This report “Returning Home: Livelihoods and Food Security of FATA Returnees” is the result of a joint initiative by the UN World Food Programme (WFP), the UN Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the International Rescue Organization (IRC) and the Food Security Cluster, in close coordination and with the guidance of the FATA Secretariat. The main contributors to the study are Krishna Pahari, Irum Jamshed, Abdul Sattar and Khadim Shah from WFP’s Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) Unit; Stephanie Matti and Lema Khan from IRC; and Yasir Riaz from FAO. In addition, the study benefited from contributions from the Food Security Cluster members to the methodology and review of the draft report. Support from the Food Security Cluster in Peshawar, co-led by Majid Ali Shah (FAO) and Zahir Shah (WFP), was invaluable for the successful implementation of this study. Shakeela Elahi (WFP) provided gender and protection inputs. Kathrin Lauer and Elizabeth Jennings (WFP) provided editorial support. The field survey was conducted by PAIMAN Alumni Trust.

The study team gratefully acknowledges the overall guidance from the management of WFP, FAO and IRC: Lola Castro (Representative and Country Director, WFP); Peter Scott-Bowden (Deputy Country Director, WFP); Patrick Evans (Representative, FAO); Francisco Gamarro (Deputy Representative, FAO); and Adeel Khan (Country Director, IRC).

The study benefited from overall guidance and support from the FATA Secretariat. We are grateful for the support from FATA Disaster Management Authority in supporting this study, in particular by facilitating access for the field survey, and to agency administrations for supporting the field survey teams.

Finally, and most importantly, we would like to thank those returning families who generously gave their time to sit and speak with us, answering questions and sharing their impressions, without whom this report would not be possible.
Over the past several years the Government and the humanitarian community in Pakistan have made support to the displaced people from FATA their priority. At the start of 2015, as the law and order situation in FATA began to show signs of improvement, the Government designed and put in place an organized strategy for the return and rehabilitation of those displaced from FATA into Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, to their areas of origin. As of August 2015, more than 75,000 families have returned to their homes, with the further expectation that by mid-2016, all of the more than one million displaced, will have returned home.

While it is deeply gratifying to see such a marked improvement in the environment in FATA, and those displaced from their homes finally returning to them, it is equally important at this crucial stage to ensure that returning families are able to rebuild their homes and their lives, and that this process supports the return, not only to their homes, but a return to their livelihoods and sustained wellbeing. We must ensure that this process promotes productive and social well being in FATA. To that end, it is essential that the right programmes are designed based on sound analysis and a clear vision.

The study in the pages that follow was conducted jointly at the end of 2014 by the UN World Food Programme, the Food and Agricultural Organization of the UN, the International Rescue Committee and the Food Security Cluster in close coordination with the FATA Secretariat. It provides a meticulous profile of the livelihood and food security situation of families from the six FATA agencies, excluding North Waziristan, during the survey period. This document will provide the evidence base for planning the right interventions in the right way to support returning families achieve genuine recovery and establish a dignified living environment for their families.

I thank the UN World Food Programme and the other collaborating organizations for the commission of this significant study.

Shakeel Qadir Khan
Secretary, Planning & Development Department
FATA Secretariat, Peshawar, Pakistan
Foreword

Supporting Pakistan’s displaced population is a humanitarian priority, and has been for many years the most substantial part of WFP’s presence in Pakistan. Under the Government’s leadership, WFP has provided critical food assistance and relief support to more than one million people living in displacement.

Recent positive shifts in the security situation in FATA have created the space for families living in displacement to begin the significant process of returning to their homes and rebuilding their lives. Already this year we have seen -thanks to the vision and planning embodied in the FATA Secretariat’s Return and Rehabilitation Strategy -75,000 families return home, with the goal of all the one million people living in displacement returning home by the middle of 2016. This is a goal that can be achieved with the cooperation and strong partnership between the FATA authorities, WFP and partners.

The report presented here is a key element complementing an effective and integrated returns process. It provides a comprehensive profile of families who have previously returned in six FATA agencies (excluding North Waziristan), jointly conducted by WFP, FAO, IRC and the Food Security Cluster, in close coordination with the FATA Secretariat, between December 2014 and January 2015. The information shared in these pages will provide a strong and informed foundation to address and improve the real livelihood and food security needs confronting people returning from displacement, and starting them on the path to stability and improved resilience.

I applaud the FATA Secretariat for its notable role and engagement during the course of this study, and for the overall leadership and vision that it provides in this monumental return and rehabilitation process; it has been a privilege to work alongside the Government of Pakistan providing critical humanitarian and recovery support to the displaced and returning families.

I would like to extend my thanks to FAO, IRC and the Food Security Cluster for their strong partnership and cooperation in formulating conducting this study.

Lola Castro
Representative & Country Director
The United Nations World Food Programme
Islamabad, Pakistan
Contents

Context and objectives 4

Methodology and limitations 6

Return areas: overall livelihood and food security context 9

Returning households: population, displacement and return profile 16

Livelihood of returnees 19

Agriculture and livestock 21

Household income and expenditure, loans and assets 24
Contents

27  Housing, water, sanitation and health
30  Food consumption
33  Coping strategies
35  Markets
40  Gender and protection
44  Assistance and priority needs
47  Conclusions and recommendations
Executive Summary

Since 2008, instability and an uncertain security environment have had a profound effect on the people from the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) in Pakistan’s northwest resulting in large scale population displacement. As of December 2014, more than 1.5 million people displaced from FATA were living in Peshawar and nearby districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, the neighboring province. The displacement that has occurred over the last several years has from time to time occurred in parallel to population movement back to the areas of origin in FATA. A sound understanding of the livelihood and food security of these already returned populations is of immense value for an evidence-based programmatic decision in support of returnee populations’ ability to pursue a sustainable pathway to stability and prosperity in their places of origin.

This study, which was jointly conducted by WFP, FAO and IRC, with input from the Food Security Cluster and support from FDMA, provides a comprehensive profile of livelihood and food security in FATA, and is deepened by findings from existing returnee populations collected during field surveys in six agencies – Bajaur, Khyber, Kurram, Mohmand, Orakzai and South Waziristan - in December 2014 to January 2015. The field surveys included interviews with 1,931 households, 39 key informants, 78 traders, and focus group discussions in 35 previously returned communities.

On average, surveyed families had lived in displacement for 1.7 years, and had resided in the homes where they were during this survey for an average of three years after their return from displacement.

Despite the significant length of time that many surveyed families had spent back in their areas of origin after returning, the study revealed a high level of concern for the general state of livelihood and food security among these households.
Major findings include the following:

- About 60 percent of households own agricultural land and 86 percent of them reported cultivating their land. However, productivity is very low with annual production sufficient for only 3.5 months on average. Thus, households still require other sources of income and need to depend on local markets for most of their food needs. Agricultural production and livestock ownership is significantly lower than prior to displacement.

- Households largely depend on unstable and variable sources of income such as non-agricultural, unskilled daily labour, which don’t support resilience and leaves them vulnerable. Income from stable sources such as selling agricultural produce and livestock has reduced significantly compared to pre-displacement.

- Ownership of domestic and productive assets decreased significantly in the period between displacement and return; mean monthly expenditures are higher than income; and almost half of all households surveyed took on loans: 62 percent reported the need to meet household food needs as the main reason for taking a loan.

- Almost 90 percent of returnees are living in kacha houses, 52 percent are consuming unsafe drinking water, and less than a tenth are using any water purification system. Sanitation is a serious concern with 56 percent of men and 12 percent of women practicing open defecation.

- Returnee populations are vulnerable to food insecurity. Overall, 28 percent of households have acceptable food consumption, 18 percent have poor consumption, while a majority (54 percent) have borderline consumption. 44 percent of households suffer from a caloric consumption deficit, considering a minimum daily requirement of 2,100 Kcal per person. The quality of diet consumed is very poor with 52 percent of their total energy derived from wheat, and 63 percent from 3 staple cereals. 30 percent of households were relying on a consumption-based coping strategy and 45 percent on livelihood-based coping strategies to meet their food needs.

- In spite of the remoteness, the main markets were functioning fairly well and food is generally available in most markets, and accessible for people with adequate purchasing power.

- Among the major assistance received, about 94 percent of households received food assistance after their return, 41 percent received non-food items (NFIs), 40 percent had access to food for work programmes, 10 percent to cash for work programmes, and 18 percent received seed and fertilizer support to help restore agricultural livelihoods. The respondents believe the support provided was useful but inadequate.

- The worst food insecurity among the six agencies was found in Kurram and Khyber agencies with larger numbers of recent returnees who had arrived on average 1.1 and 1.6 years ago, respectively. By comparison, returnees in Bajaur and Mohmand, who returned more than 4 years ago, are relatively better off. Those in South Waziristan and Orakzai who returned on average between 3 and 4 years ago, fall somewhere in the middle in terms of food insecurity.

- Gender differences across socioeconomic situations, livelihoods and food security were clear from the analysis used in the study. Overall, 6 percent of the households were female headed. There was a large difference in education level between men and women, only one third of the heads of households had any education, while among female headed households this figure was only 15 percent, compared to 36 percent for males. 10 percent of females were without CNICs, but only 3.8% of males. Female headed households had worse food security indicators in terms of food consumption scores and caloric intake, and thus a higher proportion of these households had to resort to multiple and negative coping strategies. While there was general agreement that school feeding had no negative impact on women, significant protection concerns were raised during focus group discussions and key informant interviews regarding the need for women-only interventions, particularly in the areas of agriculture and asset creation activities.

- Food assistance, cash grants and support for housing were identified as the most important immediate needs for households. In the
medium to long term, cash grants, food assistance and employment were the most important needs, followed by agriculture and livestock support.

Key recommendations based on priority needs identified by households, communities, and analysis of the livelihood and food security situation, include the following:

1. Returnee populations are vulnerable to food insecurity and this is closely linked to livelihood. Hence food assistance, either through food-for-work or cash-for-work modalities, would be an important means to enhance their food security as well as to create durable assets and improve livelihoods.

2. Support to agriculture and livestock is key to helping households enhance their food production. Agricultural support should include provision of agricultural inputs (quality seeds and fertilizers, improvement of irrigation infrastructure and agricultural tools). Livestock support should include shelter, medication, fodder/feed and water for animals.

3. Given that 60 percent of the population relies on agriculture as a source of livelihood, it is important to prioritize the revival and improvement of the agriculture sector in order to provide contextually appropriate support to livelihoods and food security.

4. Programmes to generate non-farm employment/livelihoods should also be implemented.

5. Support to rebuild houses is essential since most families are living in kacha houses.

6. Given the poor state of water and sanitation, programmes to improve access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation are crucial to enhance overall hygiene conditions and food utilization.

7. Improving health facilities and rehabilitating community infrastructure should be priorities for improving the overall living environment and creating access to services.

8. Given the poor state of education, it is important to have programmes to enhance education and awareness, particularly for women and girls. School feeding programmes, including education of adolescent girls are important.

9. Returnees in Kurram and Khyber agencies require more immediate assistance to improve their food security, followed by South Waziristan and Orakzai. Long term development programmes would be more appropriate for returnees in Bajaur and Mohmand.

10. In FATA’s context, gender and protection concerns should be incorporated during the design of any community level interventions.
1. Context and Objectives

1.1 Context

The Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) is a semi-autonomous tribal region in northwestern Pakistan. FATA borders Afghanistan as well as Pakistan’s Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan provinces. The area is comprised of seven tribal agencies and six frontier regions (FRs), and is governed by Pakistan’s federal government through a set of laws called the Frontier Crimes Regulations (FCR).

In response to the surge of militancy and sectarian violence in 2008, the military began a broad offensive in FATA resulting in the displacement of over 550,000 residents from the area of operation. This led to major population displacements with serious implications for the communities involved, security and humanitarian access. Some of them returned in subsequent years, concurrently with new displacement in neighboring communities and agencies with the start of new law and order operations. This phenomenon of alternating and concurrent displacement and returns has continued to the present day. Response and recovery are hampered by the volatility in the region where now more than one and half million people are displaced and living in host communities of camps.

A joint government-humanitarian process in the areas of displacement registered the displaced persons based on a) their possession of a computerized national ID card (CNIC), and b) their area of origin status as ‘conflict affected’, as per the Government of Pakistan’s notification process. Most of the humanitarian assistance and all governmental assistance has been delivered on the basis of this registration. Once the area of origin is de-notified, the returnees receive food assistance for 6 months upon return to their area of origin (3 months, if returned after a short displacement) to support initial resettlement. It is estimated that over 2 million people have
returned to their areas of origin in the past few years. There is very limited information available on the post-return situation of families in the areas of return, except for the number of families that have returned and received assistance.

With the aim of acquiring a better understanding of the situation that families face after returning to their areas of origin, the humanitarian community set out to understand the particular dynamics and vulnerabilities of the displaced and returnee populations in order to create informed assistance programming along the spectrum from humanitarian assistance to rehabilitation and recovery\(^1\).

Supporting the displaced and returning populations is one of the largest and most important parts of WFP’s operations in Pakistan. In this context, WFP, FAO, IRC and the Food Security Cluster set out jointly to develop a coherent and informed approach to assisting returnee households achieve sustained recovery of their livelihoods and food security. What resulted is a comprehensive, elucidating report on the livelihood and food security of returnees in six FATA agencies —Bajaur, Khyber, Kurram, Mohmand, Orakzai and South Waziristan—which will lay the foundation for appropriate and necessary planning and support.

### 1.2 Objectives of the study

The overall objective of this study is to provide an evidence base for informed programming to support and re-establish the livelihood and food security of returnee populations with the following specific objectives:

1. profile the overall livelihood and food security situation in the areas of return;
2. assess the food security status and coping mechanisms at the household level;
3. Identify priority needs and make suitable programme recommendations.

---

\(^1\) This is especially significant in 2015 and 2016, when all the displaced families are expected to return, as per the Government plan.
2. Methodology and Limitations

2.1 Method

The methodology of this study drew on four combined tools, conducted in multiple locations: household interviews (HHI), key informant interviews (KII), focus group discussions (FGDs) and market assessments. In spite of limited access to several locations inside FATA, the study team was able to effectively conduct the field survey in most areas, producing sufficient data to provide salient insights on the food security and livelihood situation.

The field survey was conducted by PAIMAN alumni trust; a total of 36 enumerators (31 males and 5 females) and six supervisors (all male) made up the field survey team. The findings from the household survey were complemented with the findings from the KIIs and FGDs.

2.1.1 Household survey

The sampling frame included returnee populations in all accessible tehsils in the surveyed six agencies. 15 tehsils were selected for the survey according to population proportional to size (PPS) sampling approach. Then 300 households were selected from each agency, using a 30x10 cluster design for the sample size. Ten households were randomly selected for the interview from each of these clusters. A tehsil could also have more than one cluster depending on the sample drawn, per PPS. Thus, the sample size of at least 300 households was able to produce results with a 95 percent confidence interval that allowed a degree of generalization to the wider, agency level population. An additional 20 households per agency were sampled as substitutes in cases of ‘no response’. Altogether, a total of 1,931 households were interviewed during the survey as shown in Figure 2.1.
### Table 2.1: Areas and number of households included in the survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Agency</th>
<th>Tehsils included</th>
<th>No. of households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bajaur</td>
<td>Khar, Loi Mahmund, Wara Mahmund, Nawagai, Salarzai</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber</td>
<td>Bara</td>
<td>405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurram</td>
<td>Central Kurram (Para chamkani, Ali Sherzai)</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohmand</td>
<td>Haleemzai, Pindiali, Safi</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orakzai</td>
<td>Central Orakzai, Lower Orakzai</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Waziristan</td>
<td>Sararogha, Serwakai,</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2.1.2 Key informant interviews

The aim of the KIIIs was to gather insights into the current sources of food and income, livelihood options and coping strategies of the community represented by the key informants. Two key informants were identified in each of the 15 tehsils where household surveys were conducted. The key informants included head of communities or community leaders, teachers, shopkeepers, religious leaders etc. A total of 30 KIIIs was conducted.

#### 2.1.3 Focus group discussions

The prevailing situation in the FATA agencies limited opportunities for large group gatherings in order to conduct FGDs. Thus, two FGDs per tehsil were held at locations that took into account the local security situation in each tehsil. A group of 8-12 returnees were involved in each FGD.

#### 2.1.4 Market assessment

Depending on the size of the market, two to three main markets were surveyed in each agency. Five traders (two wholesalers and three retailers) were randomly selected and interviewed in each market. In markets where two wholesalers could not be found, four or even five interviews were conducted with the retailers. In addition, a small checklist was completed for each market providing information on the overall market situation. A total of 78 traders were interviewed, which included 49 retailers and 29 wholesalers.
2.2 Limitations of the study

1. Security and access were constraints to collecting information in FATA. In some areas, there was no mobile coverage, while some areas had movement restrictions due to ongoing law and order operations.

2. Some returnees were not comfortable giving interviews. Limited or no assistance linked to most of the surveys made some families unenthusiastic to answer questions. In some areas due to prevailing cultural traditions, even female enumerators were not allowed to interview female respondents.

3. Monitoring the data collection process directly or through third party monitors was a challenge due to security and access issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Wholesaler</th>
<th>Retailer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bajaur</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurram</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohmand</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orakzai</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Waziristan</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Areas of Return: Livelihoods and Food Security Context

3.1 Demographics

The Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) is the most rural administrative unit in Pakistan, and home to a population of about 4.5 million. The average household size is reported to be 9.3 for FATA\(^1\). Table 3.1 shows key statistical abstract on population in FATA.

### Table 3.1: Key socioeconomic statistics of FATA\(^2\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>FATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area (sq.km)</td>
<td>27,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projected population 2013 – 14 (,000 person)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2,327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2,147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per capita GDP</td>
<td>USD 663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main language:</td>
<td>Pashtu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density (persons per sq.km)</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Livelihoods and income

Despite being home to 2.4 percent of Pakistan’s population, FATA makes up only 1.5 percent of Pakistan’s economy. The economy of the area is chiefly pastoral, with some agriculture practiced in the region’s few fertile valleys. The area has commercially viable reserves of marble, copper, limestone and coal; there is high potential from these natural resources but much of it goes unexploited.

The economy of FATA is one of the most underdeveloped in the country. Most people in FATA have no permanent source of income; some are practicing subsistence agriculture and raising livestock, while others have small businesses like shops. With very few industries available in FATA, many seek...
employment as short-term unskilled laborers in local security and military forces. A large number of people rely on unskilled labor. A considerable number travel to big cities inside Pakistan as well as overseas (Middle East) for their livelihoods. Many of the more qualified men from FATA have migrated permanently, along with their families, to urban centers outside the tribal areas, including Bannu, Dera Ismail Khan and Peshawar, in neighboring KP province.

As per the findings of a recent household survey⁴, among the provinces and regions of Pakistan, FATA has the highest proportion of households in the poorest wealth quintile, and almost 80 percent of households in the poorest quintile rely on one of two livelihood strategies-farming and wage labor (43.2 percent and 35 percent, respectively).

### 3.3 Agriculture, livestock and food production

Local food production in FATA is far from adequate to meet the needs of the population. The total area of FATA is 2.72 million hectares, out of which, only 14 percent is arable land⁵ with 37 percent cultivable waste⁶.

Wheat is the main staple and most important cereal crop in FATA, followed by maize. Barley and rice are also grown in small quantities. Cultivation of sugar cane is also significant. The total area under crop and total production have reduced significantly since the onset of the complex emergency in 2008 (Table 3.2 and Figure 3.1).

As shown in Figure 3.1, although a slight decreasing trend was seen in crop production - with minor fluctuations in the 1998-2004 period - data suggest a significant overall decline in the area under cultivation and in production after the insurgency and resulting complex emergency. For example, wheat production in 2013-14 was estimated at 111,657 tons, which is 25 percent less than the quantity produced in 2006-07 (148,690 tons).

### Table 3.2: Key Statistics on Agriculture and Livestock in FATA⁷

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>FATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Land utilization (million hectares)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivable area</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cropped area</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un-cultivable area</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigated area</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Crop production 2013 – 14 (000 tons)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>111.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jowar</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar cane</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Livestock 2013 – 14 (in million)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td>1.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffaloes</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goats</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

⁴ Survey conducted as part of Food Security Analysis – 2013 by WFP, SDPI, FAO and UNICEF in October, 2013
⁵ Agriculture Census report 2000, Agriculture Census Organization of Pakistan; Directorate of Agriculture (extension) FATA, Peshawar; Pakistan economic survey, 2013 – 14; Directorate of Livestock and Dairy Development FATA; Development Statistics of KP 2014
⁶ Arable land is the land capable for producing crops and includes land under temporary agriculture crops, temporary meadows and kitchen gardens/markets etc, i.e. Total land minus land not available for cultivation minus forest land
⁷ Land which is otherwise fit for cultivation but not cultivated due to any constraint during last two years
3.4 Market

Compared to the rest of the country, markets in FATA are less integrated due to relatively poor infrastructure and the prevailing security situation. Cross border trading is also a major source of livelihood to the people of FATA which operates on an informal basis and is not documented. Households are dependent on markets for selling and/or purchasing food, livestock, agricultural inputs, labor and essential non-food items, and the prices they pay for commodities are governed by their purchasing capacity and supply. The prevailing law and order situation has had an adverse impact on the functioning of the markets. However, in spite of some constraints, availability of food in the main markets is not a significant problem for those with adequate purchasing capacity.

3.5 Food security and nutrition situation

FATA has the highest proportion of food energy deficient households in the country, which is reflected in very high stunting rates (57.6 percent) for children under 2 years of age. The high prevalence of stunting is associated with low agricultural production, lack of employment opportunities, refugees, availability of food in markets is below average, women’s education is very poor, high debt, poor health facilities, among other factors. The table below provides a summary of the food security overview in FATA.

![Figure 3.1: Trend of major crop production (MT) in FATA](image)

## Table 3.3: Food security overview in FATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Calorie deficient population</td>
<td>72.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean household expenditure on food</td>
<td>9,222 PKR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food consumption categories</td>
<td>Acceptable (38.4%), borderline (58.6%), poor (3.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stunting</td>
<td>57.6% of under-fives are stunted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key underlying causes</td>
<td>Law and order situation, low agricultural production, lack of employment opportunities, refugees, availability of food in markets is below average, women’s education is very poor, high debt, poor health facilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

8 Food Security in Pakistan – 2013, conducted by WFP and SDPI in collaboration with FAO and UNICEF provides a comprehensive profile of food security across Pakistan, with results of key food security indicators by province and divisions the National Nutrition Survey (NNS 2011) by Ministry of Planning and Development, UNICEF and Agha Khan University shows the nutrition situation by province/region.
five years of age. As per the FSA survey in 2013\(^5\), some 40.5 percent reportedly had problems meeting basic food needs in the month prior to the survey and 66 percent of the households were in debt, primarily due to borrowing money to meet food needs. FATA has the highest number of districts (FATA agencies) with extremely poor access to drinking water and sanitation. Immunization coverage of children is very poor (23 percent vs 53 percent of the national average). 72.2 percent of households are energy deficient and 57.6 percent of under-fives are stunted\(^7\). FATA is not self-sufficient in terms of food production and depends highly on food purchases from KP and Punjab to meet the areas basic food needs.

### 3.6 Food security situation as reflected in IPC maps

The analysis of maps from four rounds of integrated food security phase classification (IPC)\(^10\) since 2012 shows a consistently poor food security situation in FATA. The latest IPC map from November 2014 (Figure 3.2) shows Khyber, Orakzai, North Waziristan and South Waziristan in Phase IV (emergency), while Kurram and Mohmand are in Phase III (crisis), and Bajaur is in Phase II (stressed).

### 3.7 Shocks and coping strategies

The people of FATA have experienced many shocks, particularly due to insecurity (over 40 percent) followed by price hikes (over 10 percent)\(^5\). Poorer households are particularly stressed by such shocks. Families vulnerable to food insecurity use a variety of negative coping mechanisms including limiting food intake, eating less nutritious/less desirable food, borrowing money/relying on debt, and in the most severe cases, selling productive assets to be able to feed their families, further decreasing resilience to future shocks.

### 3.8 Education

FATA has a very poor education situation, and the education sector has been badly affected by insecurity. Overall literacy rate is 33.3 percent (male: 49.7 percent and

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\(^5\) IPC is a system of classifying magnitude and severity of food security based on agreed indicators and thresholds, and consensus of related stakeholders. IPC in Pakistan was introduced in 2012 by FAO and WFP, and the analysis of food security phases is done by stakeholders including government officials, and representatives from UN agencies, NGO and academia. So far, four rounds of such classification for acute food insecurity have been considered: March 2012, September 2012, April-May 2013, and October 2013.

\(^7\) Directorate of education, FATA; Pakistan economy survey, 2013 – 14; PSLM 2012 – 13, Fata Development Indicators Household Survey 2013 -14.
female: 12.7 percent) which is below the national rate of 60 percent (male: 71 percent and female: 48 percent). Table 3.4 shows key educational statistics for FATA.

3.9 Water and sanitation

According to FSA 2013, approximately 62 percent of the households in FATA are using ‘safe’ sources of drinking water (piped water, tube well/borehole, protected well/spring, hand pump and tanker water). FATA has the highest number of districts (agencies) with extremely poor access to safe drinking water and sanitation. In FATA more than half (54.7%) of the men practice open defecation.

3.10 Health services

Not surprisingly, the law and order situation in FATA impacts the psychosocial lives of people as well as their health status more generally, yet there is very little commensurate health infrastructure to support the population: there is one doctor for every 6,630 people compared to one doctor per every 1,099 people on average in the rest of the country. The number of people per hospital bed in FATA is 2,574 compared to 1,647 in the rest

### Table 3.4: Educational institutions in FATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational institutions 2013 – 14 (in numbers)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary schools: Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3525</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td><strong>2015</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td><strong>1510</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle schools: Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>445</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td><strong>279</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td><strong>166</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>High schools: Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>291</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td><strong>227</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td><strong>64</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Degree colleges: Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.5: Health facilities in FATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>FATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispensaries</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural health centers</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternity and child health centers</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors</td>
<td>675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lady health visitors</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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11 Development statistics of FATA - 2014, Bureau of Statistics, planning and development department FATA; poor education situation in FATA is also clear from the Pakistan Education Atlas 2015 produced by AEPAM (Ministry of Education), WFP, UNESCO and UNICEF.
12 Directorate of Health Services FATA, Peshawar; Pakistan Economy Survey, 2013 – 14; Development Statistics KP 2014
13 Directorate of Health Services FATA; Population census Organization Government of Pakistan
14 Directorate of Health Services FATA; Population census Organization Government of Pakistan
of the country. Table 3.5 shows key statistics on health facilities in FATA.

3.11 Gender and protection

As with many other aspects of life in FATA, the effects of persistent law and order situation has had an equally adverse effect on its public infrastructure, including schools, and particularly girls’ schools. Although, with respect to public assets, empirical studies indicate that ordinary people’s access to schools and medical institutions was limited even before the current complex environment. The cultural impact on gender and protection issues is very strong with limited opportunity for women’s advancement: women are primarily responsible for managing the household, collecting firewood, fetching water and raising livestock. They are also traditionally limited in their mobility in the public sphere, which affects their ability to access services and livelihood opportunities.

3.12 Displacement and returns

As of 31 May 2015, there were 269,773 families still in displacement, while 27,148 families have already returned this year. The average family size reported for temporarily displaced families (TDPs) families in displacement is 6, determined during an inter-sector 2013 assessment.

There have been complex set of displacement and return dynamics between FATA’s agencies and the districts of neighboring Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Figure 3.3 shows the overall trend and shifts in movement between displacement and returns since 2009 until early 2015. It is estimated that among this population, approximately 60 percent come from FATA. A schematic historical timeline of displacements and returns to FATA is provided in Figure 3.4.

3.13 Assistance

The humanitarian response in 2015 aims to assist an estimated total of 4.1 million people: TDPs, returnees, hosting families and communities, undernourished pregnant and lactating women (PLW), and undernourished children aged 6 to 59 months.

Considerable progress has been made in 2015 in the return process, with more than 75,000 families having returned to FATA as of August 2015; thus assisting the returning populations becoming an important priority.
Figure 3.4 Historical timeline of displacement from and returns to FATA

**2009**
- Over 20 humanitarian hubs established for the first time.

**2010**
- After the operation in FATA agencies, massive displacement of about 260,000 families from Bajaur, Mohmand, South Waziristan and FR Tank took place.
- About 80% of the TDP families displaced from Bajaur and Mohmand returned in 2010.
- Very few (5%—10%) TDP families returned to Orakzai and South Waziristan.

**2011**
- About 3000 families displaced from Khyber and registered in camps (Jalozai, Nowhsera)

**2012**
- The major displacement of 70,000 IDP families was reported from Orakzai and Kurum Agency in 2010.

**2013**
- Return to Khyber (Tirrah valley), Kurum (Para Chamkani tribe) started. Around 10% of families earlier displaced from Orakzai and South Waziristan returned.
- About 80,000 families displaced from Khyber and registered as off-camp in Peshawar.
- Also, displacement from Kurum (Para Chamkani tribe) of around 10,600 families

**2014**
- Most of the families displaced from Khyber (Tirrah valley) returned.
- Around 10,000 among the families displaced from Kurum agency (SholzanTangi tribe) were also returned.
- 17,000 families from Khyber (Tirrah valley) displaced in the beginning of 2013.

**2015**
- After the operations began in June, massive displacement from North Waziristan Agency.
- 100,000 families registered between June-August. 17,000 families from Khyber registered in end of 2014
- 38,772 families returned to Khyber (Bara), South Waziristan and North Waziristan as of June, 2015
- About 80,772 families returned to Khyber (Bara), South Waziristan and North Waziristan as of June, 2015

**2009 — 2015**

38,772 families returned to Khyber (Bara), South Waziristan and North Waziristan as of June, 2015

Most of the families displaced from Khyber (Tirrah valley) returned.

Around 10,000 among the families displaced from Kurum agency (SholzanTangi tribe) were also returned.

Return to Khyber (Tirrah valley), Kurum (Para Chamkani tribe) started. Around 10% of families earlier displaced from Orakzai and South Waziristan returned.

Remainin 20% TDP families from Bajaur and Mohmand returned.

About 80% of the TDP families displaced from Bajaur and Mohmand returned in 2010.

Very few (5%—10%) TDP families returned to Orakzai and South Waziristan.

The major displacement of 70,000 IDP families was reported from Orakzai and Kurum Agency in 2010.

After the operation in FATA agencies, massive displacement of about 260,000 families from Bajaur, Mohmand, South Waziristan and FR Tank took place.

Over 20 humanitarian hubs established for the first time.
4. Returnee Households: Population, Displacement and Return Profile

4.1 Demographics

Similar to findings from other FATA studies, the average returnee household size was found to be high at 12.6, while the average nuclear family size is 6.5\textsuperscript{15}; indicating that an average returnee household consists of two nuclear families. Among the households surveyed, 6 percent were female-headed, and 7 percent of the individuals above 18 were found to be without legal documentation/CNIC (computerised national identification card). The key demographic indicators are shown in Table 4.1.

4.2 Education

Overall, education attainment was found very low. About two-thirds (66 percent) of the heads of households reportedly did not have any education, 22 percent had up to primary education, 6 percent had up to middle level and only 3 percent reported to have intermediate and graduate level education(Table 4.2).

This situation is particularly bleak for females—in female headed households, 6 percent were female-headed, and 7 percent of the individuals above 18 were found to be without legal documentation/CNIC (computerised national identification card). The key demographic indicators are shown in Table 4.1.

\textsuperscript{15} An assessment conducted jointly by UN OCHA, WFP, UNHCR, IVAP and PDMA in January 2013, concluded that the average size of a nuclear family in the area of displacement was 6.0.
85 percent of household heads did not have any education, while 11.7 percent had primary education, and only 3 percent had education above primary level.

The situation was relatively better for primary age schoolchildren (5-9 years), but even in that age group, 30.8 percent of girls were reportedly not attending school, while for boys in the same age group, the figure was 12.7 percent. Khyber has the highest proportion of children (girls: 58%, boys: 34%) not attending school, while South Waziristan has the lowest (girls: 13%, boys: 4%). Taken in the context of FATA, the proportion of girls going to primary school was found to be quite significant (68 percent attending school), an indication of improvement attributable to WFP’s school feeding programme.

### Table 4.2: Key education indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education of the head of household</th>
<th>Male headed HH</th>
<th>Female headed HH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None (64.5%), primary 22.4%, high school (6.6%), college or higher (6.6%)</td>
<td>None (85%), primary (11.7%), high school (2.2%), college or higher (0.8%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Children of primary school age (5-9) not attending school | Boys: 12.7%, girls: 30.8% |

The foremost reason of not attending school was reportedly because of the damage to schools followed by schools being far away and the inability to afford transportation charges, perception that the child is too young, the school/teaching quality poor, etc (Figure 4.1). Besides, one important reason for girls not attending school is unavailability of female teachers in the schools. This is the primary reason reported in South Waziristan. Findings from the focus group discussions indicated that on average, it takes 22 minutes for children to reach their primary school and almost all of them walk on foot to reach the school.

### 4.3 Displacement and return timeline

Displacement began on a notable scale in 2008 and has continued until the present (2015). Among the families surveyed, the largest proportion (42 percent) was displaced in 2009, followed by 2008 (25 percent) and 2013 (16 percent). In returns, the highest proportion of returns, in this case, 26 percent of surveyed families, was reported in 2010, followed by 2013 (22 percent), and 2011 (21 percent).

Looking at displacement and return by agency, displacements from Bajaur took place mostly in 2008, from South Waziristan and Orakzai in 2009, from Mohmand in 2008 and 2009, from Kurram in 2013, and from Khyber in 2012 and 2013 (Figure 4.2).

Compared to displacement, the return trend appears to be spread out over relatively more years. Most significant (42%) of returns in Bajaur were in 2011, for Khyber in 2013, for Kurram in 2013 and 2014, for Mohmand and Orazkai in 2010, and for South Waziristan in 2011 (Figure 4.3).

The average duration of displacement was 1.7 years; the longest average duration in displacement was recorded for families from South Waziristan at 2.4 years, and the shortest duration was recorded among those from Khyber and Mohmand at 1.1 years (Figure 4.3). The households covered by the survey were found to have lived in their current residence (in the areas of origin/return) for an average of three years. The average duration of stay post-return varied from 1 year for Kurram to 4.7 years for Mohmand (Figure 4.4).
Figure 4.2: Displacement pattern for different agencies by years

Figure 4.3: Return pattern for different agencies by years

Figure 4.4: Average duration of displacement and time since return to area of origin in years.
Prolonged displacement has had a major impact on the livelihood and wellbeing of the population. Agriculture is the major source of livelihood for the population in FATA. Among the returnee populations, 60 percent of the households reported owning agricultural land, and 86 percent of those reported cultivating their land. However, households are practicing mainly subsistence agriculture, which is insufficient for most to meet their own food needs.

There has been a significant shift in the main sources of income as families adapt their livelihoods to this shifting and largely unstable dynamic. In the post-return environment observed in the survey, wage labour was recorded as the most important source of income, with 48 percent of surveyed households dependent on several forms of wage labour: non-agriculture wage labour for 29 percent of households, day labour in agriculture for 11 percent, and skilled non-agriculture wage labour for 8 percent of households. 13 percent of the households have regular salaried income while another 13 percent depend on remittances (8 percent on foreign remittances and 5 percent on domestic) as their main source of income. 11 percent of them have their own business or trade, and only 7 percent of households produce income from the sale of agriculture or livestock products.

Analysis of the change in sources of livelihood indicates that during their period of displacement, living away from the stability of their homes and very often away from their productive assets, families had to depend overwhelmingly on support from the Government and the UN, and unstable sources of income such as casual labour and taking on loans. After their return, while households slowly shifted back towards farming and own businesses and trade, there is still a great deal of dependence on support from the Government and the UN.
Figure 5.1: Main sources of income of the surveyed households

wage labour and remittances, while more traditional sources of livelihood take more time to recover (Figure 5.1).

Focus group discussions held in the communities revealed that agriculture-based income sources like selling agriculture or livestock products and day labour in agriculture were negatively impacted compared to the pre-displacement situation.
6. Agriculture and Livestock

As with other aspects of life in FATA, the complex humanitarian situation has exacerbated the food insecurity and livelihood situation. The agriculture and livestock sectors have borne the greatest impact in this fragile environment: agriculture activities have been curtailed and livestock ownership is significantly reduced due to losses and distress selling.

6.1 Agriculture

60 percent of respondents reported owning agricultural land and of that group, 86 percent reported cultivating their land. However, among the available sources of livelihood, non-farm daily labour was reported as the most important source of income by 37 percent of households (29.3 percent unskilled labour and 7 percent skilled). It shows the subsistence nature of agriculture, which is hardly adequate to meet food needs at the household level.

In the course of displacement and return, households have lost their livelihood sources. Income from selling livestock products and crop production have reduced significantly in the post-return period, compared to levels of income from the sale of the same agriculture-based products prior to displacement. The average plots of land cultivated during rabi season reduced from 10 kanals prior to displacement to 8 kanals after, as well as during kharif season, decreasing from 8 kanals before to 7 kanals after.

Among the different agencies, Kurram had the highest proportion (90 percent) of households owning land, while it was the lowest (40 percent) in Bajaur.

Almost 70 percent of the households reported depending on rain fed farming (without irrigation), while only 8 percent reported using canal irrigation. The distribution of irrigation use is shown in Figure 6.1.
When asked about the major constraints in agriculture, 58 percent of the respondents reported the unavailability of agricultural inputs as the primary obstacle, followed by damaged irrigation structures (27 percent), and unavailability of land (9 percent), shown in Figure 6.2.

6.2 Livestock

A significant loss of livestock was observed as a result of displacement. While some livestock was sold during displacement, a significant proportion was lost in the process. The returnee populations that were part of the survey reported making efforts to restore their livestock after returning home, however, the livestock population was much smaller compared with before displacement (Figure 6.3).

80 percent of surveyed households did report keeping livestock, but the average number of livestock in most categories notably decreased in the period between pre and post displacement. The number of large ruminants owned by returnee households was 0.7 compared to 2.3 before displacement. The same trend was seen with small ruminants, households owned an average of 1.7 after returning compared to 5.6 before displacement; ownership of equines decreased from 0.7 before to 0.4 after; as well as with poultry, decreasing from 8.2 before, to 3.2 after. Focus group discussions revealed that the number of households owning livestock reduced most significantly...
in South Waziristan, where only one third of the households who had previously owned livestock, still reported owning some kind of livestock after returning home.

When asked about the availability of livestock items, lack of medication was significant—only 10 percent of the households reported having adequate availability to medication, while 36 percent said it is available but not in sufficient quantities to meet needs; 53 percent said it is not available at all. Similarly, a lack of shelter, fodder and water for animals was also reported; shown in Figure 6.4.

### Figure 6.4: Availability of livestock items as reported by households

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Deficient</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shelter for animals</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water for animals</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medication</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fodder/feed</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall**

South Waziristan: 1.63
Kurram: 3
Orakzai: 3.34
Khyber: 4.38
Bajaur: 4.82
Mohammad: 6.74

**Figure 6.5: Average number of months own production is sufficient for the household**

6.3 Sufficiency of household production

As discussed in the above section, 60 percent of households reported owning agricultural land and 86 percent of them were cultivating that land. However, most households are net deficit farmers meaning that production is not sufficient to meet the food consumption needs of the family and thus they must depend on markets for most of their food needs.

Overall, among the households engaged in agriculture, own production is sufficient to meet the needs of the household for 3.5 months on average. This figure is highest in Mohmand at 6.7 months, and lowest in South Waziristan at 1.6 months.
7. Household Income and Expenditure, Loans and Assets

7.1 Monthly income and expenditure

The average monthly income reported by returnee households is PKR 22,055, which is highest in Kurram (PKR 26,485) and lowest in Khyber (PKR 17,159), as shown in Figure 7.1. The average income varied from PKR 8,617 among the poorest quintile to PKR 43,992 for the richest quintile. Overall households reported that mean monthly expenditure (PKR 24,790) is higher than their income by more than two thousand rupees.

Food makes up the major share (47 percent) of monthly household expenditure followed by health (14 percent), agriculture and livestock inputs (7 percent) and housing repairs (6 percent). This is in spite of the fact that many of these households were receiving food assistance at the time of the survey.

Figure 7.1: Mean monthly income and expenditure reported by households
7.2 Women’s income

It is common for women and children to contribute to livelihoods in agrarian rural economies. However, these are not properly reported in economic analyses in general. In this survey, it was found that only 3.3\(^{16}\) percent of households reported having a woman engaged in income earning activities to support the household, which is marginally less than the 3.7 percent prior to displacement. However, slightly more children (1.7 percent) are now reported engaged in earning activities compared to their pre-displacement situation (1.3 percent). The main income generating activities of women are handicrafts and selling livestock products.

7.3 Household loan

Almost half (48.7 percent) of the respondents reported taking loans to meet their basic needs as shown in Figure 7.2. This proportion is highest in Kurram where 86 percent of respondents reported taking loans, while in other agencies it is in the range of 26 percent to 56 percent. The main reasons for taking loans are to meet household food needs (62.2 percent); followed by medical expenses for 13 percent of the households.

It is understood that in FATA the majority of all loans come from informal sources, rather than from the formal banking sector. Use of banks is very rare in these areas; less than 4 percent of respondents reported having a bank account, and 44 percent did not have an account; 52 percent said that there is no bank in their area (Figure 7.3).

7.4 Household assets

Possession of assets is considered a useful proxy indicator of household economic access. Households were found to have considerably fewer assets compared to their situation before displacement. For example, 54 percent had sewing machines before displacement while only 35 percent of respondents reported having them after their return. Similarly, those owning a plough went down from 13 percent to 4 percent; tractors, from 5 percent to 2 percent; cooking stoves, from 26 percent to 17 percent; bicycles, from 22 percent to 11 percent; and carts, from 33 percent to 22 percent. Overall, losses of productive assets are greater when compared to those of domestic assets: 63 percent of households had at least one productive asset before displacement, which diminished to 24 percent.

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16 This means 64 out of a total of 1,931 households surveyed.
during displacement and settled at 45 percent after their return. Figure 7.4 shows the households possessing at least one asset according to the survey findings.

![Figure 7.4: Percentage of households possessing at least one asset](image)
8. Housing, Water, Sanitation and Health

8.1 Types of dwellings

According to observations by the enumerators on the types of dwellings used by returnees, a vast majority (89 percent) of the returnee households are residing in *kacha*\textsuperscript{17} houses. A much smaller percentage (6.3 percent) is residing in semi-pakka houses, and only 2.3 percent are living in pakka houses, and 0.2 percent in public buildings. Contrasting dwelling types among the agencies, South Waziristan has the highest percentage (92.3 percent) of people living in kacha houses. Bajaur agency returnees seem to be slightly better off compared to returnees in other agencies, with 83.7 percent living in kacha houses, 11.3 percent in semi-pakka houses, and only 5 percent in pakka houses, as shown in Figure 8.1.

\textsuperscript{17} Kacha house means ‘weak’ house mostly with mud or thatch roof, while pakka house means ‘strong’ house mostly with concrete or iron roof with proper walls.

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**Figure 8.1**: Type of dwelling by Agency, based on enumerators’ observation
8.2 Water and sanitation

Water and sanitation are important factors to be considered for household food security since these affect food utilization. In addition, the availability of health facilities has a bearing on food utilization at the household level.

8.2.1 Drinking water: access to safe water and purification

Overall, it was found that 52 percent of households obtain their drinking water primarily from an unsafe source. South Waziristan has the highest proportion of households which access unsafe drinking water (93.5 percent), while Bajaur has the lowest percentage (7.3 percent) (Figure 8.2).

An analysis on water purification practices revealed an equally substandard situation. Among those who use water from unsafe sources, only 9 percent use water purification (Figure 8.2). That use ranges from 3 percent in Khyber to 27 percent in Bajaur.

8.2.2 Distance from the water source

Overall, 30 percent of households have a water source available either inside the house or within the living compound; another 26.2 percent have their water source within a 10 minute walk. By contrast, 19.9 percent of the households have to walk 10-30 minutes, while 23.6 percent must walk more than 30 minutes to fetch water. Among the agencies, South Waziristan has the highest percentage (72.9 percent) of households which walk more than 30 minutes to fetch water.

8.2.3 Who usually fetches water

The survey results show that, overall, mostly women (85.6 percent) fetch water from the source, followed by girls (10 percent), whereas men (2.7 percent) and boys (1.7 percent) rarely fetch water. Among the Agencies, Kurram agency has the highest percentage (95.6 percent) of households with women fetching water, while Khyber agency has the highest percentage (15.8 percent) of households with girls fetching water.

8.2.4 Use of toilets

Overall, 55.7 percent of households reported men practicing open-field defecation, followed by 36.1 percent of households where men use dry pit latrines. Men reported using pour-flush in only 8 percent of the households. The majority of households (70.9 percent) reported that women use dry pit latrines, 11.6 percent use open fields, while 14.5 percent use pour-flush. The survey results show that Kurram agency has the highest percentage (27.6 percent) of households with women using open fields, followed by Mohmand agency with 17.3 percent of households with women using open fields. Conversely, Orakzai has the lowest percentage with only 1 percent of households with women using open field.

8.3 Health facilities

Access to public health facilities in FATA remains low due to the lack of public health spending, insecurity and the area’s difficult terrain. The survey respondents reported that in general the most accessible health facilities are the basic health units (BHU) which are the first level of primary healthcare units (Table 8.1). BHUs are most accessible in Orakzai, Mohammad and Bajaur. A significant percentage of respondents

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Figure 8.2 Proportion of households using unsafe water and use of water purification among unsafe water users
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health Facility</th>
<th>Bajaur</th>
<th>Khyber</th>
<th>Kurram</th>
<th>Mohmand</th>
<th>Orakzai</th>
<th>South Waziristan</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BHU</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
<td>62.7%</td>
<td>69.8%</td>
<td>38.3%</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RHC</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>.8%</td>
<td>.8%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THQ</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>62.8%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHQ</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Dispensary</td>
<td>.3%</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile clinic</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

do not know what the nearest public health facility is, particularly in those agencies where very few health facilities are available. Analysis of respondents’ perception of health service quality shows that facilities at the district headquarters provide adequate or fair quality health services, whereas the perception is that most of the civil dispensaries and mobile clinics provide poor services. Community focus group discussions indicated that WFP-assisted mother and child support is being provided in two-thirds of the health facilities.
This section presents the household food consumption situation based on the findings from the survey.

### 9.1 Food consumption score

The food consumption score (FCS) is one of the most commonly used indicators to capture household food security, illustrating the adequacy of overall food consumption. Based on a seven-day recall of the food groups consumed within the household, the FCS measures food diversity (the types of food consumed), food frequency (the number of days each group is consumed) and the relative nutritional importance of different food groups. Using standardized and calibrated thresholds, households are divided into three groups: “poor” food consumption, “borderline” food consumption, and “acceptable” food consumption.

The results indicate that little more than one fourth (28 percent) of the surveyed households have acceptable food consumption, the majority (54 percent) falls in the borderline consumption group, and 18 percent has poor consumption.

Analysis by agency shows that Khyber has the worst food consumption situation, with 49 percent of the surveyed households scoring in the poor consumption category; by contrast the situation is appreciably better off in Bajaur where only 1 percent of the households have poor consumption (Figure 9.1).

Food consumption patterns also break down along gender lines with female headed households having, in general, worse food consumption scores, in this context 56 percent of female headed households have poor consumption levels, compared to 26 percent among male headed households. Similarly,
households owning agricultural land and households owning livestock have better food consumption than those not owning any. Households benefiting from WFP’s school feeding programme have better food consumption -37.1 percent with acceptable food consumption -compared to the non-beneficiaries with 22.8 percent with acceptable food consumption.

9.2 Sources of food

Overall, more than 90 percent of households purchase main cereals (wheat and rice) from the market. However, 26 percent of households consume own produced maize. A vast majority of households purchase the entire food basket from the market, except eggs and milk. About 4 percent of households reported food assistance as their main source for wheat and lentils.

9.3 Quantity: caloric intake

The average caloric consumption is found to be 2,441 Kcal per person per day, which is slightly higher than the recommended caloric intake of 2,350 Kcal per person per day. However, not every person is consuming the same amount of calories per day; there will be some people consuming more than the average, and there is a significant proportion with an intake less than the recommended value. Considering that a caloric intake of less than 2,100 Kcal per person per day is inadequate, 44 percent of households suffer from a caloric consumption deficit (Figure 9.2). Khyber has the highest percentage of households with a caloric deficit (65 percent), followed by Bajaur (58 percent).

A significant difference was found in the caloric consumption between WFP registered and non-registered families. For instance, only 35 percent of WFP registered households have caloric consumption deficit compared to 48 percent of non-registered households.
9.4 Quality: energy intake from staples and dietary diversity

The share of different food items for an individual's energy intake has essential implications for overall health and wellbeing. A high proportion of energy derived from staple cereals is an indication of poor dietary diversity, while those with better dietary diversity tend to get a lower proportion of their total energy from staple cereals. The results show on average that 52 percent of total caloric consumption is derived from wheat only, whereas 63 percent of caloric consumption is derived from three staple cereals (wheat, rice and maize). Similarly, household dietary diversity can be expressed in terms of the number of different food groups (out of a total of seven) consumed in a one-week period. A household, on average, consumes 3.9 food groups in a week. Although total caloric consumption is low in Bajaur agency, the diet diversity score is highest (4.5) followed closely by Orakzai with a score of 4.4. The poorest dietary diversity is found in Khyber.
Households use a variety of coping strategies when they have problems meeting their food needs. Some of those strategies may include adjustments or changes in household food consumption such as eating less preferred or less expensive food, reducing the number of meals, and adults eating less in order to provide sufficient food for the children. In addition, there are other coping strategies which can affect the livelihood of households in the medium to long term. These include selling household goods or assets to buy food, selling productive assets or means of transport (such as a sewing machine or tractor), or consuming seed stock held for the next planting season. For the purpose of analysis, the consumption-based strategies are analyzed based on frequency of each coping strategy used in the last seven days, while the livelihood-based strategies are analyzed based on their occurrence in the 30 days prior to the survey.

10.1 Consumption-based coping

Overall, 37 percent of households surveyed had reportedly adopted at least one consumption-based coping strategy in order to meet the household food needs in the week prior to the survey. Kurram had the highest proportion with 67 percent of households resorting to consumption-based coping strategies, followed by Khyber (64 percent), then Mohmand at 13 percent, and Bajaur had the lowest percentage of households relying on consumption-based coping strategies (2 percent).

Consistent with the findings that female-headed families have relatively worse food consumption situation, a higher proportion (54 percent) resorted to consumption-based coping strategies compared with male-headed families (36 percent).

Significant differences were found in the proportion of households relying on consumption-based coping strategies between WFP beneficiary families...
and others. While only 21 percent of the beneficiary households were resorting to coping strategies, this proportion was 50 percent for others. Among the various coping strategies practiced by families, 31 percent of the respondents reported that they relied on less preferred or less expensive food, whereas 6 percent reported that adults—especially mothers—were consuming less to feed their children.

### 10.2 Livelihood based coping

The livelihood-related coping strategies have been analyzed in three subcategories: i) stress strategies (borrowing money, or selling household or productive assets); ii) crisis strategies (spending savings on food or withdrawing children from school), and iii) emergency strategies (consuming seed stock held for the next season, selling houses or land, or begging). Overall, 45 percent of the households reportedly used livelihood-based coping strategies in order to meet their food needs. The proportion of households adopting stress coping strategies, crisis coping strategies and emergency coping strategies were 7.5 percent, 22.2 percent and 14.8 percent; respectively, as shown in Table 10.1.

The highest proportion of families resorting to livelihood-based coping strategies were found in Kurram, 86 percent, followed by Khyber, 70 percent; the proportion was lowest in Bajaur (1 percent), and Mohmand (14 percent).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not adopting coping strategies</th>
<th>Stress coping strategies</th>
<th>Crisis coping strategies</th>
<th>Emergency coping strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bajaur 99.0%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber 30.1%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurram 14.0%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohmand 87.4%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orakzai 66.9%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Waziristan 44.1%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall 55.5%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 10.3 Household perception of security

The persistent law and order operations against militants and the prevailing security situation in the northwest has an impact on all aspects of livelihood and the local economy. General insecurity affects food security in several ways, including through its limiting impact on access to markets and services, which has been well documented in a number of studies. When asked how secure they feel in their current place of residence, 28 percent of respondents said that they feel insecure in the areas they have returned to. Only one third (33 percent) feel very secure and 39 percent feel somewhat secure. South Waziristan has the highest number of residents who feel secure (90 percent of respondents feel very secure or somewhat secure), while Khyber has the lowest (42 percent). The primary reasons attributed to a sense of insecurity were the multiple check posts, lack of transport and road blocks.
functioning market is a key element for food security and livelihood. This section looks at the key aspects of market functionality, including the supply and sales, traders’ capacity and food prices based on a traders’ survey and market mapping.

11.1 Distance to market, food availability and supplies

The average distance to market for households was 5.3 km; the shortest distance recorded in Bajaur was 3 km and the longest in Kurram at 10 km. In spite of the relative remoteness of these areas, analysis indicates that the local food availability is fairly comfortable. Traders reported that supplies to market are fairly strong. Traders source their supplies from a variety of reliable locations: within their agency, from markets in KP (particularly in Peshawar), and partly from Punjab. Table 11.1 gives an overview of the main supply locations for wheat and rice. Most traders in Bajaur source their supplies from within the agency, while those in Khyber bring supplies mainly from Peshawar. Most traders in Kurram depend on Punjab and Thall for their supplies while those in Mohmand also source their supplies from Peshawar, as well as from within the agency. Most traders in Orakzai source their supplies from Kohat, and those in South Waziristan from D.I. Khan and Tank.

11.2 Source of information for pricing decisions

Across the agencies, some 43 percent of traders informed the survey team that they received price information from large traders, while another 42 percent set their own prices considering cost and profit margins (Figure 11.1). Another 8 percent received information from traders’ associations and an additional 6 percent determine prices based on information from consumers. In Orakzai, all the traders responded that they set their own price after adjusting their cost and profit margin. Similarly, 27 percent of traders in
Khyber and 25 percent in Mohmand reported that commodity sales prices are set by the traders’ association. Overall, 39 percent of wholesalers and 44 percent of retailers reported obtaining price information from traders, but 43 percent of wholesalers and 40 percent of retailers reported setting their own price based on their cost and profit margin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Rice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bajaur</td>
<td>Bajaur (93%), Punjab (7%)</td>
<td>Bajaur (87%), Peshawar (7%), Punjab (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khyber</td>
<td>Peshawar (80%), Landi Kotal (13%)</td>
<td>Peshawar (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurram</td>
<td>Punjab (38%), Thall (25%), D I Khan (25%)</td>
<td>Thall (38%), Punjab (25%), Tank (12%), Kohat (12%), Bat Khela (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohmand</td>
<td>Mohmand (53%), Peshawar (40%)</td>
<td>Peshawar (71%), Mohmand (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orakzai</td>
<td>Kohat (90%), Orakzai (10%)</td>
<td>Kohat (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Waziristan</td>
<td>Tank (67%), DI Khan (20%)</td>
<td>Tank (73%), DI Khan (20%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 11.3 Seasonal fluctuation in sales volume

Uniformly across the agencies, a larger proportion of traders reported higher sales volume in spring (35 percent of traders) and summer (27 percent of traders); during winter, more traders reported lower sales (Figure 11.2). Various reasons were cited for this variation: in spring, the demand is high due to the lean season; similarly, in summer, the demand is higher due to people returning home after their seasonal migration, and at present because of when Ramazan and Eid fall. The lower demand in winter is reportedly due to the migration of people out of FATA during that period.

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23 The price of wheat flour in Lahore in the same month was reported to be PKR 39.9 per Kg.
11.4 Market integration and price volatility

The analysis shows that the nominal price of wheat flour fluctuates uniformly across the markets in all FATA’s agencies, except for some variations seen in very small, remote markets in Khyber and Kurram. This uniformity of prices indicates a fair integration of markets within the region, although prices in the agencies are significantly higher than they are in the country’s major markets like Peshawar or Lahore. The average price for wheat flour across FATA in November 2014 was 8 percent higher compared to its price in 2013. This is in contrast with the national average price which decreased by 4 percent during this period, indicating some time lag in price transmission from other major markets. The highest current price of wheat flour was recorded in Khyber agency at PKR 47 per kg while the lowest was recorded in Bajaur agency at PKR 40 per kg\(^2\) (Figure 11.3).

11.4.1 Price outlook perceived by traders

53 percent of traders, a majority, speculated that prices would increase in the next six months, while 33 percent expected the prices to decline, and another 14 percent predicted no change in the upcoming period (Figure 11.4).

11.4.2 Change in transportation costs

Transportation cost is a major contributor to the price of food. Across the markets, more than half (55 percent) of traders reported that the cost of transportation was higher compared to the previous year, while 30 percent thought the costs were normal or the same, and 15 percent thought they were lower than last year. A higher proportion of wholesalers (59 percent), compared to 43 percent of retailers, thought transport costs were higher than last year (Figure 11.5).
11.5 Market situation and response capacity

11.5.1 Storage capacity

Traders’ storage capacity varies from 6 to 300 mounds\(^{21}\) of cereal stock, and across the markets, a trader’s average capacity was 104 mounds, good, on average, for maximum 20 days of sales. The highest trader storage capacity was observed in Kurram agency with 197 mounds, and the lowest in South Waziristan with 35 mounds (Figure 11.6).

11.5.2 Market demand conditions

During the survey, across the markets, almost half of the traders (48 percent) reported that the demand for commodities they sell is normal, while 21 percent reported the demand “lower than normal”, and the rest thought it was “higher than normal”. Similarly, on the supply side, 61 percent of traders responded that supply met the current demand, while 33 percent reported limited supply (less than what is required).

\(^{21}\) 1 mound = 40 kgs

Figure 11.5: Change in transportation cost compared to previous year as reported by traders

Figure 11.6 Traders’ mean storage capacity (mounds)

11.5.3 Traders’ response capacity

The markets in FATA are relatively small and remote, therefore, it is expected that the return of the displaced population and the commensurate increase in demand may put pressure on the markets. In addition, interventions in support of returnee populations, particularly those involving cash or vouchers, could push demand up. Almost two-thirds (64 percent) of traders were of the view that the addition of more cash is likely to cause an increase in demand for the commodities they sell. Among those who thought that demand would increase, about 90 percent say they would be able to meet the additional demand (Figure 11.7). Particularly, 93

Figure 11.7 Traders’ response whether the increase in demand can be met.
percent of wholesalers were positive that they would be able to enhance their supplies in case the demand increases.

11.5.4 Sales on credit

Transactions on credit play an important role in the functioning of markets since it is common practice for many traders to buy and sell commodities on credit. Overall, 73 percent of traders reported selling commodities to their customers on credit. Credit extensions are common among both wholesalers (71 percent) as well as retailers (79 percent).

11.5.5 Traders’ constraints

Traders were asked to identify the three main constraints to running their businesses smoothly. A lack of capital was identified as the number one constraint by 88 percent of traders; followed by low or varying quality of produce supply (75 percent), and lack of credit (58 percent). Regarding the lack of capital, 93 percent of wholesalers and 85 percent of retailers had identified it as the most important constraint.

11.6 Terms of trade

Terms of Trade (ToT) reflect the purchasing capacity of low income groups, and are the ratio of the price of the primary income good relative to the price of the primary expenditure good. In Pakistan, ToT is calculated as the quantity of wheat flour (kg) that can be purchased with a day’s wage of an unskilled labourer. Significant variation was observed in the wage rate among different agencies (Figure 11.8); the lowest was in Kurram at PKR 363, while the highest was in Khyber at PKR 453 per day. However, the highest ToT was recorded in Orakzai Agency at 10.5 kg compared to 9.6 kg in Khyber, as a result of the higher wheat prices in Khyber. On the other hand, the lowest ToT was recorded in South Waziristan at 8.9 kg, where the wage rate was slightly higher than Kurram by just a few rupees. Overall, the average ToT was recorded at 9.6 kg of wheat flour per day of wage labour.
12. Gender and protection

The analysis revealed interesting findings on the general socioeconomic situation, livelihood and food security when seen from a gender perspective.

The survey process itself was designed and conducted with gender and protection practices and inputs taken into account. In spite of efforts, however, it was not possible to find an equal numbers of female enumerators as male. Nevertheless, one female enumerator (out of six on a team) was included in each agency during the survey, except for Bajaur where it was not possible to have female enumerators because of security sensitivities. Due to traditional and cultural sensitivities, female household members could only be interviewed by a female enumerator; in the end the survey team was successfully able to interview a number of female respondents (160 out of 1,931).

This chapter provides an overview of major findings on gender and protection.

12.1 Gender dimensions of livelihood and food security

12.1.1 Gender, education and livelihood

Among the surveyed families, only 6 percent of the heads of households were females. This implies that for the majority of women, their role in household income, earning and decision making is limited compared to men.

The prevailing socioeconomic and cultural constraints in FATA reflect women’s limited mobility and participation in activities compared to men.

As discussed in chapter 4, analysis of educational attainment by gender reflects a large gap that reflects FATA’s cultural and social dynamic. Overall, attainment in education is low, with about two-thirds of the heads of households without any education, 22 percent with primary education, 6 percent with a middle school level of education, and only 3 percent with intermediate or graduate
level education. And the situation is worse for women and girls, with 98.5 percent of the spouses of male heads of households without any education at all. The gender distinction in educational attainment is also seen among school age children. Of the children of primary school age (5-9), 13 percent of boys were not attending school, and for girls in the same age range, 31 percent were not attending school. The lack of availability of female teachers is reported as one important reason for girls not attending school.

With regards to livelihoods, while women’s actual work may be comparable to men’s, their work is mostly limited to household chores and agriculture, livestock or other home-based activities, usually not accounted for direct earning of household income. For example, the survey observed that about 70 percent of households have to fetch water from a source outside of their home, and it was mostly women (85.6 percent households) or girls (10 percent of households) who are responsible for fetching water. Only 3.3 percent of households reported having a woman engaged in earning to support household income. This proportion was similar to women’s roles prior to their displacement (3.7 percent).

12.1.2 Gender and sanitation

Of note, is the gender dimension in respect to the availability and use of sanitation facilities, particularly toilets. While a higher proportion of women were found making use of flush toilets (14 percent) and dry pit latrines (71 percent), there was a much larger proportion of men (56 percent) practicing open field defecation compared to women (12 percent). These proportions reflect cultural sensitivities and practices whereby measures are taken at the household level to provide privacy for women and girls.

12.1.3 Gender and food security

The survey did not capture intra-household food consumption, but some interesting findings did come to light regarding the gender dimension of food security. Studies have shown in the past that families where women are educated tend to be better off in terms of food security and nutrition status. Therefore, it comes as no surprise that female headed households in FATA have higher levels of food insecurity and malnutrition, given the corresponding lower levels of female education.

The findings in this study show a clear distinction in food security in relation to the gender of the head of household. Looking at food consumption by head of household gender, a much larger proportion (55.8 percent) of women headed households ranked in the poor food consumption category, compared to those headed by men (15.4 percent). Conversely, a smaller proportion of female headed households had an acceptable consumption score compared to male headed households (Figure 12.2).

Not surprisingly, gender differences are also reflected in the findings on the adoption of coping strategies. Households resort to different coping strategies in the face of food insecurity. Female headed households, which are more food insecure, resort to more coping strategies compared to those headed by males (Figure 12.3)

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22 National Nutrition Survey by Ministry of Planning and Development, UNICEF and Agha Khan University; survey findings from Food Security Analysis 2013
12.2 Protection concerns

Along similar lines as gender perspectives, the study revealed protection issues among returnee households in FATA.

Analysis of household survey data revealed that 7 percent of individuals above 18 years did not have CNICs. While this proportion was 3.8 percent for males, it was much higher for females at 9.9 percent. The lack of a CNIC prevents an individual from accessing and receiving many of the humanitarian and other social benefits associated with displacement and returning. This higher proportion of females without CNICs is again largely attributed to cultural sensitivities limiting women’s movement and thus the ability to obtain a CNIC (from the designated authorities).

Specific protection related questions were posed to key informants. Their responses and findings are presented below.

*Do you feel there are protection concerns related to WFP assistance for women in your community?*

Among the 40 key informants interviewed, 30 percent of them (12 individuals) replied that there are no protection concerns related to
WFP assistance for women, while the majority (70 percent of the people interviewed) opined that it does raise protection concerns. The key concerns cited included views such as providing food in the name of women would not be acceptable; constraints on women’s movement; and women not being comfortable giving their names for the purpose of receiving assistance. The general suggestion was that it would be more appropriate to provide food to the male members of families. The focus group discussions revealed similar views. The practical implications of these findings have to be carefully considered and weighed when developing and implementing effective and balanced assistance in these areas. These concerns can be dealt with through multiple approaches which require familiarity with the local customs and culture, like the mobilization of community elders who have influence over their communities and can facilitate the appropriate level of communication and support.

Do you think there is any negative impact from the WFP School feeding program (especially, giving a take home ration for girl students)?

The response was overwhelmingly positive, suggesting no negative impact from this form of assistance. Only three people out of 40 raised concerns that children may be going to school only for the ration and not to study. One respondent who did respond positively remarked on the need to do this activity appropriately. In the focus group discussions, all participants agreed that it has no negative impact, and doesn’t impinge on any cultural sensitivities, and should be encouraged. The do-no-harm approach requires that in the course of implementing school feeding programmes in FATA, clear messaging should be made for families to understand the value of educational attainment for girls, so that they will send girls to school not only to receive rations, but in recognition of the value of educating children to create social well-being and stability for the household and community.

If we involve women in agriculture/asset creation in your community, could this create protection problems for those women?

This had a mixed response: 44 percent of the respondents said clearly that it does create protection problems for women and should not be implemented, while 25 percent said it does not. Another 31 percent gave a mixed reply, suggesting that such programmes may be implemented but if done carefully, for example implementing at the village or family level, and engaging female staff to deal directly with women to minimize protection concerns. The focus group discussions also showed mixed messages, with 40 percent of participants suggesting that it could create protection problems and the rest suggesting it would be fine. Women’s empowerment and engagement in assistance and recovery activities are challenging issues in FATA, and extra care needs to be taken to prevent any negative impact falling on women or girls. Care should be taken to ensure that activities and implementation modalities are in line with local values and norms, and identifying activities, like handicrafts and kitchen gardening, which are appropriate and accepted by the community is a good way to ensure acceptance, effectiveness and at the same time a benefit to women.
13. Assistance and Priority Needs

13.1 Assistance

Assistance from the Government, UN agencies, and NGOs was provided to households returning to their area of origin, which was seen in the study’s findings.

This chapter provides an overview of major findings on gender and protection.

94 percent of households reported receiving food rations, 40 percent reported receiving NFIs and assistance through food for work, 18 percent received seeds and fertilizer, 6 percent received agricultural tools, 5 percent received fodder or animal feed and 10 percent reported benefitting from cash for work activities. Less than 3 percent received health care or micro-credit (Figure 13.1).

Figure 13.1: Proportion of households who reported receiving assistance
The UN and NGOs were reported as the main source for most assistance, followed by the Government and other actors including religious organizations. Most respondents at the household level were not able to distinguish assistance from the UN or NGOs, since UN assistance (food, NFIs and agriculture support) is also provided through local NGO partners, so this finding is presented as a single category in Figure 13.2.

Even though the assistance reached a good proportion of returnees, households believe that assistance was not adequate. Only 25 percent of respondents believed the food assistance was adequate, while 68 percent said it was somewhat adequate and 7 percent said it was not at all adequate. A larger proportion, close to 30 percent, felt that assistance was not adequate for agricultural inputs including seeds and fertilizer, or micro-credit (34 percent), which is reflected below in Figure 13.3.

### 13.2 Priority needs for livelihood and food security

Households were asked what they would prioritize as the key form of support for the immediate and short term (up to 6 months) and in the medium to long term (after 6 months) to ensure their sustained recovery.

For immediate needs (up to 6 months), food assistance was reported as the single most important initial need, followed by cash grants, support for housing, agriculture and livestock support and inputs, and then health care (Figure 13.4).

In the medium to longer term (after 6 months), cash grants were reported as the most important form of support by 31 percent of respondents, followed by food assistance by 26 percent, support for housing (24 percent), employment (10 percent), and agriculture and livestock support and inputs (8 percent) (Figure 13.5).

These prioritized needs by the communities have to be used as a guide while planning recovery assistance for returnee households.
13.3 Conditions to facilitate the return of households still in displacement

Key informants were asked what they believe would be the necessary conditions required for the remaining households still in displacement to return to their places of origin. Cash grants were the number one suggestion made by 71 percent of the respondents, and explained that it was in order to enable families to return to a degree of stability (Figure 13.6).
14. Conclusions and Recommendations

This section summarizes the key conclusions from the findings of this study and provides some recommendations based on those conclusions.

14.1 Main conclusions of the study

The following is an overview of the main conclusions drawn from the study.

General livelihood, income and expenditure

1. Returnee populations are more dependent on unstable sources of income such as non-agricultural wage labour. Income from selling their own crops or livestock products, revenue from own businesses and trade have reduced significantly compared to their pre-displacement income. Concurrently, there is an increased dependence on loans from friends and relatives, and support from the Government, the UN and NGOs compared to pre-displacement.

2. Ownership of both domestic and productive assets has decreased considerably and households’ mean monthly expenditure is higher than their average incomes; thus almost half of the households surveyed reported taking on loans. Among those with loans, fulfilling household food needs was the number one reason, reported by 62 percent of households, followed by paying for medical expenses, which was reported by 13 percent of households.

Agriculture and livestock:

Assistance from the Government, UN agencies, and NGOs was provided to households returning to their area of origin, which was seen in the study’s findings.
This chapter provides an overview of major findings on gender and protection.

Agriculture and livestock:

3. 60 percent of the respondents reported owning agricultural land and 86 percent of them reported cultivating that land. However, the amount of cultivated land was reported to be significantly less after returning, compared to pre-displacement cultivation. Own production was shown to be sufficient for only 3.5 months of the year, on average. 70 percent of the farming households reported depending on rain-fed agriculture due to lack of proper irrigation; and the unavailability of agricultural inputs was reported as the major constraint in recovering agriculture activities, according to 57 percent of households, followed by destruction/damage to irrigation infrastructure, reported by 28 percent of households, then the unavailability of land (9 percent of households), and finally, unavailability of agricultural tools (3 percent).

4. Households reported having far less livestock since their return compared to what they owned pre-displacement. A significant quantity was reportedly lost as a result of distress selling during displacement. Most households reported inadequate availability of fodder/feed, medication, water and shelter for animals after their return.

Housing, water and sanitation:

5. A vast majority (89 percent) of the returnees are living in kacha houses. Water and sanitary facilities are in a very poor state and approximately 52 percent were found to be using unsafe water source with only 9 percent using any form of water purification. Water is mostly fetched by women (86 percent) and girls (10 percent). Among the male respondents, some 56 percent were using open field, followed by dry pit latrine (36 percent); only 8 percent were using flush toilets. Among the female respondents, 12 percent were using open field, while a far greater proportion -71 percent –were found to be using dry pit latrine, 15 percent were using flush toilets.

Markets, food availability and purchasing capacity:

6. Overall, 64 percent of the respondents said that sufficient amounts of food are available in the nearest market, while 35 percent reported that it is available but they did not find sufficient quantities, and only 1 percent reported that it is not available at all. The issue remains one of economic access and affordability, with 59 percent of the respondents suggesting that they do not have enough resources to purchase food from the market.

7. Despite their relative remoteness, markets appear to be functioning well with traders able to meet current demand without issue. Most traders believe they can continue to meet the additional demand by increasing supplies if the demand increases as more families return home from displacement in the future.

Food consumption:

8. Overall, only 28 percent of households had acceptable food consumption, while 18 percent had poor food consumption and 54 percent were in the borderline consumption group. Overall, 44 percent of households suffer from a caloric consumption deficit, considering a daily requirement of 2,100 kcal per person. Households reported meeting only a small proportion of their food needs with their own production, and as a result they depend heavily on the markets to meet the majority of their food needs.

9. Household diets were by and large poor with about 52 percent of total caloric consumption derived from 1 staple cereal, wheat only; and about 63 percent derived from three staple cereals (wheat, rice and maize).

Gender and protection:

10. The gender dimensions of the socioeconomic, livelihood and food security situation was clear from the analysis used in the study. 6 percent of households were headed by females. There was a vast difference in education level between men and women –only about one third of the heads of households had any education, and
among female headed households this figure was only 15 percent, compared to 36 percent for males. Female headed households had worse indicators for food security, lower food consumption scores and caloric intake, and thus a higher proportion of these households had to resort to various coping strategies.

11. Almost 10 percent of the eligible-age females didn’t have CNICs, while it was only 3.8 percent for males. The lack of CNIC also signified a protection concern for females. As for protection concerns that emerged in the context of programming, there was a general agreement that school feeding had no negative impact on women, but significant protection concerns were raised during focus group discussions and key informant interviews regarding potential interventions to assist women in the communities, particularly in agriculture or asset creation activities.

Agency situation:

12. Among the agencies, Kurram and Khyber, which both had more recent returnees who were on average, 1.1 and 1.6 years, respectively, back in their areas of origin, were found to have the lowest indicators in terms of overall food security. Those in South Waziristan and Orakzai, who had returned between 3 and 4 years ago, appeared to be somewhat better off, and showing the same trend, returnees in Bajaur and Mohmand, who had returned more than 4 years ago, appeared to be even better off in terms of food security and livelihoods.

Assistance provided and priority support needs:

13. Among the major assistance to returnees, about 94 percent of households received some food assistance after return, some 41 percent received NFIs, 40 percent participated in food for work activities, 10 percent participated in cash for work and 18 percent received seed and fertilizer. Respondents believed the support provided was useful but not sufficient.

14. On the priority needs for assistance, 46 percent of the respondents reported food assistance as their most important need for the first 6 months (after the time of the survey), followed by cash grant (33 percent), and support for housing/reconstruction (13 percent). Other needs included agriculture and livestock inputs, employment opportunities, water and health services.

15. For the medium to long term needs (beyond 6 months after the interview), 31 percent of respondents reported their first priority was cash grants, followed by food assistance (26 percent). Other long term needs cited include: support to reconstructing houses, support for agriculture and livestock, employment, health and water.

16. The most important agriculture needs were reported as seeds by 50 percent of households, followed by fertilizers (22 percent). Other agriculture needs were identified as construction or rehabilitation of irrigation systems and credit facilities. The needs for livestock were identified as: shelter, provision of medication, fodder/feed and water for animals.
14.2 Key recommendations

Based on the analysis of the food security and livelihoods environment during the survey, and considering the priority needs identified by the respondents during the survey, following are the key recommendations:

1. The food security situation of the returnee population is fragile and closely linked to livelihoods. Therefore, food assistance, either through food for work or cash for work modalities could be an important means to enhance food security as well as to create stable assets and support livelihoods.

2. Support for agriculture and livestock is very important to help households enhance their food production. Agricultural needs include the provision of agricultural inputs (seeds and fertilizers), improvement of irrigation infrastructure and provision of agricultural tools. For livestock, support needs include shelter, provision of medication, fodder/feed and water storage for animals.

3. Given that 60 percent of the population is associated in some form with agriculture as the base of livelihoods, it is crucial to prioritize and implement sustainable programmes to revive and improve the agriculture sector to in turn create improvements and stability in livelihoods as well as in the food security situation. The Agriculture Action Plan developed by the FATA Secretariat with support from FAO is a positive step in this direction.

4. Programmes to generate non-farm employment and diversified livelihoods should also be designed.

5. Food security for women is an area which requires focused and careful attention. Programmes to engage women in activities that are culturally appropriate and accepted by the community, like kitchen gardening, backyard poultry raising, or other home-based income generating activities should be considered.

6. Cash grants for rebuilding houses are essential as most families upon return are living in kacha houses.

7. Given the poor state of water and sanitation, programmes to improve access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation are important to improve overall hygiene condition.

8. Improvements in health facilities and rehabilitation of community infrastructure should be a priority to improve the overall living environment and access to services.

9. In light of poor education indicators, and particularly among women and girls, it is critical to have programmes to enhance education and improve awareness of its value and link to social stability, especially for women and girls.

10. Looking at the characteristics of each of the six agencies in terms of overall livelihoods and food security -and the trend that more recent returnees had worse indicators in all areas -returnees in Kurram and Khyber require more immediate assistance to enhance their food security, followed by South Waziristan and Orakzai. Long term development programmes would be more appropriate for returnees in Bajaur and Mohmand.

11. In FATA’s context, gender and protection concerns should be based on a consultative, community level process and incorporated into the design of any interventions.