2100 kcal/capita/day" group was divided into two groups, separating into households with less than 1800 kcal/capita/day and households with per capita kcal/day between 1800 and 2100 kilocalories. Three groups were identified above 2100 kcal/capita/day: households having between 2100 and 3200 kcal/capita/day, households between 3200 and 5000 kcal/capita/day and households which caloric intake above 5000 kcal/capita/day. It must be noted the data is based on a 7-day recall, and that very low or very high caloric intake may be due to over or under-reporting by households. Additionally, low or high caloric intake in this one week period may not be completely indicative of diet throughout the year.

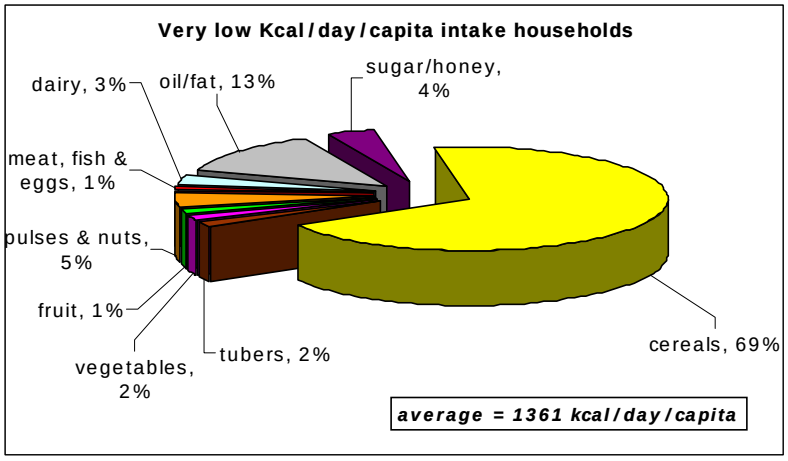
The five groups, based on caloric intake, had the following household distribution:

Household caloric intake	Daily kcal/capita intake	Percentage of Households
Very low	<1800	9%
Low	1800<2100	11%
Medium	2100<3200	52%
High	3200<5000	24%
Very high	>5000	4%

These strata have been further evaluated through a **third level** of analysis using multivariate techniques in order to identify different dietary diversity patterns among households with similar average caloric intake.

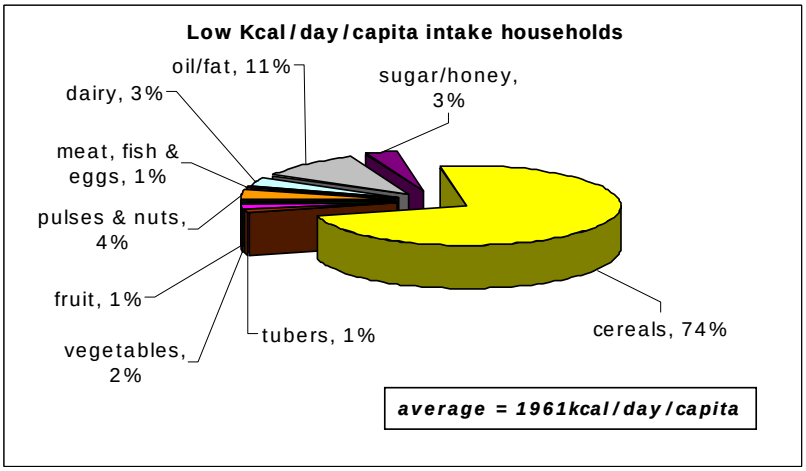
The five strata have been split into **10 sub-clusters**, with particular attention to households that are just below and above the 2100 kcal/capita/day cut-off line. Their capacity to meet their average caloric intake should be considered carefully together with their access to a significantly diverse diet. Both aspects of households food consumption patterns could provide interesting inputs for programming the most suitable types of interventions, both food and non-food.

The **households with very low daily caloric intake per capita** account for 9% of the total household sample. The average intake is 1361 kcal/capita/day. A high coefficient of variation is present in this group characterized by a range of values between a few hundred and the cut-off point of 1800 kcal.



The average pattern of kilocalorie contribution by food group is presented in the chart above. The most important food group is cereals (69%). Oil and fat are also a very important component in these households' diet; this value accounts for 13% of their total nutritional intake. Pulses and nuts (5%) and sugar or honey (4%) give secondary but important inputs.

The average absolute value of caloric intake is undoubtedly very low, meaning these households have serious problems in accessing enough food irrespective of the caloric contribution from the different food groups they consume.



Households with low per capita caloric intake make up a second group below the 2100 kcal/capita/day cut-off level. Eleven percent of households have caloric intake between 1800 and 2100 kcal/capita/day. Their gain in calories might be a consequence of higher cereal consumption.

For this group, 74% of the total household kcal/capita/day comes from cereals. Oil and fat account for 11 percent.

Increased contributions from cereals are countered by small decreases in contribution by tubers, pulses and nuts, dairy products and sugar (all around 1%). The share of oil in the diet is 11% as compared to 13% in the very low calorie intake/capita group.

These households seem to have higher kcal/capita/day value because they eat more cereals, but the quality of their diet appears to be even slightly worse than households' with very low kcal/capita/day intakes, though this is not true for all households.

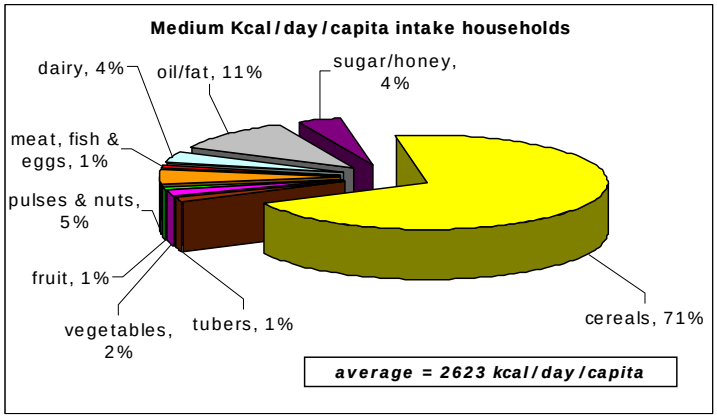
A cluster analysis run on this group has shown **two different patterns** in food consumption.

- **Households with low daily caloric intake per capita –poor dietary diversity**. Sixty-two percent of households with low kcal/capita/day intake show poor quality consumption in terms of dietary diversity. Cereals account for 80% of their diet, while all the other food groups present figures below the NRVA sample average.

- **Households with low daily caloric intake per capita – better dietary diversity**. The remaining 38% of low kcal/capita/day intake households show a more diversified diet in terms of percentage contributions from the nine considered food groups. Cereals comprise 64% of their diet (well below the average figure of 68% for the whole sample). Oil and fat make up 14% of the total intake, pulses and nuts 6%, and sugar or honey 5 percent. Vegetable consumption is slightly above the average, with 3% share of their diet. This group of households is very interesting: even if they do not manage to reach the minimum caloric intake requirement of 2100 kcal/capita/day, they appear to have access to more diverse food groups, which means a better quality of diet.

Despite these distinctions in dietary diversity, all the households in the **low kcal/capita/day** group show caloric intake so low as to be considered in need of food assistance

More than 50% of households represented by the NRVA sample belong to the **medium caloric intake per capita** group. Their food intake is between 2100 and 3200 kcal/capita/day for 52% of all households, with the average figure for the group set at about 2600 kcal/capita/day.



Dietary diversity for this group is still quite unbalanced with a high contribution coming from cereals. These account on average for 71% of the diet (above the sample average of 68%). Compared to households in the first two groups, there are slight increases in the contributions from pulses and nuts (5%), dairy products (4%) and sugar (4%).

Further multivariate cluster analyses were conducted on these households in order to identify differences in dietary diversity within the group. Households have thus been categorized into **four sub-groups**.

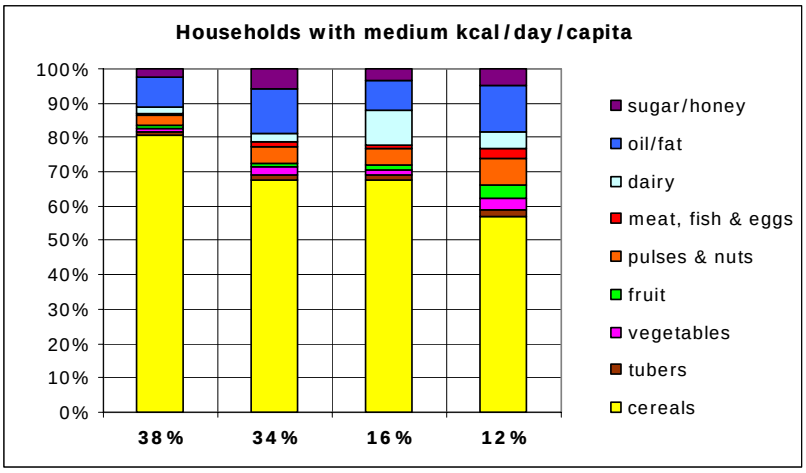
- **Households with medium caloric intake per capita – very poor dietary diversity** (38%). These households get 80% of their caloric intake from cereals only; all other food group contributions are below the average, with oil and fats providing the second most prominent contribution (9%). Half of these households have a caloric intake less than 2500 kcal/capita/day, thus households in this subgroup tend to have a lower kcal/capita/day within the overall medium group.

- **Households with medium caloric intake per capita – large use of oil and fats** (34%). These households show a lower contribution of caloric intake coming from cereals (68%) and they have a greater contribution from oil and fats (13%). Sugar and honey contribute 6% to the total kilocalories. This subgroup shows similar intake as *households with low caloric intake per capita – better dietary diversity*, but they have a significantly higher kcal/capita/day, well above the 2100 cut-off point.

- **Households with medium caloric intake per capita – higher contribution from dairy products** (16%). These households' diet is characterized by higher caloric contributions from dairy products (10% of their diet). Cereals contribute 68%, oil and fats are 9%, pulses and nuts 5% while 2% of caloric intake comes from fruit.

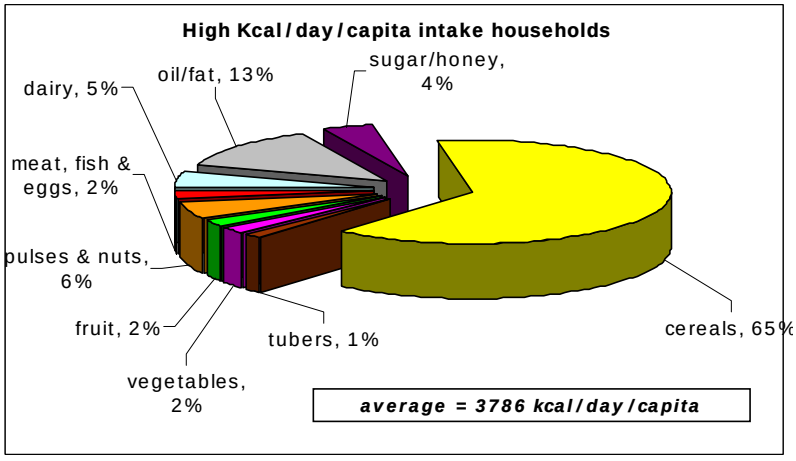
- **Households with medium caloric intake per capita –good dietary diversity** (12%). These households have a kcal/capita/day value above the medium group average (about 2700 kcal/capita/day) although just 57% of this is derived from cereals. Contributions from the other 8 food groups are above the average. Oil and fats account for 14% of their diet. Pulses and nuts account for 8%, sugar and dairy

products for 5%, fruits are 4 percent. Meat, fish and eggs account for 3% of their daily caloric intake.



These clusters show that even if the household caloric intake reaches the cut-off line of 2100 kcal/capita/day, the dietary diversity of most of these households is still very poor with lower-protein and micro-nutrient rich foods found in at least 70% of households. These households might be considered to be vulnerable to micronutrient malnutrition despite their caloric intake.

Households with **high caloric intake per capita** account for 24% of all households represented by the NRVA sample. They have caloric intakes between 3200 and 5000 kcal/capita/day. The average value is about 3800 kcal/capita/day.



On average, caloric contribution from the cereals accounts for 65% of the total household kcal/capita/day intake. Contributions from oil and fats, pulses and nuts, and dairy products are above the average. Their values are 13%, 6% and 5% respectively. All the other food groups are close to the average values.

Multivariate analyses on these households clustered them into two subgroups according to their differences in shares of caloric contributions from food groups.

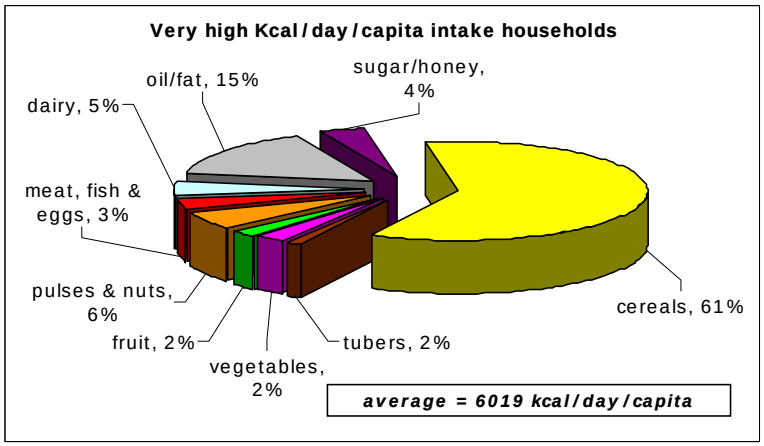
- **Households with high caloric intake per capita – high share from cereals, low dietary diversity** (61%). The high average kcal/capita/day of these households consists of 71% from cereals. All the other food groups have figures below or equal to the average food contribution values of the total households represented by the sample. Oil is the second most important food type accounting for 11% of total intake. This means this group of households manages to consume higher quantities of food (as shown by their high kcal/capita/day absolute value), but have poor dietary quality.

- **Households with high caloric intake per capita – lower cereal share and higher dietary diversity** (39%). All the food group contributions to caloric intake are higher than the average except for cereals, which account for 55% of the total. Oil gives the second highest contribution (16%), pulses and nuts 8%, dairy products 6%, and sugar 5 percent. Vegetables and fruits, and meat, fish and eggs each provide 3% of total daily caloric intake.

Even if households in both clusters have high caloric intakes per capita, those households belonging to the first group have poor dietary diversity despite their high kcal/capita/day

values. Their diet appears to consist mainly of carbohydrates, with significant contributions from oil and fats.

Households with **very high caloric intake per capita** consumed more than 5000 kcal/capita/day. The average value is about 6000 kilocalories. These households are very few: only 4% of all households represented by the NRVA sample. It is unlikely that individuals are consuming over 5000 kcal/day. These households may be underreporting the number of people in the household, or are over-reporting household consumption.



The highest kilocalorie contribution to the diet comes from cereals, accounting for 61% of the total. Oil and fats are 15% of the caloric share, pulses and nuts 6%, dairy products 5%, sugar and honey 4 percent. Meat, fish and eggs provide on average 3% of the total intake (already over the average of all households represented by the sample), but in this group there are households whose contribution from this food group reaches 7 percent.

These households seem to have access to relatively diverse diet. They manage to enrich their carbohydrate based diet with a significant contribution from oil and fats, and a relevant share from both animal and vegetable proteins, even if consumption of animal protein foods is still quite low. On the whole, this group appears to be the best in terms of both total caloric intake per capita and dietary diversity.

Section 7.3 - Socio-economic characteristics of food insecure groups

Both the nutrition and dietary diversity-based household classifications have been cross-tabulated with some other indicators and proxies of socio-economic condition and food security.

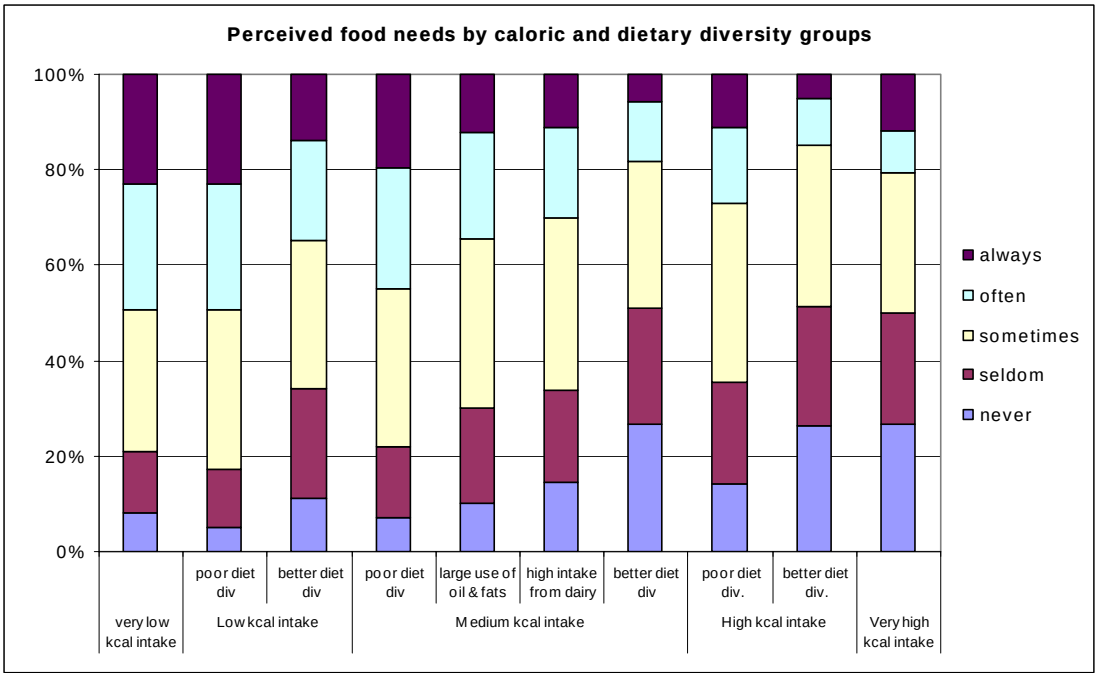
As noted earlier, the standard cut-off point for caloric intake can not tell much about the overall situation of Afghan households. It is more significant to look at the distribution of these indicators within the five caloric intake/capita groups and among their dietary diversity subgroups.

7.3.1 - Perceived food needs

Households' **perceptions of their food needs** are directly correlated with their classification according to the five caloric intake groups.

As illustrated in the following chart, 49% of households with **less than 1800 kcal/capita/day** declared to 'often' or 'always' have problems in satisfying their food needs. This percentage decreases to 44% for households with caloric intake **between 1800 and 2100 kcal/capita/day**. Among these households, it must be considered that 49% of those with low dietary diversity reported problems in satisfying household food needs, but decreased to 35% among households with **low caloric intake per capita, but better dietary diversity.**

Among the **medium caloric intake group** (2100 to 3200 kcal/capita/day), 45% of households with very low dietary diversity reported problems meeting their food needs. This percentage decreases with the improvement of the household diet. These percentages are 34%, for households with **medium intake with large use of oil and fats**, 30% for households characterized by **good intake from dairy products**, and 18% for households classified having quite good dietary diversity.



Amongst households with **high and very high caloric intake per capita** (3200 to 5000 and above 5000 kcal/capita/day), 22% and 21% of households respectively, reported to often have problems in satisfying their food needs. It must be noted that among households with high caloric intake and better dietary diversity, this percentage drops to 15 percent.

7.3.2 - Perceived economic situation

The relation between **perception of the overall economic situation of the household** compared to the previous year and caloric intake/capita is similar to the perception of food needs.

Even if the large majority of households in all five caloric intake groups judged their economic situation as being the same or slightly better compared to the previous year, 36% of households with **less than 1800 kcal/capita/day** considered it to be worse. This figure decreases consistently with the increase of caloric intake per capita. Nearly 45% of households with **3200 to 5000 kcal/capita/day** reported that their economic situation was better compared to the previous year. This value is 50% among households consuming **more than 5000 kcal/capita/day**.

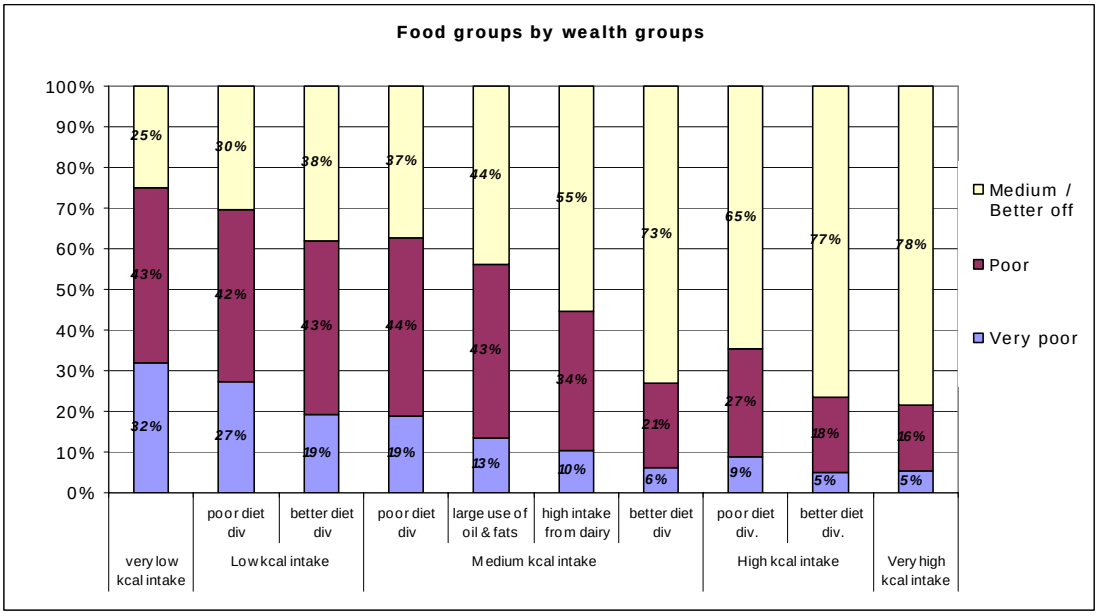
7.3.3 – Wealth groups

Caloric intake clusters and dietary diversity profiles were then compared by the three **wealth groups**. There are notable differences between the food consumption groups and the 'very poor', 'poor' and 'medium/better off' wealth groups. This may indicate household food access and consumption could be significantly related to wealth group perception. However, the community perception of household wealth may not be comparable between communities because wealth parameters vary from place to place. These qualitative considerations should be kept in mind when interpreting the relationship between wealth group and food consumption groups.

Nearly 90% of 'middle/better off' households have a caloric intake higher than 2100 kcal/capita/day. This figure is 75% among 'poor' households and 62% among 'very poor' households. More than half of 'poor' households below 2100 kcal/capita/day have a very low caloric intake (less than 1800 kcal/capita/day). Less than 5% of 'middle/better off' households are in that caloric intake category.

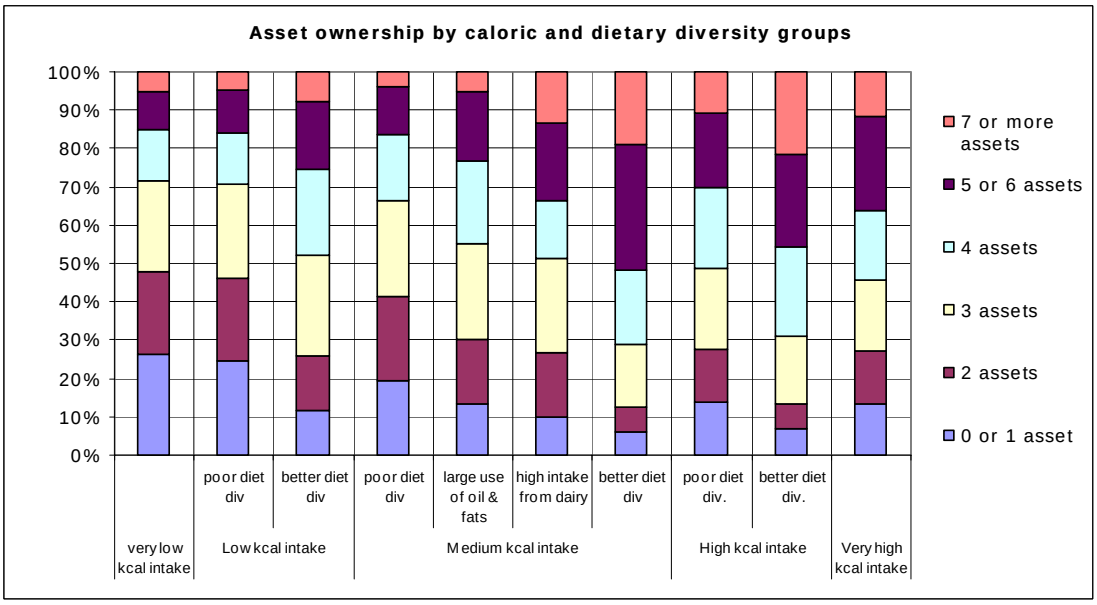
The relationship between wealth group and diet is similar in the dietary diversity categories within the five caloric intake groups, as illustrated in the graph below. Three-quarters of

households with **very low kilocalorie** intake, and 70% of households with **low kilocalorie intake and poor dietary diversity** were found in the 'poor' or 'very poor' households. However, 73% of households with **medium caloric intake and high dietary diversity**, and 77% of households with **high caloric intake and better dietary diversity** were classified in the 'medium/better off' wealth group by their communities.



7.3.4 – Asset ownership

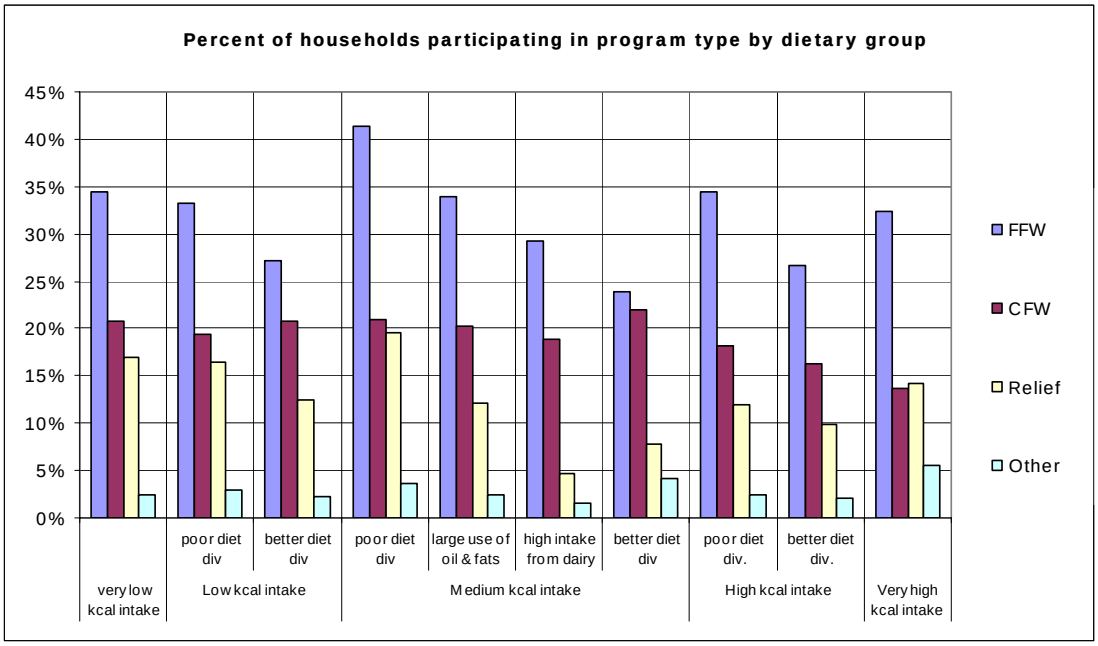
Asset ownership appears to be significantly related to food consumption among Afghan households in the sample. The better off categories, in terms of caloric intake and dietary diversity, were found to possess a higher number of household assets. Again, households with **medium caloric intake and better dietary diversity** were better than households with **high caloric intake but lower dietary diversity** (households with high kcal intake - low dietary diversity). This indicates a stronger relationship between dietary diversity and wealth, as indicated by asset ownership.



Single asset ownership analysis shows the same general trends. Comparing each asset possession by nutrition and dietary diversity group, it is clear that percentages of asset ownership increase in tandem with caloric intake per capita, as well as also relating to the quality of the household diet as measured through dietary diversity.

7.3.5 – Program participation

Slightly less than half of the households in the NRVA sample participated in food-for work, cash-for-work or other Government/UN/NGO programs or were recipients of relief aid. The dietary diversity groups display varying percentages of households participating in aid programs. The most interesting are the percentages of households participating in food aid programs in the two categories below and above the 2100 kcal/capita/day cut-off line. Over 40% of households with low caloric intake per capita and better dietary diversity were involved in aid programs. This figure was 60% among households with medium caloric intake per capita but very poor dietary diversity.



The graph above shows the highest participation in food-for-work activities was among households with low dietary diversity, i.e. those households whose diets are based on staple foods only – mainly cereals and oil, with a very small contribution from other foods.

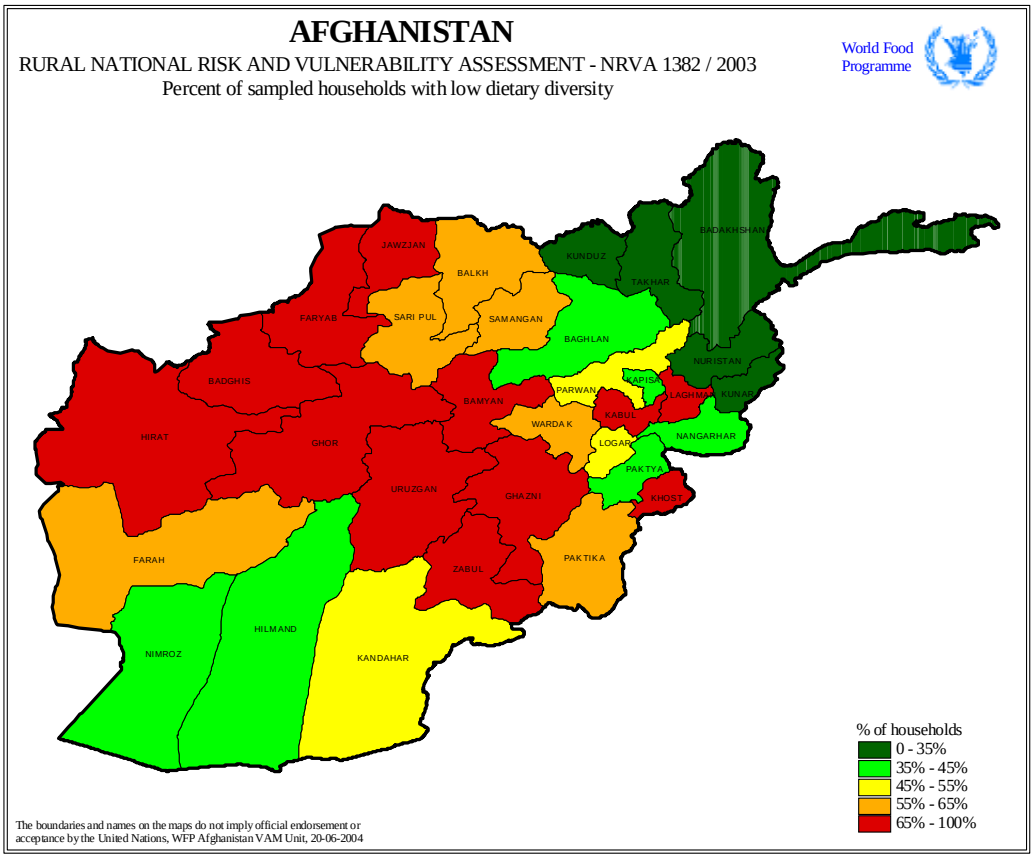
Section 7.4 – Geographic distribution of food insecure groups

The percentage of households which experienced difficulties in meeting their food needs was certainly influenced by the **seasonal time of the data collection**. The survey took place from July to October 2003, at a time when the country was experiencing a bumper harvest, and after four year of drought which affected many provinces. Therefore, the snapshot of household food availability should be carefully related to the data collection period. Cereals, the main source of calories for most of the households, were readily available both from household production and in the markets at the lowest price of the year. Summer is also the season for fruit and vegetable production and harvest. Moreover, harvest season means increased job opportunities in the agricultural sector. Also, roads are usually more passable during the summer, so access to markets for shopping and trading is easiest at this time of the year.

For these reasons, the **20% of households** represented by the NRVA sample that **do not manage to consume 2100 kcal/capita/day** may underestimate the real nutritional gap of rural Afghanistan households in the long term, particularly in the typical lean months after the winter and before the summer harvests when household food stocks are depleted and market prices are highest. Table 7.4.1 in Annex III shows the **distribution of dietary diversity clusters** by province.

At the provincial level, 93% of households in Ghor province and 90% in Hirat province have low dietary diversity in all food groups. This percentage is 83% in Laghman province. It is worthy to note that only 2% of households in Laghman have a caloric

intake less than 1800 kcal/capita/day while 78% have been classified as having medium caloric intake (2100-3200 kcal/capita/day), but very poor dietary diversification (44%) and large use of oil and fats (34%). The geographic distribution of low dietary diversity for sampled households is illustrated in the map below.



The highest percentages of households with low dietary diversity are found in the western (81%) and central (71%) regions. Households in north-central part of the country and those long some of the border areas also have fairly high numbers with low dietary diversity. Dietary diversity is better in the extreme south (Hilmand and Nimroz) and in the north east, with the exception of the Kabul area.

When considering both the caloric intake per capita and household dietary diversity, about **38% of the sample households could benefit from assistance to meet their food needs**. This amount is comprised of 9% of households with less than 1800 kcal/capita/day, 11% from 1800 to 2100 kcal/capita/day and 18% of households that did manage to exceed the 2100 kilocalorie cut-off point but still have low dietary diversity. As this data only represents the situation of sample households during a time of relative bounty, it is safe to predict that the percentage will increase during the approach to the lean season and into the next planting season.

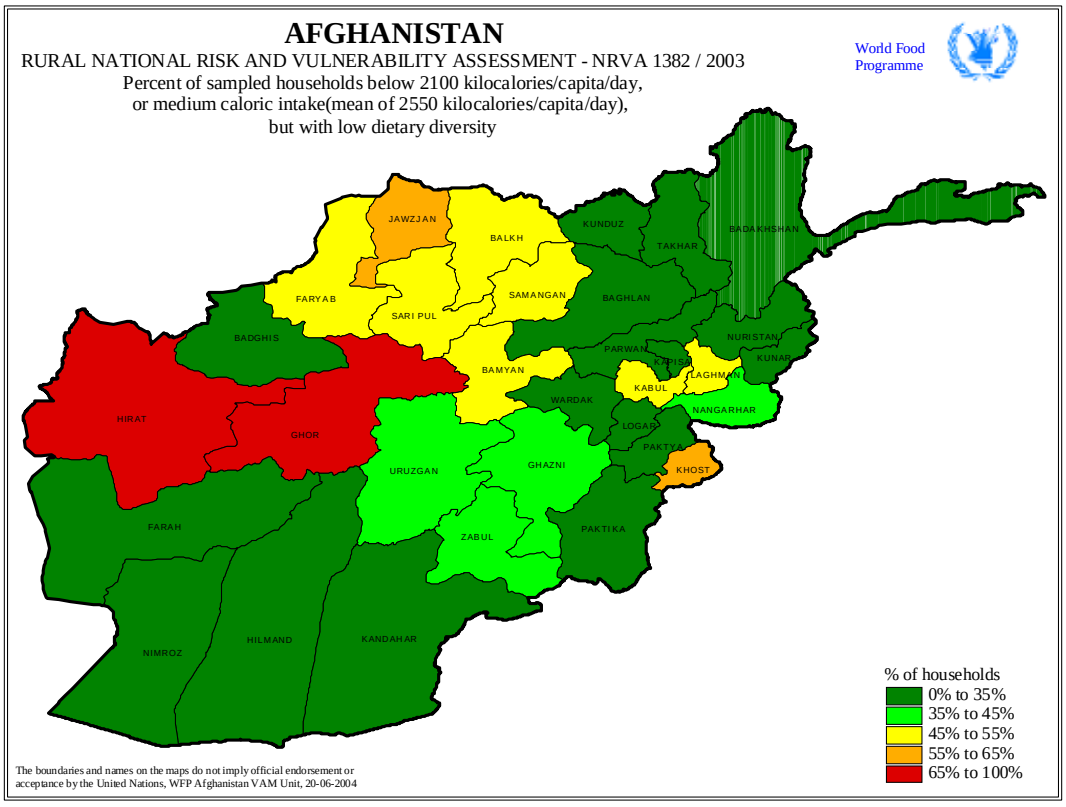
Table 7.4.2 in Annex III shows the **distribution of caloric intake and dietary diversity clusters** by province.

Overall, provinces in the **Central Highlands** and the **North** have the highest percentage of households (more than 10%) with a very low caloric intake per capita (except Sari Pul – 8%). Of particular concern in other parts of the country are **Khost** (21%) and **Ghazni** (13%) in the South, **Hirat** (19% of households) in the West, **Zabul** (12%) in the South West, **Nangarhar** (10%) in the East, and **Kabul** (16%) and **Parwan** (10%) in the Centre with high levels of households with a very low caloric intake.

When considering both very low and low caloric intake per capita households (households with caloric intake <2100 kcal/capita/day), the regional pattern is very similar. Provinces

in the **Central Highlands** and throughout the **North** still have high percentages. Other provinces throughout the country, as identified in the previous paragraph, also exhibit the highest percentages of households falling below the 2100 kcal/capita/day cut-off line – **Khost** (48%) and **Ghazni** (27%) in the South, **Hirat** (42%) in the West, **Zabul** (22%) in the South West, **Nangarhar** (24%) in the East, and **Kabul** (36%) and **Parwan** (22%) in the Centre.

If the households with medium caloric intake per capita but with low dietary diversity are added to the percentage of households with less than 2100 kcals/cap/day, the regional picture changes. Ghor and Bamyan in the **Central Highlands** total 84% and 50% of households with poor quantity/quality diet respectively. Throughout the provinces in the **North**, around 50% of households, with the exception of Jawzjan (62%) and Sari Pul (46%), have low quantity and poor quality diets. In the **West**, 82% of households in Hirat, and just fewer than 30% of households in Badghis and Farah, fall into this category while in the **South West**, it reaches 30% to 40%, with the exception of Nimroz (23%). In the **South**, Khost has the highest number (64%) and Paktya the lowest (17%), with 37% and 26% of households in Ghazni and Paktika respectively. In the **East**, 48% of households in Laghman, 36% in Nangarhar, and nearly 20% in Kunar and Nuristan have poor quantity/quality diets. In the **Centre**, Kabul (49%) has the highest levels, Logar, Parwan and Wardak (30-35%) in the middle ranges, and Kapisa with the lowest (20%) of households characterized by either low caloric intake or poor quality dietary diversity. This is illustrated in the provincial level map below.



It is important to note in the provincial level map above that there can still be wide variations within a province. When disaggregated by district, further patterns could possibly be observed. However, the sample size was not large enough to present figures at the district level with any confidence in their reliability and precision. It is interesting to notice that whichever combination of low caloric intake and low dietary diversity is calculated, the **North-eastern** region always shows some of the lowest percentage of poor quantity/quality diet households – Baghlan (22%), Badakhshan (19%), Kunduz (16%) and Takhar (14%).

Part VIII - Intervention preferences and priorities

Section 8.1 – Agro-ecological zones

At the district level, key informants interviews with local authorities and community leaders provided the information regarding priorities for the Afghan Government and therefore, these priorities may differ from those identified at shura level since the former entails a broader perception of the district's needs as an administrative and politic unit.

By agro-ecological zone, the main priorities are the same but the ranking differs between the zones. For example, in Zones 1 and 2 (all irrigated and more than half irrigated), district officials have indicated an overall greater need for the rehabilitation of the irrigation systems.

Ranking of priorities for the entire sample are:

1. Improved drinking water quality and quantity
2. Rehabilitation of irrigation system
3. Construction or repairing of rural roads
4. Improvement to health facilities
5. Improvement to education facilities

- With respect to **Zone 1**, two top priorities for the Afghan Government to address are rehabilitation of the irrigation system and improved drinking water quality and quantity. These are followed by construction or repairing of rural roads and improvement to both health and education facilities.
- The agro-ecological **Zone 2** (more than ½ irrigated) still gives priority to rehabilitation of the irrigation systems. In addition, the other two main development sectors to be implemented are improvements to health facilities, and drinking water quality and quantity. Improvements to education and construction or repairing of roads are additional requests by community leaders in this zone.
- In **Zone 3** (more than ½ rain-fed) it is important to address the quality and quantity of drinking water along with construction or repairing of rural roads and rehabilitation of irrigation system. Both improvement to health and education are to be tackled as well.
- In the 'all rain fed' agro-ecological **Zone 4,** the top priority is the improvement of drinking water quality and quantity. Construction of roads, improvement to health facilities and rehabilitation of the irrigation system are also important.
- **Zone 5**, the Kuchi grazing land, also prioritized the improvement of drinking water quality and quantity and also the improvement of veterinary services.

Section 8.2 – Preferences by gender

According to the **female shura data**, female-headed households' priorities to be addressed by the Afghan Government fall into the categories of improvements to hygienic infrastructures (water wells, water pipelines, sewage, latrines, etc.), that also allow a better utilization/absorption of food, health facilities and education. These are listed below in order of importance:

1. Improved drinking water quality and quantity
2. Improvement to health facilities
3. Improvement to education facilities

Improvements to supply of **drinking water quality and quantity** is felt to be particularly needed in Samangan (57%), Farah (58%), Badghis (59%), Faryab (62%), and Jawzjan (68%) provinces.

Development activities for the improvements to **health facilities** were most often cited by focus groups in Badghis (60%), Jawzjan (63%), Hilmand (64%), and Nuristan (79%).

Improvements to **education facilities** were the third priority overall and especially important for communities in Faryab (35%), Paktya (39%), Hilmand (47%), and Nuristan (83%).

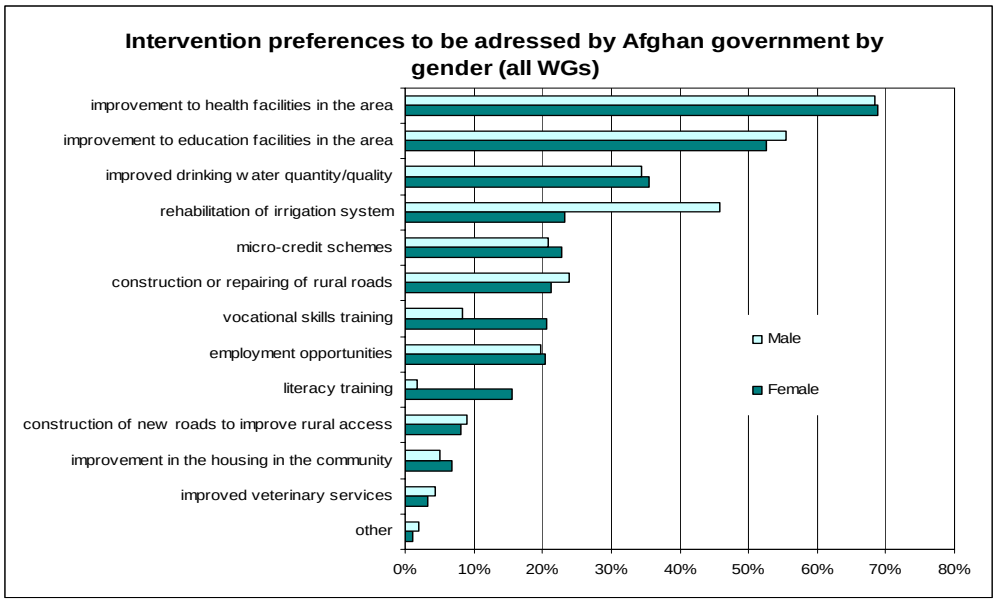
Section 8.3 – Wealth groups

Both **female and male wealth groups** were asked to name the three main development priorities they would like to see the addressed by the Afghan Government. The questionnaire included 13 categories with the top responses listed in the following table. Priorities are ranked according to the frequency of response in the male wealth group data.

PRIORITIES to be addressed by the Afghan Government	MALE		FEMALE	
	%	Rank	%	Rank
Rehabilitation of irrigation system	30%	*1*	15%	*3*
Improved drinking water quantity/quality	28%	*2*	31%	*1*
Improvement to health facilities in the area	13%	*3*	21%	*2*
Construction or repairing of rural roads	8%	*4*	10%	*4*
Improvement to education facilities in the area	7%	*5*	5%	*5*
Construction of new roads to improve rural access	4%	*6*	4%	*6*
Employment opportunities	4%	*7*	4%	*8*
Micro-credit schemes	4%	*8*	4%	*7*
Improvement in the housing in the community	1%	*9*	1%	*11*
Vocational skills training	1%	*10*	1%	*10*
Literacy training	<1%	*11*	3%	*9*

As shown in the table, the rehabilitation of the irrigation system is the top priority for men, while improved quality and quantity of drinking water was the top priority for women and second priority for men. Women ranked improvements in health facilities in the area as their second priority, while men ranked it as their third choice.

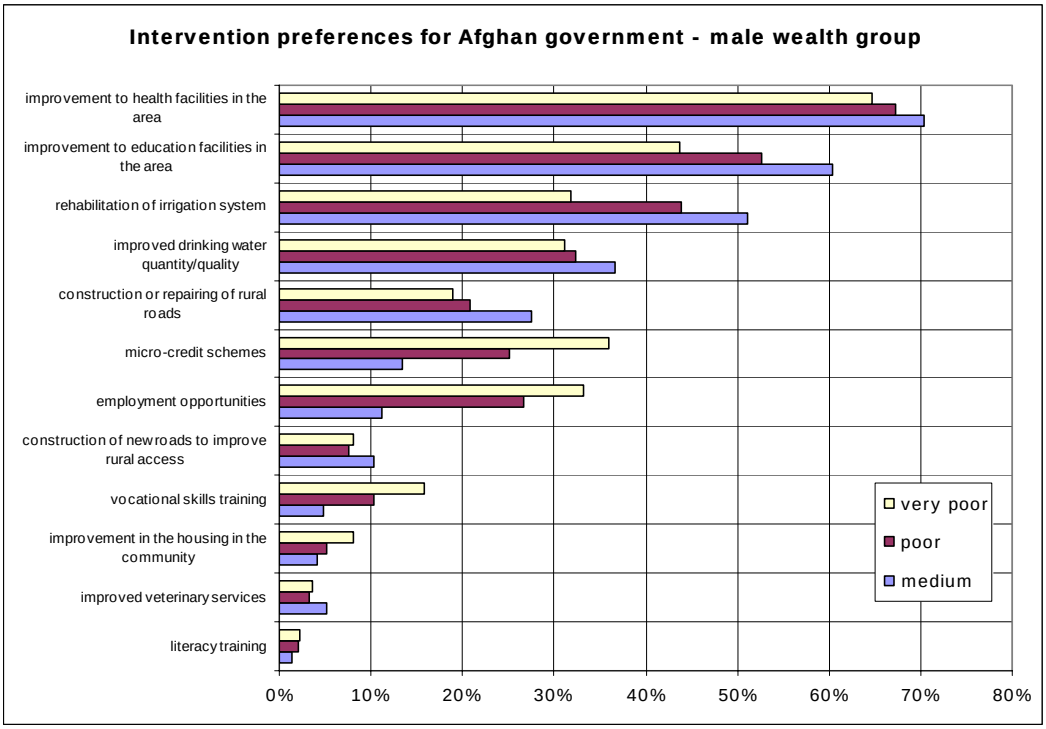
When considering all three priorities stated by each wealth group a slightly different picture emerges. The graph below illustrates the preferred interventions of the overall sample by gender.



For both female and male wealth groups, "**improvement of health facilities**" is the top priority, second is "**improvement of education facilities**", though it is slightly more important for men. For women "improved drinking water" ranks third, while for men the rehabilitation of irrigation systems has a higher priority. The fifth priority for women are "micro-credit schemes", while for men the "construction or repairing of roads" ranks slightly higher. Both "vocational skills" and "literacy training" are much more important to women than to men, while "employment opportunities" is given similar priority (rank 7 for men, and 8 for women respectively). Overall, of less importance are the "construction of new roads to improve rural access", "improvement in the housing in the community" and "improved veterinary services". It can be expected, however, that the priorities vary

heavily from region to region, for instance within Kuchi populations, and areas highly affected by war and civil strife.

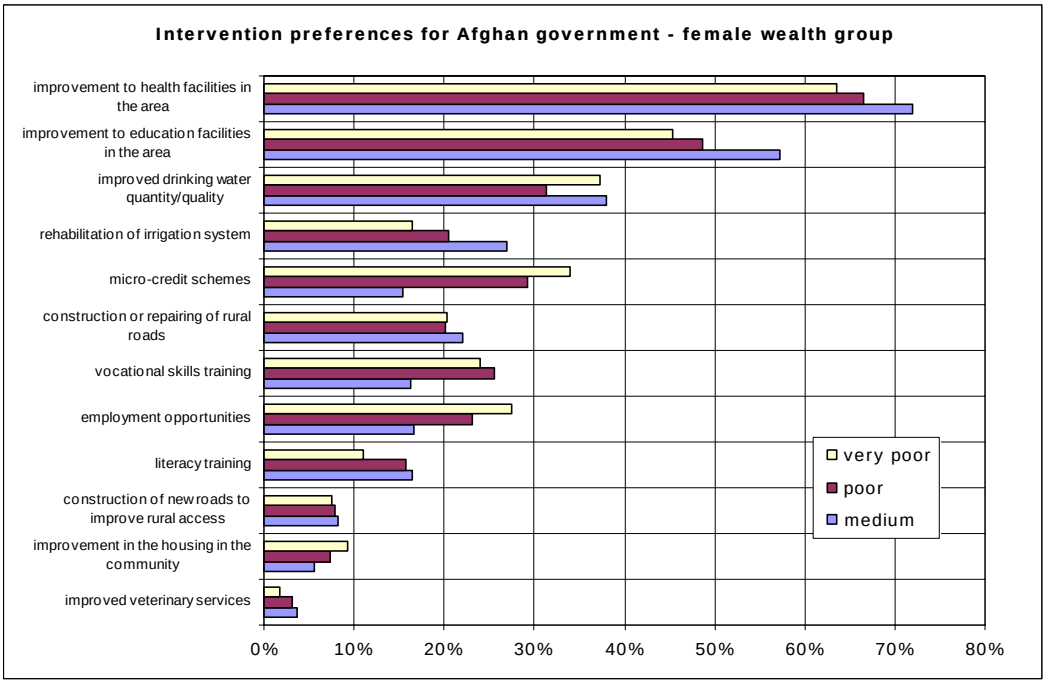
The graphs below demonstrate variations of intervention preferences by wealth groups. Micro-credit schemes, employment opportunities, vocational skills training and improvement in the housing in the community are relatively more important to the very poor wealth groups, while they show relatively less interest in improvement to health and education facilities, rehabilitation of irrigation systems and construction of rural roads compared to the other wealth groups. One possible reason could be that the poor and, more so, medium groups benefit more from these types of interventions.



Improvements to health facilities in the area are a high priority in most provinces and it is the top priority in the sample when three response options are taken into account (see the graph above). The highest rates are found for Nuristan, Samangan, Paktya, Paktika, Farah and Zabul where it was mentioned as one of the top three priorities by more than 80% of all male wealth group interviews. According to female wealth groups, more than 80% of the interviews in Sari Pul, Hilmand, and Kandahar also placed health as a high priority.

Improvement to education facilities in the area is perceived to be a high priority in more than 80% of communities in Nuristan, Balkh, and Zabul. Large gender gaps can be observed for Farah, Kandahar, Uruzgan, Samangan and Takhar, where women prioritize education relatively higher than men, and in Balkh, Farah, Bamyan, Ghazni, Hirat and Jawzjan, where men favour education more than women.

Improved drinking water is a high priority in Jawzjan, Badghis, Faryab, Kunduz and Balkh. In these provinces more than half of all male wealth groups mentioned it as one of their top priorities. Large gender differences can be observed in Farah (78% for women), Khost, Kabul, Kandahar Parwan and Bamyan, where women prioritized improved drinking water higher then their male counterparts.



Rehabilitation of irrigation systems is a priority favoured more by men than women, most likely because they are primarily engaged in agricultural activities. More than 70% of men in Zabul, Nimroz, Kandahar, Farah and Hilmand named this as a top priority. These provinces in Southern Afghanistan bordering Pakistan to the south, and Iran to the west depend highly on kariz-systems for irrigation, which were heavily damaged in recent conflicts.

More than 30% of male wealth groups in Hirat, Kapisa and Laghman mentioned **micro-credit schemes** as one of their 3 top-priorities. This also shows drastic variations by gender as more than 30% of female wealth groups in Ghor, Kabul, Bamyan, Samangan, Nangarhar and the one district assessed in Hilmand ranked this as one of their top needs. These variations can be explained by the different roles women play in their respective communities and households with regard to decision-making power and control over financial resources.

Construction or repairing of rural roads was named most often in Nimroz, Baghlan and Balkh provinces which fall along major trade routes between Kabul or neighbouring countries, and which were heavily damaged during recent conflicts and civil strikes. Generally, women prioritized this option lower than men, with the exception of Badakhshan and Samangan, where it was named by more than 45% of the female wealth groups.

On the other hand, **construction of new roads to improve rural access** received far less priority by both wealth groups. The exceptions are (1) Nuristan, where more than 90% mentioned this as one of their three main priorities (both male and female), (2) male wealth groups in Badakhshan, and (3) female wealth groups in Kandahar. Many parts of Nuristan and Badakhshan are extremely mountainous and remote, which hampers livelihood development for those people living in these areas.

Employment opportunities were named by more than 40% of male wealth groups in Nimroz, Hirat and Ghor, and by female wealth groups in Hirat, Ghor, Ghazni, Bamyan and Uruzgan. Overall geographic and gender variations are high. For example while in Hirat employment is seen as a top priority for both women and men, in neighbouring Farah, preference is relatively low among men and not at all among female wealth groups.

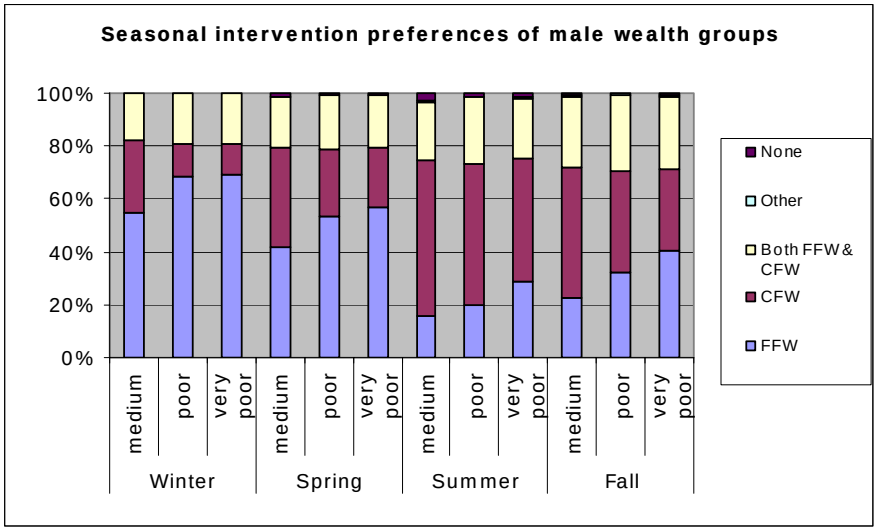
Vocational skills training was requested most often by the female wealth groups in Kunar (nearly 80%), Laghman (more than 50%) and Ghor and Nangarhar (more than 40%). **Literacy training** was named more often by female wealth groups with highest levels found in Kunar (more than 60%), Badakhshan and Kunduz (more than 30%).

Improvement in housing in the community has a low priority overall, with the exception of Sari Pul with 24% of male wealth groups and 34% of female wealth groups. Male wealth groups in Kabul and Takhar and female wealth groups in Laghman also prioritized improved housing conditions.

I**mproved veterinary services** also received low priority with the exception of wealth groups in Kandahar, Hilmand, Badakhshan and Takhar, where herding traditionally plays an important role. Only settled communities were considered in this section, hence among the Kuchi population the preference for improved veterinary services is expected to be higher.

Section 8.4 – Seasonal preferences

Both female and male wealth groups were asked to name their **preferred choice of assistance** by **season** if relief assistance had to be provided. Possible response options were food-for-work programs (FFW), cash-for-work programs (CFW), combination of food and cash, none and others. Results are presented in the tables and graphs below. These data are summarized in Table 8.4.1 in Annex II.



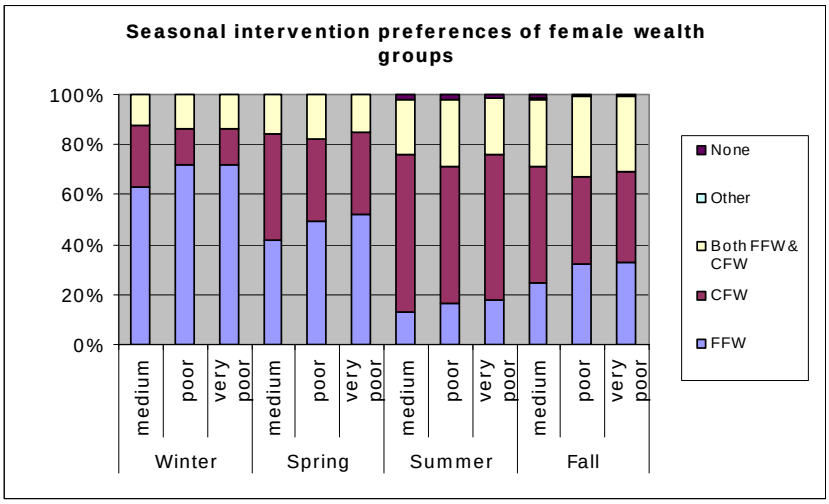
Both female and male wealth groups follow a similar pattern. In all seasons the very poor wealth groups give relatively higher preference to FFW than the medium and poor wealth groups. Comparing seasons, a clear distinction can be made between winter and summer.

In **winter** the most preferred assistance is FFW in all wealth groups (very poor 69%, poor 68%, and medium 55%). The main reasons provided by male wealth groups who opted for FFW were:

REASONS FOR FFW IN WINTER

1.	High price of wheat in market (40%)	→ *reduced availability*
2.	High costs of going to market (22%)	→ *restricted economic access*
3.	No access to markets (21%)	→ *restricted physical access*

Hence **availability and access** are both causes for food insecurity in winter with the assumption that the preference for food aid over cash is a proxy for food insecurity.



Spring follows a similar pattern but at a lower level for FFW, while CFW gains more importance. Still, more than 50% of the poor and very poor prefer FFW over other types of assistance. Towards the end of the lean season, the main reason provided for requesting FFW is related to food availability, while physical access to markets – due to improving weather conditions – becomes less of an issue.

REASONS FOR FFW IN SPRING

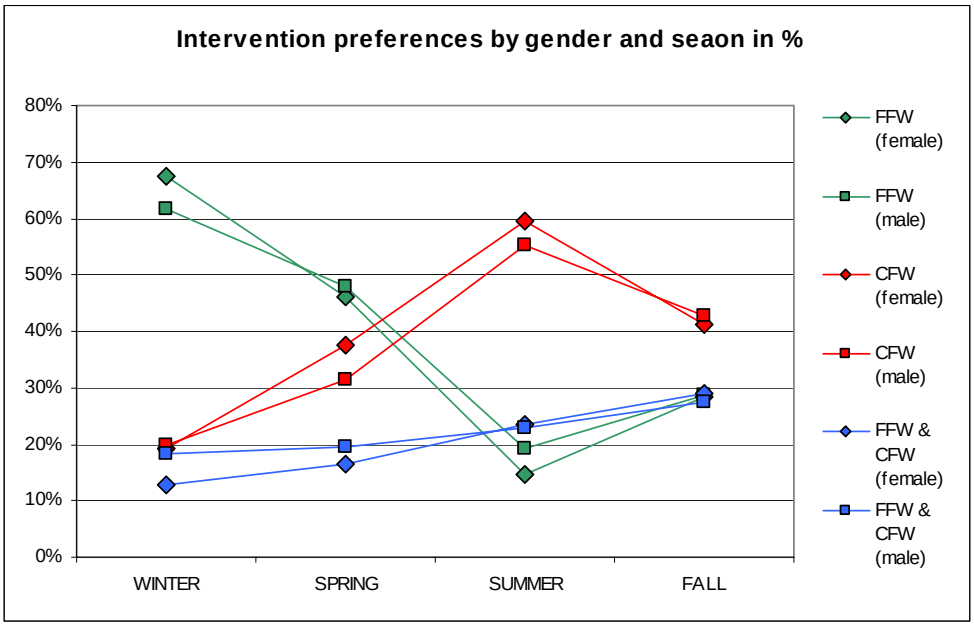
1.	High price of wheat in market (48%)	→ *restricted availability*
2.	High costs of going to market (18%)	→ *restricted economic accessibility*
3.	No access to markets (10%)	→ *restricted physical accessibility*

The high cost of going to markets remains an issue for about 20% of the sample throughout the year. This is most likely related to remoteness of or high transport costs within specific areas. In the summer, for example, communities in Nuristan, Kunar, Jawzjan and Laghman show the highest values for this variable. High wheat price of wheat is a problem in Bamyan, Zabul, Parwan, and Faryab provinces. Additional spatial analysis could provide further insights for explaining these findings more in depth.

In **summer** FFW is in less demand compared to CFW, however 29% of the very poor wealth groups still prefer FFW compared to 20% of the poor and only 16% of the medium wealth groups. The same results are reflected in the female wealth groups, however, in summer they favour CFW over FFW slightly more than their male counterparts (see also graph below). In all groups, cash for work programs dominate, for which following reasons were provided:

REASONS FOR CFW IN SUMMER

1.	Low price of wheat in markets (51%)	→ *high availability*
2.	Flexibility when spending cash (22%)	→ *free choice of consumer (food vs. non-food items, types of foods, etc.)*
3.	Ease of going to markets (12%)	→ *physical access not restricted*



In **fall,** FFW again becomes more important - much more so for the very poor wealth groups (40%) compared to the poor (32%) and medium (23%) groups. Only for the very poor wealth groups, FFW is more important than CFW. In general, a combination of food and cash is less favoured; however, in fall this option was chosen by nearly 1/3 of all wealth groups, both female and male. Reasons provided for choosing the combination were:

REASONS FOR COMBINATION OF FFW AND CFW IN FALL

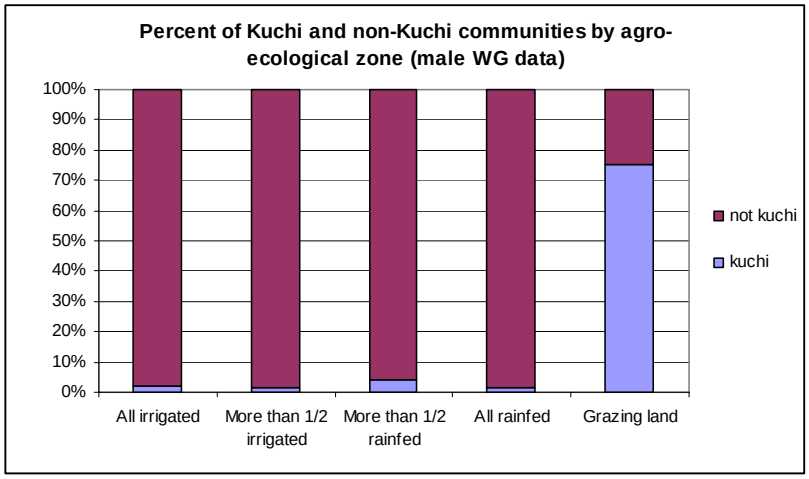
1. Greater chance of being included (32%)
2. More appropriate selection of beneficiaries (26%)
3. Flexibility when spending cash (22%)

Tables 8.4.2a and 8.4.2b in Annex II provide a **geographic overview by province** for the male wealth groups. In winter FFW is the top-priority in most provinces except for Takhar, Baghlan and Kunduz, where a combination of FFW and CFW is preferred. Provinces with the highest preference for FFW are Nuristan, Farah, Sari Pul, Badghis, Laghman, Jawzjan and Parwan with over 80%, while out of 32 provinces 21 prefer FFW with more than 70% of wealth groups. In spring only 5 provinces indicate that FFW is their preferred assistance, namely Laghman, Zabul, Nuristan, Nimroz and Kunar and only about half of all provinces opt for FFW rather than CFW and other interventions. Summer shows an opposite picture to winter and most provinces prefer CFW with the exception of Kandahar (74%), Zabul (73%), Ghor (63%) and Nimroz (55%), while Kunduz (94%) and Baghlan (70%) show a high preference for a mixed intervention strategy. In fall there are 9 provinces which favour FFW over CFW, and of these, by more than 60% of wealth groups from Nuristan, Zabul, Kandahar, Laghman, Ghor and Nimroz. A few provinces clearly prefer a combination of food and cash in autumn, namely Kunduz, Baghlan, Balkh and Kapisa.

Part IX – Status of Kuchi populations

Section 9.1 – Sample size

The **sample size** of **Kuchi** households and shuras is too small to provide detailed information regarding the Kuchi only. All results outlined in this chapter should be treated with care, since the Kuchi cannot be interpreted as a homogeneous group. They have different characteristics, such as migration distances (short range, long range), ethnicity, language, and so on. Follow-up studies such as the National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK) should provide more in-depth information on regional and group specific variations.



Stratification by agro-ecological zone shows that most of the Kuchi tend to live in agro-ecological Zone 5, grazing land. According to the male shura data, more than 75% of all communities assessed in zone 5 are Kuchi, as illustrated in the graph. Therefore any analysis stratified by agro-ecological zone provides further insights on these pastoral groups.

A total of 436 Kuchi households are included in the household level sample. This accounts for 3.7% of the weighted sample. The sample size of the **wealth group interviews** for Kuchi includes 252 male and 169 female, broken down by province in the table below. The largest numbers of interviews were conducted in Kabul province (30 M & 30 F), followed by Ghazni (45 M and 24 F), Paktya (24 M & 24 F), Badghis (24 M & 24 F), Hirat (21 M), Paktika (21 M) Logar (15 M & 15 F), Jawzjan (12 M & 12 F) and Ghor (12 M & 12 F). A small number of interviews were conducted in Kapisa, Parwan, Wardak, Nangarhar, Faryab, Farah, Hilmand and Kandahar.

Section 9.2 – Access to education, markets and health services

Education

The wealth group data indicate that Kuchi populations have limited access to the national **education** system, likely due to their mobility. For around 90% of boys and girls, lack of available schools is the main reason for not attending schools. Among the settled populations this reason was only given by around 20% of the wealth groups for boys and 50% for girls respectively.

Reasons for not attending school	Boys		Girls	
	Settled	Kuchi	Settled	Kuchi
School not available	20%	87%	49%	92%
Family commitment / Marriage / Tradition	8%	6%	19%	7%
Too far away	17%	3%	7%	-
Expensive	10%	2%	5%	<1%
Children don't learn useful things	2%	1%	1%	-
Employment	12%	<1%	3%	1%
Health / Disabilities	<1%	-	<1%	-
Poor security	1%	-	<1%	-
All boys/girls under 14 are going to school	*30%*	*1%*	*15%*	-

For "settled" boys, school attendance has increased over the year for nearly 70% of the sample communities; this has only been the case for 11% of boys belonging to the Kuchi-population. A similar result was obtained for girls - 41% versus 1 percent.

Markets

For the entire sample, less than 10% had daily access to markets. For the Kuchi, this percentage was around 1 percent. Overall, Kuchi populations appeared to have less market access than settled populations. It is interesting to note though that the percentage of households going to markets only once each season was nearly the same for both Kuchi and settled populations, indicating that there are even some segments of the settled population not able to access markets regularly.

Household access to markets	Settled	Kuchi
Daily	8%	1%
Weekly	63%	59%
Monthly	26%	36%
Once each season	3%	4%
Not at all	<1%	-

Health services

The table below outlines the percentage of households accessing different **health services** – comparing the differences between settled and Kuchi households. Overall, they had similar access to health posts, comprehensive health centres, basic health centres and hospitals. However, the Kuchi population appears to utilize traditional healers much less often than the settled populations while making greater use of the services of private doctors.

Access to health services	Settled	Kuchi
Health posts	9%	10%
Basic health centre	65%	70%
Comprehensive health centre	19%	17%
Hospital	54%	60%
Traditional healer	53%	34%
Private doctor	61%	71%

Section 9.3 – Coping strategies

The table below compares the 5 main **coping strategies** used by Kuchi and settled populations. Generally, there are no large differences, with the exception of the sale of female reproductive livestock which was reported by more than half of all Kuchi-wealth groups, compared to 22% of the settled population. This result is not surprising given that Kuchi households generally own more livestock. However, it should be noted that only 1% of Kuchi reported selling female reproductive livestock as their first strategy. Sale of livestock are most commonly reported as the third, fourth or fifth coping strategy.

Coping strategies	Kuchi	Settled
	% of cases (up to 5 responses)	
No coping strategies used	15%	13%
Reduced quality/quantity of diet	76%	70%
Decreased expenditures	72%	73%
Sold female reproductive livestock	***52%***	***22%***
Loans from family/friends	***51%***	***44%***
Spent savings or investments	35%	34%
Received help from others in the community	25%	15%
Worked for food only	22%	20%
Purchased food on credit from traders	18%	16%
Increased collection and sale of natural resources	***13%***	***19%***
Sold child brides <13 years old	6%	7%
Sold income generating equipment	6%	6%
Increased child labour	6%	9%
Rented out land	4%	4%
Out migrated to look for work	***3%***	***10%***
Sons sent to work as indentured labour	3%	6%
Worked on relief programs from Government, NGOs, INGOs	***3%***	***14%***
Mortgaged house or land	***3%***	***11%***

Begging	2%	3%
Sold house or land	2%	4%
Sold appliances, furniture, jewellery, doors, windows, etc.	***1%***	***10%***
Joined military	**-**	**6%**

Kuchi populations tended to rely more often on loans from family or friends to cope with an unexpected shock or event than the settled populations. However, settled households more often used increased collection and sale of natural resources, out-migration for work, work on relief programs, mortgage of property and sales of household assets.

Section 9.4 – Intervention preferences

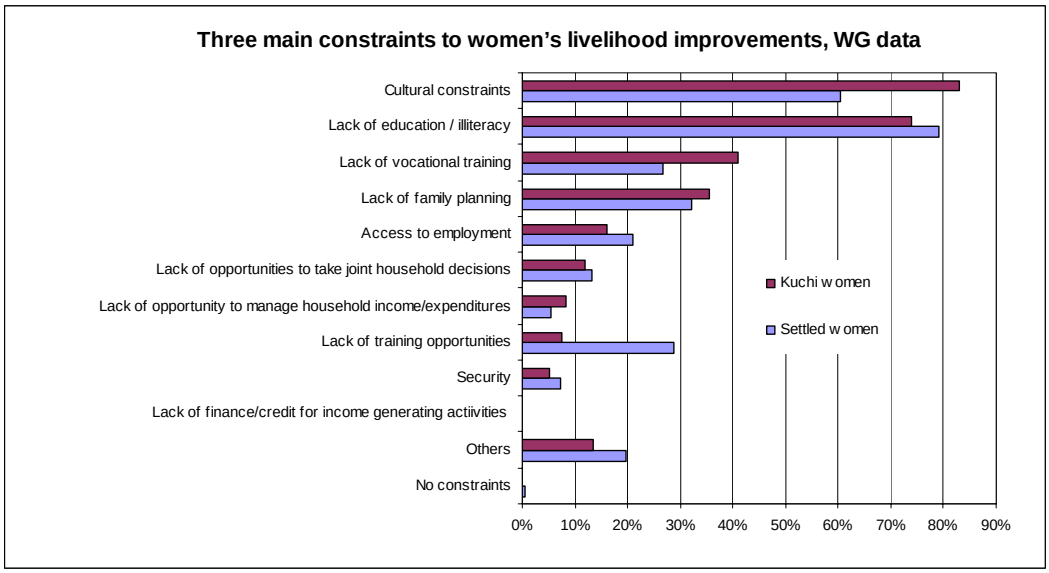
Community focus groups were asked about the type of food response programs they preferred in each season. The table below provides a comparison of **intervention preferences** for settled and Kuchi populations. Whereas the general pattern is similar, Kuchi have a slightly higher preference for cash-for-work over food-for-work across all seasons than the settled population, since they are likely to rely more on food purchases due to their mobility.

	Winter		**Spring**		**Summer**		**Fall**	
	Kuchi	Settled	Kuchi	Settled	Kuchi	Settled	Kuchi	Settled
FFW	58%	62%	38%	48%	16%	19%	24%	29%
CFW	23%	20%	36%	31%	62%	55%	53%	43%
Both FFW & CFW	18%	18%	25%	20%	21%	23%	22%	27%

Priorities to be addressed by the Afghan Government are indicated in the table below based on the three responses provided by wealth groups. Both female and male Kuchi have a strong preference for the improvement of health facilities, followed by improved drinking water and veterinary services. As may be expected, they perceive rehabilitation of irrigation systems and rehabilitation of roads as less important than the settled groups. However, education and literacy training seem to be less relevant even though Kuchi have very limited access to the education system as the data above indicated.

Intervention preferences to be addressed by Afghan Government	Percent of cases (up to 3 responses)			
	Kuchi		**settled**	
	male	female	male	female
Improvement to health facilities in the area	81%	81%	68%	69%
Improved drinking water quality/quantity	60%	70%	34%	36%
Improved veterinary services	58%	44%	4%	3%
Improvement to education facilities in the area	28%	39%	55%	53%
Micro-credit schemes	22%	17%	21%	23%
Employment opportunities	12%	20%	20%	20%
Improvement in the housing in the community	9%	3%	5%	7%
Rehabilitation of irrigation system	8%	5%	46%	23%
Vocational skills training	7%	9%	8%	21%
Construction or repairing of rural roads	5%	6%	24%	21%
Literacy training	4%	3%	2%	16%
Construction of new roads to improve rural access	1%	2%	9%	8%

The female wealth groups were requested to name three main **livelihood constraints** for women in their communities. Almost all groups reported constraints (see graph below). Among Kuchi women, cultural constraints were most frequently reported, followed by lack of education/illiteracy, lack of vocational training, and family planning.



Section 9.5 – Food consumption typologies

When looking at the 436 Kuchi households included in the **household level data** alone, 54% of the Kuchi are in the 2100-3200 kcal/day/capita group, and 29% are in the 3200-5000 kcal group. Only **16% are below 2100 kcal/day/capita**, and less than 1% are in the greater than 5000 kcal/day/capita.

Looking at the 11 diet subgroups, 28% of the Kuchi are in the medium kcal-good intake from dairy group, 19% are in the high kcal intake-low diet diversity, and 11% are in the medium kcal intake-large use of oil and fats categories. The remainder of the Kuchi are relatively evenly spread between the other subgroups, except for the very high kcal intake group, to which less than 1% of Kuchi belong.

Overall, the Kuchi tend to have the same or slightly lower percent of their calories from all food groups except dairy, as compared to the non-Kuchi population.

Part X - Conclusions and recommendations for WFP programming

Despite improvements across many parts of rural Afghanistan, brought on through the efforts of the Transitional Islamic Government of Afghanistan in increasing political and social security, and from bumper cereal harvests in the summer of 2003, there are still areas with food insecure populations, characterized by low caloric intake and/or poor dietary diversity. These vulnerable populations are still recovering from the effects of drought, frosts, crop and livestock pests and diseases, lack of access to labour, poor physical infrastructure for market transport and, in certain areas, on-going insecurity. Furthermore, the country still has a lot of work ahead to increase availability and access to health and education in rural areas.

Section 10.1 – Rural livelihoods – risks and vulnerabilities

In general, rain-fed areas are found in the northern and central highlands, while irrigated lands are in the west, southwest, south, east, and in the centre of Afghanistan. Severe, long winters in the partly irrigated and rain-fed regions of the central highlands, north, and north-eastern parts of the country hampers access to and between these areas.

- The agro-ecological zones that are more than half rain-fed, wholly rain-fed, and grazing land have the worst ranking in respect to most of the risks and vulnerability indicators, such as: lack of water, less available land, poor access to education and health, reduced options for income generating activities, seasonality of access to markets, reduced fertility of land (due partly to the recent drought and partly to inadequacy of fertilizers, seeds and agricultural tools), and reduced revenues/yields from cash crops.
- The irrigated and more than half irrigated agro-ecological zones, despite having a relative lower level of vulnerability, are still affected by reduced availability of water, less land, poor access to health and education, few income options, and reduced cash crops.

Livelihoods in rural Afghanistan are primarily based on production of food crops, cash cropping, animal husbandry, agricultural wage labour, or daily wage labour in urban centres. These livelihoods are constrained by the natural elements that influence agriculture production, access to education and skills training that determine labour types and wages, and thus defining the rural Afghan's ability to manage any risk to their livelihoods.

- The constraints faced by rural Afghans - insufficient agricultural and fertile land, water, inability to expand cash crop production, no alternate sources of income, and poor access to health, education, and markets (particularly in the winter) - have prevented the majority of people from being able to improve their livelihoods.
- Years of conflict and drought have had a huge effect on the average rural household's ability to acquire and maintain assets as well as their ability to manage the adverse effects of repeated shocks to their livelihoods.
- The reduction of both quality and quantity of meals, as the primary or most frequent coping strategy, further degrades what is already very poor diet diversity for many rural households.

The covariate shocks occurring throughout the country between the summer harvests of 2002 and 2003 all appear to directly impact the primary livelihood activities across all agro-ecological zones.

- Drought had reduced water availability for drinking, agricultural production, and pasturelands - reportedly more acutely in the grazing and irrigated, and partly irrigated lands.
- Late frosts and crop diseases affected production, particularly in partly and wholly rain-fed areas.
- High levels of livestock diseases were reportedly severe in grazing lands.
- Although there was a low national prevalence of insecurity (reported by 5% of households), insecurity is often a highly localized event, with 80% of households in some districts reporting this shock.

Lack of health facilities is a problem throughout the rural areas of the country, particularly in the grazing lands and rain-fed areas.

- Aggravating factors to health are poor water and sanitation, poor housing and inadequate heating, poor diets, and severe temperatures, all of which are common throughout Afghanistan.
- Any illness of a family member, particularly of an able-bodied worker, can place the household at risk through loss of earnable income and an increase in household expenditures if health care is sought.

Lack of available and accessible formal education is a problem across rural Afghanistan, particularly in the rain-fed areas and grazing lands.

- Literacy disparities between men and women are high, and gender disparities of school going children exist throughout the country.
- The lack of education, particularly for women, will limit the ability of illiterate individuals and their families to seek better paying labour opportunities or to identify alternative source of income that could effectively reduce the vulnerability of the family.

Public transport is limited throughout the country, and could be seen as an indication of a lack of transport of any kind, limiting opportunities for out of village labour opportunities, accessing markets, health facilities, and schools.

- This lack of transport was found to be more acute in the west, central highlands, north and north eastern parts of the country, particularly in the partly and wholly rain-fed areas which typically have the longest winters, making travel during this season even more difficult.
- Costs associated with transporting commodities back to a village as well as social factors are likely to influence decisions by female-headed households on how to best access the markets.
- In irrigated areas, higher transport costs are incurred and more women were found to be going to the markets on their own. In rain-fed areas however, where the transport costs of commodities are likely to be already included in the retail price by the trader, female-headed households prefer paying someone else to go the markets on their behalf.
- Female-headed households living in the grazing lands face the hardest conditions, with very few women accessing the market at all, and mostly relying on relatives to go to the market for their purchases.

Section 10.2 – Vulnerability profiles

- If asset ownership is used as a proxy of wealth, then the irrigated and rain-fed lands from west to east in the central and northern parts of Afghanistan were where the poorest people in the rural NRVA sample live.

- The average number of very poor households in the NRVA sample is marginally higher in the rain-fed zone although it also shows the lowest mean number of poor households. This could imply a greater shift of poorer families having slipped into the very poor group as a result of the chronic effects of protracted conflict compounded by the effects of drought over the last few years.

- The greatest percentages of households with no able-bodied workers or headed by females was found to be much higher in both the poor and very poor wealth groups, particularly in the rain-fed and more than half rain-fed areas. The correlation between a higher prevalence of female-headed households and higher prevalence of women generating income, particularly in the rain-fed areas, may indicate that these vulnerable households are more likely to participate in labour activities, either by choice or by circumstance.

- A clear correlation between wealth group status, asset ownership, perception of the ability to meet food needs, and economic situation exists. Thus, in general, the poorer the household, the fewer assets they will own, the more they report they have problems meeting food needs, and the worse they perceive their economic situation to be. Conversely, the better-off households, own more assets, have less problems satisfying food needs, and are more likely to perceive their economic situation as having improved.

- There is also a clear relationship between the food consumption groups, wealth group status, asset ownership, perception of the ability to meet food needs and perception of change in economic situation. In general, the poorer households have lower asset ownership and worse perceptions of economic status and of their ability to satisfy food needs, and low kilocalorie consumption and poor dietary diversity. This is also apparent when looking at households consuming more than 2100 kcal/capita/day, yet with differing diets – the higher the diversity the household has, then the greater their asset ownership, ability to satisfy food needs, perception of improved economic situation, and wealth group status than those households with lower dietary diversity. Thus, perceived food need is a robust indicator of food insecurity, as measured against other qualitative and quantitative indicators.

- Both the kilocalorie consumption and dietary diversity analysis found similar trends in highlighting areas of vulnerable populations. Although every province in the sample shows poor dietary diversity and vulnerable households to varying degrees, the areas found to have the highest percentages of households with very poor dietary diversity regardless of kilocalories consumed, were in the west, central highlands, north, and some provinces in the centre and east of the country. However, these data are not robust enough to be used to target specific districts in the country for food aid programming but rather, should be used to flag areas that deserve more in-depth assessment and analysis.

Section 10.3 – Programming and response

- From the analysis, clear links between intervention preferences, gender, wealth groups and seasonality were found. During the summer, cash based projects are the preferred interventions stated by both men and women, in the fall there is a preference for both food and cash based interventions, whilst in the winter and spring the preference is for food based activities.

- Within wealth groups, the poorer the household, the higher the preference for food based interventions. As female and male wealth groups do not show significant differences, this implies that information from male wealth group interviews alone could be used in those areas where women enumerators were not available.

- The timeliness and duration of all interventions is critical. In the case of food based interventions, the reasons provided are directly related to availability and access to food. By providing food assistance in the winter and spring, much of the cost and time required to secure sufficient food is reduced. The added benefit of food assistance during these months, particularly if it is fortified and nutritionally balanced, is that it would help increase kilocalorie consumption during cold weather, and mitigate the effects of road closures due to snow.

- In the winter, food based projects requiring outdoor labour may not be feasible in many areas, thus food for work projects should take place in the fall and with food distributed just before the start of winter. Care must be taken not to distribute food in the fall, which could affect market prices and penalize farmers trying to sell locally produced grains before the winter. During the winter, it would be best to offer skills and vocational training activities, supported by food assistance, which would keep people indoors.

- In the spring, food for work projects should not disrupt normal cultivation activities. Furthermore, food distributions in the spring must ensure that they are well timed and completed at least one month prior to the harvest, to minimize any negative impact that food assistance may have on the markets.

- Cash based interventions, preferred in the summer and the fall, provides people greater flexibility and choice in purchasing. During this time, grains are cheaper and market access is generally not restricted. Any cash based intervention should be of sufficient duration, or provide sufficient income, to allow targeted vulnerable groups to purchase their food requirements. Alternatively, complementary food-based activities should be considered.

- Careful consideration must be given to offer food or cash-based projects that would include the participation of the most vulnerable poor. This group, likely to be comprised of female-headed households or families with no able-bodied workers, will require some form of continuous social safety net be it through food or cash assistance.

- The main priorities identified across the sample appear to be directly related to improving livelihoods and addressing constraints – improved water supply, roads, health, education, and better veterinary services. Within agro-ecological zones, provinces, wealth groups and gender, these priorities may shift in rank, or be superceded by others such as the need for micro-credit schemes or vocational training. Nonetheless, these identified needs provide the opportunity for a more integrated approach to planning and implementation, using all available resources in a complimentary manner to address stated needs.

- Those projects that are technical in nature and require longer periods of time to achieve, such as road construction, could be designed using both cash and food resources as payments, based on the seasonality and the comparative advantage of each assistance type for that period in time. Food for work could be used to build schools and health centres, though this could only be done if combined with other resources, and all partners are committed to the long-term sustainability of the project. Using food aid, improvements to health could be supported with nutritional interventions, whilst education can be supported with food for education (FFE). Literacy and vocational training through food for training (FFT) could particularly target women, who have given higher priority to this need than men have.

- Targeting of assistance requires further improvements. Food for work activities were found to be higher in rain-fed areas, which could indicate a better geographical targeting, yet it was extremely low in the grazing lands whilst cash for work activities were more evenly distributed across all agro-ecological zones. A greater proportion of free food was received by the very poor and poor households, especially in the rain-fed areas, again suggesting better targeting to the most vulnerable households and agro-ecological zones. Nevertheless, targeting of assistance has been problematic, as evident in the range of households in all wealth groups or dietary diversity profiles reported as having received assistance. Even if it is considered that the household received assistance at a time of the year when it was most vulnerable, and that the data on participation was collected immediately after a good harvest when the household could be consuming a better diet and thus appear less vulnerable, the findings indicate that the targeting needs to be refined.

Section 10.4 – Vulnerable areas

- Hirat and Ghor provinces show the highest levels of vulnerability, followed by Khost in the south, Bamyan in the central highlands, Badghis in the west, the northern provinces of Jawzjan, Faryab, Sari Pul, Samangan and Balkh, the central province of Kabul, and Laghman in the east.

- With the exception of Hirat, Kabul, Laghman and the river-irrigated areas along the northern border of Afghanistan in Jawzjan and Balkh, the primary agro-ecological zones in these regions represent the greater part of the more than half rain-fed and wholly rain-fed areas in the country. As such, these areas face some of the longest winters; have the worst access to public transport, safe drinking water, health care, availability of schools, and permanent markets. These agro-ecological zones also exhibit the highest levels of female-headed households and families without able-bodied workers. These areas should be considered as a **first priority** for any assistance that would enable people to meet their food needs or improve their dietary diversity.

- The western province of Farah, the south-western provinces of Uruzgan, Zabul, and Kandahar, the southern provinces of Ghazni and Paktika, and the central provinces of Wardak, Logar and Parwan all have high levels of households with poor dietary diversity. The agro-ecological zones in these areas are mostly *kariz* or canal irrigated, supplemented with small pockets of rain-fed lands. Although access to public transport and permanent markets is better in these areas, there are higher costs associated with access to facilities and the purchasing of cereals. Health facilities, like

the rest of the country, are insufficient in these areas and the lack of schools and gender disparities in education are some of the worst in the country. Livelihoods in these areas are at high risk due to the drought and lack of sufficient water for irrigating cereal and cash crops, which are both the primary and secondary livelihood activities for these people. These areas should be considered as the **second priority** for any assistance that would enable people to meet their food needs, improve their dietary diversity, and maintain livelihoods.

- Kapisa in the central region, Paktya in the south, Nangarhar in the east, Baghlan and Badakhshan in the northeast, and Hilmand and Nimroz in the southwest should be considered as the **third priority** for interventions and assistance. These provinces span across all agro-ecological zones, within which pockets of vulnerability exist. There are extremely remote rain-fed areas in parts of Badakhshan, and southern Baghlan that have poor access to health facilities, where long winter months hamper movement and travel to markets, and where people have some of the lowest asset ownership in the sample. In the southwest and east, where agriculture is reliant on *kariz* irrigation for food and cash cropping, lack of sufficient water continues to negatively impact primary and secondary livelihoods.

- Similarly, although the provinces of Kunar and Nuristan in the east, and Takhar and Kunduz in the northeast have shown the least number of people below the minimum kcal/capita/day and poor dietary diversity benchmarks, pockets of vulnerability do exist when looking at district and sub-district data, and through all the agro-ecological zones which are found throughout these areas. Thus, at a provincial level these areas should be viewed as the **fourth priority**, and the assistance required for the vulnerable populations living in these pockets will need to be carefully targeted to the most food insecure and vulnerable areas.

Annex I – Instruments, Data & Weighting

Instruments and Data

All questionnaires, training materials, metadata, and data sets used in the 2003 Rural NRVA can be found at the following website: www.mrrd.gov.af/vau

Weighting systems

Where 'number of households in wealth group' or 'number of households in community' are used in calculating weights, the numbers gathered in the male shura interviews are used. Although four **wealth groups** were identified (better off, medium, poor, very poor), only three wealth groups were interviewed (medium, poor, very poor). The weights for the medium wealth group data are calculated using the combined populations of the medium and better off wealth groups. This assumes that the better-off households are similar to the medium households, and so then can be represented by them. Following this logic, statements about the entire community can be made.

There are two different weighting systems for the **household level data**:

- *Household level data making inferences to the Household:* This will likely be the most commonly used weight for household level data. The weight for each household is calculated using the formula *(#* households in a wealth group in a village) / (# interviews done in this wealth group).
- *Household level data making inferences to the individual:* When making inferences to the individual level, the weight is calculated as (Household level weight) * (number of members in the household)

Examples:

  - o *Xx% of households that have a kcal/capita lower than yyyy*: This uses the weights as calculated for level data making inferences to the household level. (this is **not** making an inference at the individual level).

  - o *Xx% of the Population that have a kcal/capita lower than yyyy:* This uses the weights as calculated for household level data making inferences to the household level.

For the **individual level data**, there is only one set of weights:

- *Individual level data making inferences to the individual:* The weights for '*Household level data making inferences at the household level'* are applied to each member of the household. No additional weighting is needed to account for number of members in a household, as all members in every household surveyed.

There are two weighting systems for **wealth group level data**:

- *Wealth group level data making inferences to the household level:* Since one interview was done in each wealth group in each community, the number of households in the wealth group should be used to weight the wealth group level data.
- *Wealth group level data making inferences to the community/wealth group level: N*o weighting system is necessary. For example, percent *of communities where women earn income inside the home, among poor wealth groups.*

There are two weighting systems applied to **shura level data:**

- *Shura level data making inferences to the household level:* Since one interview was done in each community, the weight for each shura interview is simply the number of households in that community. This system of weights adjusts the sample to be representative of the number of households the data represents.
- *Shura level data making inferences to the community level:* When making inferences at this level, no weighting system is used, for example, *percent of communities making handicrafts in the winter*.

Finally, for the **district level data**, no weighting system is used. The estimates of number of households per district, and number of households per livelihood zone are considered to be too unreliable.

If taking information from one level of data, and applying it to another level of data, the weights for the data to which the imported data is applied are used. For example, if taking livelihood zone information from the shura level data and bringing it into the household level database, this information becomes household level data.

It is important to note that in many statistical packages, such as SPSS, weights are applied through a system of **pseudo-replication** (for example, if one case has a weight of 10, the stat package treats it as if it were 10 cases). This will cause a drastic increase in the N. For means, medians, percents, etc. this makes no difference (but for reporting true n, un-weighted tests are run). When running statistical tests that involve degrees of freedom, these weights cannot be used in software that does not correct for this pseudo-replication.

If running a statistical test that involves **degrees of freedom**, a weighting system that conserves the n must be devised, or a statistical package that can compensate for the pseudo-replication must be used. For the purposes of this report, no tests involving degrees of freedom are used.

When reporting **N,** an un-weighted number is given. This number then accurately represents the true number of *interviews*.

These weighting rules are applied for **all analysis** in this report unless otherwise noted.

Annex II - Overview tables

Table 4.1.1: Household characteristics

	Median size	Literacy of head	Female head	Physically disabled	Mentally disabled	Any disability
Badakhshan	7	32%	10%	21%	9%	25%
Badghis	7	7%	9%	19%	3%	20%
Baghlan	8	32%	9%	10%	6%	14%
Balkh	6	22%	21%	17%	8%	22%
Bamyan	7	29%	5%	12%	2%	12%
Farah	7	26%	6%	10%	1%	11%
Faryab	7	18%	13%	23%	8%	26%
Ghazni	8	29%	3%	10%	5%	13%
Ghor	7	12%	5%	19%	7%	24%
Hilmand	7	17%	8%	5%	2%	7%
Hirat	7	21%	7%	24%	9%	30%
Jawzjan	6	8%	12%	10%	2%	11%
Kabul	8	30%	10%	11%	4%	14%
Kandahar	7	6%	1%	8%	9%	14%
Kapisa	8	33%	8%	17%	4%	18%
Khost	8	25%	7%	8%	2%	9%
Kunar	7	31%	10%	12%	5%	15%
Kunduz	7	35%	10%	5%	4%	8%
Laghman	8	22%	4%	11%	4%	15%
Logar	8	29%	4%	8%	5%	12%
Nangarhar	8	31%	3%	9%	4%	11%
Nimroz	7	8%	5%	14%	13%	22%
Nuristan	9	21%	10%	27%	3%	28%
Paktika	7	21%	0	15%	14%	23%
Paktya	9	25%	5%	15%	8%	20%
Parwan	7	36%	5%	5%	5%	8%
Samangan	7	25%	9%	17%	6%	20%
Sari Pul	7	16%	17%	18%	6%	21%
Takhar	8	20%	7%	13%	4%	17%
Uruzgan	8	15%	5%	9%	13%	17%
Wardak	7	35%	8%	8%	3%	10%
Zabul	8	11%	0	10%	1%	10%
Total	**7**	**-**	**8%**	**13%**	**6%**	**17%**

Source: Household questionnaire

Table 4.1.2: No able bodied worker, female headed, by wealth group

	No able bodied worker			Female headed		
	Medium	Poor	Very Poor	Medium	Poor	Very Poor
Badakhshan	4%	13%	35%	5%	15%	23%
Badghis	2%	15%	36%	1%	15%	35%
Baghlan	4%	10%	24%	3%	8%	24%
Balkh	10%	15%	22%	8%	13%	25%
Bamyan	4%	8%	23%	1%	4%	23%
Farah	1%	16%	53%	1%	3%	49%
Faryab	3%	13%	37%	7%	16%	34%
Ghazni	1%	4%	19%	1%	5%	24%
Ghor	-	1%	34%	0%	5%	37%
Hilmand	3%	9%	32%	1%	5%	18%
Hirat	-	6%	44%	1%	5%	36%
Jawzjan	3%	6%	68%	4%	7%	44%
Kabul	2%	8%	23%	2%	7%	22%
Kandahar	3%	7%	23%	2%	6%	21%
Kapisa	4%	11%	33%	2%	7%	28%
Khost	3%	6%	18%	1%	4%	12%

	No able bodied worker			Female headed		
	Medium	Poor	Very Poor	Medium	Poor	Very Poor
Kunar	5%	7%	20%	1%	4%	21%
Kunduz	2%	11%	21%	3%	6%	22%
Laghman	-	4%	27%	0%	4%	35%
Logar	1%	5%	29%	1%	5%	20%
Nangarhar	1%	6%	14%	1%	3%	9%
Nimroz	1%	3%	28%	1%	8%	21%
Nuristan	2%	3%	12%	3%	4%	14%
Paktika	3%	7%	23%	2%	5%	17%
Paktya	2%	6%	22%	1%	4%	18%
Parwan	1%	7%	32%	2%	8%	31%
Samangan	3%	12%	45%	4%	9%	30%
Sari Pul	1%	9%	48%	3%	13%	41%
Takhar	4%	12%	32%	5%	9%	18%
Uruzgan	2%	7%	21%	3%	9%	26%
Wardak	1%	5%	20%	1%	6%	20%
Zabul	1%	14%	29%	0%	4%	9%
Total	**3%**	**8%**	**29%**	**2%**	**7%**	**25%**

Source: Male Shura data

Table 4.1.3: Orphan status of children under 16 years

	% of individuals under 16 with:			
	both parents alive	only mother alive	only father alive	both parents deceased
Badakhshan	91%	7%	1%	1%
Badghis	91%	8%	1%	<1%
Baghlan	92%	6%	1%	2%
Balkh	82%	14%	1%	2%
Bamyan	90%	7%	2%	1%
Farah	94%	6%	<1%	<1%
Faryab	90%	10%	<1%	<1%
Ghazni	95%	4%	<1%	1%
Ghor	90%	6%	3%	1%
Hilmand	98%	2%	<1%	<1%
Hirat	91%	7%	2%	1%
Jawzjan	89%	8%	1%	2%
Kabul	90%	8%	2%	1%
Kandahar	95%	2%	2%	1%
Kapisa	91%	7%	2%	1%
Khost	92%	6%	-	2%
Kunar	84%	13%	3%	1%
Kunduz	92%	6%	1%	1%
Laghman	97%	3%	-	<1%
Logar	93%	6%	1%	1%
Nangarhar	94%	5%	1%	1%
Nimroz	90%	5%	4%	2%
Nuristan	86%	13%	1%	1%
Paktika	96%	<1%	3%	1%
Paktya	92%	5%	1%	2%
Parwan	91%	7%	3%	<1%
Samangan	95%	5%	<1%	<1%
Sari Pul	77%	15%	2%	7%
Takhar	92%	5%	2%	1%
Uruzgan	93%	6%	<1%	1%
Wardak	91%	9%	<1%	1%
Zabul	98%	2%	<1%	<1%
Total	**91%**	**6%**	**1%**	**1%**

Source: Household data

Tale 4.2.1: Percentage of individuals (6 or older) who are literate, by gender

Province	Male literacy	Female literacy	Total Literacy
Badakhshan	42%	21%	32%
Badghis	13%	2%	7%
Baghlan	42%	22%	32%
Balkh	34%	10%	22%
Bamyan	40%	18%	29%
Farah	44%	6%	26%
Faryab	28%	8%	18%
Ghazni	44%	14%	29%
Ghor	20%	3%	12%
Hilmand	30%	2%	17%
Hirat	29%	12%	21%
Jawzjan	11%	5%	8%
Kabul	47%	13%	30%
Kandahar	12%	0%	6%
Kapisa	53%	13%	33%
Khost	45%	5%	25%
Kunar	45%	19%	31%
Kunduz	48%	21%	35%
Laghman	36%	9%	22%
Logar	47%	12%	29%
Nangarhar	49%	14%	31%
Nimroz	12%	4%	8%
Nuristan	34%	8%	21%
Paktika	38%	3%	21%
Paktya	44%	7%	25%
Parwan	56%	16%	36%
Samangan	34%	13%	25%
Sari Pul	23%	9%	16%
Takhar	28%	12%	20%
Uruzgan	21%	8%	15%
Wardak	57%	13%	35%
Zabul	20%	1%	11%
Total	**37%**	**10%**	**24%**

Source: Household data

Table 4.2.2: Reported school attendance by wealth group, gender and province

Province	All wealth groups				Very poor wealth groups			
	% of cases - **all** boys (n=4360)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** girls (n=4828)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** boys (n=1497)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** girls (n=1634)	***Rank***
Badakhshan	63%	*3*	56%	*2*	53%	*4*	51%	*2*
Badghis	33%	*13*	9%	*15*	25%	*13*	9%	*12*
Baghlan	46%	*9*	43%	*4*	51%	*6*	44%	*3*
Balkh	22%	*19*	15%	*11*	16%	*20*	13%	*9*
Bamyan	22%	*18*	20%	*9*	7%	*28*	7%	*16*
Farah	58%	*4*	33%	*6*	53%	*5*	30%	*6*
Faryab	17%	*21*	15%	*10*	12%	*22*	11%	*10*
Ghazni	10%	*24*	0%	*29*	10%	*23*	0%	*27*
Ghor	50%	*5*	7%	*18*	31%	*11*	4%	*18*
Hilmand	49%	*6*	2%	*25*	57%	*2*	0%	*23*
Hirat	75%	*2*	54%	*3*	57%	*3*	40%	*4*
Jawzjan	4%	*29*	1%	*26*	9%	*24*	1%	*22*
Kabul	27%	*14*	7%	*20*	21%	*14*	3%	*19*
Kandahar	23%	*17*	0%	*28*	20%	*16*	0%	*25*
Kapisa	10%	*25*	0%	*30*	9%	*26*	0%	*28*
Khost	22%	*20*	3%	*22*	18%	*19*	0%	*26*

Province	All wealth groups				Very poor wealth groups			
	% of cases - **all** boys (n=4360)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** girls (n=4828)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** boys (n=1497)	***Rank***	% of cases - **all** girls (n=1634)	***Rank***
Kunar	9%	*27*	5%	*21*	12%	*21*	5%	*17*
Kunduz	78%	*1*	81%	*1*	78%	*1*	79%	*1*
Laghman	37%	*12*	24%	*8*	31%	*10*	20%	*8*
Logar	41%	*11*	7%	*17*	26%	*12*	2%	*21*
Nangarhar	4%	*30*	2%	*23*	2%	*29*	0%	*29*
Nimroz	10%	*23*	11%	*12*	9%	*25*	11%	*11*
Nuristan	12%	*22*	10%	*13*	8%	*27*	9%	*14*
Paktika	3%	*31*	0%	*31*	0%	*31*	0%	*31*
Paktya	9%	*26*	2%	*24*	20%	*17*	2%	*20*
Parwan	23%	*16*	8%	*16*	21%	*15*	9%	*13*
Samangan	46%	*8*	27%	*7*	47%	*7*	31%	*5*
Sari Pul	7%	*28*	7%	*19*	0%	*30*	0%	*30*
Takhar	49%	*7*	39%	*5*	36%	*9*	28%	*7*
Uruzgan	0%	*32*	0%	*32*	0%	*32*	0%	*32*
Wardak	26%	*15*	9%	*14*	19%	*18*	7%	*15*
Zabul	44%	*10*	0%	*27*	40%	*8*	0%	*24*
Total	**30%**	-	**15%**	-	**27%**	-	**14%**	-

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.2.3: Main reason of children not going to school by province

Province	Wealth Group	Gender	Family tradition	Job outside home	Health or disabled	Poor security	Cost	Not useful	Too far away	School not available
Badakhshan	all	boys	9%	28%	14%	-	12%	-	29%	9%
		girls	21%	1%	11%	-	14%	-	23%	30%
	very poor	boys	5%	52%	9%	-	12%	-	19%	3%
		girls	17%	2%	15%	-	31%	-	19%	17%
Takhar	All	boys	13%	27%	-	-	16%	1%	26%	18%
		girls	21%	1%	1%	-	21%	1%	24%	32%
	very poor	boys	13%	39%	-	-	21%	2%	13%	13%
		girls	3%	3%	-	-	45%	2%	21%	27%
Kunduz	All	boys	24%	-	-	5%	1%	7%	24%	39%
		girls	10%	-	-	24%	16%	-	6%	44%
	very poor	boys	28%	-	-	-	9%	-	23%	40%
		girls	24%	-	-	16%	18%	-	12%	30%
Baghlan	All	boys	28%	-	1%	1%	27%	5%	6%	32%
		girls	51%	-	-	3%	4%	3%	4%	35%
	very poor	boys	28%	-	4%	-	21%	4%	10%	33%
		girls	48%	-	-	2%	1%	4%	7%	38%
Samangan	All	boys	-	56%	-	3%	29%	-	9%	4%
		girls	-	29%	-	-	8%	-	1%	62%
	very poor	boys	-	38%	-	-	50%	-	5%	7%
		girls	-	17%	-	-	20%	-	-	63%
Balkh	All	boys	21%	32%	-	-	24%	3%	16%	5%
		girls	46%	9%	-	-	12%	-	8%	25%
	very poor	boys	21%	18%	-	-	49%	-	5%	8%
		girls	36%	1%	-	-	29%	-	5%	28%
Jawzjan	All	boys	19%	27%	-	-	19%	4%	15%	15%
		girls	18%	7%	-	-	14%	2%	10%	49%
	very poor	boys	8%	24%	-	-	44%	3%	5%	15%
		girls	28%	12%	-	-	17%	-	4%	39%
Sari Pul	All	boys	10%	23%	-	-	56%	-	3%	8%
		girls	15%	11%	-	-	40%	-	3%	31%
	very poor	boys	11%	14%	-	-	63%	-	-	12%
		girls	18%	5%	-	-	44%	-	-	33%
Faryab	All	boys	12%	43%	-	-	20%	-	14%	11%
		girls	20%	31%	-	-	13%	-	4%	31%
	very poor	boys	4%	21%	-	-	52%	-	12%	12%
		girls	12%	18%	-	-	35%	-	4%	31%

Province	Wealth Group	Gender	Family tradition	Job outside home	Health or disabled	Poor security	Cost	Not useful	Too far away	School not available
Badghis	All	boys	-	-	3%	-	<1%	-	7%	89%
		girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100%
	very poor	boys	-	-	13%	-	2%	-	4%	81%
		girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100%
Hirat	All	boys	1%	-	1%	-	23%	-	14%	62%
		girls	2%	-	1%	-	8%	-	6%	82%
	very poor	boys	3%	-	3%	-	46%	-	7%	41%
		girls	-	-	2%	-	25%	-	5%	68%
Farah	All	boys	5%	1%	-	-	26%	-	3%	65%
		girls	2%	-	-	-	4%	-	2%	93%
	very poor	boys	10%	3%	-	-	31%	-	-	57%
		girls	5%	-	-	-	2%	-	-	93%
Nimroz	All	boys	15%	1%	-	-	3%	24%	-	58%
		girls	39%	-	-	-	-	1%	-	60%
	very poor	boys	12%	-	-	-	15%	8%	-	66%
		girls	30%	-	-	-	-	-	-	70%
Hilmand	All	boys	23%	-	1%	-	-	-	22%	54%
		girls	10%	-	-	-	-	-	-	90%
	very poor	boys	18%	-	2%	-	-	-	18%	62%
		girls	3%	-	-	-	-	-	-	97%
Kandahar	All	boys	2%	-	-	12%	18%	-	7%	61%
		girls	3%	-	-	1%	1%	-	-	95%
	very poor	boys	2%	-	-	9%	24%	-	8%	57%
		girls	3%	-	-	-	2%	-	-	95%
Uruzgan	All	boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	1%	99%
		girls	-	-	-	2%	-	-	1%	97%
	very poor	boys	-	-	-	-	-	-	5%	95%
		girls	-	-	-	5%	-	-	5%	90%
Zabul	All	boys	-	-	-	-	-	6%	16%	78%
		girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100%
	very poor	boys	-	-	-	-	-	11%	16%	73%
		girls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100%
Ghazni	All	boys	4%	1%	-	-	6%	-	54%	35%
		girls	8%	-	-	-	1%	-	23%	68%
	very poor	boys	3%	2%	-	-	24%	-	43%	28%
		girls	9%	-	-	-	5%	-	16%	70%
Paktika	All	boys	2%	2%	-	10%	2%	3%	50%	30%
		girls	4%	-	1%	-	-	-	5%	90%
	very poor	boys	-	8%	-	13%	3%	3%	49%	25%
		girls	3%	-	-	-	-	-	7%	91%
Khost	All	boys	1%	<1%	-	-	9%	1%	63%	26%
		girls	2%	-	-	-	1%	-	7%	89%
	very poor	boys	3%	3%	-	-	9%	5%	57%	23%
		girls	4%	-	-	-	2%	-	6%	88%
Paktya	All	boys	-	-	-	-	5%	-	32%	63%
		girls	3%	-	-	-	0%	-	6%	91%
	very poor	boys	-	-	-	-	20%	-	26%	54%
		girls	2%	-	-	-	1%	-	3%	94%
Nangarhar	All	boys	29%	32%	<1%	1%	7%	5%	20%	5%
		girls	69%	1%	-	2%	2%	5%	6%	14%
	very poor	boys	28%	37%	-	3%	12%	2%	10%	7%
		girls	69%	-	-	4%	5%	2%	4%	17%
Kunar	All	boys	15%	26%	1%	1%	28%	1%	26%	3%
		girls	53%	3%	-	-	13%	-	5%	25%
	very poor	boys	10%	33%	-	-	47%	-	8%	1%
		girls	46%	4%	-	-	28%	-	-	23%
Nuristan	All	boys	25%	33%	-	-	8%	-	3%	31%
		girls	62%	-	-	-	4%	-	4%	30%
	very poor	boys	24%	38%	-	-	8%	-	6%	25%
		girls	69%	-	-	-	-	-	9%	22%
Laghman	All	boys	10%	39%	-	-	9%	-	17%	26%
		girls	37%	5%	-	-	4%	-	8%	47%
	very poor	boys	13%	37%	-	-	21%	-	10%	19%
		girls	36%	6%	-	-	11%	-	6%	41%
Kapisa	All	boys	17%	-	-	-	<1%	1%	78%	4%
		girls	15%	-	-	-	-	-	40%	45%
	very poor	boys	22%	-	-	-	3%	-	75%	-
		girls	5%	-	-	-	-	-	50%	45%

Province	Wealth Group	Gender	Family tradition	Job outside home	Health or disabled	Poor security	Cost	Not useful	Too far away	School not available
Kabul	All	boys	2%	6%	-	-	14%	-	61%	18%
		girls	26%	-	-	-	3%	<1%	29%	41%
	very poor	boys	-	4%	-	-	52%	-	37%	7%
		girls	24%	-	-	-	17%	2%	26%	31%
Logar	All	boys	-	5%	-	62%	-	-	15%	18%
		girls	14%	-	-	-	2%	-	6%	78%
	very poor	boys	-	-	-	48%	-	-	21%	31%
		girls	19%	-	-	-	15%	-	-	66%
Wardak	All	boys	1%	12%	-	-	3%	-	54%	30%
		girls	6%	4%	-	-	2%	-	12%	76%
	very poor	boys	-	24%	-	-	20%	-	31%	25%
		girls	7%	8%	-	-	-	-	9%	76%
Parwan	All	boys	1%	6%	-	-	18%	-	74%	1%
		girls	40%	1%	-	-	5%	<1%	15%	40%
	very poor	boys	3%	7%	-	-	59%	-	25%	6%
		girls	36%	2%	-	-	25%	1%	10%	27%
Bamyan	All	boys	-	8%	-	-	2%	2%	40%	48%
		girls	6%	2%	-	-	1%	-	33%	58%
	very poor	boys	-	25%	-	-	10%	-	26%	40%
		girls	8%	9%	-	-	3%	-	29%	50%
Ghor	All	boys	3%	8%	2%	-	18%	-	27%	43%
		girls	3%	-	-	-	6%	-	12%	79%
	very poor	boys	-	27%	6%	-	19%	-	17%	31%
		girls	-	-	-	-	11%	-	5%	83%
Total	**All**	**boys**	**12%**	**17%**	**1%**	**2%**	**15%**	**2%**	**24%**	**28%**
		girls	**22%**	**4%**	**<1%**	**<1%**	**6%**	**1%**	**9%**	**58%**
	very poor	**boys**	**10%**	**16%**	**1%**	**2%**	**27%**	**1%**	**17%**	**27%**
		girls	**18%**	**3%**	**1%**	**<1%**	**14%**	**<1%**	**7%**	**58%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.2.4a: Change of school attendance since last year by gender and province

	Change in attendance for boys (all WG) n=5276				Change in attendance for girls (all WG) n=5269			
Province	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school
Badakhshan	88%	10%	1%	2%	79%	8%	2%	11%
Badghis	31%	2%	2%	66%	9%	-	-	91%
Baghlan	70%	19%	<1%	10%	67%	16%	-	17%
Balkh	80%	13%	<1%	7%	59%	17%	1%	23%
Bamyan	63%	5%	5%	27%	58%	4%	3%	35%
Farah	53%	5%	13%	28%	31%	2%	3%	64%
Faryab	66%	24%	2%	7%	51%	21%	4%	24%
Ghazni	69%	15%	<1%	15%	33%	10%	<1%	56%
Ghor	55%	13%	9%	22%	8%	8%	4%	80%
Hilmand	55%	17%	-	28%	0%	7%	-	93%
Hirat	72%	11%	2%	15%	51%	9%	2%	39%
Jawzjan	69%	19%	1%	11%	34%	23%	1%	42%
Kabul	92%	2%	1%	5%	61%	15%	-	24%
Kandahar	38%	15%	1%	46%	4%	2%	-	94%
Kapisa	68%	33%	-	-	36%	24%	2%	39%
Khost	72%	12%	3%	12%	17%	12%	-	71%
Kunar	67%	32%	-	1%	37%	34%	1%	28%
Kunduz	79%	10%	2%	9%	70%	15%	2%	13%
Laghman	79%	8%	-	13%	44%	24%	-	33%
Logar	78%	5%	12%	5%	51%	6%	2%	42%
Nangarhar	88%	9%	<1%	2%	77%	14%	<1%	9%
Nimroz	44%	5%	-	50%	39%	8%	1%	52%
Nuristan	63%	9%	1%	27%	34%	38%	-	28%
Paktika	62%	12%	3%	24%	14%	1%	-	86%
Paktya	72%	8%	-	21%	20%	6%	<1%	74%
Parwan	91%	9%	-	<1%	69%	9%	<1%	22%
Samangan	81%	15%	2%	2%	49%	6%	-	45%
Sari Pul	69%	12%	11%	8%	45%	13%	10%	32%

	Change in attendance for boys (all WG) n=5276				Change in attendance for girls (all WG) n=5269			
Province	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school
Takhar	69%	24%	2%	5%	49%	35%	2%	14%
Uruzgan	18%	3%	-	79%	19%	3%	-	78%
Wardak	91%	4%	1%	4%	35%	14%	4%	46%
Zabul	33%	23%	-	44%	-	-	-	100%
Total	**70%**	**13%**	**2%**	**16%**	**41%**	**12%**	**1%**	**45%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.2.4b: Change of school attendance since last year by gender and province

Province	Change in attendance for boys (very poor) n=1754				Change in attendance for girls (very poor) n=1752			
	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school	Increased	Remained the same	Decreased	None in school
Badakhshan	77%	18%	1%	4%	76%	17%	1%	6%
Badghis	27%	-	5%	68%	9%	-	-	91%
Baghlan	68%	20%	-	12%	64%	17%	-	19%
Balkh	57%	23%	-	21%	40%	20%	1%	39%
Bamyan	37%	14%	5%	44%	32%	10%	4%	54%
Farah	45%	10%	17%	28%	27%	5%	3%	65%
Faryab	47%	37%	6%	10%	34%	34%	6%	26%
Ghazni	59%	19%	4%	18%	25%	9%	-	65%
Ghor	31%	33%	14%	22%	4%	9%	8%	79%
Hilmand	64%	8%	-	29%	1%	2%	-	97%
Hirat	50%	30%	3%	17%	36%	25%	1%	38%
Jawzjan	62%	21%	-	17%	41%	17%	5%	37%
Kabul	90%	5%	-	5%	58%	16%	-	26%
Kandahar	35%	19%	-	46%	4%	6%	-	90%
Kapisa	66%	34%	-	-	35%	25%	-	41%
Khost	55%	21%	10%	14%	12%	12%	-	76%
Kunar	59%	39%	-	3%	45%	14%	-	41%
Kunduz	67%	21%	4%	9%	65%	21%	4%	11%
Laghman	71%	16%	-	13%	30%	31%	-	39%
Logar	76%	6%	13%	5%	47%	9%	2%	43%
Nangarhar	79%	18%	2%	1%	65%	21%	2%	12%
Nimroz	22%	16%	-	62%	16%	15%	2%	67%
Nuristan	57%	15%	5%	23%	48%	30%	-	23%
Paktika	51%	15%	9%	25%	13%	2%	-	85%
Paktya	70%	12%	-	19%	13%	13%	1%	73%
Parwan	87%	12%	-	1%	56%	19%	1%	24%
Samangan	69%	26%	2%	4%	43%	14%	-	43%
Sari Pul	53%	21%	14%	12%	38%	10%	19%	33%
Takhar	51%	38%	4%	7%	29%	54%	<1%	17%
Uruzgan	19%	5%	-	77%	18%	4%	-	77%
Wardak	89%	7%	1%	2%	34%	22%	1%	43%
Zabul	31%	26%	-	44%	-	-	-	100%
Total	**58%**	**20%**	**4%**	**19%**	**34%**	**16%**	**2%**	**49%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.2.5a: Travel time to nearest primary school

	Within the community	less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	49%	31%	10%	3%	2%	5%
Badghis	16%	16%	28%	17%	10%	12%
Baghlan	51%	36%	7%	3%	-	3%
Balkh	70%	13%	1%	2%	1%	12%
Bamyan	55%	27%	4%	1%	-	13%
Farah	69%	15%	6%	-	-	10%
Faryab	40%	33%	14%	2%	-	11%
Ghazni	28%	51%	5%	-	-	16%

	Within the community	less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Ghor	43%	23%	12%	1%	-	21%
Hilmand	37%	46%	5%	-	-	12%
Hirat	57%	12%	5%	-	-	25%
Jawzjan	66%	16%	2%	-	-	16%
Kabul	35%	57%	3%	-	-	5%
Kandahar	33%	50%	3%	1%	-	14%
Kapisa	11%	85%	3%	-	-	1%
Khost	40%	38%	7%	1%	-	14%
Kunar	81%	12%	4%	-	-	3%
Kunduz	83%	8%	5%	2%	-	1%
Laghman	73%	10%	-	-	-	17%
Logar	49%	44%	-	-	-	7%
Nangarhar	72%	21%	1%	2%	-	4%
Nimroz	33%	17%	-	3%	-	47%
Nuristan	41%	13%	14%	-	-	31%
Paktika	33%	42%	2%	1%	-	21%
Paktya	14%	67%	3%	-	-	16%
Parwan	50%	42%	7%	-	-	1%
Samangan	64%	23%	4%	2%	2%	5%
Sari Pul	68%	21%	5%	1%	-	5%
Takhar	55%	34%	6%	-	-	4%
Uruzgan	7%	17%	2%	3%	-	70%
Wardak	53%	38%	3%	-	-	5%
Zabul	50%	15%	8%	-	-	27%
Total	**48%**	**32%**	**6%**	**1%**	**1%**	**12%**

Source: Household data

Table 4.2.5b: Travel time to nearest secondary school

	In the community	less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	13%	38%	6%	1%	2%	40%
Badghis	4%	7%	-	1%	2%	85%
Baghlan	3%	23%	20%	7%	3%	44%
Balkh	14%	8%	1%	1%	1%	74%
Bamyan	12%	18%	9%	5%	2%	54%
Farah	6%	21%	33%	14%	5%	21%
Faryab	9%	17%	15%	-	1%	58%
Ghazni	4%	40%	10%	3%	1%	42%
Ghor	2%	2%	4%	4%	1%	87%
Hilmand	6%	71%	6%	-	-	16%
Hirat	13%	13%	3%	-	-	71%
Jawzjan	10%	19%	15%	-	1%	54%
Kabul	14%	72%	6%	-	-	8%
Kandahar	14%	62%	8%	1%	-	15%
Kapisa	2%	73%	11%	-	-	13%
Khost	21%	37%	11%	9%	-	22%
Kunar	25%	20%	6%	2%	-	47%
Kunduz	7%	45%	22%	11%	3%	12%
Laghman	20%	28%	4%	-	-	48%
Logar	5%	44%	5%	1%	-	44%
Nangarhar	34%	34%	5%	5%	-	22%
Nimroz	4%	15%	-	4%	-	77%
Nuristan	10%	12%	11%	4%	-	62%
Paktika	16%	42%	5%	1%	1%	36%
Paktya	1%	65%	14%	-	-	19%
Parwan	19%	45%	15%	3%	-	18%
Samangan	10%	12%	-	-	6%	72%
Sari Pul	2%	10%	12%	14%	1%	62%

Takhar	11%	32%	15%	2%	2%	38%
Uruzgan	-	14%	3%	-	2%	81%
Wardak	23%	42%	14%	1%	1%	19%
Zabul	21%	32%	10%	-	-	37%
Total	**12%**	**34%**	**9%**	**3%**	**1%**	**41%**

Source: Household data

Table 4.3.2a: Household use of health services

Province	Health posts	Basic health centre	Comprehensive health centre	Hospital	Traditional healer	Private doctor
Badakhshan	32%	68%	25%	46%	58%	61%
Badghis	0%	91%	6%	27%	44%	59%
Baghlan	3%	6%	0%	5%	88%	31%
Balkh	5%	54%	9%	42%	55%	38%
Bamyan	3%	60%	1%	92%	17%	51%
Farah	0%	82%	11%	52%	25%	38%
Faryab	1%	38%	19%	24%	76%	41%
Ghazni	22%	81%	39%	80%	51%	71%
Ghor	3%	82%	0%	39%	7%	37%
Hilmand	8%	72%	30%	96%	41%	99%
Hirat	1%	64%	15%	39%	28%	59%
Jawzjan	0%	41%	7%	17%	85%	34%
Kabul	8%	90%	33%	83%	29%	63%
Kandahar	38%	82%	36%	98%	24%	99%
Kapisa	5%	81%	17%	32%	45%	66%
Khost	10%	81%	36%	72%	69%	85%
Kunar	0%	65%	1%	35%	86%	83%
Kunduz	1%	0%	0%	7%	90%	1%
Laghman	0%	50%	7%	6%	96%	10%
Logar	6%	91%	24%	80%	54%	79%
Nangarhar	2%	68%	11%	47%	71%	68%
Nimroz	0%	24%	0%	58%	39%	60%
Nuristan	0%	78%	0%	11%	92%	14%
Paktika	17%	54%	20%	79%	26%	77%
Paktya	25%	66%	27%	78%	31%	80%
Parwan	12%	88%	34%	69%	41%	70%
Samangan	1%	51%	2%	29%	69%	43%
Sari Pul	0%	45%	8%	38%	74%	41%
Takhar	3%	43%	23%	28%	86%	61%
Uruzgan	3%	55%	51%	70%	49%	85%
Wardak	39%	90%	42%	90%	33%	74%
Zabul	27%	61%	17%	87%	55%	96%
Total	**9%**	**64%**	**19%**	**54%**	**53%**	**61%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.3.2b: Travel time to health facility

Province	In the community	less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	11%	21%	30%	9%	5%	24%
Badghis	12%	21%	34%	18%	9%	5%
Baghlan	5%	30%	30%	9%	2%	24%
Balkh	14%	17%	20%	7%	2%	39%
Bamyan	14%	31%	29%	7%	1%	18%
Farah	8%	26%	31%	15%	-	19%
Faryab	6%	28%	20%	10%	3%	31%
Ghazni	3%	50%	22%	14%	2%	9%
Ghor	3%	9%	17%	28%	41%	2%
Hilmand	6%	72%	12%	9%	-	-
Hirat	11%	26%	14%	12%	6%	29%
Jawzjan	12%	23%	29%	7%	2%	27%

Province	In the community	less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Kabul	12%	66%	19%	1%	-	3%
Kandahar	5%	72%	11%	5%	7%	-
Kapisa	6%	67%	8%	1%	-	18%
Khost	7%	46%	28%	9%	-	9%
Kunar	16%	11%	20%	2%	-	51%
Kunduz	1%	48%	20%	16%	7%	7%
Laghman	10%	77%	4%	5%	-	4%
Logar	10%	65%	22%	2%	-	2%
Nangarhar	13%	28%	26%	15%	6%	12%
Nimroz	11%	25%	49%	14%	-	1%
Nuristan	9%	19%	21%	4%	1%	47%
Paktika	8%	55%	29%	6%	-	2%
Paktya	2%	66%	27%	1%	-	5%
Parwan	19%	51%	17%	4%	1%	8%
Samangan	9%	39%	9%	9%	8%	26%
Sari Pul	17%	23%	29%	10%	6%	15%
Takhar	5%	32%	27%	12%	12%	12%
Uruzgan	2%	66%	16%	5%	5%	7%
Wardak	14%	52%	26%	7%	-	1%
Zabul	1%	64%	35%	-	-	-
Total	**7%**	**32%**	**27%**	**12%**	**8%**	**17%**

Source: Household data

Table 4.3.2c: Percent of total deaths in the community that are under 5 years old

	Better off	Medium	Poor	Very Poor	Total
Badakhshan	68%	78%	68%	65%	**70%**
Badghis	43%	39%	54%	69%	**52%**
Baghlan	69%	77%	66%	67%	**69%**
Balkh	47%	56%	62%	73%	**61%**
Bamyan	30%	51%	38%	59%	**40%**
Farah	38%	54%	64%	70%	**59%**
Faryab	47%	42%	48%	59%	**47%**
Ghazni	25%	40%	47%	62%	**44%**
Ghor	53%	66%	81%	92%	**73%**
Hilmand	41%	50%	51%	66%	**51%**
Hirat	42%	41%	60%	65%	**53%**
Jawzjan	54%	50%	59%	58%	**55%**
Kabul	17%	24%	38%	43%	**32%**
Kandahar	48%	54%	57%	63%	**54%**
Kapisa	40%	37%	41%	42%	**38%**
Khost	28%	38%	49%	54%	**44%**
Kunar	25%	50%	65%	80%	**59%**
Kunduz	51%	51%	47%	38%	**47%**
Laghman	35%	26%	67%	70%	**62%**
Logar	4%	27%	41%	55%	**32%**
Nangarhar	27%	39%	61%	74%	**50%**
Nimroz	24%	55%	68%	65%	**54%**
Nuristan	43%	23%	54%	72%	**45%**
Paktika	40%	49%	56%	63%	**53%**
Paktya	25%	43%	46%	58%	**44%**
Parwan	20%	33%	45%	54%	**40%**
Samangan	26%	34%	48%	45%	**42%**
Sari Pul	40%	46%	57%	63%	**51%**
Takhar	33%	54%	52%	56%	**51%**
Uruzgan	10%	28%	30%	41%	**28%**
Wardak	19%	44%	39%	44%	**41%**
Zabul	42%	47%	47%	53%	**47%**
Total	**37%**	**46%**	**56%**	**62%**	**51%**

Source: Male Shura data

4.4.1a: Housing – main material for roof by Province

Province	*n*	Roof construction material					
		Mud bricks	Mud / wood beams	Corrugated iron	Concrete	Tent	Other
Badakhshan	*571*	8%	91%	-	<1%	-	<1%
Badghis	*389*	61%	25%	-	-	15%	-
Baghlan	*444*	20%	79%	<1%	-	1%	-
Balkh	*514*	45%	54%	-	-	1%	<1%
Bamyan	*187*	7%	93%	-	-	-	<1%
Farah	*320*	86%	11%	-	-	3%	-
Faryab	*455*	24%	75%	<1%	-	<1%	<1%
Ghazni	*759*	8%	83%	<1%	<1%	8%	1%
Ghor	*307*	2%	93%	-	-	5%	-
Hilmand	*457*	35%	65%	-	-	-	-
Hirat	*637*	83%	12%	-	-	5%	-
Jawzjan	*241*	46%	40%	-	-	12%	3%
Kabul	*507*	6%	83%	-	-	10%	-
Kandahar	*420*	66%	34%	-	-	<1%	-
Kapisa	*187*	6%	89%	-	-	5%	<1%
Khost	*346*	8%	89%	1%	2%	<1%	-
Kunar	*371*	1%	99%	-	-	-	-
Kunduz	*234*	25%	75%	-	-	-	-
Laghman	*210*	2%	98%	-	-	-	-
Logar	*250*	5%	82%	-	-	13%	-
Nangarhar	*642*	15%	82%	<1%	<1%	3%	-
Nimroz	*211*	78%	18%	-	-	4%	-
Nuristan	*173*	1%	99%	-	-	-	-
Paktika	*511*	4%	87%	<1%	-	9%	-
Paktya	*437*	3%	86%	-	-	10%	-
Parwan	*416*	3%	93%	-	-	4%	-
Samangan	*212*	26%	74%	-	-	-	-
Sari Pul	*253*	6%	91%	-	-	3%	-
Takhar	*348*	3%	97%	-	-	-	-
Uruzgan	*144*	8%	92%	-	-	-	-
Wardak	*325*	1%	94%	-	-	4%	-
Zabul	*204*	7%	93%	-	-	-	-
Total	***11682***	**23%**	**73%**	**<1%**	**<1%**	**4%**	**<1%**

Source: Household survey data

4.4.1b: Housing – main material for walls by Province

Province	*n*	Wall construction material						
		Mud	Soft bricks	Fire bricks	Wood	Concrete	Tent	Other
Badakhshan	*571*	48%	48%	-	<1%	-	-	3%
Badghis	*389*	41%	44%	-	-	-	15%	-
Baghlan	*444*	63%	35%	-	-	<1%	1%	-
Balkh	*514*	45%	53%	<1%	<1%	<1%	1%	1%
Bamyan	*187*	73%	27%	-	-	-	-	-
Farah	*320*	20%	78%	-	-	-	3%	-
Faryab	*455*	72%	26%	2%	<1%	-	<1%	-
Ghazni	*759*	55%	35%	1%	<1%	1%	8%	<1%
Ghor	*307*	65%	30%	-	<1%	-	4%	-
Hilmand	*457*	78%	22%	<1%	<1%	-	-	-
Hirat	*637*	54%	41%	-	-	-	5%	-
Jawzjan	*241*	45%	41%	-	<1%	<1%	12%	2%
Kabul	*507*	33%	56%	1%	-	<1%	10%	-
Kandahar	*420*	80%	20%	-	-	-	<1%	-
Kapisa	*187*	56%	40%	-	-	-	5%	-
Khost	*346*	50%	31%	3%	-	2%	<1%	13%

Province	n	Wall construction material						
		Mud	Soft bricks	Fire bricks	Wood	Concrete	Tent	Other
Kunar	*371*	96%	4%	-	-	-	-	-
Kunduz	*234*	49%	50%	-	<1%	-	-	-
Laghman	*210*	82%	17%	1%	-	-	-	<1%
Logar	*250*	29%	54%	4%	-	-	13%	-
Nangarhar	*642*	86%	10%	1%	-	-	3%	-
Nimroz	*211*	62%	34%	-	2%	<1%	1%	-
Nuristan	*173*	94%	2%	3%	1%	-	-	-
Paktika	*511*	68%	19%	<1%	-	-	9%	3%
Paktya	*437*	51%	37%	1%	-	-	10%	<1%
Parwan	*416*	39%	53%	1%	-	1%	4%	2%
Samangan	*212*	52%	48%	-	-	-	-	-
Sari Pul	*253*	92%	5%	-	-	-	3%	-
Takhar	*348*	82%	18%	-	<1%	-	-	<1%
Uruzgan	*144*	48%	52%	<1%	-	-	-	-
Wardak	*325*	42%	54%	-	-	-	4%	<1%
Zabul	*204*	78%	22%	-	-	-	-	-
Total	***11682***	**60%**	**34%**	**1%**	**<1%**	**<1%**	**4%**	**1%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.4.3a: Main source of drinking water by Province

Province	n	Open well	Hand pump	Spring	Kariz	River, lake, or canal	Kanda	Nawar, dand or dam	Pool or howz
Badakhshan	*569*	4%	7%	47%	-	37%	4%	1%	-
Badghis	*334*	7%	9%	22%	3%	52%	-	-	-
Baghlan	*445*	18%	18%	25%	-	34%	-	1%	4%
Balkh	*512*	24%	29%	13%	-	15%	6%	2%	9%
Bamyan	*187*	10%	8%	51%	3%	28%	-	-	-
Farah	*312*	10%	65%	6%	1%	11%	-	-	-
Faryab	*452*	31%	11%	19%	-	19%	-	1%	17%
Ghazni	*755*	20%	31%	22%	22%	1%	-	1%	1%
Ghor	*305*	14%	16%	62%	4%	4%	-	-	-
Hilmand	*456*	52%	23%	4%	6%	15%	-	-	-
Hirat	*634*	32%	26%	18%	12%	9%	-	-	3%
Jawzjan	*239*	42%	17%	15%	-	10%	10%	-	5%
Kabul	*508*	31%	34%	11%	20%	2%	-	2%	-
Kandahar	*419*	56%	37%	-	3%	2%	-	-	-
Kapisa	*186*	19%	20%	23%	6%	33%	-	-	-
Khost	*346*	23%	26%	27%	5%	6%	3%	1%	5%
Kunar	*366*	9%	27%	34%	1%	29%	-	-	-
Kunduz	*234*	64%	22%	3%	-	10%	-	-	1%
Laghman	*210*	12%	29%	51%	3%	5%	-	-	1%
Logar	*250*	24%	45%	12%	12%	5%	-	-	-
Nangarhar	*638*	46%	36%	8%	4%	5%	-	-	-
Nimroz	*210*	45%	52%	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nuristan	*171*	-	-	63%	-	37%	-	-	-
Paktika	*509*	27%	28%	23%	12%	11%	-	-	-
Paktya	*438*	33%	12%	11%	25%	19%	-	-	-
Parwan	*416*	3%	17%	47%	2%	27%	1%	-	3%
Samangan	*212*	7%	1%	16%	-	49%	4%	-	21%
Sari Pul	*251*	26%	5%	13%	-	44%	4%	1%	8%
Takhar	*347*	27%	10%	20%	-	37%	-	1%	5%
Uruzgan	*142*	10%	13%	67%	7%	2%	-	-	-
Wardak	*325*	39%	27%	31%	2%	-	1%	1%	-
Zabul	*205*	28%	56%	2%	14%	-	-	-	-
Total	***11583***	**26%**	**24%**	**22%**	**6%**	**17%**	**1%**	**<1%**	**3%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.4.3b: Household distance to drinking water source

Province	Time to drinking water					
	In the community	Less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	76%	23%	1%	-	-	-
Badghis	70%	19%	6%	6%	-	-
Baghlan	86%	12%	2%	1%	-	-
Balkh	84%	6%	8%	-	-	-
Bamyan	99%	1%	-	-	-	-
Farah	94%	6%	-	-	-	-
Faryab	63%	29%	5%	2%	1%	-
Ghazni	90%	10%	-	-	-	-
Ghor	97%	3%	-	-	-	-
Hilmand	100%	-	-	-	-	-
Hirat	88%	8%	3%	-	-	-
Jawzjan	84%	6%	6%	3%	-	1%
Kabul	95%	4%	-	-	-	1%
Kandahar	100%	-	-	-	-	-
Kapisa	87%	13%	-	-	-	-
Khost	93%	7%	-	-	-	-
Kunar	86%	11%	3%	-	-	-
Kunduz	98%	2%	-	-	-	-
Laghman	96%	4%	-	-	-	-
Logar	89%	11%	-	-	-	-
Nangarhar	97%	3%	-	-	-	-
Nimroz	96%	4%	-	-	-	-
Nuristan	100%	-	-	-	-	-
Paktika	83%	17%	-	-	-	-
Paktya	88%	11%	1%	-	-	-
Parwan	86%	14%	-	-	-	-
Samangan	85%	10%	4%	-	1%	1%
Sari Pul	88%	6%	5%	1%	-	-
Takhar	87%	13%	-	-	-	-
Uruzgan	77%	23%	-	-	-	-
Wardak	98%	2%	-	-	-	-
Zabul	97%	3%	-	-	-	-
Total	**88%**	**9%**	**2%**	**<1%**	**<1%**	**<1%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.4.3c: Household sanitation and perception of sanitation by province

	n	Sanitation facility				Report toilet is adequate
		none	traditional latrine	improved latrine	other	
Badakhshan	*570*	48%	51%	1%	-	9%
Badghis	*386*	57%	42%	1%	-	15%
Baghlan	*444*	32%	68%	-	-	6%
Balkh	*513*	14%	85%	-	1%	3%
Bamyan	*187*	36%	64%	-	-	8%
Farah	*320*	28%	72%	-	-	1%
Faryab	*454*	25%	75%	<1%	-	4%
Ghazni	*759*	10%	88%	-	2%	5%
Ghor	*307*	60%	40%	-	-	7%
Hilmand	*456*	13%	87%	<1%	-	22%
Hirat	*636*	32%	68%	<1%	-	4%
Jawzjan	*241*	34%	66%	-	-	1%
Kabul	*509*	11%	88%	-	1%	11%
Kandahar	*420*	40%	60%	-	-	3%
Kapisa	*187*	7%	93%	-	-	6%
Khost	*346*	34%	66%	-	-	3%
Kunar	*370*	23%	77%	-	-	3%
Kunduz	*234*	21%	79%	<1%	-	3%

	n	Sanitation facility				Report toilet is adequate
		none	traditional latrine	improved latrine	other	
Laghman	*210*	74%	26%	-	-	3%
Logar	*250*	15%	84%	1%	-	5%
Nangarhar	*640*	34%	66%	-	-	8%
Nimroz	*211*	43%	52%	5%	-	14%
Nuristan	*173*	38%	61%	-	2%	3%
Paktika	*511*	24%	76%	-	-	7%
Paktya	*436*	28%	72%	-	-	2%
Parwan	*416*	12%	88%	-	-	7%
Samangan	*214*	24%	64%	<1%	12%	9%
Sari Pul	*252*	18%	81%	1%	-	8%
Takhar	*347*	44%	56%	1%	-	20%
Uruzgan	*144*	30%	70%	-	-	1%
Wardak	*324*	7%	94%	-	-	6%
Zabul	*205*	10%	90%	-	-	7%
Total	***11672***	**28%**	**72%**	**<1%**	**1%**	**7%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.5.1a: Household asset ownership

Province	n	mattress	watch/ clock	radio	jewelry	carpets	TV/DVD
Badakhshan	**570**	98%	66%	60%	12%	22%	6%
Badghis	**333**	100%	73%	51%	-	4%	-
Baghlan	**440**	99%	76%	71%	1%	5%	-
Balkh	**509**	98%	68%	54%	2%	8%	3%
Bamyan	**187**	95%	66%	62%	13%	49%	3%
Farah	**314**	98%	84%	58%	12%	34%	5%
Faryab	**456**	96%	58%	55%	11%	11%	7%
Ghazni	**753**	95%	77%	73%	20%	30%	5%
Ghor	**305**	98%	64%	51%	1%	11%	2%
Hilmand	**456**	100%	70%	74%	8%	17%	3%
Hirat	**637**	98%	59%	47%	7%	23%	8%
Jawzjan	**240**	95%	58%	37%	2%	-	-
Kabul	**508**	92%	69%	65%	12%	29%	6%
Kandahar	**419**	99%	86%	76%	6%	4%	1%
Kapisa	**188**	97%	82%	62%	13%	39%	2%
Khost	**345**	99%	88%	77%	20%	25%	5%
Kunar	**371**	96%	54%	66%	7%	3%	2%
Kunduz	**234**	100%	88%	75%	30%	34%	15%
Laghman	**210**	98%	83%	72%	5%	8%	-
Logar	**249**	93%	84%	78%	19%	33%	6%
Nangarhar	**637**	98%	83%	76%	17%	13%	8%
Nimroz	**210**	99%	90%	84%	15%	20%	9%
Nuristan	**172**	100%	85%	61%	13%	11%	1%
Paktika	**507**	99%	90%	73%	7%	48%	4%
Paktya	**432**	96%	87%	81%	14%	35%	8%
Parwan	**417**	99%	78%	62%	6%	43%	5%
Samangan	**214**	96%	47%	60%	8%	12%	4%
Sari Pul	**252**	96%	64%	59%	9%	21%	4%
Takhar	**347**	98%	67%	62%	9%	13%	2%
Uruzgan	**142**	100%	72%	73%	6%	31%	2%
Wardak	**324**	97%	78%	69%	12%	49%	6%
Zabul	**205**	99%	80%	73%	2%	3%	1%
Total	**11583**	**97%**	**74%**	**65%**	**10%**	**21%**	**5%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.5.1b: Household asset ownership

Province	n	sewing machine	loom	bike	cart	motorcycle	car / truck
Badakhshan	*570*	32%	1%	5%	11%	3%	1%
Badghis	*333*	3%	5%	3%	4%	1%	-
Baghlan	*440*	26%	1%	14%	7%	2%	-
Balkh	*509*	17%	14%	16%	10%	4%	1%
Bamyan	*187*	36%	2%	10%	12%	1%	-
Farah	*314*	31%	25%	26%	3%	6%	4%
Faryab	*456*	31%	20%	25%	10%	10%	1%
Ghazni	*753*	35%	2%	38%	32%	18%	10%
Ghor	*305*	36%	16%	10%	1%	5%	1%
Hilmand	*456*	40%	3%	56%	50%	24%	15%
Hirat	*637*	20%	13%	10%	6%	1%	1%
Jawzjan	*240*	13%	28%	25%	-	1%	-
Kabul	*508*	32%	3%	28%	20%	2%	2%
Kandahar	*419*	28%	1%	26%	35%	25%	4%
Kapisa	*188*	32%	1%	31%	13%	6%	6%
Khost	*345*	42%	1%	28%	29%	1%	13%
Kunar	*371*	26%	2%	12%	4%	1%	1%
Kunduz	*234*	59%	4%	43%	23%	11%	4%
Laghman	*210*	37%	3%	13%	15%	3%	5%
Logar	*249*	39%	1%	24%	11%	5%	11%
Nangarhar	*637*	38%	2%	30%	11%	4%	3%
Nimroz	*210*	48%	6%	44%	45%	38%	8%
Nuristan	*172*	18%	1%	-	-	-	3%
Paktika	*507*	23%	2%	25%	17%	12%	5%
Paktya	*432*	40%	1%	25%	36%	9%	15%
Parwan	*417*	21%	3%	13%	10%	2%	2%
Samangan	*214*	27%	6%	18%	5%	6%	2%
Sari Pul	*252*	47%	3%	12%	2%	1%	1%
Takhar	*347*	45%	-	11%	1%	2%	1%
Uruzgan	*142*	37%	-	11%	21%	28%	2%
Wardak	*324*	36%	6%	32%	28%	4%	3%
Zabul	*205*	38%	4%	34%	16%	22%	4%
Total	*11583*	**31%**	**6%**	**23%**	**16%**	**8%**	**4%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.6.1a: Male head of HH current work status by sector and province

	Work in last 7 days?	Government	Private business	Self-employed	Military
Badakhshan	74%	7%	18%	75%	-
Badghis	72%	-	10%	86%	-
Baghlan	86%	5%	-	94%	-
Balkh	73%	11%	17%	72%	-
Bamyan	82%	10%	9%	79%	2%
Farah	70%	-	28%	68%	1%
Faryab	81%	11%	19%	69%	-
Ghazni	88%	5%	22%	72%	1%
Ghor	79%	8%	4%	85%	-
Hilmand	85%	-	14%	83%	-
Hirat	67%	9%	28%	63%	-
Jawzjan	85%	7%	13%	80%	-
Kabul	88%	14%	14%	71%	1%
Kandahar	89%	-	23%	75%	-
Kapisa	83%	9%	14%	75%	1%
Khost	85%	-	6%	91%	-
Kunar	90%	12%	16%	71%	-
Kunduz	73%	-	-	93%	-
Laghman	98%	6%	36%	56%	2%
Logar	94%	9%	14%	74%	1%

	Work in last 7 days?	Government	Private business	Self-employed	Military
Nangarhar	63%	15%	22%	61%	1%
Nimroz	77%	-	28%	68%	-
Nuristan	78%	-	6%	93%	-
Paktika	92%	6%	12%	77%	4%
Paktya	86%	7%	13%	79%	-
Parwan	79%	15%	-	66%	11%
Samangan	77%	7%	27%	66%	2%
Sari Pul	78%	10%	6%	84%	-
Takhar	64%	-	7%	88%	-
Uruzgan	79%	-	10%	87%	-
Wardak	83%	13%	13%	69%	6%
Zabul	80%	-	33%	64%	2%
Total	**80%**	**8%**	**15%**	**75%**	**1%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.6.1b: Male head of HH current work status by sector and province

	Agricult-ure	Construc-tion	Trade	Educa-tion or health	Trans-port	Admin	Hunting or gathering	Other
Badakhshan	82%	5%	3%	4%	1%	-	-	4%
Badghis	86%	1%	1%	2%	-	1%	-	10%
Baghlan	70%	-	25%	3%	-	-	-	-
Balkh	82%	2%	-	7%	1%	-	2%	2%
Bamyan	78%	5%	2%	5%	4%	4%	-	-
Farah	63%	20%	4%	3%	1%	1%	-	9%
Faryab	71%	1%	5%	8%	2%	1%	1%	4%
Ghazni	39%	32%	3%	1%	1%	1%	1%	6%
Ghor	645	11%	1%	6%	-	-	1%	16%
Hilmand	74%	12%	10%	2%	1%	1%	-	-
Hirat	68%	5%	6%	7%	2%	-	-	11%
Jawzjan	73%	2%	-	9%	-	-	-	12%
Kabul	48%	23%	6%	6%	7%	5%	-	3%
Kandahar	63%	33%	2%	-	1%	-	-	-
Kapisa	63%	11%	7%	3%	8%	3%	-	5%
Khost	75%	7%	7%	2%	4%	-	1%	1%
Kunar	69%	9%	8%	4%	1%	3%	2%	2%
Kunduz	79%	-	15%	2%	1%	-	-	-
Laghman	49%	18%	15%	3%	5%	2%	1%	2%
Logar	54%	18%	6%	2%	7%	5%	-	8%
Nangarhar	60%	7%	10%	7%	1%	6%	-	8%
Nimroz	16%	37%	36%	2%	-	2%	-	4%
Nuristan	89%	4%	4%	1%	-	-	2%	-
Paktika	47%	13%	7%	5%	3%	3%	11%	6%
Paktya	45%	17%	13%	3%	11%	1%	6%	2%
Parwan	49%	11%	5%	6%	8%	9%	-	5%
Samangan	82%	2%	2%	4%	-	-	5%	2%
Sari Pul	69%	1%	12%	5%	1%	5%	-	5%
Takhar	92%	1%	3%	2%	-	-	-	-
Uruzgan	89%	4%	4%	-	1%	-	-	-
Wardak	60%	9%	7%	4%	3%	12%	-	3%
Zabul	43%	50%	4%	-	2%	-	-	-
Total	**64%**	**12%**	**7%**	**4%**	**3%**	**2%**	**1%**	**4%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.6.2a: Median number of month's men able to participate in labor activities

	Crop planting	Crop irrigation	Crop harvesting	Other farm labor	Construc -tion	Barter and trade	Collecting firewood	Relief activities
Badakhshan	1	1	1	1	3	0	0	0
Badghis	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0
Baghlan	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Balkh	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Bamyan	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0
Farah	0	0	1	0	5	0	0	0
Faryab	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Ghazni	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Ghor	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Hilmand	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0
Hirat	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Jawzjan	2	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
Kabul	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Kandahar	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
Kapisa	1	1	1	0	2	0	0	0
Khost	1	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Kunar	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kunduz	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
Laghman	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
Logar	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0
Nangarhar	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Nimroz	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Nuristan	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0
Paktika	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Paktya	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	0
Parwan	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Samangan	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Sari Pul	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Takhar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uruzgan	2	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
Wardak	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Zabul	0	0	3	0	6	0	0	0
Total	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.6.2b: Percent of households participating in non-agricultural or paid labor activities

	Percent of all HHs	Of the households participating in non-agriculture or paid labor activities:					
		Rug weaving	Sewing/ tailoring	Collecting and selling wild plants	Small trader	Artisan or Crafts	other
Badakhshan	57%	9%	-	24%	54%	3%	10%
Badghis	18%	12%	-	6%	8%	5%	69%
Baghlan	52%	1%	1%	3%	49%	2%	45%
Balkh	35%	5%	-	35%	13%	23%	23%
Bamyan	43%	-	-	31%	31%	2%	36%
Farah	48%	20%	12%	16%	39%	6%	7%
Faryab	59%	65%	2%	26%	4%	<1%	3%
Ghazni	69%	-	2%	24%	22%	2%	51%
Ghor	8%	27%	14%	24%	-	-	34%
Hilmand	45%	-	27%	3%	4%	-	66%
Hirat	21%	13%	5%	18%	18%	30%	16%
Jawzjan	23%	84%	-	7%	-	-	9%
Kabul	51%	16%	4%	7%	20%	7%	46%
Kandahar	66%	-	-	-	-	-	100%
Kapisa	31%	6%	10%	-	-	31%	53%
Khost	73%	-	-	24%	44%	-	32%

	Percent of all HHs	Of the households participating in non-agriculture or paid labor activities:					
		Rug weaving	Sewing/ tailoring	Collecting and selling wild plants	Small trader	Artisan or Crafts	other
Kunar	63%	-	<1%	7%	<1%	-	92%
Kunduz	49%	10%	-	-	54%	2%	34%
Laghman	79%	-	2%	20%	4%	-	75%
Logar	62%	-	-	2%	32%	-	66%
Nangarhar	72%	1%	-	1%	5%	<1%	93%
Nimroz	88%	-	-	<1%	<1%	1%	99%
Nuristan	41%	9%	-	-	-	-	91%
Paktika	76%	1%	-	28%	28%	2%	41%
Paktya	83%	3%	2%	43%	18%	<1%	34%
Parwan	54%	10%	<1%	4%	25%	3%	58%
Samangan	15%	-	-	47%	-	-	53%
Sari Pul	62%	60%	1%	15%	3%	-	21%
Takhar	5%	-	-	40%	-	32%	29%
Uruzgan	15%	-	-	26%	52%	-	23%
Wardak	46%	42%	13%	10%	29%	2%	4%
Zabul	36%	-	-	-	2%	2%	95%
Total	**51%**	**11%**	**3%**	**16%**	**18%**	**3%**	**50%**

Source: Male Shura Data

Table 4.6.3a: Percent of communities where women are engaged labor activities

Province	*N*	Planting crops	Harvesting	Other farm labor	Embroidery	Handicrafts	Weaving	Tailoring
Badakhshan	*255*	1%	7%	3%	13%	5%	8%	22%
Badghis	*159*	1%	7%	1%	4%	1%	72%	19%
Baghlan	*195*	2%	32%	33%	18%	13%	17%	31%
Balkh	*255*	1%	1%	23%	28%	18%	44%	35%
Bamyan	*87*	-	1%	0%	2%	-	5%	7%
Farah	*123*	-	-	-	2%	6%	66%	48%
Faryab	*234*	1%	1%	19%	30%	19%	60%	40%
Ghazni	*200*	-	-	1%	-	<1%	1%	2%
Ghor	*108*	-	8%	11%	9%	3%	42%	34%
Hilmand	*39*	-	-	-	75%	88%	2%	68%
Hirat	*246*	1%	1%	19%	14%	10%	38%	26%
Jawzjan	*120*	-	6%	11%	12%	36%	41%	12%
Kabul	*228*	-	4%	3%	6%	7%	10%	17%
Kandahar	*39*	-	-	-	36%	81%	-	71%
Kapisa	*87*	3%	21%	16%	20%	4%	1%	29%
Khost	*168*	<1%	-	3%	7%	7%	10%	16%
Kunar	*174*	4%	15%	8%	-	-	-	1%
Kunduz	*102*	-	1%	20%	54%	36%	30%	55%
Laghman	*87*	-	-	47%	5%	-	-	16%
Logar	*114*	-	2%	5%	2%	<1%	5%	9%
Nangarhar	*327*	1%	4%	2%	1%	-	-	3%
Nimroz	**NO DATA**							
Nuristan	*78*	1%	72%	76%	-	-	-	-
Paktika	*234*	-	1%	1%	1%	-	1%	1%
Paktya	*135*	-	-	-	6%	6%	<1%	21%
Parwan	*204*	-	8%	11%	9%	5%	9%	28%
Samangan	*108*	-	-	5%	27%	33%	32%	41%
Sari Pul	*126*	-	6%	9%	21%	41%	20%	32%
Takhar	*156*	-	1%	21%	34%	7%	18%	46%
Uruzgan	*69*	-	-	1%	-	-	-	-
Wardak	*144*	-	1%	1%	-	1%	11%	3%
Zabul	**NO DATA**							
Total	***4601***	**1%**	**6%**	**11%**	**12%**	**10%**	**20%**	**22%**

Source: Female wealth group interviews

Table 4.6.3b: Percent of communities where women are engaged labor activities

	N	Domestic work for others	Collecting firework	Collecting other resources	Relief activities	Other activities
Badakhshan	*255*	9%	1%	<1%	<1%	2%
Badghis	*159*	<1%	-	6%	<1%	6%
Baghlan	*195*	11%	20%	1%	-	-
Balkh	*255*	28%	23%	3%	-	4%
Bamyan	*87*	-	-	-	-	-
Farah	*123*	17%	8%	-	-	-
Faryab	*234*	20%	17%	1%	<1%	9%
Ghazni	*200*	4%	<1%	<1%	-	-
Ghor	*108*	10%	2%	2%	-	1%
Hilmand	*39*	-	-	-	-	-
Hirat	*246*	9%	3%	2%	-	1%
Jawzjan	*120*	10%	4%	3%	-	16%
Kabul	*228*	2%	1%	1%	-	-
Kandahar	*39*	-	-	-	-	-
Kapisa	*87*	13%	12%	5%	-	-
Khost	*168*	-	5%	<1%	-	5%
Kunar	*174*	3%	34%	2%	-	3%
Kunduz	*102*	12%	-	<1%	-	-
Laghman	*87*	9%	24%	-	-	-
Logar	*114*	<1%	-	<1%	-	-
Nangarhar	*327*	3%	4%	<1%	1%	2%
Nimroz	**NO DATA**					
Nuristan	*78*	48%	74%	-	-	1%
Paktika	*234*	1%	1%	3%	1%	-
Paktya	*135*	1%	2%	<1%	-	-
Parwan	*204*	-	2%	1%	-	-
Samangan	*108*	17%	6%	-	-	4%
Sari Pul	*126*	15%	16%	2%	-	<1%
Takhar	*156*	15%	2%	1%	12%	-
Uruzgan	*69*	1%	-	-	-	-
Wardak	*144*	2%	1%	-	-	-
Zabul	**NO DATA**					
Total	***4601***	**9%**	**9%**	**1%**	**1%**	**2%**

Source: Female wealth group interviews

Table 4.7.1a: Average jeribs of cultivated land owned by wealth group and Province

Province	Average Jeribs of cultivated land owned							
	medium		poor		very poor		total	
	min	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*
Badakhshan	9.4	12.7	3.6	5.2	1.1	1.8	6.3	8.8
Badghis	4.0	5.6	1.1	2.1	0.5	1.1	2.7	4.0
Baghlan	8.2	14.7	5.0	8.7	0.9	1.4	6.1	10.8
Balkh	5.1	8.5	1.9	3.4	0.3	0.5	3.1	5.3
Bamyan	2.1	3.7	0.8	1.6	0.3	0.6	1.4	2.5
Farah	4.6	6.0	2.1	3.2	0.1	0.9	2.9	4.1
Faryab	6.3	9.1	1.5	2.7	0.1	0.2	3.7	5.5
Ghazni	0.9	1.8	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.3
Ghor	7.9	11.7	3.6	5.6	0.7	1.3	5.3	8.0
Hilmand	4.2	6.8	2.1	3.8	1.0	2.1	3.1	5.2
Hirat	4.5	7.3	1.4	2.6	0.4	0.7	2.8	4.7
Jawzjan	5.4	8.2	0.9	1.6	0.1	0.1	2.9	4.5
Kabul	0.7	1.5	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.5	1.1
Kandahar	2.7	4.4	0.7	1.5	0.3	0.9	1.6	2.8
Kapisa	1.9	3.0	0.8	1.2	0.4	0.8	1.3	2.1
Khost	1.5	2.7	0.8	1.9	0.3	0.8	1.2	2.2

Province	Average Jeribs of cultivated land owned							
	medium		poor		very poor		total	
	min	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*
Kunar	3.8	6.3	1.4	2.9	0.3	0.7	2.1	3.8
Kunduz	9.4	18.7	6.8	13.0	0.0	0.1	7.3	14.3
Laghman	5.2	6.9	1.3	2.4	0.4	0.7	3.1	4.4
Logar	0.9	1.7	0.2	0.7	0.0	0.2	0.6	1.2
Nangarhar	4.5	6.9	1.4	2.8	0.4	0.6	2.5	4.2
Nimroz	2.0	2.8	2.3	3.6	1.4	2.3	2.0	3.0
Nuristan	1.5	2.9	0.5	1.2	0.1	0.5	0.9	2.0
Paktika	1.9	2.9	0.8	1.6	0.1	0.3	1.3	2.1
Paktya	1.6	2.4	0.7	1.4	0.1	0.4	1.1	1.8
Parwan	1.0	1.9	0.3	0.9	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.4
Samangan	6.6	9.5	2.6	4.2	0.1	0.2	4.2	6.2
Sari Pul	5.4	8.6	2.0	3.3	0.0	0.2	3.4	5.5
Takhar	14.1	20.7	7.2	10.5	3.3	5.0	10.5	15.4
Uruzgan	1.4	2.4	0.6	1.4	0.2	0.6	1.1	1.9
Wardak	1.2	2.1	0.8	1.4	0.4	0.9	0.9	1.7
Zabul	2.4	3.5	1.0	1.9	1.0	1.8	1.8	2.7
Total	**4.1**	**6.4**	**1.5**	**2.8**	**0.5**	**0.9**	**2.7**	**4.4**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.7.1b: Average jeribs of sharecropped land by wealth group and Province

Province	Average jeribs of cultivated land sharecropped							
	medium		poor		very poor		total	
	min	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*
Badakhshan	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.7	0.9
Badghis	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.4
Baghlan	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.6	5.0	0.9	1.6
Balkh	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.1	0.8	1.2	0.6	0.9
Bamyan	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.3
Farah	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Faryab	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.9
Ghazni	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Ghor	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	1.7	3.1	0.3	0.6
Hilmand	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Hirat	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.9	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.7
Jawzjan	2.0	2.8	2.3	3.3	0.2	0.3	1.9	2.7
Kabul	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
Kandahar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kapisa	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.4
Khost	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kunar	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.2	0.4
Kunduz	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.7	5.2	9.0	1.0	1.8
Laghman	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.1
Logar	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1
Nangarhar	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.3	2.1	0.4	0.6
Nimroz	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nuristan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Paktika	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.2
Paktya	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1
Parwan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1
Samangan	0.1	0.2	0.9	1.4	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.7
Sari Pul	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.9	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4
Takhar	0.9	1.2	1.8	1.8	2.3	4.2	1.3	1.9
Uruzgan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Wardak	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Zabul	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.4**	**0.6**	**0.6**	**1.0**	**0.3**	**0.5**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.7.1c: Average jeribs of land rented by wealth group and Province

Province	Average jeribs of cultivated land rented							
	medium		poor		very poor		total	
	min	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*	*min*	*max*
Badakhshan	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Badghis	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Baghlan	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3
Balkh	0.8	1.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.7
Bamyan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Farah	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Faryab	0.5	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4
Ghazni	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ghor	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1
Hilmand	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Hirat	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Jawzjan	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Kabul	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kandahar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kapisa	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Khost	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kunar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Kunduz	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Laghman	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Logar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nangarhar	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Nimroz	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Nuristan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Paktika	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Paktya	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Parwan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Samangan	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3
Sari Pul	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2
Takhar	0.3	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3
Uruzgan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Wardak	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Zabul	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.7.4: Percentage of households owning livestock by Province

Province	Milking cow	oxen	sheep	goats	donkeys	horses	camels	poultry
Badakhshan	60%	49%	75%	82%	69%	18%	-	84%
Badghis	3%	5%	73%	73%	77%	2%	5%	25%
Baghlan	66%	50%	65%	53%	68%	18%	-	92%
Balkh	19%	12%	39%	29%	58%	4%	-	75%
Bamyan	44%	14%	78%	35%	49%	1%	-	91%
Farah	33%	1%	26%	88%	74%	-	3%	92%
Faryab	34%	30%	43%	39%	80%	3%	2%	75%
Ghazni	29%	5%	75%	40%	37%	1%	4%	84%
Ghor	32%	48%	49%	62%	89%	3%	-	77%
Hilmand	62%	4%	64%	52%	39%	-	-	91%
Hirat	22%	16%	50%	64%	77%	-	3%	81%
Jawzjan	13%	4%	41%	42%	46%	7%	7%	57%
Kabul	31%	5%	34%	30%	29%	-	1%	89%
Kandahar	37%	6%	58%	47%	43%	1%	1%	91%
Kapisa	78%	28%	32%	24%	33%	2%	5%	85%
Khost	53%	2%	18%	33%	31%	-	1%	98%
Kunar	74%	20%	23%	77%	45%	-	-	88%
Kunduz	72%	57%	69%	71%	69%	45%	10%	91%

Province	Milking cow	oxen	sheep	goats	donkeys	horses	camels	poultry
Laghman	94%	28%	27%	57%	23%	-	-	97%
Logar	43%	2%	54%	35%	37%	-	2%	89%
Nangarhar	76%	10%	44%	40%	68%	2%	2%	96%
Nimroz	12%	-	47%	39%	58%	-	-	96%
Nuristan	71%	4%	27%	96%	72%	10%	1%	99%
Paktika	45%	1%	43%	54%	39%	-	5%	94%
Paktya	51%	10%	50%	50%	34%	-	4%	96%
Parwan	41%	16%	43%	54%	33%	-	4%	80%
Samangan	24%	13%	38%	36%	82%	11%	-	93%
Sari Pul	42%	19%	32%	44%	92%	3%	2%	95%
Takhar	53%	47%	59%	63%	63%	9%	-	85%
Uruzgan	64%	38%	78%	73%	48%	-	-	92%
Wardak	50%	4%	57%	37%	57%	1%	1%	87%
Zabul	20%	2%	37%	43%	36%	-	-	89%
Total	**45%**	**16%**	**48%**	**50%**	**55%**	**4%**	**2%**	**86%**

Table 4.7.5: Most important farming constraint in 2003

	Lack of Oxen or traction power	Lack of available farm land	lack of seeds	lack of irrigation water	lack of fertilizer	lack of farm labor	lack of rainfall	lack of credit or cash
Badakhshan	31%	25%	23%	12%	5%	1%	2%	1%
Badghis	96%	0%	2%	1%	0%	0%	1%	0%
Baghlan	23%	4%	23%	9%	10%	2%	1%	26%
Balkh	37%	18%	23%	15%	1%	0%	1%	0%
Bamyan	25%	10%	23%	38%	2%	0%	2%	0%
Farah	3%	24%	1%	71%	0%	0%	0%	1%
Faryab	57%	20%	13%	8%	1%	0%	0%	0%
Ghazni	11%	12%	9%	65%	0%	0%	2%	0%
Ghor	33%	15%	9%	15%	10%	0%	16%	2%
Hilmand	25%	5%	24%	32%	4%	1%	7%	1%
Hirat	48%	18%	3%	23%	3%	0%	3%	1%
Jawzjan	45%	11%	5%	23%	0%	1%	0%	12%
Kabul	8%	8%	9%	71%	1%	0%	2%	1%
Kandahar	1%	1%	37%	39%	4%	1%	17%	0%
Kapisa	39%	14%	15%	27%	3%	1%	0%	1%
Khost	9%	15%	19%	34%	3%	0%	15%	4%
Kunar	11%	42%	11%	21%	5%	0%	3%	7%
Kunduz	34%	41%	13%	7%	0%	2%	0%	3%
Laghman	4%	52%	11%	30%	3%	0%	0%	0%
Logar	6%	18%	12%	57%	1%	0%	3%	1%
Nangarhar	3%	27%	9%	34%	3%	1%	15%	7%
Nimroz	0%	0%	0%	95%	0%	0%	5%	0%
Nuristan	1%	63%	8%	28%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Paktika	19%	19%	4%	53%	1%	0%	4%	0%
Paktya	7%	24%	26%	35%	5%	0%	2%	0%
Parwan	25%	17%	20%	33%	4%	0%	2%	1%
Samangan	59%	22%	11%	3%	2%	0%	1%	1%
Sari Pul	68%	3%	6%	4%	5%	6%	3%	4%
Takhar	38%	17%	20%	10%	3%	4%	3%	3%
Uruzgan	18%	5%	38%	18%	6%	0%	13%	1%
Wardak	32%	6%	10%	45%	1%	0%	5%	0%
Zabul	9%	13%	32%	42%	0%	0%	4%	0%
Total	**26%**	**18%**	**14%**	**31%**	**3%**	**1%**	**4%**	**3%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.8.1a: Frequency of household access to markets by Province

Province	*n*	Frequency of HH access to Market					Mode of transport to market	
		Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Once each season	Not at all	By foot or animal	By vehicle
Badakhshan	*247*	17%	58%	18%	7%	-	75%	25%
Badghis	*138*	4%	46%	50%	-	-	96%	4%
Baghlan	*181*	14%	68%	11%	7%	-	56%	44%
Balkh	*254*	14%	81%	5%	-	-	48%	52%
Bamyan	*87*	5%	51%	44%	-	-	64%	36%
Farah	*144*	6%	55%	37%	3%	-	42%	58%
Faryab	*228*	8%	88%	5%	-	-	98%	2%
Ghazni	*320*	4%	58%	36%	2%	-	8%	92%
Ghor	*129*	5%	17%	44%	34%	1%	88%	12%
Hilmand	*225*	10%	80%	9%	1%	-	17%	83%
Hirat	*255*	2%	32%	59%	8%	-	40%	60%
Jawzjan	*109*	4%	91%	4%	<1%	-	78%	22%
Kabul	*194*	8%	72%	20%	1%	-	9%	91%
Kandahar	*208*	3%	79%	18%	-	-	13%	87%
Kapisa	*87*	8%	90%	2%	-	-	91%	9%
Khost	*166*	13%	58%	29%	-	-	7%	93%
Kunar	*174*	-	34%	66%	<1%	-	22%	78%
Kunduz	*101*	11%	83%	6%	-	-	23%	77%
Laghman	*99*	7%	83%	11%	-	-	17%	83%
Logar	*96*	11%	74%	15%	-	-	8%	92%
Nangarhar	*301*	6%	56%	37%	1%	<1%	6%	94%
Nimroz	*105*	37%	37%	26%	-	-	42%	58%
Nuristan	*77*	-	31%	56%	13%	-	5%	95%
Paktika	*233*	12%	70%	17%	-	1%	17%	83%
Paktya	*183*	6%	77%	18%	-	-	18%	82%
Parwan	*202*	6%	66%	28%	-	-	26%	74%
Samangan	*108*	12%	74%	10%	4%	-	52%	48%
Sari Pul	*126*	<1%	55%	41%	3%	-	80%	20%
Takhar	*161*	15%	64%	12%	9%	-	78%	22%
Uruzgan	*67*	20%	59%	17%	-	4%	71%	29%
Wardak	*137*	6%	33%	51%	10%	<1%	5%	95%
Zabul	*102*	-	81%	19%	-	-	2%	98%
Total	***5244***	**8%**	**63%**	**26%**	**3%**	**<1%**	**38%**	**62%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 4.8.1b: Household distance from permanent food market

Province	Time to food market					
	In the community	Less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	11%	32%	45%	7%	4%	-
Badghis	13%	18%	45%	15%	9%	-
Baghlan	7%	50%	20%	10%	12%	1%
Balkh	5%	49%	27%	13%	2%	4%
Bamyan	7%	41%	34%	15%	2%	-
Farah	7%	36%	31%	21%	3%	2%
Faryab	10%	44%	29%	14%	4%	1%
Ghazni	1%	52%	31%	9%	6%	-
Ghor	2%	9%	18%	30%	41%	-
Hilmand	1%	77%	12%	6%	4%	-

Province	Time to food market					
	In the community	Less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Hirat	9%	27%	25%	24%	15%	1%
Jawzjan	-	32%	40%	18%	9%	-
Kabul	5%	63%	27%	3%	-	3%
Kandahar	1%	82%	8%	6%	4%	-
Kapisa	5%	88%	6%	-	-	-
Khost	5%	66%	19%	10%	-	-
Kunar	5%	17%	41%	34%	3%	-
Kunduz	12%	64%	19%	4%	-	-
Laghman	4%	88%	4%	4%	-	-
Logar	5%	79%	14%	1%	-	-
Nangarhar	2%	25%	45%	22%	4%	2%
Nimroz	8%	61%	22%	9%	-	-
Nuristan	2%	-	14%	44%	39%	-
Paktika	3%	66%	22%	8%	1%	-
Paktya	2%	62%	23%	13%	-	-
Parwan	7%	56%	26%	8%	1%	2%
Samangan	15%	48%	15%	4%	14%	3%
Sari Pul	3%	21%	34%	19%	19%	3%
Takhar	3%	46%	26%	14%	9%	1%
Uruzgan	2%	88%	7%	2%	-	-
Wardak	1%	29%	43%	24%	3%	-
Zabul	-	41%	40%	19%	-	-
Total	**5%**	**47%**	**27%**	**14%**	**6%**	**1%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.8.2: Household distance from public transport by province

Province	Time to public transportation					
	In the community	Less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Badakhshan	12%	30%	26%	7%	5%	20%
Badghis	37%	13%	36%	5%	7%	2%
Baghlan	16%	38%	12%	2%	12%	20%
Balkh	20%	36%	22%	7%	4%	12%
Bamyan	30%	27%	24%	4%	2%	12%
Farah	52%	29%	12%	-	-	7%
Faryab	9%	34%	19%	10%	2%	26%
Ghazni	31%	44%	15%	4%	1%	6%
Ghor	8%	7%	21%	21%	23%	21%
Hilmand	68%	25%	4%	2%	-	-
Hirat	43%	18%	4%	6%	-	28%
Jawzjan	5%	28%	39%	13%	3%	12%
Kabul	35%	60%	5%	-	-	-
Kandahar	62%	35%	2%	-	2%	-
Kapisa	16%	67%	5%	2%	-	10%
Khost	44%	37%	7%	-	-	12%
Kunar	15%	41%	21%	22%	1%	-
Kunduz	48%	30%	20%	-	-	1%
Laghman	91%	5%	5%	-	-	-
Logar	45%	52%	1%	-	-	2%
Nangarhar	36%	36%	11%	12%	3%	2%
Nimroz	32%	46%	5%	4%	-	12%
Nuristan	27%	10%	8%	6%	3%	46%
Paktika	49%	43%	7%	-	-	-
Paktya	30%	55%	10%	4%	-	-
Parwan	39%	39%	12%	2%	-	8%
Samangan	26%	40%	13%	3%	11%	7%
Sari Pul	7%	10%	13%	16%	3%	51%

Province	Time to public transportation					
	In the community	Less than 1/4 day	1/4 to 1/2 day	1/2 to 1 day	More than 1 day	Not applicable
Takhar	6%	36%	27%	13%	9%	9%
Uruzgan	58%	32%	2%	-	-	8%
Wardak	44%	44%	12%	-	-	1%
Zabul	64%	34%	2%	-	-	-
Total	**34%**	**35%**	**13%**	**5%**	**3%**	**10%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.9.1: Percentage households by food needs category and province

Province	*N*	Trouble meeting food needs				
		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Badakhshan	*567*	15%	21%	31%	19%	14%
Badghis	*325*	2%	19%	46%	22%	11%
Baghlan	*441*	8%	34%	38%	12%	9%
Balkh	*508*	5%	17%	39%	18%	21%
Bamyan	*187*	7%	6%	47%	16%	24%
Farah	*314*	5%	24%	25%	34%	14%
Faryab	*451*	20%	16%	23%	14%	27%
Ghazni	*751*	10%	28%	29%	18%	14%
Ghor	*305*	12%	32%	31%	22%	4%
Hilmand	*456*	16%	13%	51%	7%	13%
Hirat	*637*	6%	12%	43%	29%	9%
Jawzjan	*240*	10%	8%	40%	16%	26%
Kabul	*504*	15%	17%	35%	17%	17%
Kandahar	*415*	8%	17%	49%	21%	6%
Kapisa	*187*	18%	19%	33%	20%	11%
Khost	*344*	17%	16%	35%	15%	18%
Kunar	*363*	22%	9%	39%	26%	4%
Kunduz	*234*	35%	19%	33%	5%	8%
Laghman	*210*	5%	39%	11%	34%	11%
Logar	*427*	21%	22%	25%	21%	11%
Nangarhar	*622*	14%	28%	28%	24%	6%
Nimroz	*210*	29%	10%	26%	29%	6%
Nuristan	*170*	4%	15%	49%	31%	1%
Paktika	*507*	18%	17%	26%	22%	17%
Paktya	*435*	13%	22%	39%	14%	12%
Parwan	*416*	17%	18%	31%	26%	9%
Samangan	*212*	19%	15%	28%	9%	28%
Sari Pul	*252*	18%	6%	33%	31%	13%
Takhar	*345*	22%	22%	30%	10%	16%
Uruzgan	*143*	17%	25%	30%	19%	9%
Wardak	*323*	17%	20%	34%	16%	14%
Zabul	*200*	15%	23%	30%	16%	16%
Total	***11521***	**14%**	**19%**	**34%**	**20%**	**13%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 4.9.2: Household perception of economic situation

Province	*n*	Current economic situation as compared to previous year				
		much worse	slightly worse	same	slightly better	much better
Badakhshan	*565*	5%	9%	31%	51%	5%
Badghis	*334*	1%	4%	27%	69%	-
Baghlan	*441*	6%	13%	24%	57%	1%
Balkh	*507*	10%	16%	24%	47%	3%
Bamyan	*187*	23%	16%	39%	22%	-
Farah	*311*	15%	22%	42%	21%	1%
Faryab	*450*	10%	20%	23%	45%	1%
Ghazni	*747*	16%	23%	45%	16%	1%

Province	*n*	Current economic situation as compared to previous year				
		much worse	**slightly worse**	**same**	**slightly better**	**much better**
Ghor	*305*	10%	38%	37%	15%	-
Hilmand	*455*	1%	5%	45%	49%	1%
Hirat	*637*	2%	15%	35%	46%	1%
Jawzjan	*241*	3%	2%	48%	46%	1%
Kabul	*509*	15%	18%	42%	24%	1%
Kandahar	*417*	8%	10%	26%	55%	1%
Kapisa	*186*	9%	25%	46%	20%	1%
Khost	*345*	15%	12%	54%	16%	3%
Kunar	*367*	10%	21%	53%	16%	1%
Kunduz	*234*	7%	14%	42%	27%	11%
Laghman	*210*	11%	35%	44%	11%	-
Logar	*250*	12%	20%	35%	31%	2%
Nangarhar	*633*	4%	20%	59%	16%	1%
Nimroz	*211*	7%	9%	59%	26%	-
Nuristan	*172*	1%	-	14%	85%	-
Paktika	*510*	20%	16%	39%	25%	2%
Paktya	*436*	11%	15%	57%	16%	1%
Parwan	*415*	13%	15%	46%	22%	4%
Samangan	*212*	20%	15%	23%	41%	-
Sari Pul	*249*	5%	16%	11%	61%	8%
Takhar	*346*	3%	13%	22%	42%	20%
Uruzgan	*143*	16%	22%	53%	9%	-
Wardak	*325*	8%	12%	47%	29%	4%
Zabul	*205*	1%	15%	53%	31%	-
Total	***11555***	**9%**	**16%**	**39%**	**34%**	**2%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1a: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Badakh-shan	Takhar	Kunduz	Baghlan	Saman-gan	Balkh
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	29%	50%	30%	51%	51%	43%
High level of crop pests and diseases	38%	39%	66%	52%	71%	37%
High level of livestock diseases	43%	53%	63%	52%	47%	36%
Insecurity/violence	1%	2%	28%	5%	3%	2%
Reduced availability of grazing areas	2%	6%	-	3%	2%	5%
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	-	1%	-	2%	-	1%
Earthquakes	2%	-	4%	8%	2%	3%
Landslides/avalanches	1%	1%	3%	6%	2%	3%
Flooding	14%	21%	8%	13%	16%	21%
Late damaging frosts	38%	39%	26%	15%	67%	72%
Hailstorms	9%	7%	10%	5%	4%	7%
High level of human diseases	19%	13%	56%	25%	55%	30%
Large influx of returnees	-	-	3%	2%	14%	14%
Increase in food prices	12%	8%	8%	17%	54%	69%
Decrease in farm gate prices	-	2%	1%	3%	38%	18%
Number of responses	**569**	**346**	**233**	**444**	**213**	**503**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1b: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Jawzjan	Sari Pul	Faryab	Badghis	Hirat	Farah
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	9%	39%	62%	71%	60%	96%
High level of crop pests and diseases	22%	42%	50%	65%	51%	83%
High level of livestock diseases	13%	33%	40%	76%	41%	51%
Insecurity/violence	2%	11%	4%	3%	2%	-
Reduced availability of grazing areas	10%	1%	6%	3%	2%	42%
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	-	-	1%	6%	1%	1%
Earthquakes	1%	2%	1%	1%	1%	-
Landslides/avalanches	1%	-	1%	-	-	-
Flooding	3%	2%	18%	22%	9%	3%
Late damaging frosts	20%	64%	52%	41%	37%	8%
Hailstorms	1%	4%	15%	4%	5%	1%
High level of human diseases	1%	64%	51%	79%	71%	17%
Large influx of returnees	3%	3%	10%	21%	3%	1%
Increase in food prices	9%	56%	50%	62%	45%	65%
Decrease in farm gate prices	-	2%	17%	4%	15%	13%
Number of responses	**241**	**253**	**459**	**333**	**635**	**315**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1c: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Nimroz	Hilmand	Kandahar	Uruzgan	Zabul	Ghazni
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	100%	56%	94%	70%	86%	66%
High level of crop pests and diseases	2%	8%	-	92%	2%	33%
High level of livestock diseases	3%	6%	-	88%	-	36%
Insecurity/violence	7%	4%	3%	67%	3%	5%
Reduced availability of grazing areas	1%	1%	-	38%	-	24%
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	-	-	-	1%	-	6%
Earthquakes	-	1%	-	1%	-	1%
Landslides/avalanches	-	-	-	5%	-	1%

Province	Nimroz	Hilmand	Kandahar	Uruzgan	Zabul	Ghazni
Flooding	-	1%	2%	16%	-	10%
Late damaging frosts	-	2%	-	16%	-	36%
Hailstorms	-	-	-	20%	-	12%
High level of human diseases	1%	1%	-	69%	-	13%
Large influx of returnees	-	-	-	3%	-	2%
Increase in food prices	15%	9%	-	33%	10%	24%
Decrease in farm gate prices	-	2%	-	10%	4%	6%
Number of responses	**213**	**456**	**419**	**144**	**205**	**755**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1d: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Paktika	Khost	Paktya	Nangar-har	Kunar	Nuristan
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	68%	70%	60%	51%	25%	77%
High level of crop pests and diseases	47%	29%	33%	33%	15%	61%
High level of livestock diseases	38%	27%	33%	26%	20%	60%
Insecurity/violence	12%	9%	3%	2%	2%	-
Reduced availability of grazing areas	5%	11%	7%	6%	5%	15%
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	1%	2%	-	-	-	2%
Earthquakes	-	1%	1%	-	1%	24%
Landslides/avalanches	1%	1%	1%	-	1%	-
Flooding	27%	41%	44%	5%	10%	3%
Late damaging frosts	54%	15%	31%	1%	-	3%
Hailstorms	5%	17%	2%	3%	5%	71%
High level of human diseases	37%	34%	29%	34%	14%	58%
Large influx of returnees	1%	2%	1%	1%	-	4%
Increase in food prices	41%	25%	27%	10%	10%	5%
Decrease in farm gate prices	10%	3%	1%	-	3%	2%
Number of responses	**511**	**349**	**439**	**641**	**371**	**172**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1e: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Laghman	Kapisa	Kabul	Logar	Wardak	Parwan
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	68%	60%	69%	77%	44%	55%
High level of crop pests and diseases	76%	56%	24%	17%	39%	35%
High level of livestock diseases	85%	55%	26%	26%	30%	33%
Insecurity/violence	2%	3%	2%	15%	-	1%
Reduced availability of grazing areas	1%	18%	18%	18%	7%	13%
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	-	1%	4%	3%	1%	4%
Earthquakes	1%	11%	1%	1%	3%	8%
Landslides/avalanches	-	3%	-	-	1%	5%
Flooding	6%	27%	12%	11%	18%	31%
Late damaging frosts	4%	43%	33%	45%	48%	33%
Hailstorms	22%	32%	18%	12%	14%	23%
High level of human diseases	38%	15%	36%	12%	22%	13%
Large influx of returnees	1%	3%	6%	1%	0%	2%
Increase in food prices	3%	39%	27%	16%	35%	21%
Decrease in farm gate prices	-	3%	3%	-	9%	2%
Number of responses	**210**	**188**	**509**	**250**	**326**	**417**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.1f: Covariate shocks experienced by households in 2003, by Province

Province	Bamyan	Ghor	Total
Reduced water quality and/or quantity	52%	63%	**58%**
High level of crop pests and diseases	46%	46%	**39%**
High level of livestock diseases	41%	28%	**36%**
Insecurity/violence	2%	-	**5%**
Reduced availability of grazing areas	2%	2%	**8%**
Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	4%	4%	**2%**
Earthquakes	-	-	**2%**
Landslides/avalanches	2%	-	**1%**
Flooding	19%	2%	**14%**
Late damaging frosts	57%	35%	**31%**
Hailstorms	5%	1%	**9%**
High level of human diseases	16%	47%	**31%**
Large influx of returnees	6%	-	**4%**
Increase in food prices	25%	51%	**29%**
Decrease in farm gate prices	4%	0%	**6%**
Number of responses	**185**	**305**	**11609**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.2: Household effects of covariate shocks and coping strategies

Shock	Main Effect	Main coping strategies	Recovery
Reduced water quality or quantity	▪ Decrease in income	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures	▪ Not at all
Crop pests/disease	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings	▪ Not at all/Partially
Livestock disease	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings ▪ Sold female reproductive livestock	▪ Not at all/Partially
Insecurity violence	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings	▪ Not at all/Partially
Reduction in availability of grazing areas	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Decrease expenditures ▪ Increased collection and sale of natural resources ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Reduced Kuchi migration routes	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings	▪ Not at all
Earthquakes	▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Partially
Landslides/avalanches	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Spent savings	▪ Partially
Flooding	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings	▪ Not at all/Partially
Late damaging frosts	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings	▪ Not at all/Partially
Hailstorms	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures	▪ Not at all/Partially
Human disease	▪ Decrease in income	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all/Partially

Shock	Main Effect	Main coping strategies	Recovery
Influx of returnees	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures	▪ Not at all/Partially
Increase in food prices	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all/Partially
Decreases in farm gate prices	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Sold female reproductive livestock	▪ Not at all/Partially

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.1.3: Median covariate shocks per household by province in 2003

Province	Median	Province	Median	Province	Median
Badakhshan	2	Farah	4	Kunar	0
Takhar	2	Nimroz	1	Nuristan	4
Kunduz	4	Hilmand	1	Laghman	5
Baghlan	3	Kandahar	1	Kapisa	4
Samangan	7	Uruzgan	6	Kabul	3
Balkh	3	Zabul	1	Logar	2
Jawzjan	0	Ghazni	3	Wardak	2
Sari Pul	3	Paktika	3	Parwan	2
Faryab	4	Khost	3	Bamyan	3
Badghis	5	Paktya	3	Ghor	3
Hirat	4	Nangarhar	2	**Total**	**3**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.2.1: Household Idiosyncratic shocks experienced in 2003 by Province

Province	*N*	Loss of employ-ment	Salary reduction	Bankrupt	Illness or accident of working member	Death of a working member	Death of other member	Theft and/or violence
Badakhshan	*561*	10%	5%	13%	12%	5%	2%	-
Badghis	*315*	7%	1%	-	23%	2%	5%	-
Baghlan	*438*	8%	7%	3%	9%	5%	5%	1%
Balkh	*482*	15%	18%	2%	32%	7%	17%	10%
Bamyan	*182*	2%	1%	6%	7%	2%	2%	-
Farah	*311*	3%	1%	-	1%	3%	1%	-
Faryab	*454*	15%	16%	6%	30%	5%	9%	5%
Ghazni	*744*	8%	9%	-	6%	3%	3%	-
Ghor	*300*	2%	2%	2%	12%	2%	2%	-
Hilmand	*445*	2%	1%	-	18%	2%	4%	-
Hirat	*629*	10%	6%	1%	26%	2%	6%	1%
Jawzjan	*226*	-	2%	-	-	2%	1%	-
Kabul	*506*	10%	7%	2%	13%	3%	5%	-
Kandahar	*417*	4%	2%	12%	22%	1%	7%	1%
Kapisa	*187*	9%	6%	-	11%	7%	4%	1%
Khost	*348*	9%	8%	6%	15%	3%	7%	1%
Kunar	*363*	1%	-	-	-	6%	2%	1%
Kunduz	*230*	6%	2%	1%	6%	5%	4%	2%
Laghman	*210*	46%	43%	6%	33%	1%	18%	-
Logar	*249*	4%	2%	1%	3%	2%	3%	-
Nangarhar	*630*	7%	4%	-	3%	3%	5%	1%
Nimroz	*212*	7%	3%	15%	13%	4%	9%	20%
Nuristan	*168*	1%	-	-	3%	2%	17%	3%
Paktika	*507*	6%	4%	3%	12%	2%	6%	-
Paktya	*438*	6%	4%	2%	6%	4%	9%	2%
Parwan	*415*	3%	3%	-	2%	1%	1%	-
Samangan	*202*	14%	16%	5%	64%	14%	28%	15%
Sari Pul	*246*	4%	4%	1%	7%	4%	3%	1%

Province	N	Loss of employ-ment	Salary reduction	Bankrupt	Illness or accident of working member	Death of a working member	Death of other member	Theft and/or violence
Takhar	*336*	7%	10%	12%	7%	4%	3%	1%
Uruzgan	*140*	23%	12%	12%	26%	5%	2%	2%
Wardak	*324*	2%	3%	-	3%	1%	3%	-
Zabul	*203*	2%	-	-	1%	-	1%	1%
Total	*114 18*	**8%**	**6%**	**3%**	**13%**	**3%**	**6%**	**2%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 5.2.2: Household Effects of idiosyncratic shocks and coping strategies

Household Problem	Main effect	Main coping strategies	Recovery
Loss of employment	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Reduced salary	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Bankruptcy of family business	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Serious illness or accident of working household member	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all; Partially
Death of a working household member	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Death of other household member	▪ Decrease in income ▪ Loss of assets	▪ Reduced quality/quantity of diet ▪ Decreased expenditures ▪ Spent savings ▪ Loans from family/friends	▪ Not at all
Theft and/or violence	▪ Loss of assets	▪ Spent savings ▪ Loans from family/friends ▪ Sold appliances, furniture, jewelry, doors, etc.	▪ Not at all

Table 5.3.1: Main coping strategy used by households, by wealth group

Coping strategy	male			female		
	medium	poor	very poor	medium	poor	very poor
No coping strategies used	28%	1%	<1%	16%	14%	8%
Reduced quality/quantity of diet	41%	69%	68%	47%	58%	59%
Decreased expenditures	14%	18%	19%	17%	16%	20%
Increased collection and sale of natural resources	1%	3%	2%	1%	2%	2%
Spent savings or investments	9%	2%	1%	12%	3%	2%
Loans from family/friends	1%	2%	2%	1%	1%	2%
Loans from employer/money lenders/ NGOs	-	-	<1%	<1%	-	<1%
Purchased food on credit from traders	<1%	<1%	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Received help from others in the community	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sold appliances, furniture, jewelry, doors, windows, etc.	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sold income generating equipment	<1%	<1%	<1%		<1%	<1%
Rented out land	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%

Coping strategy	male			female		
	medium	poor	very poor	medium	poor	very poor
Mortgaged house or land	<1%	-	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sold female reproductive livestock	1%	1%	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sold house or land	-	-	-	<1%	-	<1%
Worked for food only	1%	2%	1%	1%	2%	3%
Worked on relief programs from Government, NGOs or INGOs	1%	1%	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Out migrated to look for work	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Joined military	-	-	-	<1%		
Increased child labor	<1%	<1%	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sent sons to work as indentured labor	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%	<1%
Sold child brides (<13 years old)	<1%	<1%	1%	<1%	<1%	<1%

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 5.3.2: Most commonly used coping strategies, by wealth group

Coping strategy	male			female		
	medium	poor	very poor	medium	poor	very poor
No coping strategy	28%	1%	1%	16%	14%	14%
Reduced quality/quantity of diet	53%	86%	84%	60%	69%	69%
Decreased expenditures	59%	84%	84%	58%	68%	68%
Loans from family/friends	32%	52%	55%	31%	44%	44%
Received help from others in community	7%	16%	34%	11%	21%	21%
Worked for food only	12%	25%	33%	18%	30%	30%
Purchased food on credit from traders	10%	20%	22%	16%	17%	17%
Increased collection and sale of natural resources	10%	27%	20%	10%	16%	16%
Sold female reproductive livestock	24%	25%	18%	25%	19%	19%
Sold child brides <13 years	2%	8%	18%	7%	11%	11%
Spent savings or investments	44%	30%	17%	53%	23%	23%
Increased child labor	4%	11%	15%	9%	16%	16%
Begging	<1%	1%	15%	<1%	2%	2%
Sent sons to work as indentured labor	2%	8%	13%	6%	14%	14%
Worked on relief from Government, NGOs or INGOs	15%	13%	12%	7%	6%	6%
Mortgaged house or land	9%	13%	7%	11%	10%	10%
Sold appliances, furniture, jewelry, doors, windows, etc.	9%	11%	6%	12%	12%	12%
Joined military	6%	6%	6%	4%	3%	3%
Sold income generating equipment	7%	6%	4%	11%	5%	5%
Sold house or land	3%	5%	4%	4%	4%	4%
Out migrated to look for work	12%	8%	4%	15%	8%	8%
Took loans from employer/money lenders/NGOs	2%	3%	3%	1%	2%	2%
Rented out land	6%	3%	2%	8%	4%	4%

Source: Male and Female wealth group data

Table 6.1.1 Past program participation in 2003 of households by Province

Province	Total responses	Food for work	Cash for work	Relief food	Other	Any program
Badakhshan	*551*	41%	17%	10%	3%	53%
Badghis	*321*	67%	9%	5%	-	74%
Baghlan	*441*	51%	45%	15%	11%	65%
Balkh	*489*	50%	30%	11%	2%	78%
Bamyan	*182*	35%	22%	16%	3%	49%
Farah	*309*	13%	-	8%	-	21%
Faryab	*429*	50%	29%	34%	14%	61%
Ghazni	*734*	10%	7%	4%	-	19%
Ghor	*300*	53%	13%	44%	3%	82%
Hilmand	*445*	27%	25%	8%	3%	49%
Hirat	*625*	43%	10%	9%	1%	56%
Jawzjan	*238*	74%	54%	47%	1%	85%
Kabul	*505*	22%	32%	16%	5%	43%
Kandahar	*414*	62%	25%	16%	1%	72%
Kapisa	*186*	6%	6%	1%	1%	12%
Khost	*345*	12%	19%	3%	2%	31%
Kunar	*366*	19%	5%	-	-	23%
Kunduz	*230*	32%	25%	7%	4%	38%
Laghman	*206*	39%	6%	3%	7%	49%
Logar	*243*	26%	28%	9%	2%	38%
Nangarhar	*637*	41%	9%	14%	2%	45%
Nimroz	*213*	63%	12%	6%	-	67%
Nuristan	*169*	37%	7%	1%	2%	41%
Paktika	*507*	5%	23%	1%	1%	26%
Paktya	*435*	3%	3%	-	-	6%
Parwan	*409*	9%	16%	3%	1%	25%
Samangan	*195*	30%	49%	20%	5%	66%
Sari Pul	*251*	45%	29%	72%	2%	86%
Takhar	*339*	29%	11%	5%	3%	38%
Uruzgan	*140*	39%	3%	9%	13%	40%
Wardak	*326*	48%	42%	1%	1%	64%
Zabul	*205*	47%	22%	19%	2%	63%
Total	***11385***	**34%**	**19%**	**13%**	**3%**	**48%**

Source: Household survey data

Table 8.4.1: Relief assistance preferences by wealth group and gender

Season	Male wealth group	Food for work	Cash for work	FFW & CFW	Other	None
Winter (n=5154)	medium	55%	27%	18%	<1%	<1%
	poor	68%	12%	19%	<1%	<1%
	very poor	69%	12%	19%	<1%	<1%
	total	**62%**	**20%**	**18%**	**<1%**	**<1%**
Spring (n=5154)	medium	42%	38%	19%	<1%	2%
	poor	53%	25%	20%	<1%	1%
	very poor	57%	23%	19%	<1%	1%
	total	**48%**	**31%**	**19%**	**<1%**	**1%**
Summer (n=5151)	medium	16%	59%	22%	<1%	3%
	poor	20%	54%	25%	<1%	1%
	very poor	29%	47%	23%	<1%	1%
	total	**19%**	**55%**	**23%**	**<1%**	**2%**
Fall (n=5146)	medium	23%	49%	26%	1%	1%
	poor	32%	38%	29%	1%	<1%
	very poor	40%	31%	28%	1%	<1%
	total	**29%**	**43%**	**27%**	**1%**	**1%**

Season	Female wealth group	Food for work	Cash for work	FFW & CFW	Other	None
Winter (n=4096)	medium	63%	24%	12%	<1%	<1%
	poor	72%	14%	14%	-	<1%
	very poor	72%	14%	14%	<1%	<1%
	total	**68%**	**19%**	**13%**	**<1%**	**<1%**
Spring (n=4096)	medium	42%	42%	16%	-	<1%
	poor	49%	33%	18%	-	<1%
	very poor	52%	33%	15%	-	<1%
	total	**46%**	**37%**	**17%**	**-**	**<1%**
Summer (n=4085)	medium	13%	64%	22%	<1%	2%
	poor	16%	55%	27%	<1%	2%
	very poor	18%	58%	23%	<1%	1%
	total	**15%**	**60%**	**24%**	**<1%**	**2%**
Fall (n=4090)	medium	24%	47%	27%	1%	1%
	poor	32%	35%	32%	<1%	<1%
	very poor	33%	36%	30%	<1%	1%
	total	**28%**	**41%**	**29%**	**1%**	**1%**

Source: Male and female wealth group data

Table 8.4.2a: Preferred relief programs by gender, season and province

Province	WINTER				SPRING			
	Cash for work	Food for work	Both CFW & FFW	None	Cash for work	Food for work	Both CFW & FFW	None
Badakhshan	29%	52%	19%	<1%	39%	46%	13%	1%
Badghis	2%	85%	14%	-	24%	60%	16%	-
Baghlan	40%	19%	41%	-	7%	38%	35%	20%
Balkh	32%	51%	17%	-	24%	57%	19%	-
Bamyan	14%	73%	13%	-	24%	63%	14%	-
Farah	6%	89%	5%	-	30%	56%	14%	-
Faryab	9%	67%	22%	2%	41%	39%	18%	1%
Ghazni	32%	41%	27%	-	43%	28%	29%	-
Ghor	4%	72%	25%	-	3%	67%	30%	-
Hilmand	26%	64%	9%	-	24%	65%	9%	-
Hirat	18%	47%	34%	-	36%	37%	27%	-
Jawzjan	12%	82%	6%	-	55%	18%	27%	-
Kabul	24%	64%	12%	-	51%	35%	14%	-
Kandahar	22%	69%	9%	-	21%	69%	10%	-
Kapisa	19%	70%	11%	-	45%	43%	13%	-
Khost	23%	67%	10%	-	42%	47%	11%	-
Kunar	6%	76%	17%	-	5%	73%	22%	-
Kunduz	3%	1%	95%	1%	3%	1%	95%	1%
Laghman	14%	83%	4%	-	15%	81%	4%	-
Logar	36%	44%	20%	-	60%	25%	15%	-
Nangarhar	10%	67%	23%	-	17%	60%	23%	-
Nimroz	29%	65%	6%	1%	20%	74%	5%	1%
Nuristan	7%	89%	4%	-	22%	75%	3%	-
Paktika	21%	67%	13%	-	24%	61%	15%	-
Paktya	36%	51%	13%	-	41%	39%	20%	-
Parwan	13%	81%	7%	-	46%	47%	8%	-
Samangan	6%	75%	19%	-	30%	58%	13%	-
Sari Pul	8%	88%	5%	-	45%	24%	24%	6%
Takhar	29%	26%	45%	-	37%	14%	40%	9%
Uruzgan	42%	45%	13%	-	45%	42%	13%	-
Wardak	30%	55%	15%	-	48%	31%	21%	-
Zabul	19%	76%	5%	-	17%	78%	5%	-
Total	**20%**	**62%**	**18%**	**<1%**	**31%**	**48%**	**19%**	**1%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Table 8.4.2b: Preferred relief programs by gender, season and province

Province	SUMMER				FALL			
	Cash for work	Food for work	Both CFW & FFW	None	Cash for work	Food for work	Both CFW & FFW	None
Badakhshan	52%	33%	15%	-	48%	39%	13%	-
Badghis	94%	4%	3%	-	76%	8%	15%	-
Baghlan	10%	1%	70%	19%	12%	12%	63%	-
Balkh	49%	6%	25%	17%	22%	15%	57%	7%
Bamyan	53%	20%	27%	-	65%	7%	28%	-
Farah	60%	21%	19%	-	29%	38%	32%	-
Faryab	57%	13%	25%	4%	42%	23%	33%	2%
Ghazni	62%	8%	30%	-	61%	8%	32%	-
Ghor	3%	63%	34%	-	3%	63%	34%	-
Hilmand	50%	43%	5%	-	51%	41%	6%	-
Hirat	60%	14%	26%	-	43%	23%	34%	-
Jawzjan	76%	1%	22%	1%	19%	50%	31%	<1%
Kabul	78%	7%	15%	-	57%	21%	22%	-
Kandahar	14%	74%	11%	-	16%	73%	11%	-
Kapisa	46%	29%	24%	-	15%	18%	67%	-
Khost	89%	6%	5%	-	73%	19%	8%	-
Kunar	51%	21%	28%	-	43%	28%	29%	-
Kunduz	5%	-	94%	1%	7%	-	92%	1%
Laghman	65%	14%	21%	-	21%	67%	12%	-
Logar	80%	4%	15%	0%	74%	10%	16%	-
Nangarhar	28%	40%	31%	-	21%	48%	30%	-
Nimroz	33%	55%	10%	1%	28%	63%	6%	1%
Nuristan	36%	42%	22%	-	6%	90%	4%	-
Paktika	77%	4%	19%	-	72%	6%	22%	-
Paktya	80%	8%	12%	-	70%	17%	13%	-
Parwan	82%	7%	11%	-	68%	20%	12%	-
Samangan	60%	14%	26%	-	45%	7%	46%	2%
Sari Pul	62%	10%	19%	8%	29%	48%	24%	-
Takhar	42%	9%	40%	10%	33%	23%	41%	-
Uruzgan	83%	-	17%	-	80%	2%	17%	-
Wardak	64%	8%	28%	-	54%	16%	30%	-
Zabul	22%	73%	5%	-	21%	74%	5%	-
Total	**55%**	**19%**	**23%**	**2%**	**43%**	**29%**	**27%**	**1%**

Source: Male wealth group data

Annex III - Dietary diversity and food security profiling tables

Table 7.4.1: Dietary diversity classification by Province

Province	Group 1*	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6
Badakhshan	31%	3%	3%	47%	8%	8%
Badghis	72%	2%	2%	20%	3%	<1%
Baghlan	40%	2%	2%	32%	3%	21%
Balkh	65%	2%	7%	21%	4%	2%
Bamyan	71%	5%	12%	7%	1%	3%
Farah	64%	-	3%	30%	3%	-
Faryab	70%	3%	3%	18%	2%	4%
Ghazni	66%	2%	7%	16%	2%	7%
Ghor	93%	1%	1%	4%	-	<1%
Hilmand	40%	4%	5%	45%	3%	3%
Hirat	90%	<1%	2%	5%	1%	1%
Jawzjan	76%	1%	4%	19%	-	-
Kabul	74%	4%	5%	12%	<1%	6%
Kandahar	53%	1%	3%	40%	2%	-
Kapisa	42%	13%	3%	29%	1%	12%
Khost	81%	6%	7%	4%	<1%	2%
Kunar	10%	77%	9%	3%	1%	1%
Kunduz	23%	1%	5%	25%	14%	31%
Laghman	83%	4%	3%	9%	-	1%
Logar	47%	5%	5%	31%	1%	9%
Nangarhar	43%	33%	8%	13%	1%	2%
Nimroz	41%	2%	7%	48%	2%	-
Nuristan	24%	68%	3%	-	5%	<1%
Paktika	60%	10%	7%	19%	2%	1%
Paktya	38%	23%	18%	13%	3%	6%
Parwan	53%	9%	8%	11%	11%	8%
Samangan	62%	<1%	-	20%	16%	1%
Sari Pul	60%	4%	4%	24%	7%	1%
Takhar	23%	3%	4%	49%	11%	10%
Uruzgan	81%	4%	4%	7%	4%	-
Wardak	59%	5%	7%	16%	2%	10%
Zabul	70%	3%	3%	24%	-	<1%
Total	**57%**	**10%**	**6%**	**21%**	**3%**	**4%**

Source: Household survey data

- **Group 1 = Poor dietary diversity in all food groups**
- **Group 2 = Medium diversity in carbohydrates, low diversity in other food groups**
- **Group 3 = High diversity in oils & fats, low / medium in other food groups**
- **Group 4 = Medium diversity in all food groups**
- **Group 5 = High diversity in animal protein sources; low / medium in other food groups**
- **Group 6 = High diversity in fruits and vegetables, low / medium in other food groups**

Table 7.4.2: Percent of households in food consumption groups by province

Province	Group 10	Group 21	Group 22	Group 31	Group 32	Group 33	Group 34	Group 41	Group 42	Group 50
Badakhshan	8%	1%	3%	7%	13%	3%	10%	21%	14%	20%
Badghis	4%	5%	<1%	17%	1%	35%	-	35%	1%	3%
Baghlan	7%	3%	4%	8%	16%	2%	14%	24%	14%	9%
Balkh	15%	9%	3%	25%	23%	1%	7%	10%	6%	1%
Bamyan	12%	12%	2%	24%	16%	9%	3%	14%	5%	2%
Farah	2%	1%	5%	20%	30%	2%	3%	25%	10%	1%
Faryab	17%	8%	3%	22%	12%	1%	8%	18%	8%	3%
Ghazni	13%	8%	6%	10%	13%	18%	13%	8%	9%	2%
Ghor	19%	23%	<1%	42%	2%	2%	1%	11%	-	<1%
Hilmand	4%	2%	5%	20%	12%	5%	10%	32%	8%	3%
Hirat	19%	21%	2%	40%	2%	7%	<1%	5%	3%	<1%
Jawzjan	11%	13%	3%	35%	24%	1%	1%	9%	4%	<1%
Kabul	16%	9%	11%	13%	10%	16%	11%	7%	8%	1%
Kandahar	5%	7%	2%	19%	22%	6%	9%	13%	16%	-
Kapisa	5%	3%	4%	8%	10%	14%	19%	11%	21%	5%
Khost	21%	22%	5%	16%	9%	15%	2%	4%	5%	<1%
Kunar	1%	2%	1%	15%	45%	2%	1%	19%	13%	1%
Kunduz	6%	<1%	6%	4%	11%	-	20%	7%	28%	18%
Laghman	2%	2%	-	44%	34%	2%	2%	13%	<1%	-
Logar	4%	4%	4%	18%	18%	12%	11%	9%	19%	3%
Nangarhar	10%	4%	10%	12%	34%	5%	8%	8%	8%	2%
Nimroz	3%	3%	3%	14%	10%	20%	11%	11%	20%	5%
Nuristan	4%	4%	2%	9%	46%	6%	3%	12%	13%	1%
Paktika	2%	3%	2%	19%	18%	19%	8%	14%	14%	1%
Paktya	4%	4%	5%	4%	19%	16%	13%	8%	23%	3%
Parwan	10%	4%	8%	10%	16%	5%	17%	11%	15%	5%
Samangan	12%	8%	4%	25%	19%	3%	6%	17%	4%	2%
Sari Pul	8%	3%	1%	34%	17%	2%	6%	12%	11%	6%
Takhar	6%	1%	3%	4%	4%	3%	4%	24%	21%	31%
Uruzgan	8%	6%	5%	23%	22%	11%	3%	15%	5%	2%
Wardak	7%	7%	3%	17%	16%	17%	10%	10%	13%	1%
Zabul	12%	<1%	10%	16%	24%	3%	14%	14%	7%	-
Total	**9%**	**7%**	**4%**	**18%**	**17%**	**9%**	**8%**	**14%**	**10%**	**4%**

Source: Household survey data

- **Group 10 = Very low kilocalorie intake**
- **Group 21 = Low kcal intake – low dietary diversity**
- **Group 22 = Low kcal intake – better dietary diversity**
- **Group 31 = Medium kcal intake – very poor dietary diversity**
- **Group 32 = Medium kcal intake – high use of oils & fats**
- **Group 33 = Medium kcal intake – good intake of dairy products**
- **Group 34 = Medium kcal intake – good dietary diversity**
- **Group 41 = High kcal intake – low dietary diversity**
- **Group 42 = High kcal intake – better dietary diversity**
- **Group 50 = Very high kilocalorie intake**