NATIONAL RISK AND VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT 2011 - 2012

(Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey)

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FOREWORD

The National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA), which is called Afghanistan Living Condition Survey (ALCS) by then is providing data about the country for almost 10 years. This publication is now the fourth release after the surveys of 2003, 2005 and 2007-08 by financial supporting of European Commission.

This new round of the survey has brought some more innovations and more details compared to the previous surveys. The questionnaire is now designed in modules that will be 'rotating' from round to round to cover all the needs for data to capture the living conditions of the nation.

This survey is still the only nation-wide survey available in Afghanistan and is therefore of utmost importance for the country, its policy makers and all the Organization investing in the future of the country. It is also capturing seasonal variations to make it more accurate to the various realities that the population face throughout the year, especially in terms of labour, poverty and food security.

As the principal agency responsible for the production of national statistics, the Central Statistics Organization is proud to deliver key indicators and statistics at national and provincial level for a broad array of development sectors, including population, poverty, food security, labour market, agriculture, health, education and housing.

The life of the survey is still on-going as a new round has just been launched as we published this report and I hope to be able to address you again in about 18 months to present you with the latest changes in the living conditions of the people of Afghanistan.

I sincerely hope you will enjoy reading this publication, find all the information you expect and use it fruitfully.

Associate Prof. Hasibullah Mowahed,
Acting President General
Central Statistics Organization of Afghanistan
Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan

KEY INDICATORS

INDICATOR	ANDS no.	MDG no.	Sub-groups[a]	National
Demography				
Percentage of population under 15			U 42.0; R 50.1; K 53.0	48.4
Percentage of population 65 and over			U 3.3; R 2.2; K 2.3	2.5
Sex ratio			U 105; R 106; K 110	106
Dependency ratio			U 83; R 110; K 124	104
Child dependency ratio			U 77; R 105; K 119	99
Aged dependency ratio			U 6; R 5; K 5	5
Average household size			U 7.5; R 7.4; K 7.3	7.4
Percentage of women in polygamous marriage				7.6
Percentage of married women aged 15-19 whose husband is 10 or more years older				7.9
Percentage of married women aged 20-24 whose husband is 10 or more years older				10.6
Under-five Mortality Rate	8.a	4.1	U 72; R 96 M 89; F 92	91
Infant Mortality Rate	8.b	4.2	U (34); R (54) M (49); F (46)	(48)
Labour force (national definition)				
Labour force participation rate			M 80.0; F 18.5 U 43.1; R 51.3; K 64.4	49.8
Employment-to-population ratio		1.5	M 74.5; F 15.5 U 39.2; R 47.1; K 61.0	45.7
Percentage not-gainfully employed population			M 21.8; F 39.3 U 17.6; R 26.9; K 28.7	25.0
Under-employment rate			M 15.4; F 22.8 U 8.6; R 18.7; K 23.3	16.8
Unemployment rate			M 6.4; F 16.5 U 9.0; R 8.2; K 5.4	8.2
Youth unemployment rate	17.a		M 8.1; F 18.8 U 13.6; R 9.9; K 4.4	10.4
Youth unemployment as percentage of total unemployment			M 38.1; F 40.8 U 46.3; R 37.4; K 24.9	39.1
Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment		1.7	M 79.3; F 87.0 U 59.3; R 85.6; K 95.7	80.5
Agriculture and livestock				
Percentage of households owning irrigated land				37.9
Percentage of households owning rain-fed land				16.8
Percentage of households owning a garden plot				12.6
Mean size of owned irrigated land (in jeribs[b])				6.0
Mean size of owned rain-fed land (in jeribs[b])				16.4
Mean size of owned garden plot (in jeribs[b])				2.0
Median size of owned irrigated land (in jeribs[b])				3.0
Median size of owned rain-fed land (in jeribs[b])				7.0
Median size of owned garden plot (in jeribs[b])				1.0
Number of cattle (in thousands)				3,715
Number of goats (in thousands)				7,281
Number of sheep (in thousands)				8,772
Number of chickens (in thousands)				12,156

[a]Uurban, R: rural, K: Kuchi, M: male, F: female
[b]One jerib is 0.2 hectare (2,000 m2)
( ) Indicators between brackets are considered less reliable and are indicative only.

INDICATOR	ANDS no.	MDG no.	Sub-groups[a]	National
Poverty				
Poverty headcount	1.a (alt)		U 28.9; R 37.7; 53.8	36.5
Poverty gap	1.b	1.2	U 5.8; R 9.2; K 13.3	8.6
Squared poverty gap			U 1.8; R 3.2; K 4.7	3.0
Gini Index			U 29.2; R 28.1; K 22.3	31.6
Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	1.c	1.3		8.5
Food security				
Percentage of population with calorie deficiency	2.b	1.9	U 34.4; R 29.1; K 25.6	30.1
Percentage of population with protein deficiency			U 21.3; R 19.1; K 15.3	19.4
Percentage of population with calorie and protein deficiency			U 20.3; R 18.2; K 14.5	18.5
Education				
Adult literacy rate (15 years of age and over)			M 45.4; F 17.0 U 53.5; R 25.0; K 7.2	31.4
Youth literacy rate (15-24 years of age)	3.c	2.3	M 61.9; F 32.1 U 71.4; R 39.1; K 9.7	47.0
Net attendance ratio in primary education	3.a	2.1	M 64.4; F 48.3 U 77.9; R 53.8; K 19.4	56.8
Net attendance ratio in secondary education			M 42.0; F 23.2 U 54.3; R 26.3; K ...	32.7
Net attendance ratio in tertiary education			M 8.1; F 2.7 U 13.1; R 2.4	5.4
Gross attendance ratio in primary education	3.a (alt)		M 82.8; F 60.9 U 99.1; R 68.7; K 24.9	72.4
Gross attendance ratio in secondary education			M 55.3; F 29.0 U 69.5; R 34.3; K 6.0	42.3
Gross attendance ratio in tertiary education			M 9.1; F 3.8 U 15.3; R 3.1	6.5
Percentage of households within two kilometres distance from boys' primary education facilities			U 95.1; R 43.8; K 29.3	53.9
Percentage of households within two kilometres distance from girls' primary education facilities			U 96.5; R 36.4; K 26.8	48.1
Gender equality				
Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector		3.2		11.1
Literacy gender parity index, age 15 and over			U 0.55; R 0.27	0.37
Literacy gender parity index, age 15-24	4.d	(10)	U 0.73; R 0.40; K 0.09	0.52
Ratio of girls to boys in primary education	4.a	3.1	U 0.90; R 0.68; K 0.54	0.74
Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education	4.b	3.1	U 0.74; R 0.38	0.53
Ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education	4.c	3.1	U 0.65; R 0.17	0.42
Health				
Percentage under-fives with vitamin-A supplementation			U 75.8; R 56.4; K 50.5	59.8
Percentage under-fives with birth certificate			U 63.8; R 29.5; K 16.3	35.2
Women with at least two TT injections			U 42.8; R 34.6; K 13.1	34.9
Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)	9.d	5.5	U 78.4; R 46.3; K 23.2	51.2
Antenatal care coverage (at least four visits)		5.5	U 20.8; R 7.7; K 3.5	9.9
Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel	9.b	5.2	U 75.5; R 32.6; K 13.4	39.9
Percentage of deliveries in institutional facilities			U 69.5; R 28.8; K 13.2	35.8

INDICATOR	ANDS no.	MDG no.	Sub-groups[a]	National
Housing				
Percentage of households living in communities with distance to nearest drivable road of 2 or less kilometres			U 100.0; R 75.2; K 60.4	80.0
Mean number of persons per room			U 3.0; R 3.1; K 4.8	3.2
Percentage of households living in overcrowded dwellings			U 33.6; R 35.5; K 69.9	37.0
Percentage of urban population living in slums	14.a (alt)	7.10		86.6
Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources	13.a	7.8	U 70.9; R 39.4; K 21.0	45.5
Percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility	13.b	7.9	U 29.1; R 2.4; K 0.0	8.3
Percentage of households with access to any source of electricity in the last month			U 95.0; R 63.8; K 30.3	69.1
Percentage of population using solid fuels	12.e	(29)	U 32.5; R 93.4; K 99.8	79.9
Mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants	19.a	8.15	U 27.1; R 10.6; K 6.3	14.1
Internet users per 100 population	19.b	8.16	U 1.6; R 0.2; K 0.0 M 0.8; F 0.2	0.5

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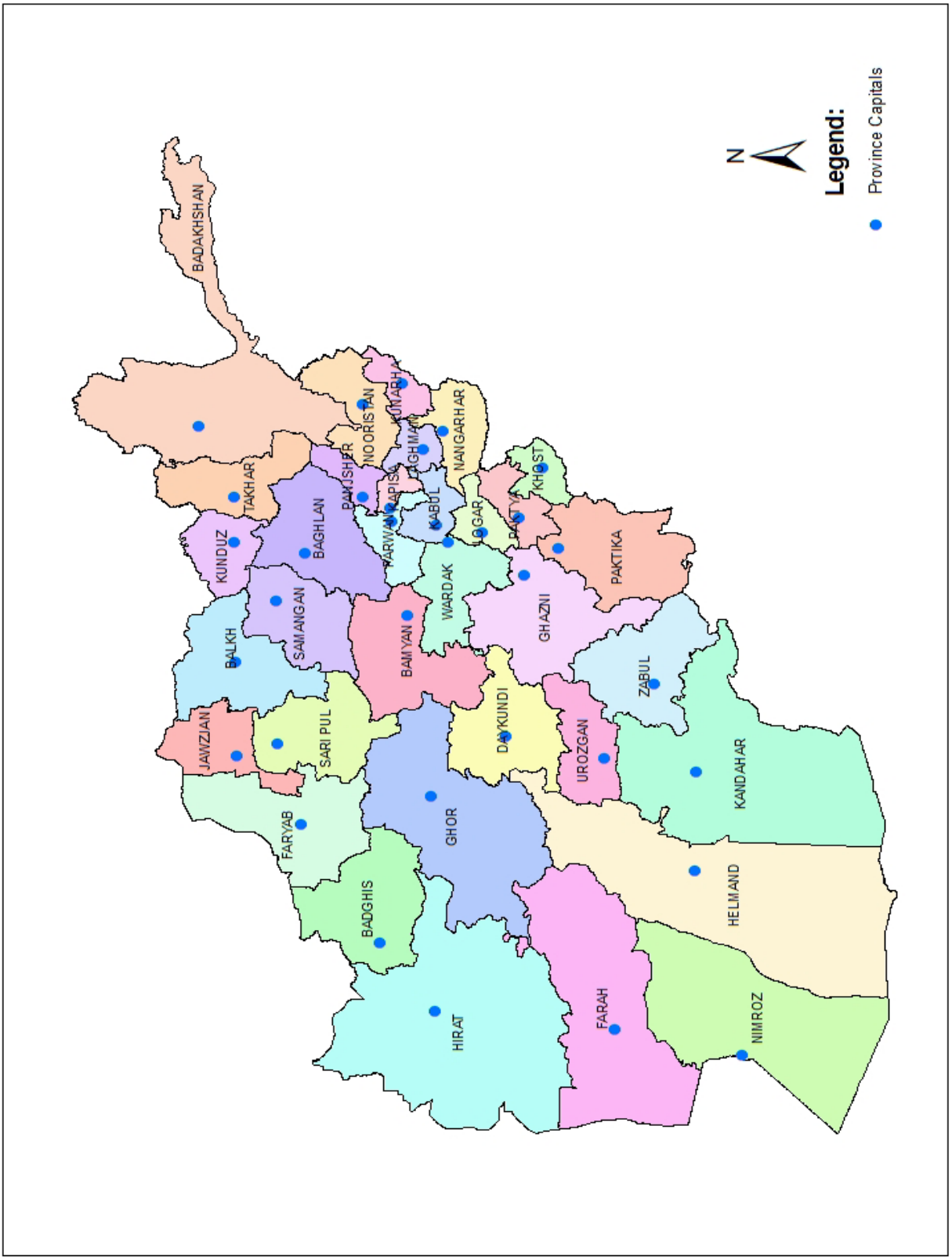
ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	-	Asian Development Bank
AHS	-	Afghanistan Health Survey
ANC	-	Ante-Natal Care
ANDS	-	Afghanistan National Development Strategy
ANSP	-	Afghanistan National Statistical Plan
ARI	-	Acute Respiratory Illness
BPHS	-	Basic Package of Health Services
CA	-	Consumption Aggregate
CBN	-	Cost of Basic Needs
CDC	-	Community Development Council
CI	-	Confidence Interval
CSO	-	Central Statistics Organization
DfID	-	UK Department for International Development
DPS	-	District Price Survey
EA	-	Enumeration Area
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organization
FCS	-	Food Consumption Score
GAR	-	Gross Attendance Ratio
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GIZ	-	German Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
GoA	-	Government of Afghanistan
ICSE	-	International Classification of Status in Employment
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
IMR	-	Infant Mortality Rate
ISCED	-	International Standard Classification of Education
Kcal	-	Kilocalorie
MAIL	-	Ministry of Agriculture, Irrigation and Livestock
MDG	-	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	-	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MMR	-	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MoE	-	Ministry of Education
MoEc	-	Ministry of Economy
MoF	-	Ministry of Finance
MoEW	-	Ministry of Energy and Water
MoLSAMD	-	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled
MoUA	-	Ministry of Urban Affairs
MoWA	-	Ministry of Women Affairs
NAR	-	Net Attendance Rate
NMAK	-	National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi
MRRD	-	Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development
MoUD	-	Ministry of Urban Development
NRVA	-	National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment
NSP	-	National Solidarity Programme
PPS	-	Probability Proportional to Size
PSO	-	Provincial Statistical Officer
PSU	-	Primary Sampling Unit
REFSA	-	Rapid Emergency Food Security Assessment
RSO	-	Regional Statistical Officer
SBA	-	Skilled Birth Attendance
SC	-	Steering Committee
TBA	-	Traditional Birth Attendants
TFR	-	Total Fertility Rate
TAC	-	Technical Advisory Committee
U5MR	-	Under-five Mortality Rate
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	-	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNFPA	-	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
UNU	-	Ultimate Sampling Unit
TT	-	Tetanus Toxoid
WB	-	World Bank
WFP	-	World Food Programme

MAP OF AFGHANISTAN



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Mohamed Sami Nabi
Director of Field Operation Department
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The 2011-12 National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) is a survey, which provides national and international stakeholders with information that is required for monitoring development progress and formulate development policies and programmes. The survey was conducted by the Central Statistics Organization (CSO) of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan and provides results that are representative at national and provincial level. It covered 20,828 households and 159,224 persons across the country, and is unique in the sense that it also includes the nomadic Kuchi population of Afghanistan. Building on previous survey rounds in 2003, 2005 and 2007-08, it has grown into Afghanistan's most comprehensive source of statistical information. The survey covers a wide range of development themes and indicators, which were agreed upon by government departments, donors and international Organizations.

The picture that emerges from the NRVA 2011-12 is one of significant improvements in various areas of development, especially in education, health and access to safe drinking water. In other areas – such as food security and poverty – results indicate stagnation or even deterioration. Despite observed improvements in many areas, the living conditions of Afghanistan's population as measured by any development indicator are among the worst in the world. Moreover, the national figures conceal dramatic differences within the population. With only very few exceptions, the situation in urban areas is much better than that in rural areas and among the Kuchi population. And invariantly, gender-specific indicators show that men and boys are far less disadvantaged than women and girls.

The remainder of this summary recapitulates the main findings of the thematic chapters of this report. An in-depth analysis of the interaction between development indicators – and more specifically the apparent nexus between poverty, food insecurity, poor labour market performance, low levels of education, high fertility and mortality, and limited access to services – is beyond the scope of this report and will require additional efforts.

Population

The population share of children under 15 of 48 percent is among the highest in the world. Afghanistan's very young age structure produces a situation in which a relatively small number of persons in the economically most productive age group 15-64 has to provide for a very large number of people in the dependent ages below 15. This implies a heavy burden for the working population, especially given the poor labour market opportunities in Afghanistan. The fact that the labour market to a large extent excludes women further aggravates this burden for the working population. The high fertility level underlying the young population composition also implies high risks for maternal and child mortality, especially in view of the poor access to health services in the country. In addition, the ever-increasing numbers of children and young adults exceed the absorption capacity of the education system and the labour market.

The Under-five Mortality Rate (U5MR) of 91 deaths per thousand live births confirms a robust downward trend in the percentage of children dying before reaching age 5. It suggests that in the four years since NRVA 2007-08 (with an U5MR of 161) out of one thousand newborn children 70 more survive to age 5.

Besides fertility and mortality, migration is a very important component in population change in Afghanistan. The migration context of the country is particularly complex and is, among others, related to job opportunities, security, (nomadic) lifestyle, gender roles and policies toward Afghans in neighbouring countries. This results in an intricate interaction of gender, age, distance and reasons for migration. Around 16 percent of the population in Afghanistan is born in a district that is different from the district of current residence; 6 percent is born in another province and 3 percent in another country. The corresponding percentages of the urban population born elsewhere are significantly higher, respectively 36, 18 and 4 percent. Kabul is the biggest magnet of attraction by far, and for both internal and international migrants: out of 4.2 million inhabitants, some 360 thousand people were born abroad and 1.9 million elsewhere in Afghanistan. Immigration is dominated by persons arriving from Pakistan (67 percent) and Iran (32 percent). For emigrants Iran is by far the most important destination (76 percent), with smaller numbers going to Pakistan (13 percent) and the Gulf states (8 percent) alongside other countries.

Marriage remains almost universal in Afghanistan and is characterized by early marriage for women. However, the share of marriages below age 18 is consistently dropping for each successive birth cohort in the last decade: whereas 60 percent of women 30 and over were married at age 18, for women aged 20-25 this decreased to 50 percent. Similarly, the age difference between husband and wife has decreased from a mean difference of 7 years for women aged 40 and over to 4 years for women under 20. Both trends could be interpreted as a strengthening of the position of women within marriage.

Labour force characteristics

Two factors dominate the Organization of Afghanistan's labour market: the importance of the agricultural sector – farming and livestock – and the underrepresentation of women. Afghanistan's labour force – all persons in the working age of 14 and over who are currently active by being either employed or unemployed – shows a large gender disparity. Out of the labour force of 7.2 million persons, only 1.3 million are women. These numbers underlie the vastly different labour force participation rates for men and women – 80 and 19 percent respectively – and indicate the difficulty for women to economically add to the position of their households, as well as to the economy at large. The share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector – the labour force MDG indicator for gender equality – is only 11 percent. The finding that high participation rates are found for boys 14 and over, as well as for elderly men 65 and over, indicate the dire need for many to contribute to the household income.

In the context of Afghanistan – characterized by low-paid, low-productivity employment and the absence of pensions and unemployment insurance – international definitions of employment and unemployment are largely irrelevant as indicators of labour market performance. Therefore, the country has adopted national definitions that are better attuned to the Afghanistan reality. In this national conceptualisation, the labour-market indicator that is considered to have most policy relevance is the percentage of the labour force that is not gainfully employed. This not-gainfully employed population includes the category of underemployed – persons who need more or other employment in order to provide for sufficient and sustainable income or livelihood – besides the unemployed.

The share of the labour force that belongs to the not-gainfully employed is 25 percent, indicating that the labour market is short of 1.8 million jobs to provide people with an adequate living. Some 17 percent of these are considered underemployed and the remaining 8 percent are unemployed. The figures for the not-gainfully employed differ sharply by residence: whereas 18 percent of the urban labour force cannot find adequate work, the figure is as high as 29 percent for the rural labour force. The corresponding figures for men and women are, respectively 22 and 39 percent, indicating that almost two in five women who want to work cannot find adequate employment. The share of not-gainfully employed youth aged 15-24 (26 percent) is similar to the share of the total labour force, but the component of youth unemployment is somewhat higher (10 against 8 percent).

The share of the working population that is in vulnerable employment – own-account workers, day labourers and unpaid family workers – is 81 percent, 79 percent for men and 87 for women. The sector that absorbed the largest share of the employed (40 percent) is agriculture. Compared to men, female work is much more concentrated in just a few sectors, particularly in livestock tending and food processing. Also in terms of working hours large gender differences are observed: on average men work 45 hours a week and women 30.

Agriculture and livestock

Farming – and more particularly farming irrigated land – is the economic backbone of Afghan society: some 40 percent of the labour force is engaged in farming. Around 38 percent of all households own any irrigated farm land and the corresponding figures for households owning rain-fed land and garden plots are, respectively, 17 and 13 percent.

Households owning irrigated land on average own 6 jeribs, with more than half (57 percent) owning an area of 3 jeribs or less. Those owning rain-fed land on average own 16 jeribs, with around half (51 percent) owning 7 jeribs or less. Cereals – especially wheat, the principal staple food in Afghanistan – are the main farm produce from both farmland types. Around 80 percent of wheat is produced on irrigated land. NRVA results suggest a spring cultivation production of 2.4 million tonnes of wheat in 2011 and 2.8 million tonnes in 2012, which would indicate a serious shortfall of the wheat requirements of around 5 million tonnes. Garden plots are on average 2.0 jeribs and for 53 percent of plot-owning households one jerib or less. They represent an important supplementation of households' diet and income, as they provide high-value and nutrition-rich produce, in particular fruits and nuts.

Among the main challenges for a productive agricultural sector are water shortage and infertility of farmland. Some 20 percent of the estimated 17 thousand km2 of irrigated farmland is left fallow, primarily because of lack of water (71 percent) and land infertility (21 percent). For rain-fed land (18 thousand km2) the share that is not cultivated is even 37 percent, mainly because of lack of rain (53 percent) and land infertility (18 percent).

The national stock of cattle seems to have dropped since the Livestock census of 2002-03. The NRVA 2011-12 estimates the number at 2.9 million, compared to 3.7 million at the time of the census. On the other hand, the herds of

small ruminants show significant increases. The number of sheep and goats are estimated at, respectively, 10 and 18 million, compared to 7 and 9 million in the census. The share of households that own one or more cattle, goats, sheep and chickens is, respectively, 39, 29, 31 and 44 percent. Besides providing households with a range of dairy and animal products, market sales of animals or livestock products are an important income source for these households.

With regard to livestock production factors, NRVA 2011-12 shows a relatively good vaccination coverage (between 72 and 91 percent for different types of livestock), but relatively low access to feed concentrate (53 percent). Livestock owners significantly (67 percent) rely on private service providers for veterinary services.

Poverty incidence, trend and profiling

NRVA 2011-12 indicates that 36.5 percent of the Afghan population has a consumption pattern that is below the poverty line. The indicators that measure the depth and severity of poverty (the poverty gap and the squared poverty gap) have values of 8.6 and 3.0, respectively. These figures imply that at national level no poverty change is observed in Afghanistan since the NRVA 2007-08, although at regional level some changes are evident. The stable poverty figures also imply that, due to rapid population growth, in terms of absolute numbers the volume of poor people has increased.

Survey results also show that inequality over time has grown, with consumption of the richer quintile growing much faster than that of the poorest two quintiles. Consequently, the Gini Index increased from 29.7 to 31.6 between the latest two NRVA surveys and the share of the poorest quintile in national consumption declined from 9.1 to 8.5 percent.

The national poverty figures hide significant differentiation across regions and residence. Thus – and similar to 2007-08 – the urban poverty headcount is 28.9 percent, compared to 37.7 percent for rural residents and 53.8 percent for the Kuchi population. Similarly, a large gap exists between the region with the lowest share of population living under the poverty line (Southwest, 28.0 percent) and that with the highest (Northeast, 50.9 percent).

Correlates of poverty include household size and the dependency ratio, an indication that high fertility is positively associated with poverty. The NRVA also suggests that literacy and education of the household head are inversely related to poverty and that households headed by women are worse off than male-headed households. It furthermore suggests that underemployment is even more important than unemployment to make households vulnerable to poverty, thereby confirming the need to focus in labour market policy on not-gainfully employment instead of only unemployment.

Food security

NRVA 2011-12 analysis indicates that around 30.1 percent of Afghanistan's population – 7.6 million people – had a calorie intake that is insufficient to sustain a healthy and active life. This figure implies thatfood insecurity has slightly worsened compared to the NRVA 2007-08 when the food-insecure represented 28.2 percent. Out of the total number of the food-insecure, 2.2 million (8.5 percent) are very severely food-insecure and 2.4 million (9.5 percent) severely food-insecure. In addition, 19.4 percent of the population – 4.9 million people – have insufficient protein consumption, a deficiency that particularly affects the nutrition of children under five.

Food-security varies by residence, household characteristics, season and geographical region. Some 34.4 percent of the urban population is food-insecure, compared to 29.1 percent of the rural population and 25.6 percent of the Kuchi population. However, in terms of absolute numbers there are more food-insecure people in rural areas (5.2 million, excluding the 5 percent Kuchi population). Households with larger household size, higher ages of the household head and with a widowed or divorced household head are more likely to be food insecure. Relatively many more food-insecure people live in the North-eastern, Central and Central Highlands regions.

In a largely agricultural society like Afghanistan the annual cultivation cycle produces significant variation in food security across seasons. Although locally harvest and lean seasons vary considerably due to the geographic diversity of the country, a clear pattern is observed in the sense that winter and spring time tend to be dire seasons and food security increases in summer and autumn. The variation across seasons in urban areas is less pronounced because here more households rely on market purchases rather than own production of food.

When coping with household shocks, the majority of households use short-term strategies including decreasing food expenditure and reducing food quality. Around one-third of the households reduces food quantity or purchase food on trader credit.

Education

All education-related indicators for Afghanistan – including gender equality indicators – show improvement since NRVA 2007-08, even though at the same time it is observed that the pace of improvement has slowed down. Despite major achievements in the last decade, education performance in Afghanistan is still among the poorest in the world, and the current rate of improvement will fail to achieve the ANDS targets by 2020.

The share of the Afghan population 25 years and over who have completed any level of formal education is very small – less than 25 percent, and for women as few as 10 percent. However, major improvements in primary and secondary school completion are observed for the younger age group 15-24 years, especially for girls. This is the result of increasing school attendance in the past decade. The net primary attendance ratios for girls and boys are now 48 and 64 percent respectively, up from 29 and 43 percent in 2005, and 42 and 60 percent in 2007-08.The downside of these figures is that still some 1.2 million girls and over 900 thousand boys are missing out on the opportunity to learn basic life skills. Net secondary attendance ratios are 23 and 42 for girls and boys respectively, up from 10 and 22 percent in 2007-08.

Opportunities to attend education are few, especially for girls and women, and rural and Kuchi populations in general, even though the gender gap in education and literacy show continuous improvement, in both absolute and relative terms. Thus, the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education are 0.74, 0.53 and 0.42 respectively, compared to 0.69, 0.49 and 0.28 in 2007-08. For girls, cultural barriers are dominant among the reasons for not attending school; for boys the main reason is the need to contribute to family income. The importance of these reasons increases with age. Insecurity and distance to schools are important reasons for non-attendance in rural areas. No more than around two in five rural households live within two kilometres of a primary school. Overall net primary school attendance in rural areas is 54 percent, while in urban areas it is 78 percent.

With regard to literacy, similar patterns and changes are recorded as for school attendance. The adult literacy rate is 45 percent for men and a low 17 percent for women. The improvements in literacy between 2005 and 2011-12 are particularly observed in the youth literacy rate, which increased from 20 to 32 percent for females aged 15-24 and from 40 to 62 percent for male youth. Consequently, the gender parity index for youth literacy has improved from 0.45 in 2007-08 to 0.52 in 2011-12. Again, the population in rural areas is at a severe disadvantage: the youth literacy rate there is only 39 percent, compared to 71 percent in urban areas.

Health

Although Afghanistan's health indicators are poor in an international perspective and cultural barriers impede progress for many components of maternal and child health, significant improvement is evident from successive surveys in the ten years preceding NRVA 2011-12.

Perhaps the most consistent and impressive improvements are observed for maternal health indicators. The proportion of women served by skilled birth attendants has increased to 40 percent, compared to 24 percent in 2007-08 and only 16 in 2005. Similar improvements are found for provision of skilled ante-natal care – to 52 percent, compared to 36 percent in 2007-08 and 23 percent in 2005 – and deliveries in institutional health facilities – 36 percent, compared to 15 percent in 2007-08.

Improvements in the areas of child health seem more modest as far as indicators were measured by NRVA 2011-12. Full protection against neonatal tetanus through at least two TT injections was received by 35 percent of women during their last pregnancy, which is only a small difference with the figure for 2007-08 (33 percent). Supplementation of Vitamin A even seems to have declined in the past four years. The proportion of children officially registered at birth is still only 35 percent.

One of the main concerns with respect to Afghanistan's health system performance is the very unequal health care provision between urban and rural populations. Invariably, for the majority of Afghanistan's rural population service delivery and health outcome indicators are significantly lower than for urban dwellers. And the situation is generally even far worse for the nomadic Kuchi population. Thus, in urban areas the percentage of deliveries assisted by skilled health personnel is 76 percent, while that in rural areas is only 33 percent and for Kuchi women even only 13 percent.

In terms of time required to reach the nearest health facility, access to these facilities has improved significantly with the implementation of outreach programmes of the Ministry of Public Health and the distribution of private health facilities

across the country. However, cultural responsiveness of the health sector – for instance in terms of provision of female health care providers – remains an important obstacle for the effective use of health care, especially by women. In addition, costs for health services and treatment are prohibitive for many households, in particular for poor households.

Housing and household amenities

The housing conditions of the Afghan population can be defined as poor, with large differences between urban and rural communities. However, several indicators show marked improvements.

Overall, 46 and 8 percent of the population use improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities respectively. The figure for safe drinking water is a significant improvement compared to NRVA 2007-08, when it was only 27 percent. The situation improved in rural areas in particular, where the percentage using improved sources increased from 20 (2007-08) to 39. The situation with regard to sanitation improved slightly, but continues to be poor, with only 8 percent of the population having access to improved sanitation. The still widespread lack of basic infrastructure for water and sanitation implies high risks of potentially fatal diseases, and is especially detrimental for the health and survival chances of infants and young children.

Health conditions in the household are further impaired by the use of solid fuels for cooking (80 percent) and heating (97 percent). The lack of electricity is becoming less of an impediment for the effective spread of information to the general public through mass media, like radio, TV and the internet, as 69 percent of households had access to some source of electricity in the month preceding the survey, compared to 42 percent in 2007-08, and only 23 percent in 2005. However, use of the internet is still virtually non-existent among the population (only 0.5 percent of Afghans use the internet), while mobile phones are used by only 14 percent of the population (up from 6 percent in 2007-08).

Physical access to rural communities is often problematic, as around 14 percent of households there live in villages located more than 6 kilometres from the nearest drivable road. Only 14 percent of Afghans – 45 percent in urban areas and 5 percent in rural areas – live in a dwelling that can be considered durable. Some 37 percent live in an overcrowded dwelling, and – taking water and sanitation conditions into account – 87 percent of urban dwellers (5.3 million people) live in slum-like conditions of poverty and physical and environmental deprivation.

Challenges and strategies

Afghanistan is a country with a high-risk profile, due to a combination of climatic and natural circumstances and being a historically grown hotbed of social and political conflict and economic vulnerability. Consequently, household and community assessments depict challenging and uncertain living conditions for a large majority of the population in Afghanistan. No less than 84 percent of households reported for the year preceding the survey experiencing one or more household shocks – risk events with negative outcomes that are outside people's direct control. Many shocks are related to food and farm prices (reported by 61 percent of households), drinking water supply (47 percent), agricultural problems (37 percent) and natural disasters (36 percent), most of which are related to the combination of a largely agricultural society, harsh climatic conditions and underdeveloped farming and veterinary support.

As the main priority both households and Shuras stress the need for further improvement of a safe drinking water supply. In addition, improvement of road, irrigation, electricity, health and education infrastructure are high on the Afghan wish list.

In terms of coping strategies, many households have resorted to food intake reduction (42 percent of households that experienced a household shock) or other detrimental coping strategies like sale of production means or removing children from school and placing them in low-paid jobs. Decreasing household expenditure (52 percent) and taking out loans or buying on credit (39 percent) are other strategies frequently applied by households experiencing such a shock. The NRVA survey indicates that 55 percent of Afghan households are in debt, to an average amount of 77 thousand Afs. The survey also suggests that various food-for-work, cash-for-work or income-generating programmes employed more than 420 thousand people and benefited 320 thousand households.

1 INTRODUCTION

After decades of war and political instability, Afghanistan remains one of the poorest countries in the world. In 2011 Afghanistan ranked 172nd out of 187 countries in the UNDP Human Development Index, a summary measure that is based on development dimensions of health, education and living standards (UNDP 2011). This poor ranking represents the challenges faced by large parts of the country's population, but at the same time hides significant improvements in different sectors in the period since 2001.

In order to address the information needs of the Government of Afghanistan and other parties to inform and prioritise development policies and programmes, the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD) and the Central Statistics Organization (CSO) started to conduct the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA). Building on two survey rounds in 2003 and 2005, the NRVA has developed into a full-blown multi-purpose survey under the sole responsibility of CSO It now captures a wide variety of development indicators in such areas as poverty, food security, labour market performance, demography, education, health, gender equality, housing and agriculture.

As such, the NRVA is the major single source of socio-economic statistics of the country. The survey is unique in the sense that – with inclusion of the nomadic Kuchi – it represents the entire population of Afghanistan, and that – since the NRVA 2007-08 survey – year-round data are collected in order to capture the seasonality of indicators like employment, food security and poverty. In order to underline the comprehensiveness of the NRVA, from the next (2013-14) survey round onwards the survey will be labelled ALCS – Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey.

This report presents the results of the latest NRVA that was conducted in 2011-2012. The primary aim is to provide the latest information about the living conditions of Afghanistan's population and about the performance of, among others, the agricultural sector, the labour market and the education and health systems. The information presented includes 22 indicators to monitor the implementation of the Afghanistan National Development Strategy (ANDS) and 20 Millennium Development Goals (MDG) indicators. The main focus in this report is on information at national level, frequently disaggregated for residential populations (urban, rural and Kuchi). Provincial-level information is largely outside the scope of the present report, although Annex 10 provides tables for selected indicators and statistics at provincial level. The information provided in this report is also largely descriptive in nature; cross-sectoral and more in-depths analyses – especially those aiming at cause-and-effect relationships – will require additional efforts and reporting.

Chapter 2 describes the main methodological characteristics of the NRVA 2011-12, including brief descriptions of the sampling design, survey questionnaires, data collection and processing, data limitations, and comparison with the previous NRVA surveys. Several annexes provide further elaborations and technical details of the methodology.

Subsequent chapters cover the subject-matter of the survey. Population structure and change are addressed first in chapter 3, as these factors permeate into every development aspect of the remaining report sections. Afghanistan's population composition by age and sex is analysed, as well as some of the underlying demographic dynamics. In addition, household and marriage patterns are examined.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the structure of Afghanistan's labour market and covers various labour force indicators, including employment, underemployment, unemployment, working hours, vulnerable employment, and differentiation by age and sex.

Agriculture, including farming and livestock production, is the subject of chapter 5. The chapter analyses the agricultural sector with a view on access to land, land area size, farm and garden production, type and number of livestock, and sale of animals and animal products, as well as relevant production factors in this sector.

The key chapters 6 and 7 present the results of, respectively, poverty and food-security analyses. Both chapters engage in a first attempt to profiling the poor and the food insecure population in Afghanistan, and compare the results with those from NRVA 2007-08.

The twin chapters 8 and 9 are dedicated to the social sectors of education and health, and to the changes occurring in these sectors. The former analyses literacy rates, school attendance and educational attainment, whereas the latter's main focus is on out-of-pocket health expenditure and maternal health, besides some indicators for access to health facilities and child health.

The housing situation is described in Chapter 10, with a view on tenancy arrangements, physical characteristics of the dwelling and housing facilities, like electricity, drinking water and sanitation. Household shocks and coping strategies, as well as community preferences for interventions are outlined and analysed in chapter 11.

The last annex to this report provides a comprehensive list of concepts and definitions that may guide the reader in a deeper understanding of the presented materials.

2 SURVEY METHODOLOGY AND OPERATIONS

2.1 Introduction

The methodologies applied in the NRVA 2011-12 – in terms of questionnaire and sampling design, analysis, and procedures for data collection, data capture and data processing – have taken into account the specific circumstances of Afghanistan. These refer to issues such as fieldwork challenges, stakeholder information needs, socio-cultural specificities, the statistical infrastructure and implementation capacity at various levels of the survey hierarchy. At the same time, methodologies were designed as to comply with international survey recommendations and best practices. Experience gained from the previous rounds of NRVA and application of international standards resulted in some methodological changes, but as much as possible the rigour of previous achievements has been maintained in order to ensure comparability over time.

This chapter provides an introduction to different methodology dimensions adopted in the present round of NRVA for a better understanding of the survey results that are presented in the subject matter chapters 3 to 11. In this respect the different sections will also highlight methodological changes compared with previous rounds.

2.2 Stakeholder involvement

As the primary aim of NRVA is to serve the information needs of data users, consultation with stakeholders has been carried out in several crucial stages of the survey. The group of stakeholders that participated in the meetings organised by CSO included line ministries [1], UN and other international organizations [2], bilateral donors [3] and academic and research bodies.

At the onset of the present NRVA round (January-March 2010) a series of three meetings with stakeholders was organised to discuss and define the information to be collected in the 2011-12 round of NRVA. These meetings also dealt with the sustainability and long-term perspective of the NRVA as Afghanistan's most important instrument for producing socio-economic information (see Section 2.3). Further stakeholder meetings were organised to discuss the NRVA tabulation and analysis plan and the outline of this final report (July and September 2012).

In addition to these meetings, a number of key stakeholders were present in the NRVA Steering Committee to supervise the work progress and recommend specific actions. Similarly, relevant stakeholders participated in the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC) to scrutinise methodological and technical matters and provide input if and when required.

2.3 Questionnaire design

Since 2003, the successive NRVA surveys incorporated increasing numbers of questions. This continued even to the extent that interview burden and workloads in data processing and analysis run the risk of overreaching the capacity of fieldworkers, respondents and CSO staff. The need to pack all information needs into one survey that was conducted at irregular intervals was reduced when the Afghanistan National Statistical Plan (ANSP) (CSO, 2010) was formulated. The ANSP presented a medium-term perspective that anticipated the implementation of NRVA as the national multi-purpose survey of Afghanistan on an annual basis. This allowed the introduction of a schedule of rotating questionnaire modules: rather than including all questions and topics every year, for successive years different modules are added or expanded to provide more detailed information on specific subjects in addition to the core questionnaire that annually covers a standard set of key indicators.

In the series of consultations with stakeholders in 2010, agreement was reached to re-design the NRVA data collection and questionnaires according to this rotation principle, which implied that meeting information needs, as well as survey implementation could be achieved in a more sustainable way. Annex II provides a summary of contents of successive survey rounds.

The core of NRVA 2011-12 is a household questionnaire consisting of 15 subject sections, 11 administered by male interviewers and answered by the male household representative (usually the head of household), and four asked by female interviewers from female respondents. In addition, the questionnaire included three modules for identification and monitoring purposes (*see Table 2.1*). On average the time required to answer the household questionnaire was around one-and-a-half hour.

1 MRRD, MAIL, MoPH, MoE, MoLSAMD, MoWA, MoEW, MoEc, MoF, MoUD
2 WFP, WB, UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP, ILO, UNDP, UNHCR, WHO, ADB
3 EC, DfID, GIZ

Table 2.1 NRVA 2011-12 household questionnaire modules (subject matter modules in bold)

	Male modules	Female modules
Household identification	**Labour**	Household identification
Process monitoring	**Household income**	**Missing household members**
Household roster	**Household expenditure**	**General living conditions**
Housing and amenities	**Migration**	**Food consumption**
Livestock	**Education**	**Maternal and child health**
Agriculture		
Household assets	**Household shocks and coping strategies**	

In addition to household information, data were collected at community level through two community questionnaires – one male and one female Shura questionnaire – addressing the topics presented in *Table 2.2*. Finally, the NRVA survey instrument included a questionnaire to collect data on market prices for food items and a few other commodities. Annex III provides the set of NRVA 2011-12 questionnaires.

Table 2.2 NRVA 2011-12 Shura questionnaire modules (subject matter modules in bold)

Male Shura questionnaire modules	Female Shura questionnaire modules
Community identification	Community identification
Process monitoring	Process monitoring
Community access and access to facilities	**Community development priorities**
Community projects	
Community development priorities	
Agricultural calendars	

2.4 Pilot training and pilot survey

In order to validate the survey instruments, as well as training and field procedures, these were tested prior to the start of the fieldwork. The questionnaires were translated into Dari and Pashto, and were subjected to a pre-test by CSO staff. After this, a full pilot was conducted in October 2010. To this end four survey teams of seven persons each (three interview couples and one supervisor) were selected to participate in a one-week training and subsequent field test.

The pilot teams were distributed over two provinces (Kabul and Parwan), each with a purposely-selected urban and rural cluster. Following a sampling procedure similar to the one in the main survey, within each of the four clusters 30 households were sampled and the resulting 120 households were effectively interviewed.

Changes in contents and wording were made to the questionnaire and manuals, based on the experience from the training and fieldwork.

2.5 Training and selection of field staff

Following a screening procedure based on a review of around one thousand written applications from all 34 provinces and subsequent written tests and interviews, 272 candidates were invited to participate in the training prior to the start of the full survey. This group consisted of three candidate interviewer couples of one male and one female interviewer, and two candidate supervisors per province.

The training was centrally conducted in Kabul over a period of 24 days in February and March 2011. This approach was preferred over regional trainings as it enhanced the consistency of knowledge transfer and optimised the use of expertise available in CSO[4]. The curriculum consisted of instructions in interview techniques, field procedures and logistics, a step-by-step review of questionnaire contents, practical exercises and examples, in-class mock interviews and field practice in interviewing and supervision.

4 The CSO trainers included the Head of Field Operations and Sampling Department, the Lead Statistician, the Director of Operations and the Database Manager.

The first phase of the two-stage training consisted of one week class-room training and two days of field practice under supervision of CSO staff, and was concluded with an exam. The exam scores and a review of completed questionnaires were used to select the supervisor and two interviewer couples for each province. These 34 supervisors and 136 interviewers continued class-room training for another 15 days. The trainees not selected for the fieldwork were kept as reserves to accommodate drop out during the survey period.

In addition to the initial central training, at the end of the first three quarters of data collection regional workshops were conducted for supervisors, Provincial Statistical Officers (PSOs) and Regional Statistical Officers (RSOs). The aim of these workshops was to feed back the lessons learned from the field, discuss relevant issues, provide additional training, transfer new field supplies and strengthen working relations and coordination between PSOs, RSOs, field supervisors and Headquarters staff. In March 2012 another round of regional training was conducted for all field staff, including PSOs and RSOs, with a special focus on the food consumption modules.

After completion of the survey, a final series of regional debriefings was organised for field staff in order to obtain their views on improvements in field procedures and questionnaire design and contents. This feedback has been incorporated in the development of the next survey round in 2013.

2.6 Sampling design and implementation

The sampling design of the NRVA 2011-12 was developed to produce results that are representative at national and provincial level, as well as for Shamsi calendar seasons.[5] In total 35 strata were identified, 34 for the provinces of Afghanistan and one for the nomadic Kuchi population. Stratification by season was achieved by equally distributing data collection over 12 months within the provinces. For the Kuchi population, the design only provided sampling in winter and summer when communities tend to temporarily settle. Given the total sample size of 21,000 and uniform sample size per stratum, each province and the Kuchi stratum was assigned with 600 households to be interviewed.

The sampling frame used for the resident population in the NRVA 2011-12 was the pre-census household listing conducted by CSO in 2003-05. Households were selected on the basis of a two-stage cluster design within each stratum. In the first stage Enumeration Areas (EAs) were selected as Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) with probability proportional to EA size (PPS). Subsequently, in the second stage ten households were selected as the Ultimate Sampling Unit (USU). The design thus provided for 60 clusters per province, implying data collection of five clusters (50 households) per province per month and in total 170 clusters (1,700) households per month and 2,040 clusters (20,400 households) in the full year of data collection.

The Kuchi sample was designed on basis of the 2003-04 National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK-2004). For this stratum a community selection was implemented with PPS and a second stage selection with again a constant cluster size of ten households. The 60 clusters (600 households) for this stratum were equally divided between the summer and winter periods within the survey period.

The reality of survey taking in Afghanistan imposed a number of deviations from the sampling design. In the first six fieldwork months areas that were inaccessible due to insecurity were replaced by sampled areas that were scheduled for a later month, in the hope that over time security conditions would improve and the original cluster interviews could still be conducted. In view of sustained levels of insecurity, from the sixth month of data collection onward clusters in inaccessible areas were replaced by clusters drawn from a reserve sampling frame that excluded insecure districts. In addition, delays in fieldwork caused an uneven seasonal coverage.

Sample weights were calculated for up-scaling the surveyed households and population to the total number of households and population in Afghanistan. The calculation was based on the official CSO population estimate by province for January 2012 and average provincial household size derived from the survey. In view of the unequal distribution of the sample across seasons, a post-stratification adjustment was imposed to give equal weight to the seasons.

Annex IV gives an account of the background and technical details of the sampling design and implementation.

5 The Shamsi years 1390 and 1391, in which the NRVA 2011-12 was conducted, run from, respectively, 21 March 2011 to 19 March 2012 and from 20 March 2012 to 14 March 2013. Season dates are given in Annex IX.

2.7 Field operations

The NRVA 2011-12 field staff consisted of two mixed interview couples and one field supervisor for each of the 34 provinces of Afghanistan. The field operations were supervised by nine Regional Statistical Officers (RSOs), who were selected from the Provincial Statistical Officers (PSOs). In addition, NRVA staff from CSO Headquarters performed monthly monitoring missions for direct feedback to interviewers and supervisors.

The survey instrument consisted of paper questionnaires for households, male and female community Shuras (councils) and commodity prices in the nearest market place. The male interviewers administered the interviews with the male household representative and the female interviewers those with female household representative and other eligible female household members. In addition, a female interviewer conducted the female Shura interviews, whereas the supervisor usually administered the male Shura interviews. The supervisors were also responsible for collecting the market prices.

Each of the field teams had a monthly interview target of 50 household interviews in 5 selected clusters, resulting in a national monthly total of 1,700 household interviews. Data collection started in April 2011. Progress in the first months was slow due to a variety of reasons, including access problems related to insecurity and physical circumstances, replacement of field staff, Ramazan, and the requirement to revise the sampling procedure. Effectively, this meant that in spring and summer 2011 fewer interviews were conducted than planned. The missing interviews were compensated in corresponding period in 2012. For this reason data collection was extended to August 2012. In addition to surveying the resident population during the entire survey period, the nomadic Kuchi population was accessed in winter and summer when they tend to stay put for some time.

Provinces that faced most security challenges were Kapisa, Paktya, Zabul, Logar, Wardak, Sar-e-Pul, Jawzjan, Helmand and Urozgan. In view of recurrent access problems a security strategy was developed. This strategy included mapping of insecure areas, security assessment in the field, consultation of relevant information sources (PSOs, NSP Regional Management Units, CDCs), and discussions and negotiations with relevant actors, such as governors, community leaders and Jahadi commanders.[6] As a last resort insecure areas were replaced by more secure areas. The implementation of this strategy resulted in fewer replacements in the second and third survey quarters. The security situation in Zabul did not allow participation of female interviewers. *Figure 2.1* shows in which districts the survey was implemented according to the sample design, and in which districts less or no data collection took place. Out of the 357 sampled districts and provincial centres of Afghanistan, in 342 (96 percent) information was collected, although in 35 (10 percent) fewer interviews were conducted than originally planned.

2.8 Data processing

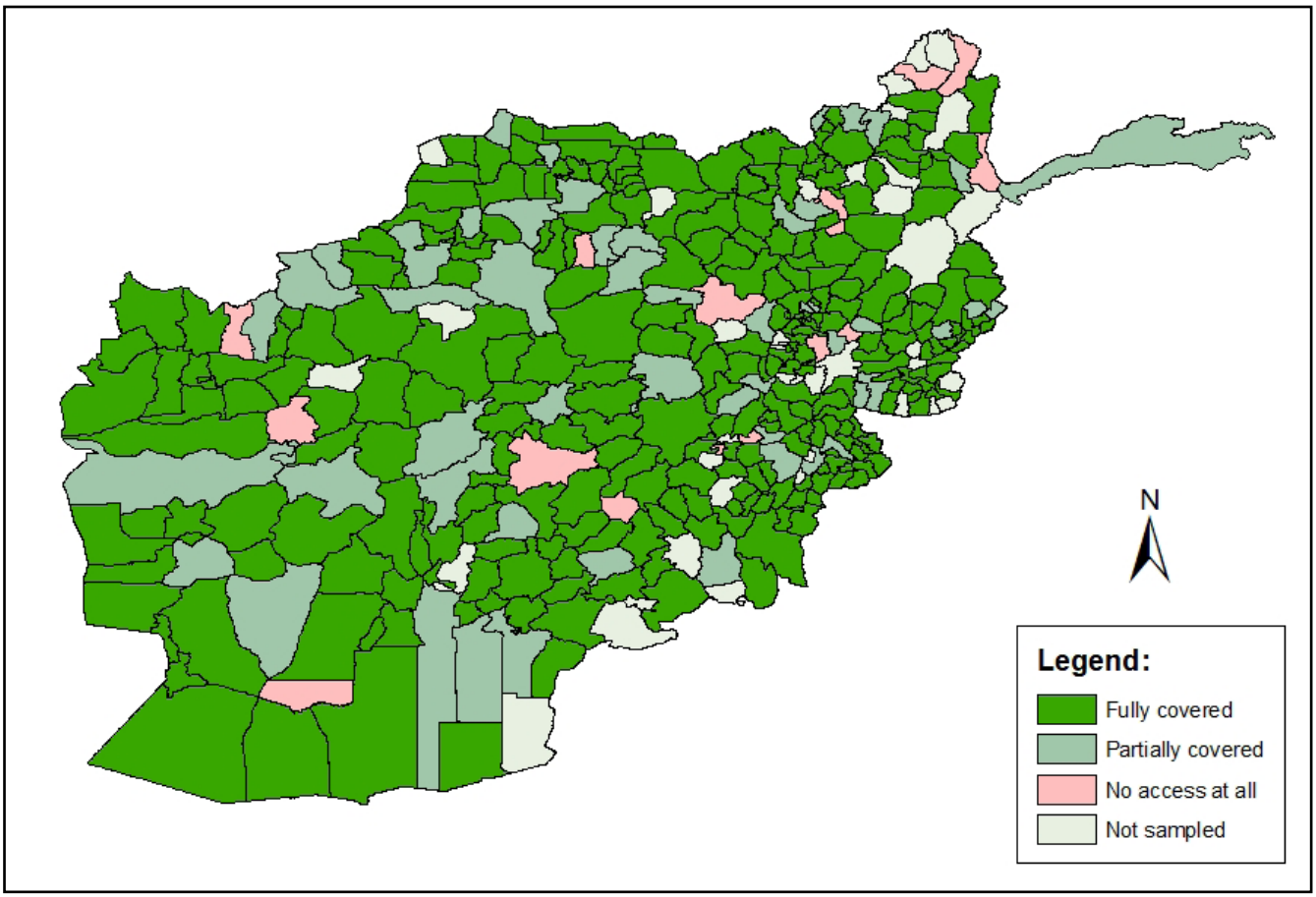
The tasks of the RSOs included checking a sample of the completed questionnaires, as a second level of quality control in the field after the checking by supervisors. On a monthly basis, they transported batches of completed questionnaires and other survey documents back to CSO Headquarters and took new field supplies to the provinces. The PSOs were responsible for the introduction of the field teams to the provincial and local authorities, for monitoring fieldwork progress and the security situation, and for verification of survey results in the field. In four provinces field staff was replaced due to underperformance.

Data processing in CSO Headquarters was done in parallel to the fieldwork and started upon arrival of the first batch of completed questionnaires in May 2011. The first stage consisted of manual checking by three questionnaire editors. Subsequently, the questionnaire batch was submitted for data entry. The data entry staff received two rounds of training before actual data capture started. In the course of the survey, the team was expanded to 30 operators to keep up to eliminate the backlog that arose due to double data entry.

Data capture was done with a specially designed MS Access programme, which was piloted to ensure a smooth performance. The database was equipped with VB coding to perform basic consistency and range checks. The database programme also included several data-cleaning and data-management procedures for process monitoring and daily back-ups by the Database Director.

6 CSO acknowledges the valuable support of MRRD in the development and implementation of this strategy.

Figure 2.1 Implementation of NRVA 2011-12 sampling clusters, by district



The principle of double data entry was introduced to avoid high levels of manual data capture errors. For each of the double-entered batches integrity checks were performed at individual, household and batch level. Emerging issues were resolved by a team of seven data editors. A complementary MS Access programme identified discrepancies between the batches of double-entered data, which were subsequently reconciled and again tested for integrity.

Further data editing was first performed on the MS Access database. This database was then transferred to Stata software for the application of programmes to identify data flaws and either perform automatic imputation or manual screen editing. Data processing was completed in September 2012. During the analysis phase, final edits were done.

2.9 Comparability of results

Comparability between the 2007-08 and 2011-12 surveys was maintained as much as possible by a largely similar questionnaire design and content for reported indicators, training and data collection procedures. Whereas the sampling design differed between surveys, both surveys produced representative results at national and provincial level. Comparability with NRVA 2005 is more limited due to major questionnaire revisions in 2007 and the limitation of data collection to three months in 2005, which prevented seasonal analysis like that in the last two NRVA rounds. Any comparison with 2005 results in this report should, therefore, be treated with caution.[7]

The NRVA questionnaire design partially built on major international survey practices, such as the DHS and MICS surveys. In addition, for internationally agreed indicators, NRVA usually applies the standard conceptualisation and definitions. Therefore, many indicators produced in this report embody a high level of international comparability. The report text indicates if, for some reason, applied definitions deviate from the internationally recommended ones. The annex with concepts and definitions provides the specifications applied in the present analysis (Annex XI).

7 As sampling design, survey design and questionnaire content of NRVA 2003 were very different from the subsequent rounds, no effort is made here to include its results in any trend analysis.

2.10 Data limitations

The specific constraints in the Afghanistan context in terms of security problems, cultural barriers and local survey capacity induced some data limitations. The following observations should be taken into account when interpreting the results in this report:

- In 150 out of 2,100 cases (7.1 percent), originally sampled clusters could not be visited, in most cases due to security reasons. For 133 of these cases (6.3 percent of the total), clusters were replaced. As the non-visited areas may have profiles different from visited areas, the final sample will have a slight bias in the results. This effect will have been larger at the provincial level for provinces with relatively large numbers of replacement.
- In 18 percent of the cases, sampled areas were temporarily inaccessible due to insecurity (13 percent) or physical access problems (5 percent, concentrated in winter time). Upon improvement of local conditions these areas were covered in a later round of data collection.
- Out of the 21,000 household interviews scheduled, 20,828 (99.2 percent) were actually implemented. This data reduction is limited and has not significantly affected the reliability of data.
- Analysis of the population structure by sex and age shows under-enumeration of women and girls, and young children, especially infants. Coverage of the youngest age group was much better than in 2007-08, but significant numbers are still omitted. Cultural backgrounds related to the seclusion of women and high infant mortality are among likely reasons for these omissions.
- Although an improvement compared to NRVA 2007-08 can be noted, the quality of age reporting in the Afghan population remains very poor, as indicated by large age heaping on ages with digits ending on 5 and 0. [8]
- Due to security problems, work by female interviewers in Zabul was very restricted. Consequently, the information on maternal and child health, and fertility and mortality information is largely missing for this province. However, the food consumption module in the female questionnaire was collected by male interviewers interviewing male respondents.

2.11 Reporting

The source of all information presented in this report is the NRVA 2011-12, unless otherwise specified. Presenting information from other sources than NRVA does not imply an endorsement by CSO, but should merely be interpreted as a contextualisation of the present findings.

Titles of tables presented in this report follow a standard convention to exactly define the table contents and structure: first, the title states the universe of elements presented in the table, then it defines the variable(s) presented in the column headings, then the variable(s) presented in the row headings. In the title the universe and the column variable(s) are separated by a comma (‘,’); the column variable(s) and the row variable(s) are separated by ‘, and by’.

8 The Myers' Blended Index is 20.6 and the Whipple's Index is 223.

3 POPULATION STRUCTURE AND CHANGE

SUMMARY. *The average household size in Afghanistan is 7.4 persons, of whom on average 3.6 – 48 percent – are children under fifteen. Some 22 percent of the households accommodate 10 or more persons, accounting for 35 percent of the population. The young age composition contributes to the country's high dependency ratio of 104 and is an indication of a high fertility level and a large burden on the country's economy. Demographic estimates support the picture of continuous decline in the under-five mortality rate, from 161per 1,000 live births in the NRVA 2007-08 to 91 in the present survey.*

The migration context of Afghanistan is particularly complex. With respect to internal migration, women more often move short distances within the same province, often to marry, whereas men are more likely to migrate further afield – often to another province – to find work. The attraction of urban centres is reflected in the 2-3 times higher rates of internal migration from rural to urban areas than vice versa. In addition, mobility within the urban sector is significantly higher than within the rural sector.

Immigration from other countries is largely family migration, with the age and sex composition of the immigrants corresponding to that of the resident population of Afghanistan. Recent immigrants come almost exclusively from Pakistan (67 percent) and Iran (32 percent) and settle equally in urban and rural areas. Emigration is dominated by young adult men, most of whom move to Iran (76 percent), with smaller numbers going to Pakistan (13 percent) and the Gulf states (8 percent) alongside other countries. The available data suggest that the average annual immigration ratio in the seven years preceding the survey and the emigration rate in the twelve months preceding the survey are almost in balance at 0.4 percent. However, both indicators underestimate true migration levels to an unknown degree.

Marriage is almost universal in Afghanistan and is characterized by early marriage for women. However, significant changes are observed in female age at first marriage. In the age group 30 years and older, 25 percent of women were married at age 15, and at least 80 percent at age 20. For women in the age group 20-24 years the corresponding figures have decreased to, 17 and 65 percent respectively, and for the age group 15-19 years only 6 percent were married at age 15. The observed large spousal age difference is a prime cause of high levels of female widowhood: 57 percent of women aged 65 and older are widowed. However, the age difference is rapidly decreasing: while women aged 40 years and older have a husband who is on average 7 years older, the age gap narrows for each younger age group, to around 4 years for women aged 15-19 years.

3.1 Introduction

The last count of the population of Afghanistan was done in the 1979 Population and Housing census. CSO's estimation of the settled population is based on a constant population growth rate of 2.03 percent since 1979, which results in an estimate of 25.5 million for January 2012. The nomadic Kuchi population is established at 1.5 million persons.

There can be no doubt that high fertility and mortality, and large-scale international migration – including consecutive massive waves of refugees and, more recently, returnees – made a significant impact on the overall size and structure of the population. In addition, geographic differentiation in fertility and mortality, as well as internal migration and movements of internally displaced persons (IDPs) have had major effects on the internal distribution of the population.

One of the aims of the NRVA is to examine the structure and distribution of the population and households of Afghanistan, and their underlying dynamics. Section 3.2 focuses on population structure and distribution, whereas section 3.3 addresses household characteristics and marriage patterns. Sections 3.4 and 3.5 elaborate the population processes of, respectively, childhood mortality and migration, the latter distinguishing between international, internal and seasonal migration and displacement.

3.2 Population structure and distribution

The most striking feature of the Afghan population is its very young age structure (see *Figure 3.1 and Table 3.1*). Some 48.4 percent (13 million) is under 15 years of age, whereas elderly of 65 and over represent only 2.5 percent of the total population. The proportion under 15 would figure the second highest in the world in the 2010 UN population estimates (UN Population Division 2011).

The young age composition contributes to a very high dependency ratio: for every 100 persons in the working age 15-64, there are 104 persons in the less productive ages of under-fifteen and 65 and over, who are dependent for income and subsistence. This figure implies a significant burden for the prime working-age population and the economy at large, as large economic and social investments in terms of education and health care are concentrated in the youngest age categories.

Quality of age reporting

In countries like Afghanistan, many people are unaware about their exact age or date of birth. This leads to high incidences of age misreporting, for instance by age heaping and age shifting. Conse-quently, reported ages in surveys and censuses should be treated with caution. Different procedures to assess the quality of the NRVA data indicate that age reporting is highly inaccurate.[a]

Another common characteristic of many developing countries is the omission of very young children from enumeration activities. The relatively small 0-4 age group in *Figure 3.1* points in this direction. A breakdown by single years of age suggests an even more pronounced undercount of infants and one-year old children. It is not unlikely that around one million young children are omitted from the present figures.

Both age reporting and coverage of young children in the present NRVA are significantly better than in the NRVA rounds of 2005 and 2007-08.

[a] The Myers' blended index is 20.6 and the Whipple's index is 223.

Overall, the share of the 0-14 year old population has decreased very little compared to 2007-08 (48.6 percent). However, if the better coverage of household members in the present survey is taken into account, the decrease might well have been around four percentage points.

Generally, the sex ratio across age groups follows a pattern in which boys outnumber girls at birth (with around 105 to 100), by and large maintain this male pre-dominance in early childhood, to gradually converge with the number of women at later ages. Around age 50 the male surplus usually turns into a shortfall, which increases at older ages, resulting in an overall sex ratio generally close to 100. This pattern results from the usually small excess of boys at birth and the commonly higher mortality of males over females. Genuine deviations from this pattern can be caused by variations in the sex ratio at birth and by sex-specific mortality and migration. However, sex-specific age-misreporting and under-counting or over-counting can also lead to unexpected sex ratios.

Figure 3.1 Population, by age and sex (in percentages)

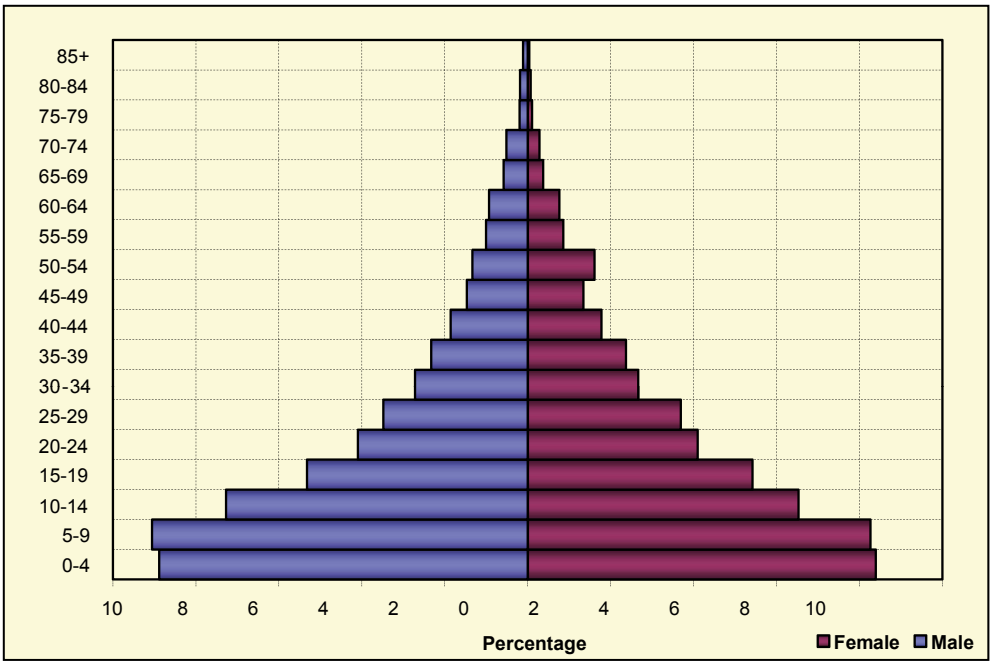


Table 3.1: Population, by residence, sex, and by age

a. in thousands

Age	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			National		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
0-14	1,335	1,238	2,574	5,048	4,652	9,701	416	358	774	6,799	6,249	13,048
15-24	733	711	1,444	1,698	1,745	3,443	109	110	219	2,540	2,566	5,106
25-39	536	533	1,069	1,637	1,683	3,320	126	134	260	2,299	2,350	4,649
40-64	409	433	842	1,281	1,195	2,476	91	81	172	1,781	1,709	3,490
65+	128	74	202	281	145	426	21	13	34	430	231	662
Total	3,141	2,989	6,130	9,945	9,420	19,365	764	696	1,459	13,850	13,105	26,955

b. in thousands

Age	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			National		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
0-14	42.5	41.4	42.0	50.8	49.4	50.1	54.4	51.4	53.0	49.1	47.7	48.4
15-24	23.3	23.8	23.6	17.1	18.5	17.8	14.3	15.8	15.0	18.3	19.6	18.9
25-39	17.1	17.8	17.4	16.5	17.9	17.1	16.5	19.3	17.8	16.6	17.9	17.2
40-64	13.0	14.5	13.7	12.9	12.7	12.8	11.9	11.7	11.8	12.9	13.0	12.9
65+	4.1	2.5	3.3	2.8	1.5	2.2	2.8	1.8	2.3	3.1	1.8	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The overall sex distribution in the Afghan population is tilted toward males, as indicated by the sex ratio – the number of males per 100 females in the population. The NRVA 2011-12 found a relatively high overall sex ratio of 106 males per 100 females, corresponding to 48.5 percent females and 51.5 percent males. It is likely that a combination of female under-enumeration – related to cultural norms of female seclusion – and excess female mortality – especially related to maternal mortality – are important factors to the high sex ratio in the Afghan population. The especially large under-representation of teenage and older (55 and over) females in the survey results supports this supposition.

As is shown in panel a of Table 3.1, the population of Afghanistan is overwhelmingly rural: the 19.4 million rural residents represent 71.8 percent of the total population. Only 22.7 percent (6.1 million) live in urban areas, whereas 5.4 percent (1.5 million) of the population is classified as Kuchi. The CSO population projection rates imply that since the NRVA 2007-08, the total population has increased with 2.0 million people, of which 1.2 million in urban areas and 828 thousand in rural areas. Due to the assumed counterbalancing effect of natural growth and settlement of the Kuchi, the size of the nomadic population remains stable at 1.5 million people, which implies a steady decrease in terms of its share in the overall population (down from 5.8 in 2007-08).

The breakdown by residence shows considerable differences in the percentage of population below 15 between the urban, rural and Kuchi populations. Whereas this share is over 50 percent in the latter two populations, in urban areas it is only 42 percent. On the other hand, the age group 15-24 is relatively overrepresented in urban areas (23.6 against 17.8 percent in rural areas). These different age structures are to a considerable extent caused by the combined effects of lower urban fertility and selective in-migration of students and young adults looking for education opportunities and jobs on the urban labour market.

At provincial level, the differences in the age structure of the population are even more pronounced. Whereas Kabul – as expected, being the most urbanised province – records the lowest share of under-15 population (41.1 percent), nine provinces have shares of more than 52 percent (data not shown).

3.3 Household composition and marriage patterns

3.3.1 Household structure

The total number of households[1] in Afghanistan is estimated at around 3.6 million. This implies an average household size of 7.4 persons, about the same as found in the NRVA 2005 and 2007-08 (respectively 7.4 and 7.3 members per household). Despite having fewer children under 15, urban households are slightly larger than rural households (see *Table 3.2*). This is consistent with the 2007-08 findings, but contrary to the general finding that urban households are smaller. One explanation could be that the housing market in the urban sector of Afghanistan – strongly dominated by Kabul – is tight and rural-to-urban migrants, as well as immigrants, tend to move in with urban family rather then establish an independent household by themselves. This reasoning is supported by the finding that urban households accommodate relatively more extended and multi-generation families (data not shown here).

Table 3.2: Households, by residence, and by selected household structure indicators

Selected household structure indicators	Urban		Rural		Kuchi		National	
	Thousands	Percentage	Thousands	Percentage	Thousands	Percentage	Thousands	Percentage
Household size								
1-3 persons	68.3	8.4	240.4	9.2	20.2	10.0	328.9	9.1
4-6 persons	273.8	33.5	867.9	33.3	69.7	34.4	1,211.4	33.4
7-9 persons	296.4	36.2	936.5	35.9	71.3	35.3	1,304.2	35.9
10-13 persons	141.4	17.3	445.7	17.1	33.8	16.7	620.8	17.1
14 persons or more	38.0	4.6	119.0	4.6	7.3	3.6	164.2	4.5
Total	817.8	100.0	2,609.4	100.0	202.3	100.0	3,629.5	100.0
Averages								
Household size	7.5		7.4		7.2		7.4	
No. of children 0-14	3.1		3.7		3.8		3.6	
No. of elderly 65 and over	0.25		0.16		0.17		0.18	
Share of								
Children 0-14	42.0		50.1		53.0		48.4	
Elderly 65 and over	3.3		2.2		2.3		2.5	

On average, households have 3.6 children under 15 years of age, with urban households having half a child less. One in four urban households, on average, accommodate an elderly person, with the corresponding rural figure being around one in six households.

The large majority of households (69.3 percent) have 4 to 9 members, whereas 21.6 percent (some 785 thousand households) accommodate 10 or more people, and only 9.1 percent has three or fewer persons. The population distribution is to a much larger degree concentrated in large households: more than one in three (35.3 percent) of all Afghans live in households with 10 or more people and only 3.2 percent do so in households with three or fewer people. One-person households are virtually non-existent. *Figure 3.2* shows the distribution of households and population by household size.

1 A household is defined as group of people, either related or unrelated, who live together as a unit single in the sense that they have common housekeeping arrangements, that is, they share or are supported by a common budget. They live together, pool their money, and eat at least one meal together each day.

Figure 3.2: Households and population, by household size (in percentages)

A very small proportion – less than one percent – of households are female-headed (see *Table 3.3*). In the Afghan context, the absence of a male head of household can signify a highly vulnerable position of the household members in terms of income security and social protection. In a similar way, households headed by young persons (under 18) or old people (65 and over) without younger adult male household members can find themselves exposed to economic and social threats. The occurrence of any one of these three categories of household heading is in 3.1 percent of the cases. This represents 539 thousand people (2.0 percent of the total population) living in such potentially vulnerable households.

More than one in three households (36 percent) is composed of two or more generations. Of the population, just over one out of four persons (27 percent) live in such multi-generation households.

Table 3.3: Households and population, by household characteristics (in percentages)

Characteristics of head of household	Percentage of	
	households	population
Headed by female	0.7	0.4
Headed by child (under 18)	0.4	0.3
Headed by elderly (65+) without younger male adults	2.0	1.3
Multi-generation household[a]	36.2	27.2

[a] Multi-generation households are those that include three generations or more.

3.3.2 Marriage patterns

Marital status is a key principle in the social relations in Afghan society. Marriage as a universal phenomenon is indicated by the fact that less than one percent of the population of 35 and over remained unmarried. In the total population, however, 63.2 percent is unmarried due to the large representation of the age cohorts under-15 – of whom virtually no one is married – and 15-24 – of whom 70.3 percent is still unmarried (*Table 3.4*).

Table 3.4: Population, by marital status, and by sex, age (in percentages)

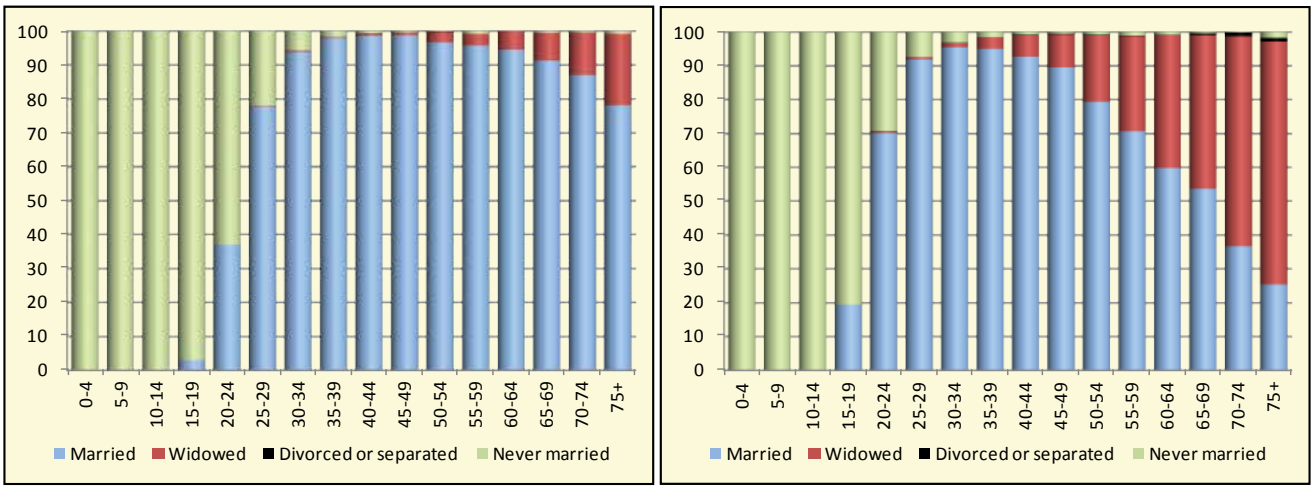
Sex, age	Married	Widowed	Divorced or separated	Never	Total
Male					
0-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
15-24	17.8	0.1	0.0	82.2	100.0
25-39	88.3	0.3	0.0	11.3	100.0
40-64	97.2	2.3	0.0	0.5	100.0
65+	85.8	13.6	0.0	0.6	100.0
Total	33.1	0.8	0.0	66.1	100.0
Female					
0-14	0.1	0.0	0.0	99.9	100.0
15-24	41.3	0.2	0.0	58.5	100.0
25-39	93.8	1.6	0.1	4.5	100.0
40-64	81.7	17.3	0.2	0.8	100.0
65+	41.2	57.2	0.9	0.6	100.0
Total	36.3	3.6	0.1	60.0	100.0
Both sexes					
0-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
15-24	29.6	0.1	0.0	70.3	100.0
25-39	91.1	1.0	0.0	7.9	100.0
40-64	89.6	9.6	0.1	0.6	100.0
65+	70.2	28.9	0.3	0.6	100.0
Total	34.7	2.2	0.0	63.2	100.0

While divorce and separation are practically invisible in the marital status distribution, the incidence of widowhood increases with age, especially for women. Whereas around 2 and 14 percent of men aged, respectively, 40-64 and over-65 are widowers, the corresponding figures for women are 17 and no less than 57 percent. In absolute numbers, Afghanistan has around 108 thousand widowers, but no less than 471 thousand widows. The main cause of this large number of widows is large age differences between spouses. Irrespective of the cause, widowed women can be classified as being in a vulnerable position in Afghan society.

The marital gender differentiation is clearly visible in *Figure 3.3*: women tend to get married earlier than men and become widowed earlier and in significantly larger shares.

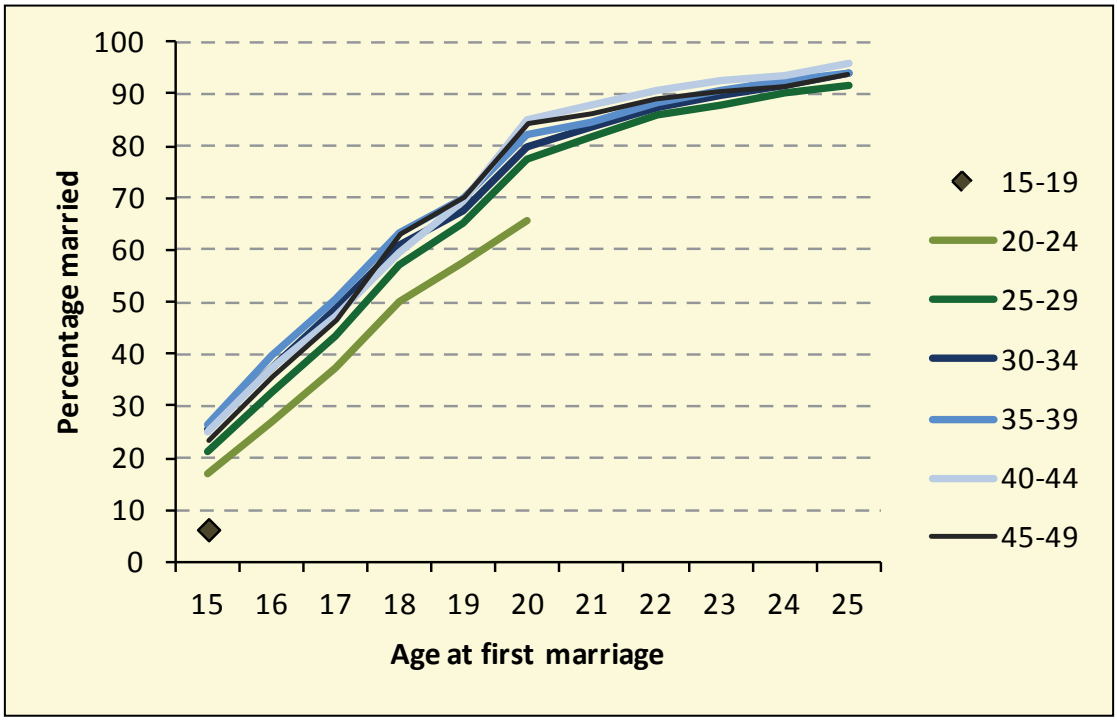
Figure 3.3 Male and female population, by age, and by marital status (in percentages)

a. Male **b. Female**



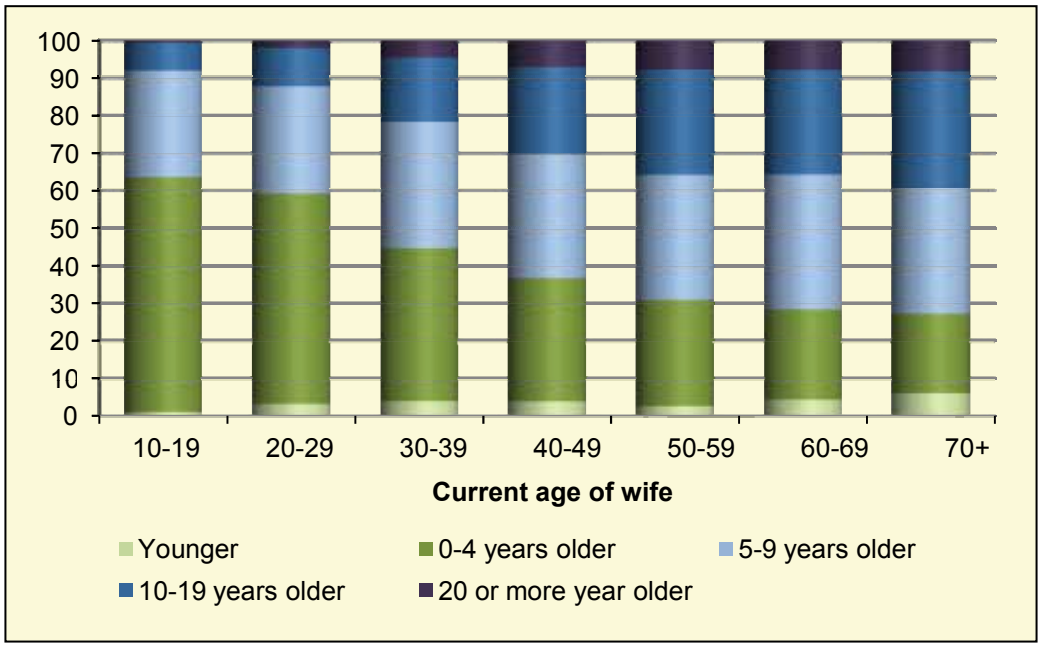
The NRVA data also allows the observation of significant social change in marriage patterns. *Figure 3.4* shows that women's cohorts of 30 and above had an almost similar pattern for age at first marriage. Around 25 percent was already married at age 15, more than 60 percent was married by age 18, and 80 or more percent was married by age 20. Starting with the 25-29 year old cohort, the share that was married by a specific age is dropping consistently for every age at first marriage. For this cohort the effect, although visible, is small; but for each successively younger age group the decrease becomes more pronounced. Of all women who at the survey time were 20 to 25 years old, 65 percent were married by age 20 and around 17 percent by age 15. For the youngest cohort of 15-19 the percentage married by age 15 dropped to 6 percent. The mean age of marriage increased from 16.9 for women aged 35-39 to 18.0 for women aged 20-24.

Figure 3.4 Females aged 15 to 49, by current age group, and by age at first marriage (in percentages)



Social change is also observed in terms of change in the age difference between spouses. Whereas on average for women of more than 40 years old the age of the husband is around 7 years higher, this age difference consistently declines with the successive younger age cohorts: around 6 years for women aged 30-39, 4.5 years for those aged 20-29 and around 4 for women under-20. *Figure 3.5* shows that the share of couples with relatively small spousal age differences (less than four years) has dramatically increased for each younger ten-year age group of women (from 21 percent among women aged 70 and over to 62 percent of those under 20). At the same time, the shares of couples with large (10-19 years) and very large (20 years or more) age differences has similarly declined from close to 40 percent in the oldest age group to 8 percent in the youngest.

Figure 3.5 Ever-married females, by current age, and by relative age of husband (in percentages)



Large spousal age differences, early age at marriage for women – and consequently early widowhood – are closely related to the practice of polygyny, as a polygamous marriage market creates an unequal demand for male and female spouses. The NRVA 2011-12 data indicate that 7.6 percent of married women (over 260 thousand) are in union with a husband who has more than one wife. Around two-thirds of these have one co-wife. From the male perspective, 3.1 of all Afghan husbands have more than one wife.

3.4 Childhood mortality

NRVA 2011-12 included an abridged battery of questions that allow the estimation of childhood mortality indicators that is comparable to NRVA 2007-08 and other recent surveys in Afghanistan.[2] *Table 3.5* shows the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and Under-five Mortality Rate (U5MR), estimated with the Trussel variant of the Brass method of indirect mortality estimation.[3]

The U5MR is estimated at 91 deaths per thousand live births and the IMR at 48 deaths per thousand live births. Data issues related to age reporting and recording of girls born were encountered in the analysis and consequently these indicators should be treated with caution, in particular the IMR. For both indicators, a considerable gap exists between urban and rural populations (*Table 3.5*). On the other hand, little gender difference is observed, and surprisingly the U5MR for boys is below that of girls.

Infant- and Under-five Mortality Rate

The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) is defined as number of deaths to children under twelve months of age per 1,000 live births.

The Under-five Mortality Rate (U5MR) relates to the number of deaths to children under five years of age per 1,000 live births.

2 Social change is the change in the age difference between spouses reflects changes in how people relate to one another.
3 The battery also allows fertility estimation, but only using a different technique than in the previous NRVA and other surveys and, consequently, does not produce comparable results.

Table 3.5: Childhood mortality indicators, by (a) residence and (b) sex

Indicator	a. Residence		b. Sex		Total	Reference period
	Urban	Rural	Boys	Girls		
IMR[a]	(34)	(54)	(49)	(46)	(48)	Jan. 2011
U5MR	72	96	89	92	91	Sep. 2005

[a]Figures between brackets are considered unreliable and are indicative only

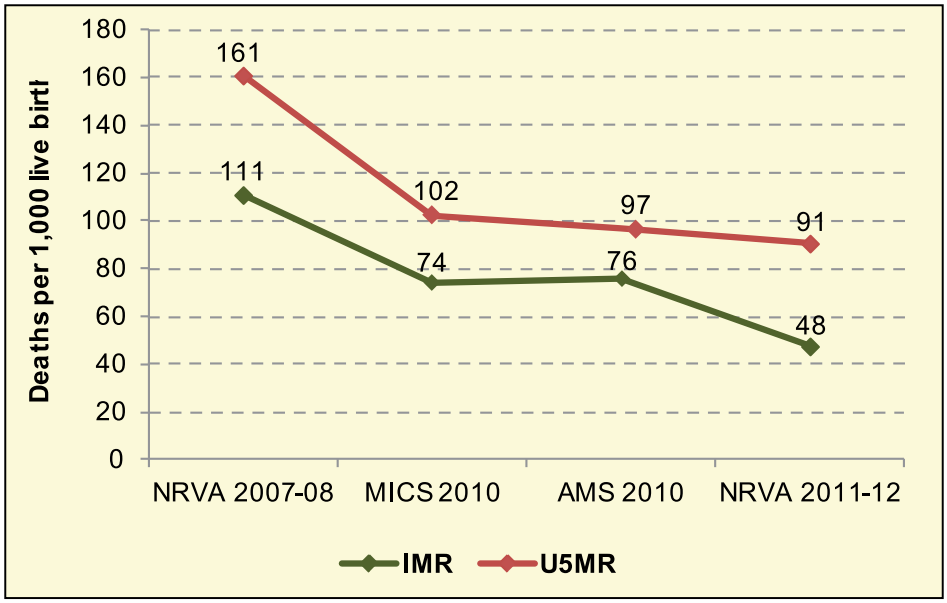
MDG Indicators 4.1 and 4.2

4.1 U5MR: 91

4.2 IMR: (48)

The U5MR estimated for the NRVA 2011-12 is well in line with the downward trend that was shown by the MICS 2010 (102) since the 2007-08 NRVA benchmark of 161 deaths per thousand live births and provides mutual support to the indicator in these surveys (*Figure 3.6*). The IMR of the NRVA 2011-12, on the other hand, seems an outlier. Therefore, the low figure of 48 should not be taken as anything more than indicative for further decreasing infant mortality.

Figure 3.6: Childhood mortality indicators, by survey



3.5 Migration

3.5.1 General migration

The migration context of Afghanistan is particularly complex. Regular and traditional migrant flows – both internal and cross-border – have become mixed with the effects of one of the world's largest and most protracted refugee situations, the largest volume of returnees in recent history, large-scale internal displacement and remaining nomadism of a seizable part of the population. Although the NRVA is not designed as a migration survey, the information collected is relevant to add to the limited stock of information on migrants and migration flows.

Migration concepts

Migration is defined by the act of crossing a border and going to live elsewhere for at least a year. Crossing the border of two countries represents *international migration*. People who enter a country are *immigrants* and those who leave a country are *emigrants*. Crossing (administrative) boundaries within a country represents *internal migration*. Persons moving into an area from within the country are labeled here as *in-migrants*, those who move to another area within the country are labeled as *out-migrants*.

Internal migration can be measured at different levels. In this report two levels are distinguished: internal migration between districts and that between provinces. Inter-provincial migration always involves migration between districts, but the opposite does not necessarily hold true.

Emigration and out-migration are under-estimated to the extent that complete households have moved away.

A *seasonal migrant* is a person who spends at least one month, but less than a year away from the household for seasonal work.
In this report, migration analysis distinguishes two different time dimensions. *Life-time* migration occurs when a person currently lives in an area different from where he/she was born. *Recent migration* is measured as migration since a specific point in recent time. Here this point is defined as October 2004, since many people will remember where they lived during the presidential elections at that time.

The annual *immigration* and *in-migration ratio* are calculated as, respectively the immigrant and in-migrant population as percentage of the resident population. The *emigration* and *out-migration rate* are calculated as the number of, respectively, emigrants and out-migrants as percentage of the resident population in the area of departure.

The mobility of the Afghan population is shown by the finding that some 5.1 million people (18.8 percent) were born outside the district where they now reside, either in another district in Afghanistan or abroad. Half of these movers (2.6 million) were also born outside the province of current residence, and some 827 thousand (3.1 percent) were born abroad (*Table 3.6, panel a*).

Table 3.6: Percentage of population living outside the district of current residence (a) at birth and (b) in October 2004, by previous place of residence, sex, and by current residence

Place of current residence	a. Place of birth: in other			b. Place of residence in October 2004: in other		
	country	province	districta	country	province	district [a]
Urban	4.3	17.5	35.9	6.9	7.6	15.7
Rural	2.6	2.0	8.0	2.5	0.8	2.6
National [b]	3.1	6.4	15.7	3.6	2.7	6.2

[a]Figures for previous residence in other district include those with previous residence in other province, i.e. these are counted twice.
[b]National includes the Kuchi population.

As expected, the share of persons born elsewhere is higher in urban than in rural areas: more than one-third (35.9 percent) of the urban population has moved to another place of residence within Afghanistan since birth, whereas only 8.0 percent of the rural population did so. Also in absolute terms do urban areas accommodate more life-time in-migrants from within Afghanistan: 2.2 million against 1.9 million for rural areas. Urban areas again house in relative terms more persons born abroad than rural areas (4.3 against 2.6 percent), but in absolute numbers more life-time immigrants have moved to rural areas.

Information about the place of residence in October 2004 shows a similar pattern: the share of the population that lived elsewhere seven years before the survey is much higher in urban areas than in rural areas, and of all internal migrants that took up residence in rural areas (2.6 percent of the total rural population) less than a third (0.8 percentage points) came from outside the province of current residence. In urban areas almost one in six persons (15.7 percent) lived elsewhere in Afghanistan in 2004, half of whom in another province. Urban areas also accommodate a relatively larger share of people who immigrated from abroad since 2004 (6.9 percent, compared to 2.5 percent in rural areas), although in absolute numbers more recent immigrants are living in rural areas.

The figures for life-time and recent in-migrants indicate that settling in a new, rural area is relatively uncommon, but less so for immigrants. To the extent that it concerns internal migration, it is largely short-distance moves from neighbouring districts within the province. Possible explanations for this are the limited economic opportunities in the rural sector and the closed community structure in Afghan society, which impede integration of outsiders.

With regard to out-migrants, NRVA 2011-12 shows that in the year before the survey 303 thousand people of 14 years and over had left the household to live somewhere outside the district of residence. More than two-fifth of these remained within the province and one-fifth (65 thousand) moved to another province within Afghanistan. No less than one in three persons leaving the household (107 thousand) went to live abroad.

3.5.2 International migration

Immigrants' country of origin and urban-rural settlement

NRVA 2011-12 indicates that 3.1 percent (827 thousand) of the population was born abroad.[4] The most important country of birth is Pakistan, where 77 percent of the life-time immigrants were born (638 thousand persons), followed by Iran with 21 percent (174 thousand) (*Table 3.7, panel a*). Other countries of birth are insignificant with only just over one percent of persons born abroad.

Of the life-time immigrants 32 percent now reside in urban areas and 60 percent in rural areas (the remaining part being Kuchis). For the non-Kuchi population this implies that in proportion to the overall settled population (24 percent urban and 76 percent rural) a preference for urban settlement is observed. This preference is stronger for immigrants from Iran than for those coming from Pakistan. Of the non-Kuchi life-time immigrants born in Pakistan, 28 percent now live in urban areas and 72 in rural areas. For the settled immigrants born in Iran a majority of 56 percent has settled in urban areas, compared to 44 in rural areas. Another difference in the migratory patterns between Pakistan and Iran is the significance of Kuchi immigration from the former country and its virtual absence from the latter.

The picture for recent immigration is quite similar to that of life-time immigration (*Table 3.7, panel b*). The total number of persons who lived abroad in October 2004 is of the same order of magnitude (725 thousand) and again Pakistan and Iran – respectively with 67 and 32 percent – dwarf any other country of previous residence. Recent immigrants from Iran again settle at a rate similar to that of life-time migrants, with 54 and 46 percent in respectively urban and rural areas. The corresponding figures for recent immigrants from Pakistan are more balanced than for life-time immigrants: 42 against 50 percent (with 8 percent Kuchi). Overall, this implies an even stronger preference to settle in urban areas than in life-time migration.

The number of immigrants since October 2004 suggest an immigration ratio in the order of 0.4 percent per year. However, this strongly under-estimates immigration, as it does not take into account the effects of return migration, repeated immigration and mortality since 2004.[5]

Table 3.7: Immigrants (a) born abroad and (b) living abroad in October 2004, by current residence, and by country of origin (percentages)

Country of origin	a. Population born abroad				b. Population living abroad in October 2004			
	Current residence				Current residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Current residence as percentage of country of origin								
Pakistan	25.5	64.1	10.4	100.0	42.5	49.5	8.0	100.0
Iran	55.6	44.3	0.1	100.0	54.3	45.7	0.0	100.0
Other countries	(28.6)	(56.6)	(14.9)	(100.0)	(14.8)	(74.0)	(11.2)	(100.0)
Total	31.9	59.8	8.3	100.0	45.9	48.6	5.5	100.0
Country of origin as percentage of current residence								
Pakistan	61.6	82.7	96.7	77.1	61.8	68.2	97.6	66.9
Iran	36.8	15.7	0.2	21.1	37.8	30.0	0.0	32.0
Other countries	1.6	1.7	3.1	1.8	0.4	1.8	2.4	1.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

( ) Data between brackets are considered unreliable

Emigrants' country of destination and urban-rural area origin

For the year preceding the survey interview, the respondent households indicated that 107 thousand persons of 14 years and older left the household to live abroad. This would imply an emigration rate of 0.4 percent per year. However, this figure underestimates emigration to the extent that entire households left the country.

4 The methodological elaboration and sources of error for the estimations are given in Annex VI.

5 Calculated as the average number of annual immigrants per province since October 2004 as a percentage of the mid-period population between October 2004 and January 2012.

The large majority of emigrants (84 percent) originate from rural areas in Afghanistan (*Table 3.8*). Also in relative terms persons from rural origin are overrepresented in the emigrant population: the 84 percent is high compared to the rural share of 72 percent in the total population. The urban population (23 percent of the total population) seems less inclined to move abroad, as their share in the emigrant population is only 14 percent. This observation is particularly relevant for emigrants to Pakistan, of whom less than 2 percent are from urban areas.

A notable shift has occurred in the importance of destination countries. Whereas in the past Pakistan was the most important destination, now the large majority of emigrants (76 percent) leaves for Iran. Causes of this shift likely include Pakistan's recent policy shift that restricts Afghan citizens entering and residing in the country. Another notable result is the significant share of other countries in the destination distribution (11 percent), of which the largest part is emigration to one of the countries on the Arabian peninsula.

Table 3.8: Emigrants 14 years and over who emigrated in the year before the survey, by previous residence, and by country of destination (in percentages)

Country of destination	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Previous residence as percentage of country of destination				
Pakistan	1.8	90.0	8.1	100.0
Iran	14.5	84.9	0.6	100.0
Other countries	26.0	72.9	1.0	100.0
Total	14.4	84.0	1.6	100.0
Country of destination as percentage of current residence				
Pakistan	1.6	13.3	63.4	13.3
Iran	75.7	75.8	28.6	75.8
Other countries	22.7	10.9	8.1	10.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Characteristics of international migrants

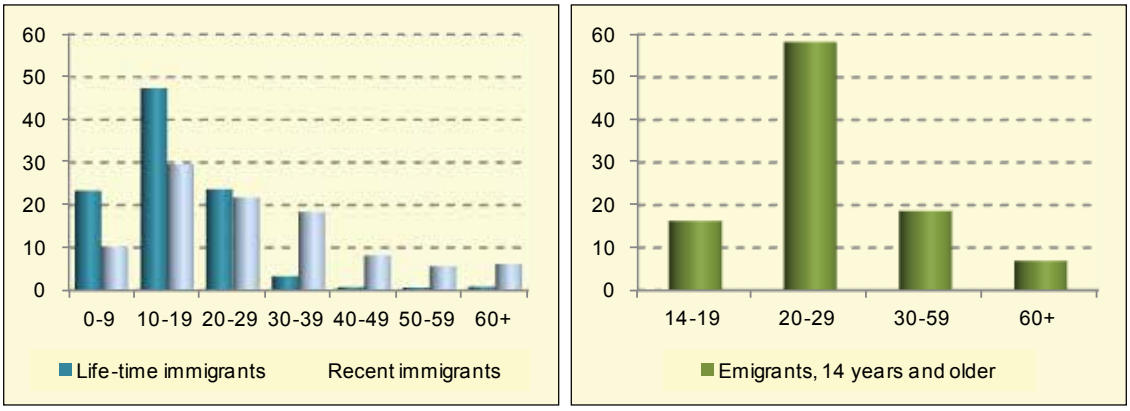
There are marked differences between immigrants and emigrants. As visualized in *Figure 3.7*, panel a, the age structure of recent immigrants resemble the resident population in the sense that it shows very small old birth cohorts and increasingly larger ones with younger ages. This indicates that immigration is to a large extent family migration from Afghan communities that fled to neighbouring countries in previous decades. The small number of 0-9 year olds can for the most part be explained by truncated observation of persons who were not yet born in 2004. Life-time immigrants, on the other hand, have a strong concentration in the age group 0-29. This is most likely the result of the fact that most Afghans of 30 years and older who live abroad were born in Afghanistan before they moved out of the country. It is their children who were born abroad only from the early 1980s onward that comprise the stock of life-time immigrants.

The age profile of emigrants is again different and for very different reasons. One reason is the motive to leave for another country. The strong concentration in the young adult age group resembles the profile of persons moving for finding employment, which is confirmed by the reasons reported by the survey respondents (see below). Secondly, households that emigrate together are excluded from observation in normal household surveys. To the extent that there are such households, the age structure of all emigrants will more resemble that of the resident population.

Immigration and emigration are also strongly gender-specific. A large majority of 86 percent of emigrants is male, which is closely linked to the largely economic reasons of emigration. On the other hand, for both life-time and recent immigrants the shares of males and females are very close to half each, although slightly less so for recent immigrants (55 percent males, 45 percent females) than for life-time immigrants (51 against 49 percent, respectively). The higher share of male recent immigrants is largely caused by the sex distribution of those coming from Iran, who may include more men returning from employment there while their families remained in Afghanistan. The gender balance of immigrants from Pakistan is very equal (51 and 49 percent for males and females, respectively).

Figure 3.7: International migrants, by migrant type, and by age (in percentages)

a. Immigrants **b. Emigrants**



Reasons for international migration

By far the most important reason to immigrate into Afghanistan is return from displacement abroad. For 73 percent of all people who came to live in the country since October 2004 (estimated at around half a million[6]) this was stated as the main reason (*Figure 3.8*). Family-related and employment reasons were minor – but still discernible – categories of reasons mentioned (respectively for 15 and 8 percent of the recent immigrants).

For immigrants from Pakistan – with around two-thirds the largest immigrant group – the share of returning refugees was even 79 percent (some 360 thousand persons). For persons previously living in Iran return from displacement was mentioned as the main reason in 63 percent if the cases (140 thousand persons), while family-related reasons was another significant category. For the small number of immigrants from other countries such family reasons figured prominently, more than return from displacement and employment. For women the reason of return from displacement was somewhat more important than for men (for 78 and 69 percent, respectively), whereas family reasons were less important (10 against 19 percent).

If return from displacement is by far the most important reason for immigration, employment reasons dominate emigration. Some 80 percent of all emigrants 14 years of age and older moved abroad in the year before the survey to find a job (*Figure 3.9*). For persons leaving to Iran – comprising 75 percent of all emigrants – this figure is even 91 percent. Emigration is also strongly gender-related: of all male emigrants, 92 percent leave for employment, while for the small group of women by far the most important emigration reason is marriage (78 percent).

6 This figure includes dependent household members for whom the reason 'moved with the family' was mentioned and whose head of household returned from displacement.

Figure 3.8: Immigrants living abroad in October 2004, by main reason for immigration, and by country of residence in 2004 (in percentages)

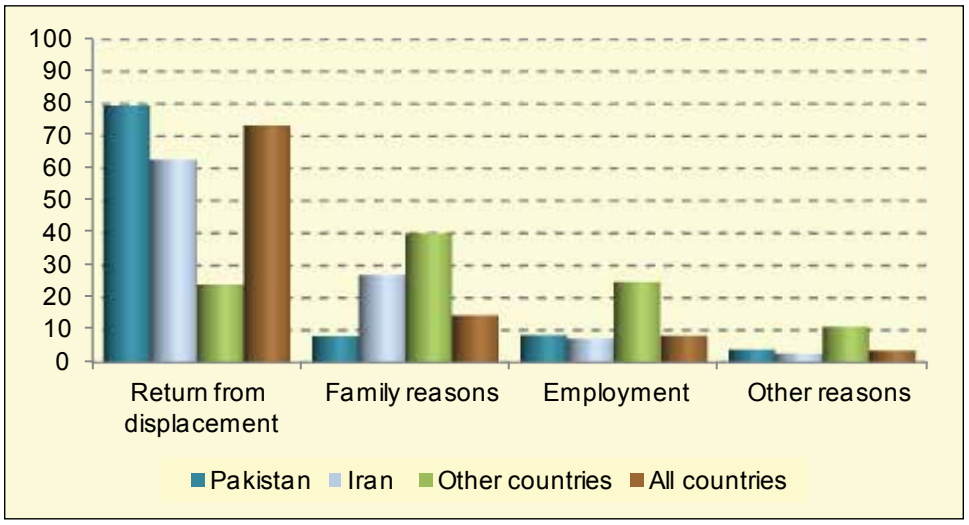
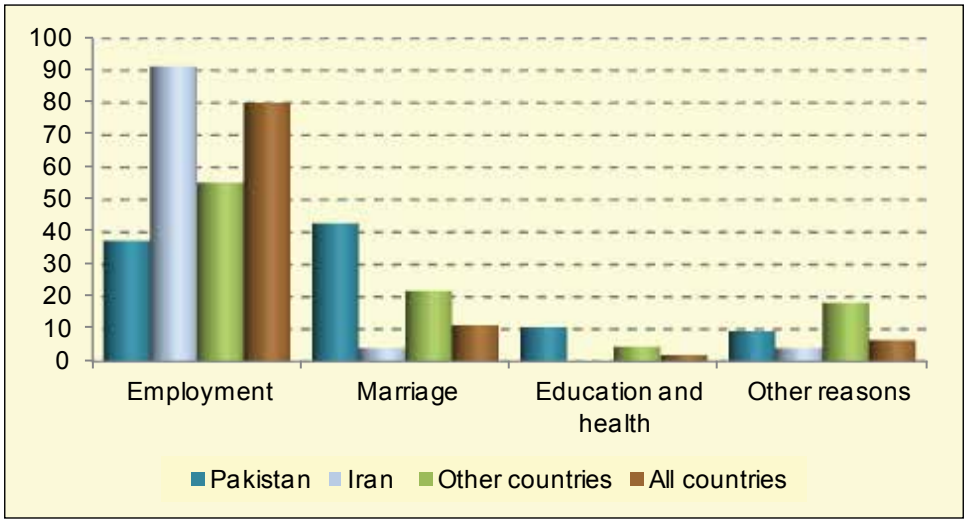


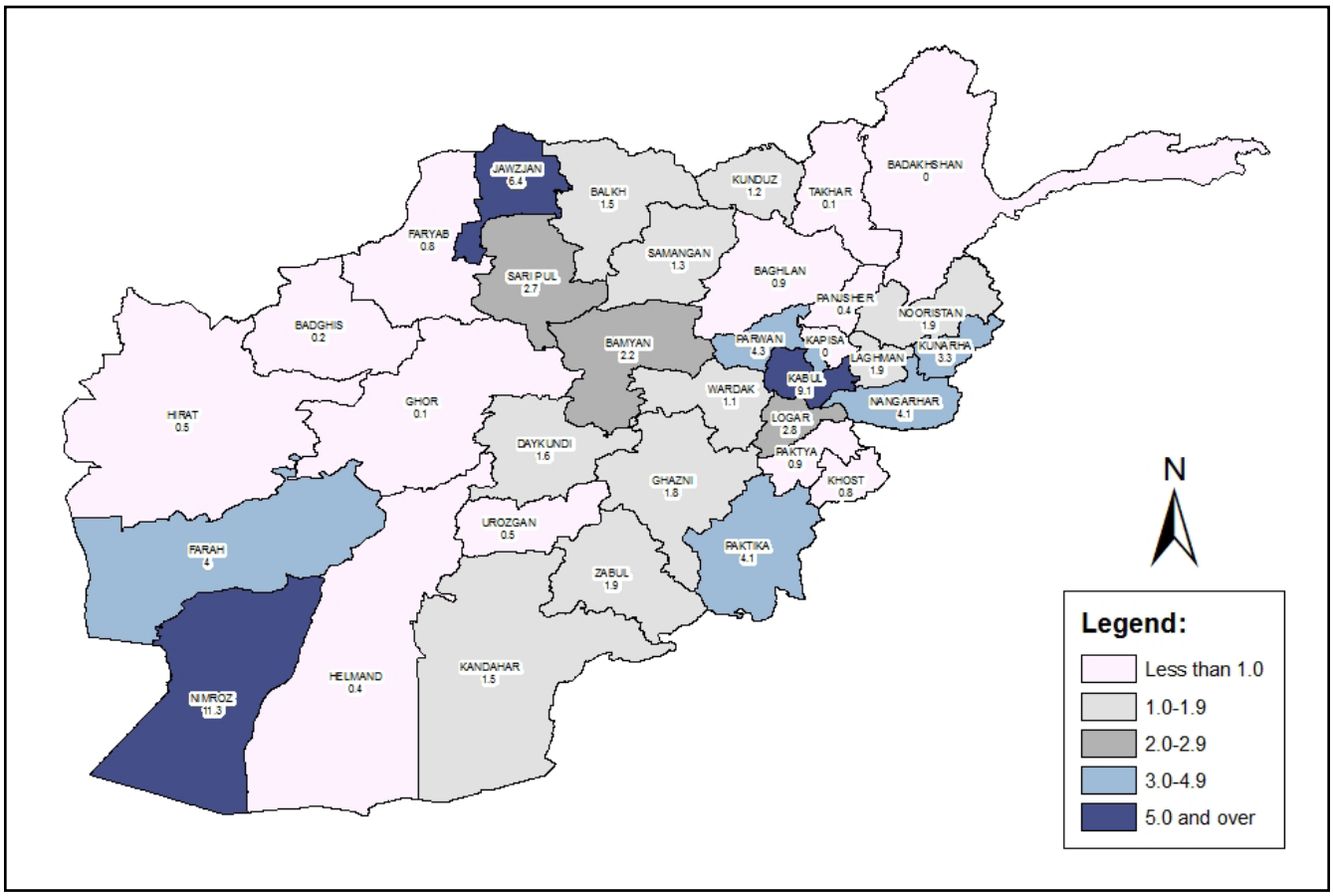
Figure 3.9: Emigrants 14 years of age and older leaving in the past year, by main reason for emigration, and by country of destination (in percentages)



Immigration by province

Immigration to Kabul dwarfs all other provincial immigration, as half of all recorded immigrants since October 2004 reside here (360 thousand people). Not surprisingly, most of the next largest immigrant provinces in absolute numbers are those bordering other countries, such as Nangarhar, Jawzjan and Farah. *Figure 3.10* shows the annual immigration ratio to the various provinces. Here the relative importance of location at borders with neighbouring countries is a prime factors in the migration context.

Figure 3.10: Annual immigration ratio[a] since October 2004, by province



[a] Calculated as the average number of annual immigrants per province since October 2004 as a percentage of the mid-period population between October 2004 and January 2012.

3.5.3 Internal migration

Origin and destination of internal migrants

In total, 4.2 million Afghan residents (16 percent) live in a district that is different from their district of birth. Most of these (2.5 million persons) live in the their province of birth and the remaining (1.7 million people) have even moved to another province.

Just over half of the internal life-time migrants (52 percent) live in urban areas and only 36 percent reside in rural areas (*Table 3.9, panel a*). This is an indication of significant rural-to-urban migration in Afghanistan. The importance of intra-province migration is indicated by the 59 percent of internal life-time migrants who moved between districts within the province of birth, while a – large – minority of 41 percent moved across province borders. For rural residents the intra-province migration is even more important (75 percent against 25 percent who moved to another province), but of the Kuchi migrants more than half (57 percent) were born in another province than where they reside now.

For recent internal migrants – close to 5 percent of the population – the numbers that have moved within a province and to another province are, respectively, around 688 and 544 thousand. In contrast to immigration, the patterns of life-time and recent internal migrants are largely the same. However, the share of recent migrants in urban areas is somewhat larger (62 percent) than that of life-time migrants (52 percent), which could indicate that over recent years rural-to-urban migration has gained importance (*Table 3.9, panel b*).

Table 3.9: In-migrants (a) born elsewhere in Afghanistan and (b) living elsewhere in Afghanistan in October 2004, by current residence, and by area of origin (in percentages)

Area of origin	a. Population born elsewhere in Afghanistan				b. Population living elsewhere in Afghanistan in October 2004			
	Current residence				Current residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Current residence as percentage of area of origin								
Same province	45.0	46.5	8.6	100.0	57.3	36.7	6.0	100.0
Other province	61.8	21.9	16.3	100.0	67.1	19.9	12.9	100.0
Total	51.9	36.4	11.7	100.0	61.6	29.3	9.1	100.0
Area of origin as percentage of current residence								
Same province	51.2	75.3	43.2	59.0	51.9	69.9	37.0	55.9
Other province	48.8	24.7	56.8	41.0	48.1	30.1	63.0	44.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The rural-urban population exchange is further specified in *Table 3.10*. The absolute number of persons born in rural areas who migrated to urban areas is the same as the number that migrated between rural areas since birth (around 1.2 million each) (panel a). However, this number is much larger than the number of urban-to-rural life-time migrants (379 thousand), implying that 858 more life-time migrant moved from rural to urban areas than vice versa. Also the number of life-time migrants that moved within the urban segment is significant with 957 thousand and comparable to the number that moved within the rural segment. The picture for recent migration since 2004 (panel b) similarly shows that the number of migrants from rural to urban areas is larger than the reverse, but also that net movement between urban areas is more important than that between urban and rural areas.

Table 3.10: In-migrants (a) born elsewhere in Afghanistan and (b) living elsewhere in Afghanistan in October 2004, by current residence, and by residence of origin (in thousands)

Residence of origin	a. Population born elsewhere in Afghanistan				b. Population living elsewhere in Afghanistan in October 2004			
	Current residence				Current residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Urban	957	379	70	1,405	414	164	10	588
Rural	1,237	1,161	426	2,824	346	197	101	644
Total	2,194	1,540	496	4,230	759	361	112	1,232

Households in the NRVA 2011-12 survey reported that close to 200 thousand household members had left the household in the previous year to live somewhere else in Afghanistan. Two-thirds of these remained within the province, which applies to those leaving from rural as well as urban households. However, if the destination is specified in terms of urban-rural residence, there is a strong divergence between out-migrants. Whereas only 35 percent of the out-migrants from urban households go to live in rural areas, rural out-migrants remain for 62 percent in the rural segment.

Characteristics of internal migrants

The age distribution of in-migrants is concentrated in the young adult ages, revealing the prominent underlying reasons of employment and marriage that lead to change of residence within Afghanistan. Although around half of in-migrants across the country are in the age range 15-39, all other ages are represented to a significant degree as well (*Figure 3.11*). This indicates that internal migration is also to a large extent family migration.

This is further amplified in *Figure 3.12*, which shows that the largest part (51 percent) of internal migrants are persons moving with their families as dependents, mostly women, children and elderly. The figure also exposes the intricate dynamics of migration, with the interaction of gender, age, distance and reasons for migration. In young and old ages migration because of moving with the family – usually implying the migration reason of the male head of household and breadwinner – is the most important. For men in middle ages employment is a major reason, whereas for women this is

an insignificant category in any age group. Instead, for teenage and young adult women marriage is the most important reason to move. It is also notable that the motivation underlying relatively short-distance intra-province migration (*Table 3.12, panel a*) is different from that of inter-province migration (panel b). Especially for men employment reasons are far more important for moving to another province than for moving within a province (39 against 18 percent). On the other hand for women marriage is more related to short-distance movement than inter-province migration (12 compared to 6 percent).

Figure 3.11: Life-time and recent in-migrants, by age (in percentages)

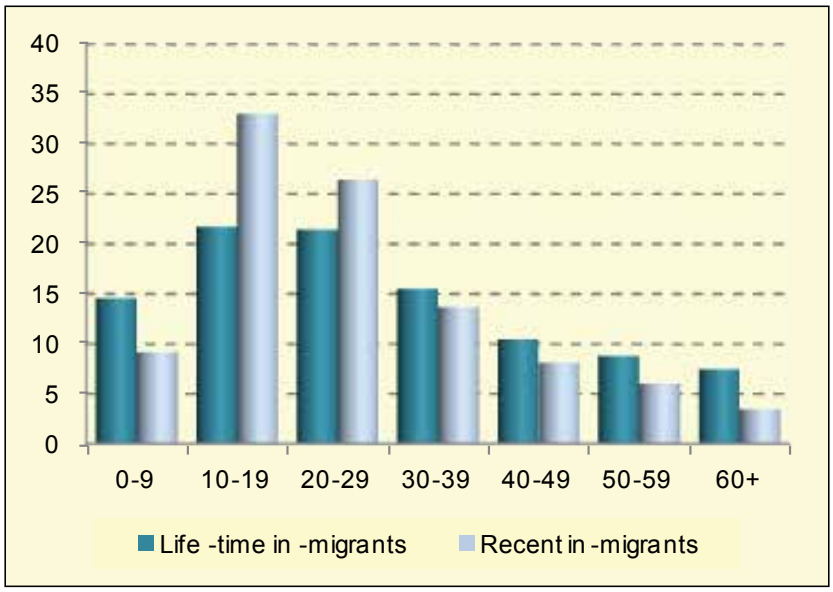
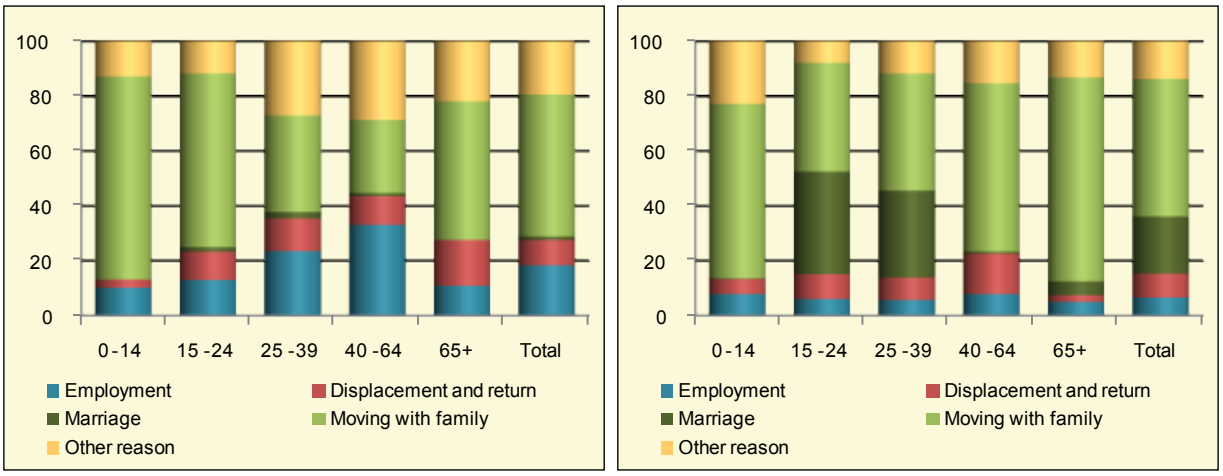
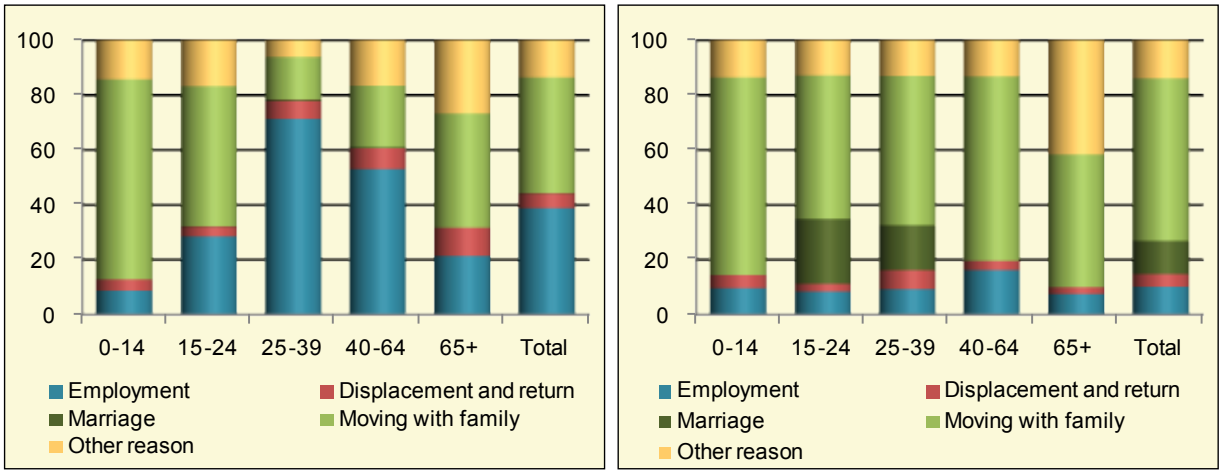


Figure 3.12: Recent in-migrants, by age, and by reason for in-migration (percentages)

a. Intra-province migration



b. Inter-province migration



The age of persons who move out of a household to another area in Afghanistan is strongly concentrated in the young adult age: 52 percent is in the age bracket 20-29. For men out-migration is particularly related to employment (30 percent) and for women the overwhelming reason is marriage (86 percent).

3.5.4 Seasonal migration

Seasonal migration is an important phenomenon in Afghanistan and is closely related to the shift in job opportunities during the year. It is defined as taking up temporary residence elsewhere for work for at least one month, but for less than a year.

Overall, 4 percent of the population of 14 years and over – corresponding to more than 530 thousand persons – were reported to have been involved in migration for seasonal work in the year before the survey.[7] The rural working-age population is overrepresented, given that close to 5 percent of the rural population against less than 2 percent of the urban population temporarily migrated for work (*Table 3.11*). The gender bias is even more pronounced than the residence bias, as around 7 percent of the male working-age population was engaged in seasonal migration for work –

7 This population excludes Kuchis, as these have migratory patterns due to their nomadic lifestyle and would distort the overall picture of seasonal migration.

up to 9 percent for the rural male population) – against less than half a percent of the female working-age population. Consequently, the seasonal migratory workforce almost entirely (94 percent, figure not shown) consisted of men, and is even more male-dominated than the total working population (83 percent, see also section 4.3).

Table 3.11: Percentage of population 14 years and over migrating for seasonal work in the year before the survey[a], by sex and by usual residence

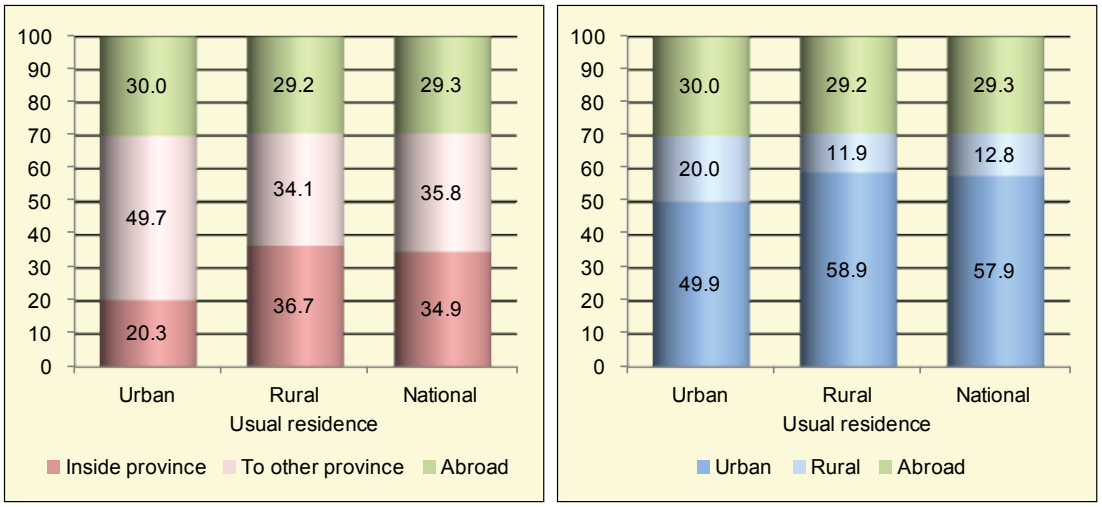
Usual	Sex		Both sexes
	Male	Female	
Urban	3.0	0.1	1.6
Rural	8.9	0.4	4.7
National	7.3	0.3	3.9

[a] Excluding the Kuchi population

The destination of seasonal migrants also differentiates across urban and rural residence. Half of the urban seasonal migrants go to work in other provinces and another 20 percent migrate within the province to another district (*Figure 3.13, panel a*). For rural seasonal migrants, on the other hand intra-provincial migration (37 percent) is more important than inter-provincial migration (34 percent). Looking at migration destination in terms of urban-rural composition (panel b), half of the urban migrants move to another urban area, but 59 percent of rural migrants did so. Rural destinations attract fewer seasonal workers: only 20 percent of the urban migrants and 12 percent of the rural migrants.

Figure 3.13: Population 14 years and over migrating for seasonal work in the year before the survey, by usual residence, and by (a) provincial destination and (b) urban-rural destination

a. Provincial destination **b. Urban-rural destination**



Seasonal migration to other countries makes up the remaining 29 percent of destinations. The results show no significant difference between migrants originating from urban and rural areas in this respect. Overall, Iran is the most important destination abroad for seasonal migration (representing 77 percent of all international seasonal migrants) followed by Pakistan (12 percent), the Arabian peninsula (8 percent) and other countries (2 percent). However, for urban residents the Arabian peninsula and other countries are relatively much more important, with respectively 19 and 9 percent. This may indicate that access to non-bordering countries is easier to obtain by urban dwellers – probably especially those in Kabul – than by rural dwellers.

3.5.5 Displacement

Over the past decades since the early 1980s, Afghanistan has witnessed one of the largest population displacements in recorded history. Millions of Afghans sought asylum in other countries – particularly in Pakistan and Iran – and in addition, large numbers were internally displaced. Although NRVA is not designed as a migration survey, let alone as a

displacement survey [8], the information presented in this section may be of relevance, if only for comparative reasons and more for population characteristics than for absolute numbers.

Apart from the general – individual-level – migration module, the questionnaire contained a small battery of household-level questions about return from displacement. According to this information, some 13 percent of households in Afghanistan (around 470 thousand) reported that they had returned from displacement since 2002 (1381 in the Shamsi calendar) either from abroad (8.5 percent) or from within Afghanistan (4.5 percent).[9] Although these households represent around 13 percent of the population in Afghanistan, the share of household members that actually returned from displacement is considerably lower, given the large proportion of household members that were born after the return.[10]

Overall, 49 percent of households that reported to have returned from displacement are located in urban areas. Compared to the national distribution of households – 24 percent urban and 76 percent rural – this figure is twice as high. This supports the idea that towns and cities, and mainly Kabul, disproportionally absorb households that have a displacement history. Especially returnee households from Iran are concentrated for 65 percent in urban areas.

Of those households that returned from abroad, Pakistan was the most important country of asylum (70 percent of returns) and Iran the second-most important (30 percent).[11] Of those households that returned from internal displacement, 37 had been displaced in the same province as where they were currently live, and 63 percent returned from another province. Similarly, 40 percent of households that returned from internal displacement had found refuge in urban areas in the country, whereas 60 percent had fled to rural areas.

Figure 3.14 shows the distribution of the reported year of return from displacement and place of refuge before return. Half of the returned households returned in the two years following the overthrow of the Taliban regime. Since then returns show a gradual decline, especially those from Pakistan and Iran.

Figure 3.14: Households returned from displacement since 2002, by year of return, and by country of refuge (in percentages)

According to the respondents, around two-thirds of the returned households returned spontaneously. For internally displaced households, however, this was the vast majority (95 percent), whereas refugees returned from abroad more

8 A main bias relates to the fact that areas with and increased number of households due to recent displacement or recent return from displacement will not be proportionally represented in the sampling frame.
9 It is likely that 'returning' does not necessarily mean returning to the place of residence before displacement. Especially in the case of returned refugee households, retuning may refer to returning to Afghanistan.
10 Thus, households that returned early 2002 have on average 35 percent of it's members born in Afghanistan after return from displacement.
11 Returns from other countries of asylum were negligible.

frequently also mentioned having been assisted by UNHCR or other agencies. This assistance was given more often to returnees from Iran (45 percent) than from Pakistan (36 percent). At the same time a sizable proportion of households mentioned to have been deported from the neighboring countries.

Table 3.12: Households returned from displacement since 2002, by country of displacement, and by mode of return (in percentages)

Mode of return	Country of refuge			Total
	Pakistan	Iran	Afghanistan	
Assisted by UNHCR or other agency	36.4	44.6	2.2	27.9
Deported	7.1	9.7	2.9	6.4
Spontaneous return	56.5	45.6	94.9	65.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

4 LABOUR FORCE CHARACTERISTICS

SUMMARY. *As from 2013, Afghanistan applies national definitions for employment, underemployment and unemployment that are tailored to the specific conditions in the country and provide policymakers with relevant information to understand and monitor labour market performance.*

Two factors dominate the Organization of Afghanistan's labour market: the importance of the agricultural sector – farming and livestock – and the underrepresentation of women. Whereas male labour force participation is 80 percent, that of women is only 19 percent. The female employment-to-population ratio is even as low as 15 percent, signifying a large untapped economic potential. The share of the labour force who want work or more or better work is 25 percent, which implies that the labour market is short of 1.8 million jobs to provide people with an adequate living. The main problem for this not-gainfully employed group is underemployment (17 percent) – working in irregular, low-paid and low-productivity jobs – rather than unemployment. This problem is particularly relevant in the rural sector (19 percent underemployment against 9 percent in urban areas) and for the relatively small female labour force. Overall, 39 percent of economically active women are not gainfully employed, compared to 22 percent for men. The situation is very different for women with tertiary education: as a result of favourable labour market conditions for this group, 78 percent are economically active, of whom only 3 percent are unemployed.

The most notable characteristic of the employed population in Afghanistan is that most workers by far - 81 percent - work in a vulnerable setting, characterised by informal work arrangements and insecure employment, unstable and inadequate earnings, and low productivity. This is almost universally the case for workers in the farming and livestock sub-sectors (accounting for 25 and 15 percent of the employed respectively), but to a very large extent also for those in other sectors characterised by informal employment. Alongside the agricultural sector, trade and manufacturing/processing are the main single economic sectors.

4.1 Introduction

For the vast majority of households in Afghanistan, the engagement in economic activity is the main livelihood strategy. Although for some households remittances, living from rent and forms of zakat are important, most have household members engaging in productive work to provide for their daily living. In a largely unorganized and informal economy like Afghanistan's, this frequently implies subsistence activities, family work, involvement in irregular, low-paid and low-productivity jobs, child labour, labour migration and working very long or very few hours. It has been well documented that standard international labour indicators – especially those related to employment and unemployment – are inadequate, if not incorrect, to capture the performance of the labour market in such economies (ILO 2008, ILO 2011).

In view of this, CSO, the Ministry of Economy (MoEc) and the Ministry of Labour, Social Services, Martyrs and Disabled (MoLSAMD) developed national definitions of employment, underemployment and unemployment that are better attuned to the Afghanistan reality (see section 4.3). For reasons of international comparability, besides labour force indicators based on the national definition, this report also provides indicators on the basis of ILO definitions. Due to the change in definitions – as well as questionnaire changes – NRVA 2011-12 labour force indicators cannot be compared to those of earlier NRVA rounds.

4.2 Labour force participation

Due to the very large share of children, only just over half (54 percent) of the Afghan population is in the working age of 14 years and over. Within this working-age population of 14 million people, half is inactive and half is currently actively engaged in the labour market, either by working or by looking for work. Afghanistan's labour force – all persons in the working age of 14 and over who are currently active by being either employed or unemployed – amounts to over 7.2 million people, 5.9 million males and 1.3 million females. The labour force participation rate – the share of the working-age population that is currently employed or unemployed – is a key indicator in the analysis of the human resources available for the production of goods and services, for the projections of labour supply and for understanding the labour market behaviour of different categories of the population.

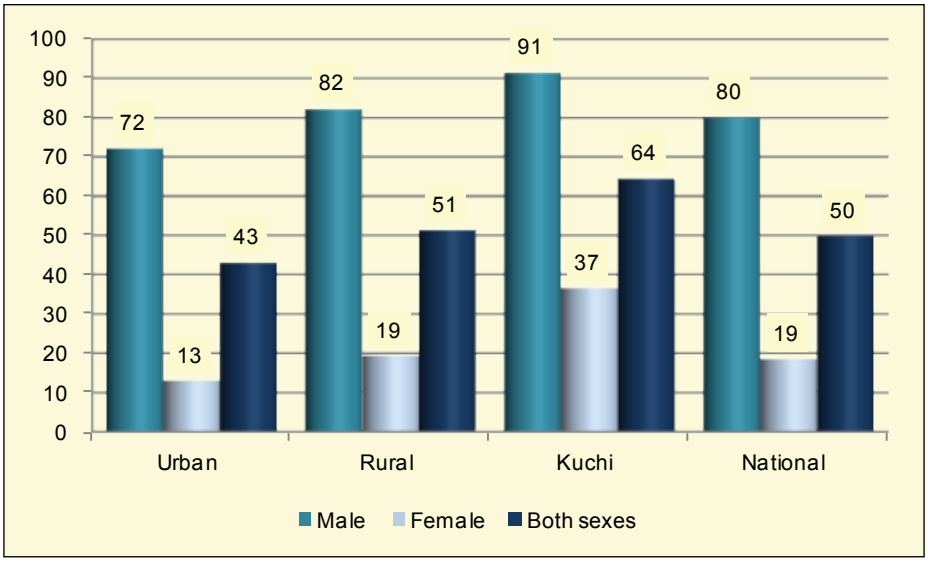
The overall labour force participation rate of 49.8 percent conceals large differences by sex and age. Although generally labour force participation is lower for females than for males, in the Afghan economy this gender gap is especially large.

Less than one in five (19 percent) of the working-age females is currently active on the labour market, against 80 percent of males, a gap of 61 percent points (see *Figure 4.1*), indicating that women are still a significant untapped economic potential. However, women with tertiary education have a labour force participation rate of no less than 78 percent.

Labour force participation shows high rates for males in rural areas and among Kuchi's (respectively 82 and 91 percent). This is typical for less developed economies, in which educational opportunities are few, where most people are engaged in labour-intensive agricultural activities, and where wage earning opportunities are scarce, so that many household members need to work to provide sufficient income. Compared to the region of South Asia and the world at large, the male labour force participation in Afghanistan is high, but the female participation is extremely low.

Compared to the rural sector, in urban areas the labour force participation is lower (43 against 51 percent for both sexes combined,), indicating opportunities other than employment, such as school attendance and probably less necessity to work due to lower poverty (see chapter 6). It also confirms previous findings that labour force participation is highest in the Kuchi population.

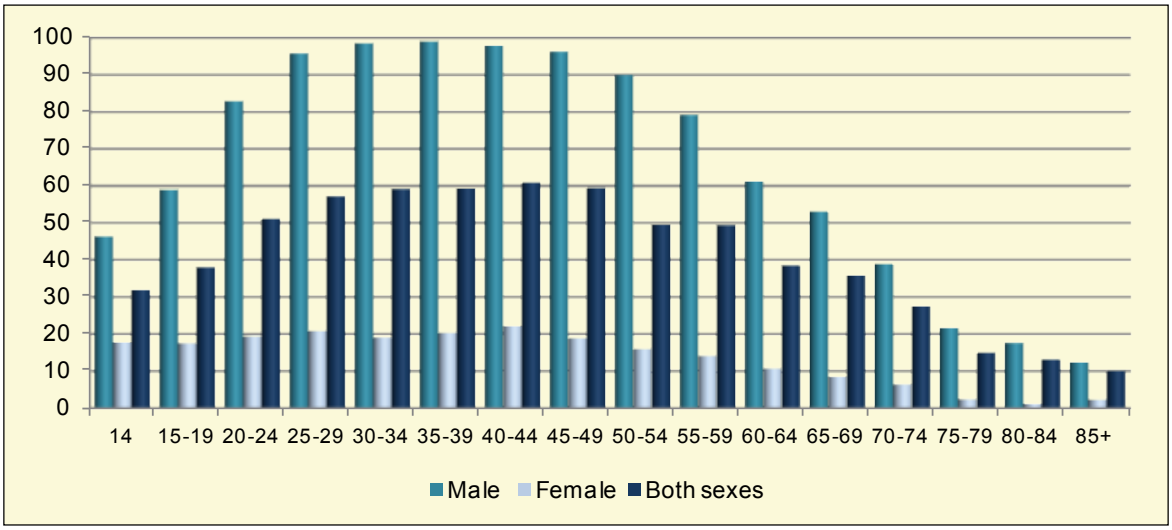
Figure 4.1: Labour force participation rate, by residence, and by sex



The age pattern of labour force participation shows high levels of 80 percent and over for males in the productive ages of 20 to 59. However, even of boys of 14 years old almost half (46 percent) already work. Similarly, male elderly in age groups between 65 and 79 years old indicate economic activities for percentages ranging from 22 to 53 percent. These figures indicate the dire need for large parts of the population to contribute to family incomes and livelihoods.

For women, labour force participation varies little with age. Overall, participation rates are very low due to cultural barriers for activities outside the household, as well as to high burdens related to household chores and child care. Working largely as contributing family workers (see section 4.4.1), the percentage engaged in economic activities at young ages is hardly below that of women in the adult productive ages.

Figure 4.2: Labour force participation rate, by sex, and by age



4.3 Labour force characteristics

4.3.1 Conceptualization of employment and unemployment

Afghanistan has adopted a definition[1] of employment and unemployment that does justice to these concepts as indictors of labour market performance in a better way than the international ILO-based definition. In the context of Afghanistan – characterized by low-paid, low-productivity employment and the absence of pensions and unemployment insurance – open unemployment – according to international recommendations defined as being completely without work in the reference period, currently available for work and seeking work – is not an option for the poor. Consequently, it is found that only a very small part of the labour force is unemployed according to this definition. For the largest part people have to – and actually do – find any work during a week time, however poorly paid and for however few hours. Unemployment regularly is only an option for those who are themselves financially viable or have access to considerable family resources. The paradox, therefore, is that in countries like Afghanistan low unemployment according to the international definition is often not an indication of good labour-market performance, but, to the contrary, of poor performance.

As a consequence, a labour-market indicator that has far more policy relevance than the unemployment rate is the percentage of the labour force that is not gainfully employed, including the unemployed and the underemployed – persons who need more or other employment in order to provide for sufficient and sustainable income or livelihood. The problem in many developing countries is not so much unemployment, but rather the lack of decent and productive work. In Afghanistan CSO, MoEc and MoLSAMD have acknowledged this and developed national definitions of employment, underemployment and unemployment that bear more policy relevance (see Box Labour force definitions). Consequently, NRVA also focuses more on the not-gainfully employed as a key indicator than on unemployment as such.

Labour force definitions

National definitions[a]

Employed. All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were in paid employment or self employed and who worked at least eight hours.

Underemployed. All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were:
a. working less than 40 hours,
b. available to work additional hours, and
c. willing to work additional hours.

Unemployed. All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were:
a. without any work or working less than eight hours, and
b. seeking work.

Not gainfully employed. All persons aged 14 and over who are unemployed or underemployed.

International definitions

Employed. All persons aged 15 and over who, during the reference period (of one week), were in paid employment or self employed and who worked at least one hour.

Underemployed. All persons working hours of work that are insufficient in relation to an alternative employment situation in which the person is willing and available to engage (time-related underemployment).

Unemployed. All persons aged 15 and over who, during the reference period (of one week), were:
a. without any work, i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment,
b. currently available for work, and
c. seeking work.

1 NRVA played a key role in defining national definitions of employment, underemployment and unemployment, in agreement with key stakeholders, such as MoEc, MoLSAMD, ILO and World Bank

4.3.2 Employment, underemployment and unemployment

Employment

MDG Indicator 1.5
Employment-to-population ratio
45.7 percent

In Afghanistan, some 6.6 million people are employed of whom 5.5 million (83 percent) are men and 1.1 are women (*Table 4.1*). An indicator that provides information on the ability of the economy to create employment – and which is more insightful than unemployment rate – is the employment-to-population ratio, the proportion of the working-age population that is employed. The summary table below presents information about the employment-to-population ratio, besides other labour force indicators (*Table 4.2*). The relatively low national ratio of 46 percent is strongly tempered by the very low female involvement in market-related activities (15 percent only), because women are either unemployed (see section on unemployment below) or, more importantly, out of the labour force altogether (section 4.2).

Table 4.1: Labour force, by activity status, and by residence, sex (in thousands)

Residence, sex	Employed, of whom		Unemployed	Total
	fully employed	underemployed		
Urban	1,307	137	143	1,587
Male	1,145	104	104	1,353
Female	162	33	39	234
Rural	3,763	962	424	5,150
Male	3,208	733	256	4,198
Female	555	229	168	952
Kuchi	326	107	25	457
Male	246	69	15	330
Female	80	38	9	128
National	5,396	1,206	592	7,194
Male	4,599	906	376	5,880
Female	797	300	216	1,313

Table 4.2: Selected labour force indicators, by residence, sex (in percentages)

Residence, sex	Labour force participation rate	Employment-to population ratio	Under-employment rate	Un- employment rate	Not-gainfully employed population
Urban	43.1	39.2	8.6	9.0	17.6
Male	72.0	66.5	7.7	7.7	15.4
Female	12.9	10.8	14.1	16.7	30.8
Rural	51.3	47.1	18.7	8.2	26.9
Male	82.1	77.1	17.5	6.1	23.6
Female	19.3	15.9	24.0	17.6	41.7
Kuchi	64.4	61.0	23.3	5.4	28.7
Male	91.4	87.2	20.8	4.7	25.5
Female	36.6	33.9	29.8	7.2	37.0
National	49.8	45.7	16.8	8.2	25.0
Male	80.0	74.9	15.4	6.4	21.8
Female	18.5	15.5	22.8	16.5	39.3

As already hinted by the high labour force participation rate of women with tertiary education, the employment opportunities for this group stand in stark contrast to the general picture of women in Afghanistan: the employment-to-population ratio for this group is no less than 75 percent.

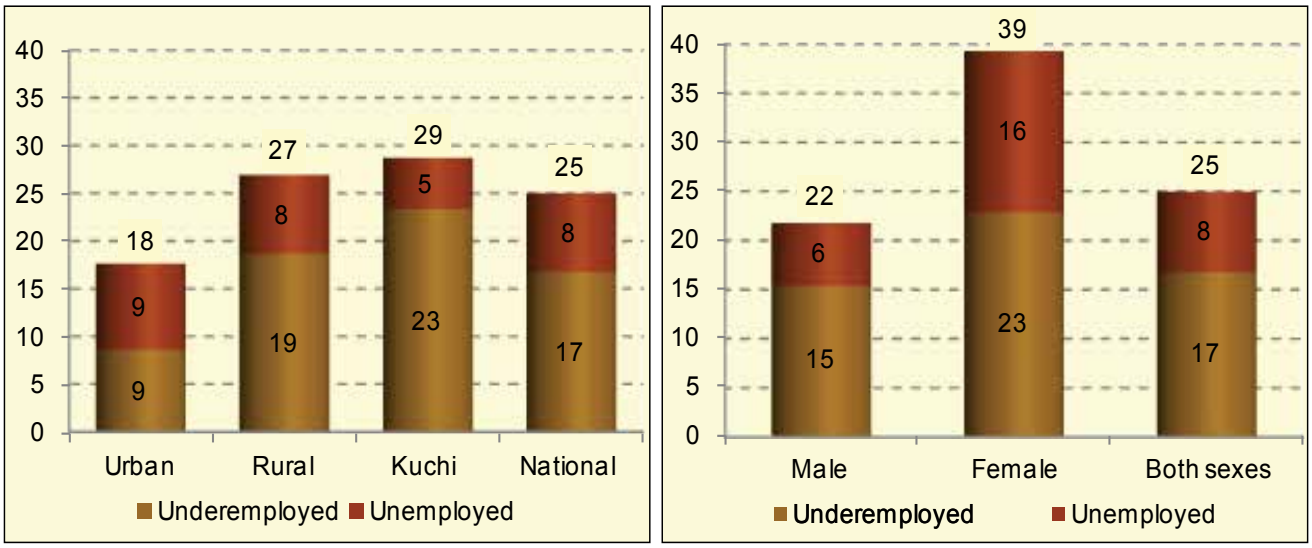
Underemployment and unemployment

Out of the 6.6 million employed persons around 1.2 million – 17 percent of the entire labour force – are underemployed in the sense that they can be considered in need of more or other work to sustain a living. In addition, close to 600 thousand persons are unemployed. The total of underemployed and unemployed people indicate that 25 percent of the labour force in the country is not gainfully employed and that the labour market is short of 1.8 million jobs that provide persons with a sustainable living. *Figure 4.3*, panel a presents the percentage of not-gainfully employed labour force by residence. The shortage of adequate employment is concentrated in the rural and Kuchi populations, and is especially due to underemployment. NRVA data suggest large differences in the shares of the labour force not gainfully employed across provinces: these range from below 10 percent in Helmand, Jawzjan, Panshjer, Kunduz and Balkh to over 40 percent in Khost, Badghis, Zabul and the central provinces of Wardak, Bamyan, Urozgan and Daykundi.

A differentiation by sex shows that the share of not-gainfully employed women is significantly higher than that of men (*Figure 4.3, panel b*). Almost two in five (39 percent) of women who want to work cannot find adequate employment. The female share that is underemployed (23 percent of the female labour force) is higher partly because women relatively much more frequently work fewer hours than men (see section 4.4.3) and therefore drop below the level of adequate employment. But more importantly even is the observation that relatively more women than men cannot find employment at all (16 percent of the female labour force), due to additional restrictions for women on the labour market compared to men.

Figure 4.3: Labour force not gainfully employed, by (a) residence and (b) sex, and by underemployment and unemployment (in percentages)

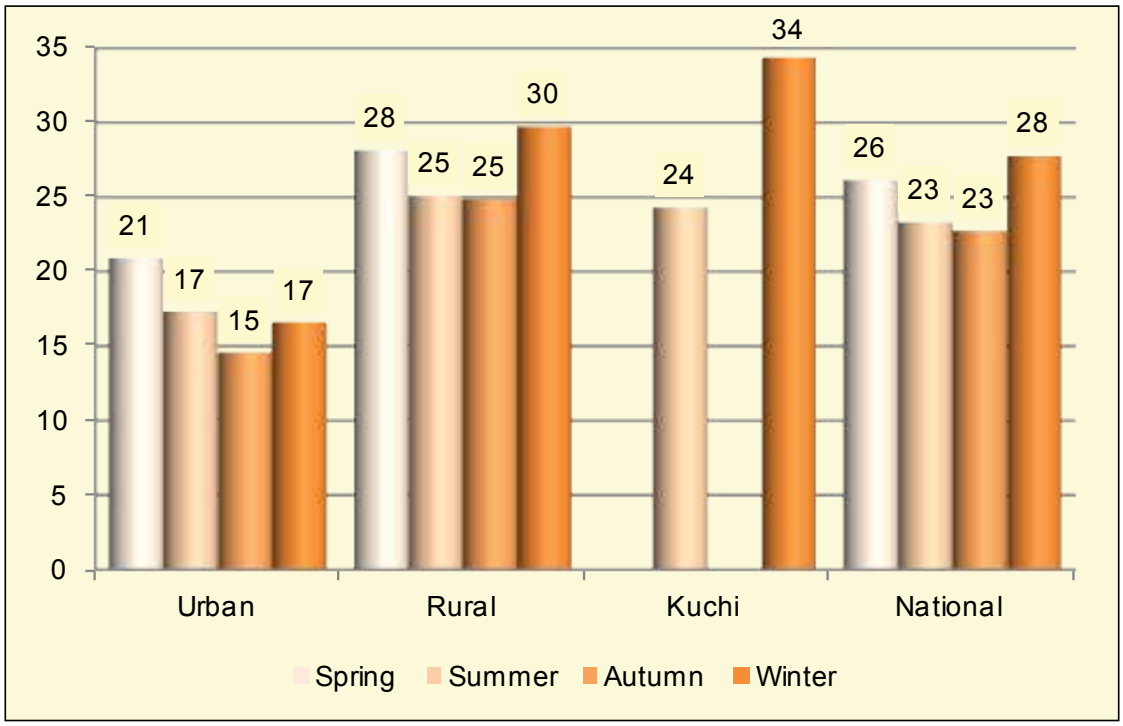
a. By residence **b. By sex**



The share of persons not gainfully employed does not strongly fluctuate with age. However, the share of unemployed does, which suggests a principle of communicating vessels in which the activity status changes between unemployment and underemployment without an escape to more gainful employment. Overall unemployment rates decrease from 16 percent among 14-year olds to 5 percent in the age group 25-44, and then increase again to levels around 16 percent at ages 60 and over (data not shown). The youth unemployment rate (unemployed persons aged 15-24 as a percentage of the labour force in the corresponding age group) is 10 percent (8 for males and 19 for females). The youth unemployment as a proportion of total unemployment is 39 percent. The unemployment rate of women with tertiary education – 3 percent – is very low, which indicates very favourable labour market conditions for highly qualified women.

As shown in *Figure 4.4*, employment also has seasonal fluctuations, with different patterns for urban and rural populations. Employment conditions in rural areas are directly related to the farming season and show higher rates of not-gainfully employed persons in the low seasons of winter (December-March) and (early) spring. For urban populations spring is the period with the lowest job opportunities, whereas the Kuchi labour force has again must difficulty in finding adequate employment in winter time.

Figure 4.4: Percentage of the labour force not gainfully employed, by season, and by residence



Labour indicators based on ILO definitions		
Labour force participation rate	:	**47.7**
Employment-to-population ratio	:	**46.3**
Time-related unemployment	:	**18.8**
Unemployment rate	:	**2.7**

4.4 Characteristics of the employed population

4.4.1 Status in employment

Status in employment is an indicator of the types of economic risk that the employed face in their work, the strength of institutional attachment between the person and the job, and the type of authority over establishments and other workers. NRVA distinguishes several categories of workers, largely in line with the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93). A breakdown of employment information by status in employment provides a statistical basis for describing workers' behaviour and working conditions, and for defining an individual's socio-economic group. Thus, a high proportion of salaried workers in a country generally signifies advanced economic development. On the other hand, if the proportions of day labourers, own-account workers and family workers are sizeable, it may be an indication of a large agricultural sector and low growth in the formal economy. These groups can considered to be in vulnerable employment, since they are likely to be characterised by informal work arrangements and insecure employment, unstable and inadequate earnings, low productivity, and a lack of safety nets that guard against loss of incomes during economic hardship (ILO 2007, ILO 2009).

MDG Indicator 1.7

Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment

80.5 percent

Table 4.3 shows that overall, the large majority of the employed in Afghanistan (81 percent) fall within the category of vulnerable employment.[2] Almost all rural women (94 percent) and Kuchi (96 percent) do so. Since employers are hardly visible in the status-in-employment statistics, salaried workers – with 19 percent of the working population – are the only recognizable group in the labour market that can be considered to have secure jobs. As indicated in *table 4.3*, the occurrence of salaried work is mainly an urban phenomenon, with 39 percent against only 14 percent among the rural employed. It is notable that of the – relatively small – group of female workers in the urban sector half is in salaried employment, compared to only 6 percent of rural women and only 38 percent of urban men. Similarly notable is that within this female urban group the large majority (80 percent) is working in the public sector, whereas their urban male counterparts are equally distributed across the public and private sector.

Table 4.3: Employed population, by residence, sex, and by status in employment (in percentages)[a]

Status in employment	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			National		
	M	F	BS	M	F	BS	M	F	BS	M	F	BS
Day labourer	14	8	13	26	5	22	26	6	20	23	6	20
Salaried worker, private	18	10	17	6	3	5	5	0	3	9	4	8
Salaried worker, public	19	40	22	9	3	8	1	0	0	11	9	11
Own-account worker	41	28	39	50	44	49	54	54	54	48	42	47
Employer	2	1	2	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
Unpaid family worker	6	14	7	8	45	14	14	40	21	8	39	13
Total employment	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Vulnerable employment	61	49	59	84	94	86	94	100	96	79	87	81

[a]M refers to males, F to females and BS to both sexes

The share of the working population in vulnerable employment varies strongly with educational attainment: the percentage decreases from 80 percent for people without education, via 76 percent for those with only primary education and 60 percent for the secondary educated to 14 percent for employed with tertiary education. A similarly large differentiation exists between persons who are literate and illiterate, with, respectively, 63 and 90 percent in vulnerable employment.

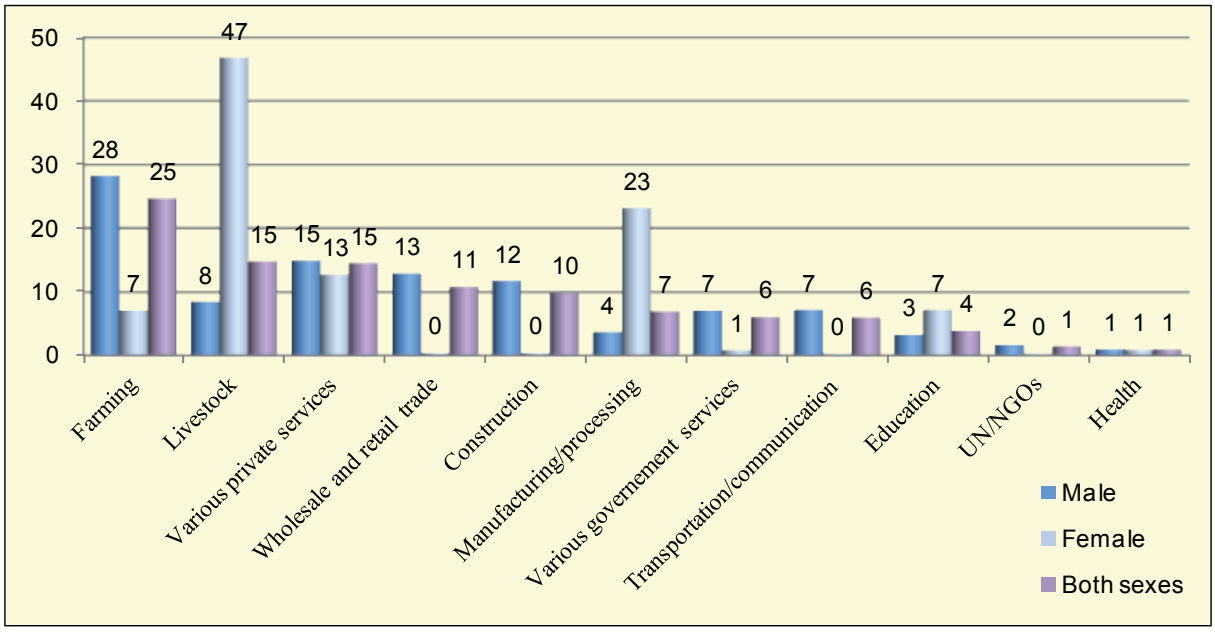
4.4.2 Economic sector and occupation

The economy of Afghanistan is dominated by the agricultural sector. Around 40 percent of the employed population is engaged in work in the farming or livestock sub-sectors (*Figure 4.5*). Male employment is relatively varied with considerable employment of between 10 and 15 percent in construction, trade and various services, besides agriculture including farming and livestock (37 percent). Female employment is much more concentrated in a few sectors: various services, manufacturing and (food) processing, and, particularly, livestock tending. In the latter two sectors the share of women is also in absolute numbers larger than the male share. In the formal sector, the only sector where women are well represented is education.

For the Kuchi population the employment in agriculture is much higher than the national average, with 69 percent in the livestock sector only (not shown here). On the other hand, in urban areas the share is much lower – 4 percent only. Here the – male dominated – wholesale and retail sector is the largest (23 percent), followed by various private services (15 percent) and public services, construction, transportation/communication and manufacturing/processing, each with around 11 percent of employment.

2 Day labourers are included in this category, since they fully qualify the criteria of vulnerable employment

Figure 4.5: Employed population 14 years and over, by sector of employment, and by sex (in percentages)



The geographic variation of employment in different sectors is wide. Whereas in Kabul province the share in agriculture is only 11 percent, in Helmand, Nooristan, Ghor and Zabul it is over 70 percent. On the other hand, sectors that are characterised by more formal employment – health, education, government and UN/NGO services – are relatively well represented in the employment of Paktika, Kapisa, Panshjer and Kabul (over 20 percent combined). Urozgan, Helmand, Ghor and Zabul have less than 5 percent in these sectors.

Employment in the farming and livestock sectors is almost entirely in the category of vulnerable employment (98 percent or more), whereas for manufacturing/ processing, construction, trade and the private service sector it is between 84 and 94 percent. Only in the education, UN/NGO and various government sectors the percentage of vulnerable employment is 10 percent or lower. An indicator that shows the extent to which women have access to paid employment and their integration into the monetary economy is the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. For Afghanistan this MDG indicator is a low 11 percent.

MDG Indicator 3.2

Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector

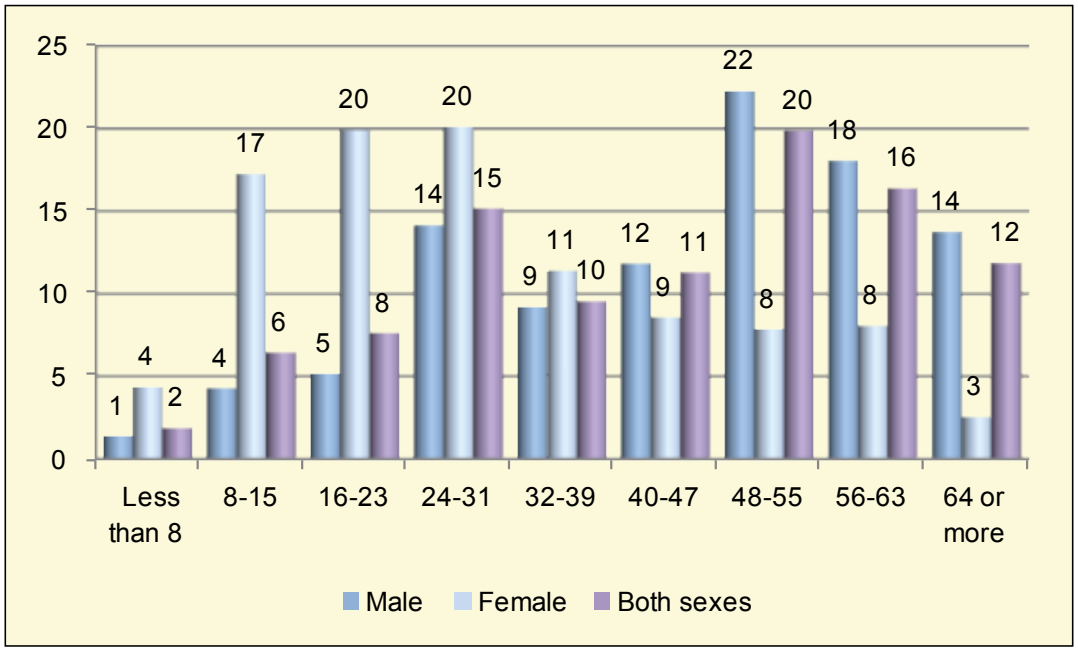
11.1 percent

The distribution of occupations shows a large representation of farming and livestock activities (24 and 11 percent, respectively), the former strongly male-dominated. Other categories of relative importance are sales and trade (particularly in urban areas), construction and mining, drivers, and various service work. For women, shepherding (25 percent) and handicraft (20 percent) are the most important single occupational categories, but in the formal sector to a lesser extent also teaching (7 percent).

4.4.3 Working hours

Figure 4.6 shows the distribution of weekly working hours for the total working population, including those who are classified as under- and unemployed. Whereas the majority of men work 48 hours or more per week, the majority of working women (57 percent) is concentrated in the category of 8 to 31 hours work per week. The mean hours worked per week by men and women is, respectively 45 and 30, with the median values close to the mean (48 and 28 hours, respectively) (data not shown). It is likely that the fewer hours worked by women is due to their additional household chores, like cooking, cleaning, fetching water and firewood, and taking care of children and elderly. The data on working hours also shows that on average urban workers work longer hours than rural and Kuchi workers (48 against 41 hours per week).

Figure 4.6: Working population[a], by sex, and by weekly working hours (in percentages)



[a] Including workers classified as under- and unemployed

5 AGRICULTURE AND LIVESTOCK

SUMMARY. *The NRVA 2011-12 confirms the overriding importance of the agricultural sector for the livelihood of Afghanistan's population. Agriculture is the main source of income of close to one-third of households and 40 percent of the labour force are employed in the sector. Irrigated land in particular provides an important resource for 38 percent of households in the country, while 17 percent own rain-fed land. However, productivity of farmland is often low, as indicated by the large shares of land left uncultivated – 20 percent of irrigated land and as much as 37 percent of rain-fed land – mainly due to lack of water, and secondly – but related – because of soil infertility.*

Cereals, especially wheat, are the main farm produce in Afghanistan. Estimates based on responses to the NRVA survey suggest a spring cultivation production of 2.4 million tonnes of wheat in 2011 and 2.8 million tonnes in 2012. The difference was mainly due to the drought that hit the northern provinces in 2011 and especially affected rain-fed farmland. Maize, rice and potatoes are other staple food crops produced in significant quantities. Tomatoes and – from garden plots – grapes and other fruits and nuts represent other main agricultural products. On the input side, fertilisers, seeds and machine costs are the main investments in farming. In total it is estimated that farmers spent 16.5 billion Afs. (USD 309 million) on farming input for the last spring cultivation.

The national stock of cattle seems to have dropped since the Livestock census of 2002-03. On the other hand, the herds of small ruminants – especially sheep – show significant increases. Livestock products are an important part of the daily consumption of animal-owning households, but market sales of animals or livestock products are also an important income source for these households. With regard to livestock production factors, the NRVA shows a relatively good vaccination coverage, but relatively low access to feed concentrate. Livestock owners significantly (67 percent) rely on private service providers for veterinary services. The main obstacles to using veterinary services are refusal by providers, lack of knowledge of the livestock owner and distance to the service provider.

5.1 Introduction

Agriculture – including livestock-related activities – is the backbone of Afghanistan's economy. For around half (49 percent) of households agriculture provides any source of income and for 30 percent it is even the most important source. Similarly, with 40 percent of the labour force engaged in agriculture, it is the main sector for employment. CSO estimates that the sector contributes 27 percent to the country's GDP in the solar year 1390 (2011-12) (CSO 2012).

With a varied geography and topography, out of 652 thousand square kilometres of total land area, only an estimated 12 percent is arable, 3 percent of the land is considered forest-covered, 46 percent is under permanent pasture and 39 percent is mountainous, not usable for agriculture (CSO 2012).

This chapter deals with various aspects of Afghanistan's agricultural sector and is divided into two main parts: section 5.2 on farming and horticulture, and section 5.3 on livestock-related information.

5.2 Farming and horticulture

Land tenure in Afghanistan involves a complex system of ownership and access through renting, sharecropping and mortgaging. Furthermore, significant differences exist between productivity of irrigated and rain-fed land. Thus, the Ministry of Agriculture, Irrigation and Livestock (MAIL) estimates that typically yield of wheat from irrigated fields is 2.7 times higher than that from rain-fed fields (MAIL 2012). Horticulture involves again harvests that have high monetary value even though usually garden plots are small in terms of size. Consequently, this section treats the different types of land – irrigated, rain-fed and garden plot – separately, and distinguishes the different types of land tenure.

5.2.1 Irrigated land

Irrigated land tenure

Some 38 percent of all households in Afghanistan – approximately 1.4 million households – own any irrigated farm land. The majority of these land owners (58 percent) have a farm size of less than 4 jeribs (0.8 ha.)[1] , whereas the median and mean irrigated land size is, respectively, 3 and 6 jeribs (1.2 and 0.6 ha.) (*Table 5.1*). Compared to NRVA 2007-08, the share of land owners with small landholdings – below four jeribs – has increased and the mean size of land owned shows a decrease from 6.7 to 6.0 jeribs, which may be due to increased population pressure.

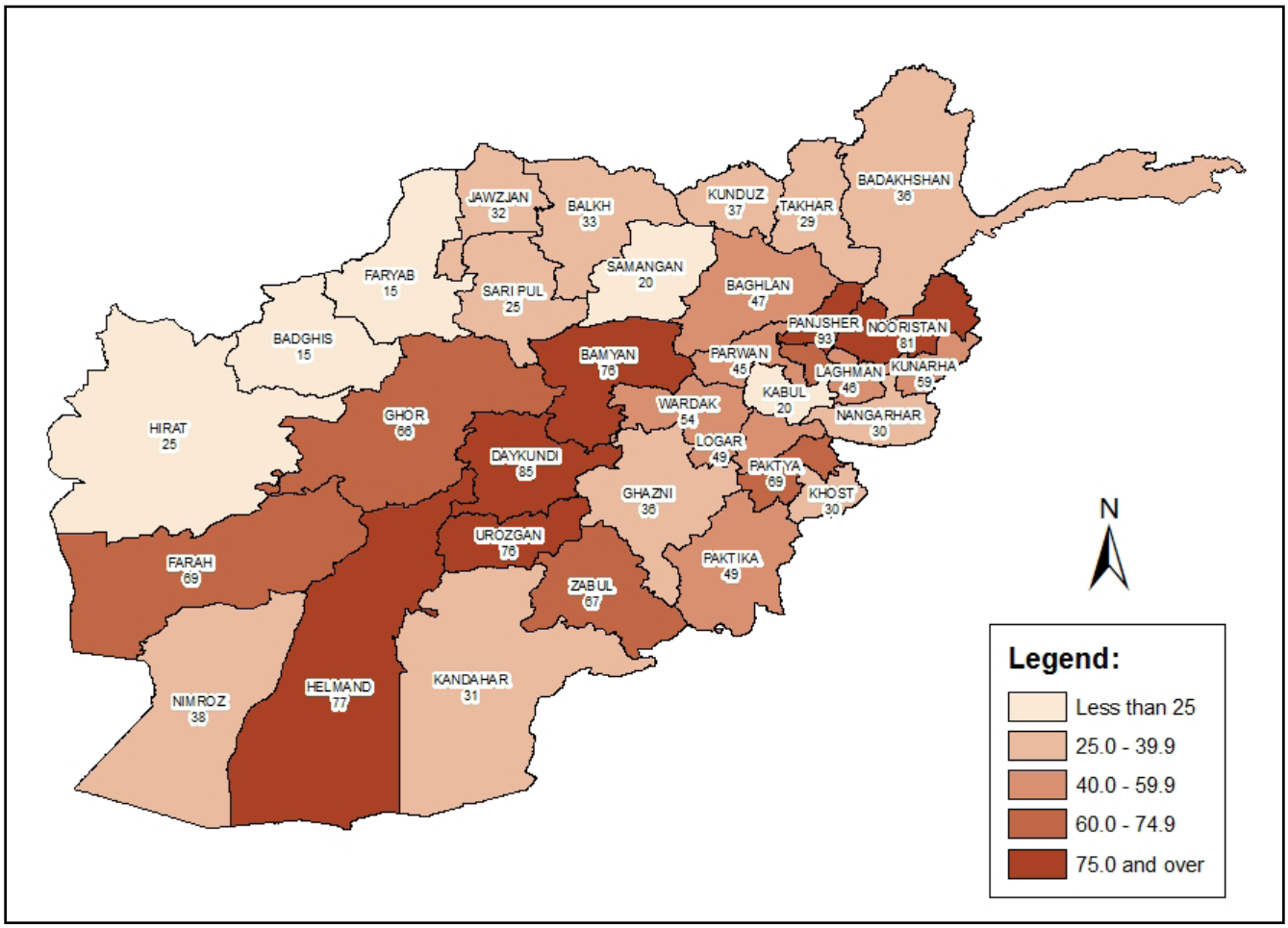
Table 5.1: Households, by ownership of irrigated land, irrigated land size (in percentages); also stating mean and median irrigated land size (in jeribs)

Ownership	2011
No ownership	62.1
Any ownership	37.9
Less than 2.0 jeribs	11.8
2.0-3.9 jeribs	10.3
4.0-5.9 jeribs	5.3
6.0-9.9 jeribs	3.8
10.0-19.9 jeribs	4.8
20 jeribs or more	1.9
Total	100.0
Mean land size (jeribs)	6.0
Median land size (jeribs)	3.0

Just over 6 percent of households reported having access to land without owning it. The data indicate that a similar percentage of land-owning households rent-out or mortgage-out all their irrigated land, as the total percentage of households with access to land is about the same as that of owning land (37 percent). Especially urban households that own land in rural areas may assign other households to cultivate the land in their absence. The occurrence of this practice is supported by the finding that access to irrigated land by urban households is lower than ownership. The percentage of irrigated land ownership by province is given in *Figure 5.1.*

1 One jerib is 0.2 hectare (2,000 m^2)

Figure 5.1: Percentage of households owning irrigated farm land, by province

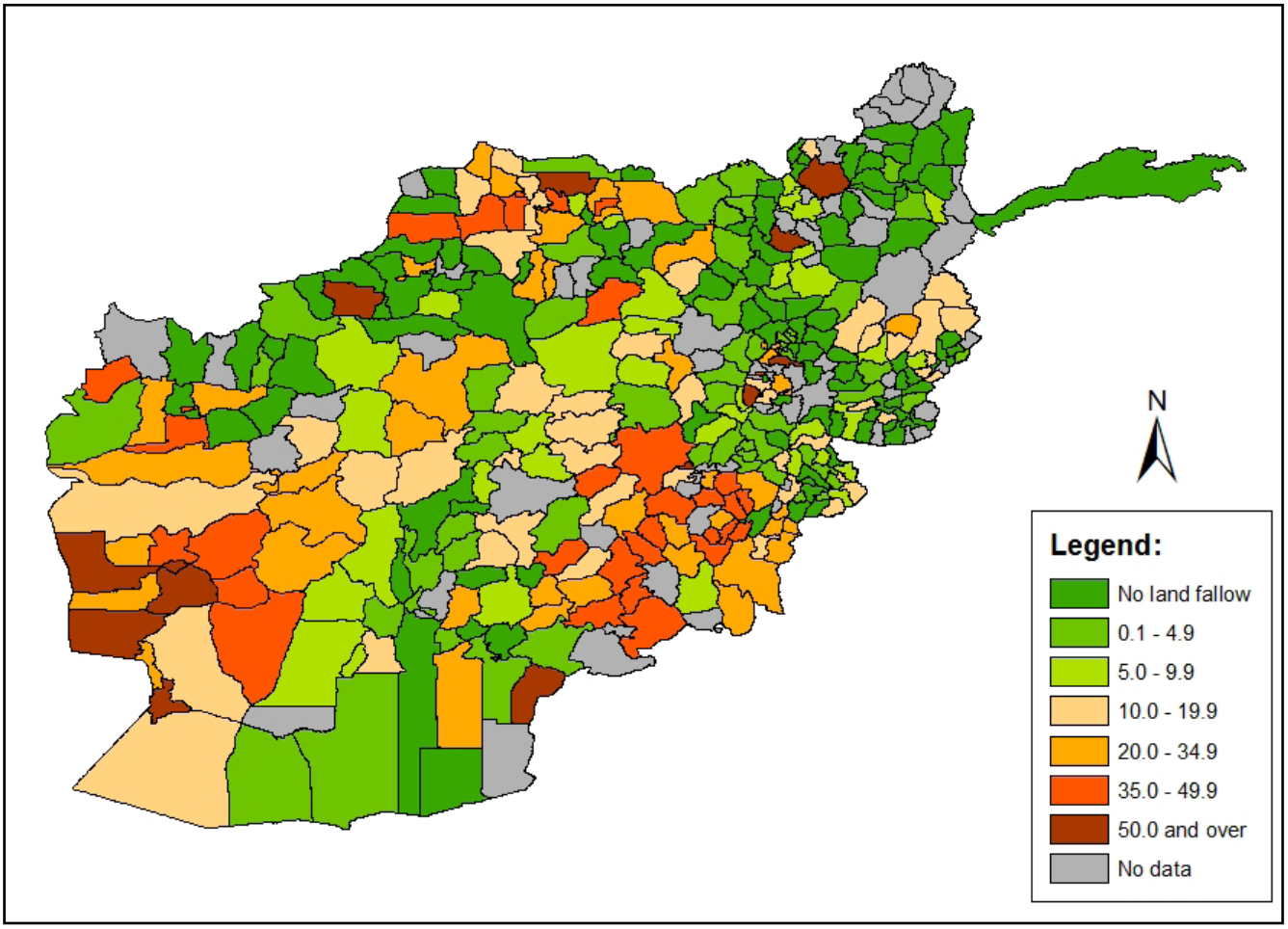


Irrigated land cultivated and not-cultivated

Based on information provided by households, the total irrigated land area is around 16.8 thousand km^2, with Helmand, Balkh and Farah accounting for almost one-third of this total area. However, much of this area is marginal land, as country-wide almost 20 percent of the irrigated land was left fallow, leaving less than 14 thousand km^2 irrigated land cultivated. Very large differences exist with regard to the share of un-cultivated irrigated land. Of the 34 provinces, 18 record more than 10 percent fallow irrigated land, nine record more than 20 percent, and six – Paktika, Zabul, Nimroz, Jawzjan, Ghazni and Farah – more than 30 percent , of which in the latter almost half of the irrigated land is not cultivated. *Figure 5.2* shows this information by district. There seems to be a relation between the share of land left fallow and land size, as the six provinces mentioned also belong to the ten provinces with the largest mean and median irrigated land size per household.

The reason for leaving irrigated land fallow is overwhelmingly – for 71 percent of the households with access to land – the lack of water. The second main reason – for 21 percent of the households – relates to infertility of the land. Financial constraints (6 percent) and conflict-related reasons (conflict over water or land, or general insecurity for 2 percent) are relatively minor reasons. However, also the reasons for not cultivating the land strongly differ across the provinces, for some of which land infertility is the predominant concern.

Figure 5.2: Percentage of irrigated land not cultivated, by district[a]



[a]Data at district level are not representative. The figure is only meant to be indicative at a more regional level

Source of irrigation water

Almost two-thirds (64 percent) of households with access to irrigated land receive the water for farming land from an irrigated river, canal or dammed water source (*Figure 5.3*). However, in specific provinces irrigated land farming relies to a large extent on deep-well pumping (Paktika, Farah, Kandahar and Nimroz all for more than 40 percent) or Kariz or Nawara (Ghazni, Daykundi, Paktya and Zabul for more than 40 percent). Again the association with shares of land remaining fallow is apparent.

Crop production from irrigated land

The data collected by NRVA 2011-12 refer to two different harvesting seasons. Since circumstances differed considerably between 2011 and 2012 due to drought in the northern provinces, results produced for crop production differentiate between the two years. However, differences in yields are more pronounced for rain-fed land (see section 5.2.2) than for irrigated land.

Wheat is the most important crop produced on irrigated land. According to the households reporting in the NRVA 2011-12, 2.1 million metric tonnes of wheat were harvested in the spring cultivation season of both years (*Table 5.2*). Total cereal production – wheat, maize/sorghum, barley, rice and millet – amounted to 2.5 and 2.4 million tonnes in 2011 and 2012 respectively. Next to other food crops – particularly potatoes – fodder (alfalfa, clover and other varieties) and cotton are main production crops. The report on opium is likely to be an underestimate in view of the official stance of the Government of Afghanistan with regard to opium production.

Figure 5.3: Main source of water for irrigated land (in percentages)

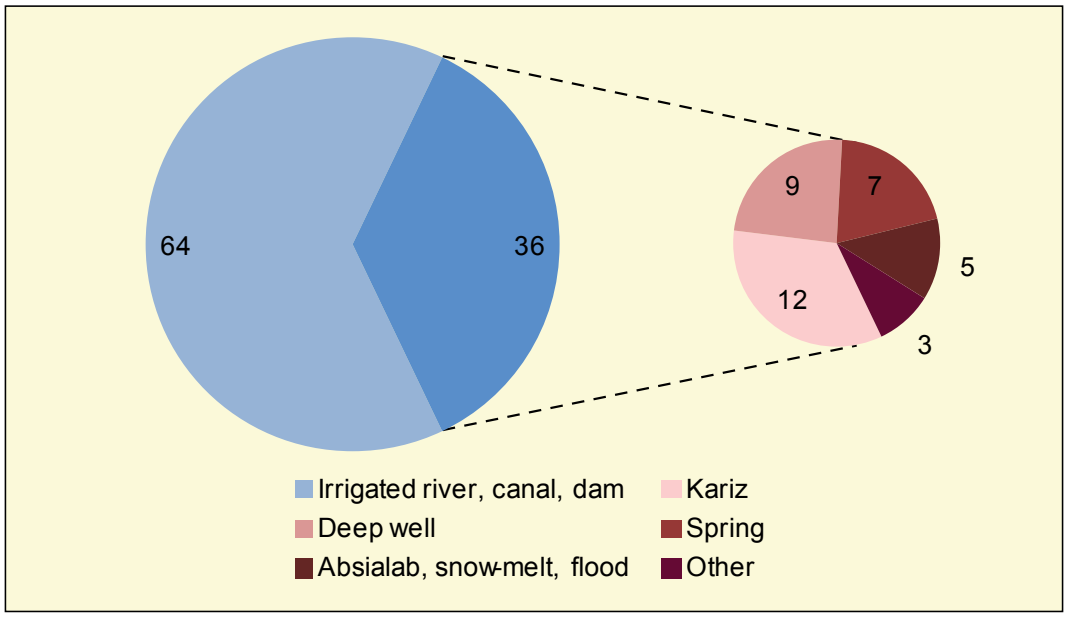


Table 5.2: Crop production from irrigated land in spring cultivation season prior to the survey

Crop	Tonnes	
	2011	2012[a]
Total cereals	2,498,662	2,393,223
Wheat	2,064,376	2,090,587
Rice	187,623	:
Maize/sorghum	178,245	153,204
Barley	66,314	61,295
Millet	2,104	2,935
Potatoes	241,131	156,711
Fodder	235,942	328,719
Cotton	71,020	145,831
Onions	58,310	84,421
Water melon/melon	53,342	55,813
Tomatoes	30,498	52,366
Beans	13,021	13,400
Fruit and nuts	3,895	5,882
Opium	3,093	3,434
Other vegetables	56,626	51,222
Other crop	34,384	27,100

: Data not available
a Including estimates for Kabul and Bamyan provinces

5.2.2 Rain-fed land

Rain-fed land tenure

Farming households in Afghanistan use less rain-fed land than irrigated land. Around one in six households (around 610 thousand) owns any land of this type (*Table 5.3*). *Figure 9.4* shows the percentage of households owning rain-fed farm land by province. Related to its marginal productivity, the size of rain-fed landholdings is on average larger than that of irrigated land, with a mean area size of 16.4 jeribs (3.3 ha.) and a median size of 7.0 (1.4 ha.). Compared to NRVA 2007-08, the share of households owning rain-fed land, as well as the relative area sizes owned show only marginal changes.

In view of the finding that some 11 percent fewer households have actually access to rain-fed land than owning it (26 percent for urban households and 9 percent for rural ones), it could be deduced that renting-out of this type of land is relatively common, especially for urban households.

Figure 5.4: Percentage of households owning rain-fed farm land, by province

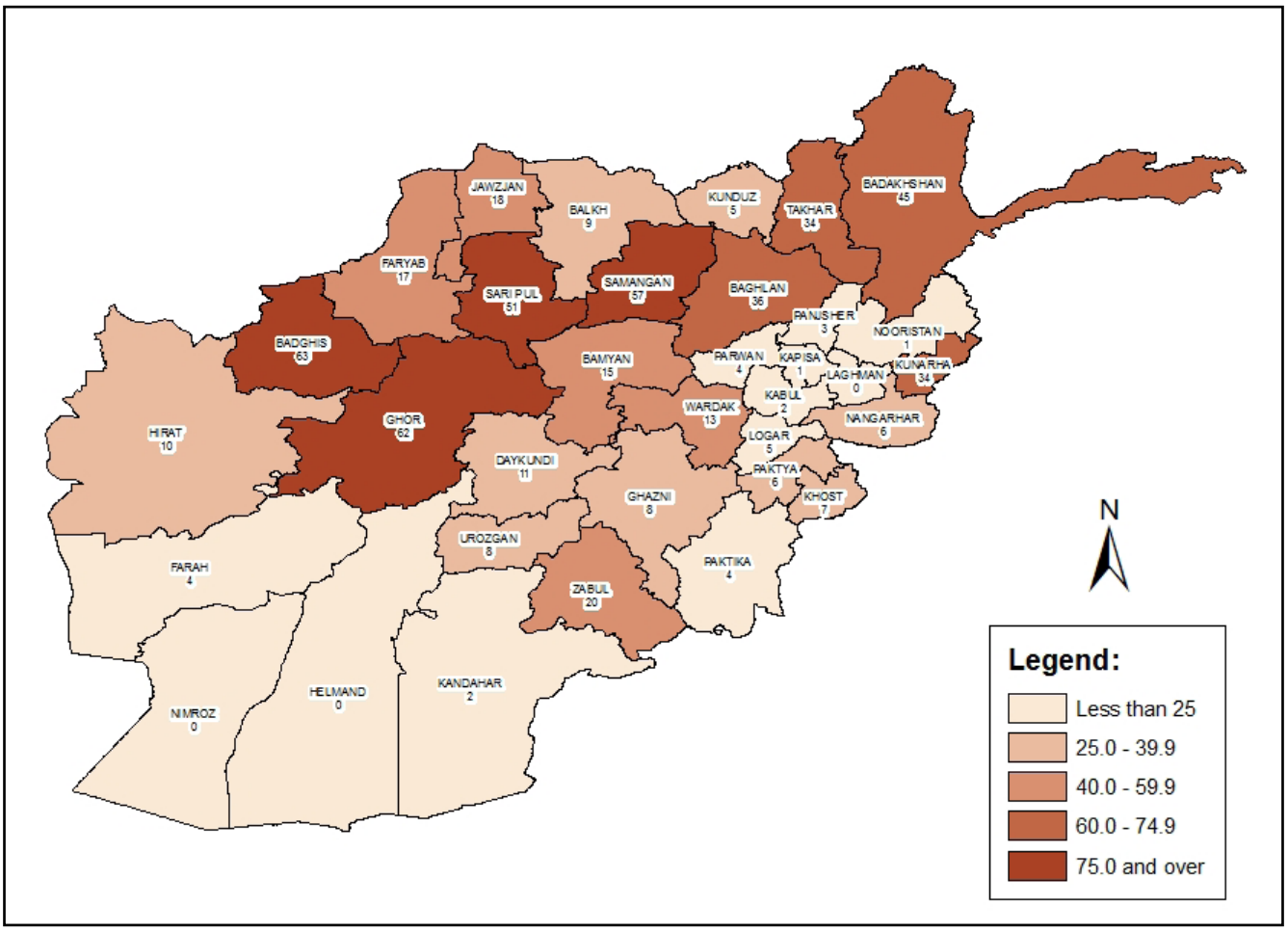


Table 5.3: Households, by ownership of rain-fed land, rain-fed land size (in percentages); also stating mean and median rain-fed land size (in jeribs)

Ownership	Percentage
No ownership	83.2
Any ownership	16.8
Less than 2.0 jeribs	1.9
2.0-3.9 jeribs	3.0
4.0-5.9 jeribs	2.5
6.0-9.9 jeribs	2.4
10.0-19.9 jeribs	3.6
20 jeribs or more	3.5
Total	100.0
Mean land size (jeribs)	16.4
Median land size (jeribs)	7.0

Rain-fed land cultivated and not-cultivated

NRVA 2011-12 household information suggests that the total rain-fed land area is slightly larger than irrigated land area: 18.1 thousand km^2, with Faryab, Herat, Takhar and Ghazni accounting for half of the rain-fed land. However, well over one-third of this land (37 percent) was left uncultivated. In seven provinces – Parwan, Bamyan, Urozgan, Ghazni, Baghlan, Wardak and Kandahar – the part of the land that is left fallow is even more than half.

Lack of rain is the predominant reason for not cultivating rain-fed land (53 percent), followed by infertility of the land (18 percent) and financial constraints (13 percent). The practice of rotating between cultivating land leaving land fallow is common to deal with marginal rain-fed land in Afghanistan.

Crop production from rain-fed land

Production from rain-fed land is limited compared to that of irrigated land. The survey data indicate large differences in crop production between 2011 and 2012. Based on households reporting to the NRVA, in 2012 752 thousand tonnes of cereals were produced on rain-fed land, compared to only 399 thousand in 2011 (*Table 5.4*). Analysis at provincial level shows that the main differences occurred in the northern provinces, which were affected by drought in 2011. More than 90 percent of cereal production consists of wheat.

Table 5.4 Crop production from rain-fed land in spring cultivation season prior to the survey

Crop	Tonnes	
	2011	2012[a]
Total cereals	399,468	751,664
Wheat	371,582	693,918
Barley	26,400	57,623
Maize/sorghum	1,486	122
Water melon/melon	62,261	328,719
Other crop	31,831	1,167

[a]Including estimates for 3 or more provinces

5.2.3 Horticulture

Tenure and size of garden plots

Produce from garden plots can be important for Afghanistan households, in terms of supplementation of their consumption diet, as well as their household income. Valuable garden products – especially fruits and nuts – are harvested from horticulture production. Overall, 13 percent of households own a garden plot (*Table 5.5*), but in several provinces – Parwan, Bamyan, Sar-e-Pul, Wardak and Zabul – more substantial shares of households till garden plots.

The mean and median size of garden plots are 2.0 and 1.0 jeribs (0.4 and 0.2 ha.) respectively, with considerably larger plot sizes in the south-east eastern provinces of Paktika, Ghazni, Zabul and Kandahar.

Table 5.5: Households, by access to garden plots, garden plot size (in percentages); also stating mean and median garden plot size (in jeribs)

Ownership	Percentage
No ownership	87.4
Any ownership	12.6
0.1 - 0.9 jeribs	3.4
1.0 - 1.9 jeribs	4.2
2.0 - 3.9 jeribs	3.2
4.0 - 5.9 jeribs	1.0
6.0 - 9.9 jeribs	0.6
10 jeribs or more	0.2
Total	100.0
Mean land size (jeribs)	2.0
Median land size (jeribs)	1.0

Horticulture production

Grapes and other fruits and nuts from trees are the main products from garden plots, and are produced in large volumes. The yield in 2012 has been considerably larger than in 2011, especially for grapes and other crops.

Table 5.6: Crop production from garden plots in spring cultivation season prior to the survey

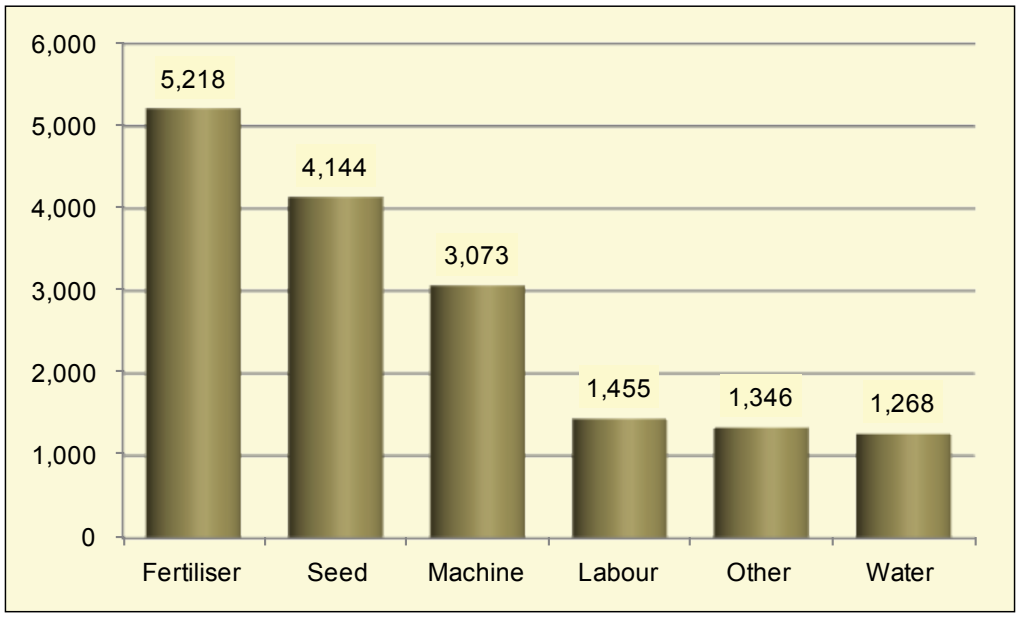
Crop	Tonnes	
	2011	2012[a]
Grapes	267,706	435,383
Fruit/nuts from trees	156,143	160,888
Other fruits	68,414	70,025
Fodder	35,837	33,413
Other produce	36,350	118,033
Other crop	31,831	1,167

[a]Including estimates for one or more provinces

5.2.4 Farming input costs

NRVA 2011-12 included a limited battery of questions on expenditures for farming input costs. The nearly 1.6 million households engaged in farming together spent an estimated total of 16.5 billion Afs. (some 309 million USD) on production inputs. For those farming households that did spent anything, the average expenditure amounted to 22 thousand Afs. (around 415 USD) for the last spring cultivation season. Most was spent on fertilisers (5.2 billion Afs.) and seeds (4.1 billion Afs.) (*Figure 5.5*).

Figure 5.5: National annual farming input costs, by type of production input (in million Afs.)



5.4 Livestock

5.4.1 Livestock numbers

The livestock sub-sector is another key component in Afghanistan's economy, but up-to-date statistics are not available. The 2002-03 Afghanistan Livestock Census is the latest comprehensive source of livestock information (FAO 2008). *Table 5.7* presents the results of this census and NRVA-based estimates on different types of livestock in 2011-12. The NRVA data suggest that the number of cattle is reduced in the years since the livestock census. However, the numbers of small ruminants, especially sheep, have increased. This suggest that these herds are recovering from recent losses due to animal diseases and droughts, and even despite structural problem facing overgrazing, encroachment of pastures by rain-fed agriculture, insecurity and loss of grazing rights.

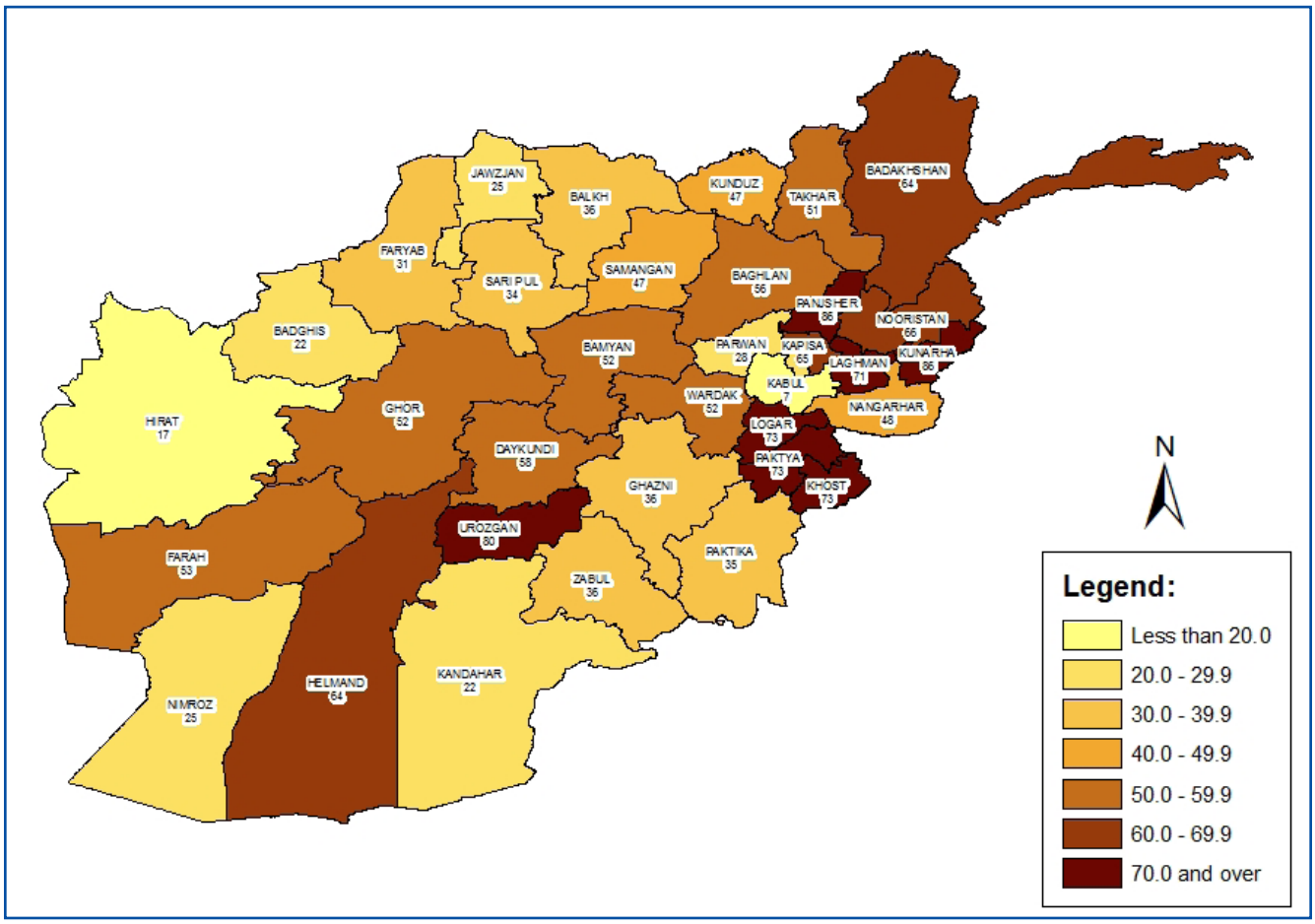
The NRVA 2011-12 data furthermore indicate that 39 percent of the households in Afghanistan own one or more cattle. A distribution by province is presented in *Figure 5.6*. Goats and sheep are owned by 29 and 31percent of the households, respectively. In rural areas the percentages of ownership of cattle, goats and sheep are, respectively 49, 70 and 77. Chicken-holding households are especially common with 44 percent nationally and 57 and 17 percent for rural and urban households. This is particularly important for women, as these are usually responsible for tending poultry and also may have direct benefits from poultry products. Donkeys, goats and sheep are especially important for Kuchi households, as ownership of these animals in this population is as high as 65, 70 and 77 percent, respectively. Two-thirds of all camels are owned by Kuchis.

Table 5.7: Livestock numbers in Livestock Census 2002-03[a] and NRVA 2011-12, by animal type (in thousands); also stating households with specified animal type in NRVA 2011-12 (in thousands)

Animal type	Census 2002-03	NRVA 2011-12	
		Animals	Households
Cattle	3,715	2,854	1,418
Oxen, yaks	na	474	326
Horses	142	102	83
Donkeys	1,588	1,519	968
Camels	175	481	98
Goats	7,281	10,445	1,049
Sheep	8,772	18,018	1,108
Chickens	12,156	13,176	1,614
Other poultry	1,022	1,367	237

a The Livestock Census only covered the resident population, NRVA also covers the Kuchi population

Figure 5.6: Percentage of households owning any cattle, by province



5.4.2 Sale of animals and animal products

Table 5.8, panel a provides the number of animals sold in the year preceding the interview of the NRVA survey. In addition, panel b shows the amount of animal products sold in the same period.

Table 5.8: Number of livestock and animal products sold in the year prior to the NRVA 2011-12 survey, by animal type (in thousands) and type of product (in thousands)

Animal type	Animals
Cattle	441
Oxen, yaks	65
Horses	23
Donkeys	111
Camels	67
Goats	2,891
Sheep	4,879
Chickens	1,382
Other poultry	183

Animal products	Amount	Unit
Milk	123,268	Liters
Meat from cattle, goats, sheep, etc.	10,300	Kgs.
Meat from poultry	326	Kgs.
Wool, cashmere	12,727	Kgs.
Furs, skin, hides	1,573	Pieces
Eggs	64,142	Number

5.4.3 Livestock production factors

Various services are offered to livestock owners to improve the condition of their animals. These services include access to feed concentrate, vaccination, veterinary services, credit, marketing and advise on feeding, breeding and management of animals. NRVA 2011-12 included information about some of these components.

Just over half of livestock owners (53 percent) reported that they had access to animal concentrate. For Kuchi livestock owners, this is only 35 percent. *Table 5.9* indicates the share of owners of specific livestock types that had vaccinated at least some of their animals in the year preceding the survey interview. Vaccination coverage seems relatively high, especially for poultry owners, but less so for owners of small ruminants.

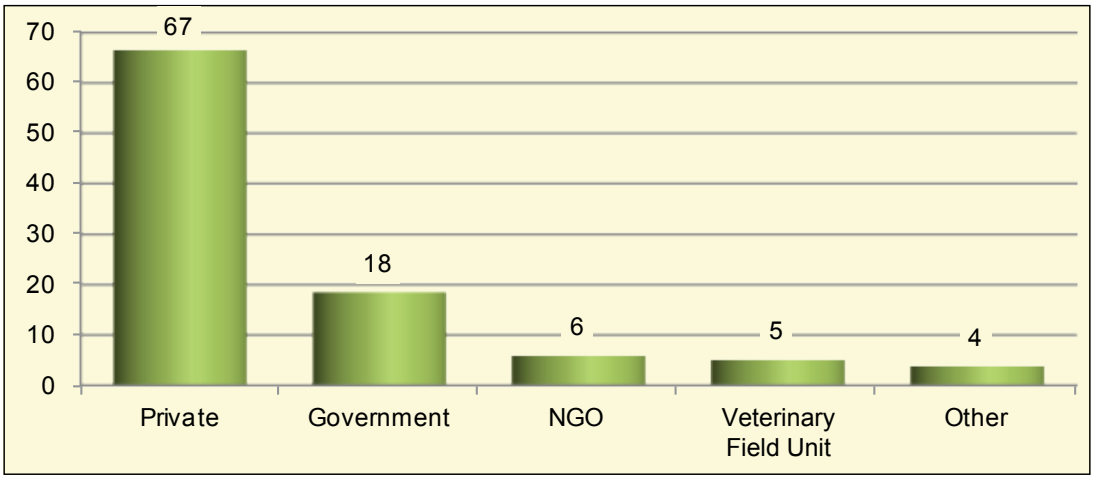
Table 5.9: Livestock owners that had vaccinated at least part of their livestock, by type of livestock owned (percentages)

Owner of animal type	Any animal vaccinated
Cattle	83.0
Sheep	71.6
Goats	72.6
Poultry	90.6

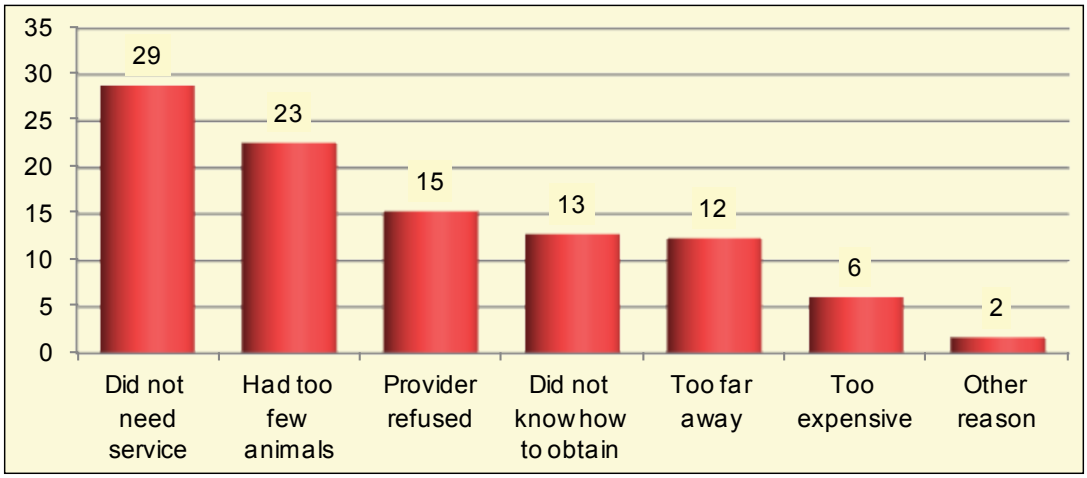
Around one in five livestock owners (21 percent) obtained veterinary help, livestock medicine or information about livestock in the year preceding the survey. This percentage ranged from less than one percent in Nooristan, Helmand and Urozgan to over 40 percent in Bamyan, Faryab, Ghazni and Badghis. *Figure 5.7*, panel a shows the distribution of the service providers to the 21 percent of livestock owners that obtained any service in the past year. Panel b shows the main reason for not obtaining veterinary services. The private sector dominates veterinary service provision with two-thirds of service consults by livestock owners. With regard to reasons not to obtain services, more than half (52 percent) involve voluntary reasons, whereas service access was impeded mainly because of refusal by the service provider, lack of knowledge how to access a provider or distance. Financial reasons seem to be of minor importance.

Figure 5.7: Main type of veterinary service provider and main reason not to use veterinary services

a. Main type of veterinary service provider (in percentages)



b. Main reason not to use veterinary services (in percentages)



6 POVERTY INCIDENCE, TREND AND PROFILING

SUMMARY. *The analysis of NRVA 2011-12 indicates that poverty has not changed over time, with about 36 percent of the population still consuming below the poverty line. Poverty remains higher in rural areas and amongst the Kuchi population. Poverty has also remained unchanged within most regions, and significant changes in poverty are observed in only two regions: in the North-East, where poverty headcount increased from 36.4 to 50.9 percent, and in the North where it declined from 39.4 to 31.7. While average per capita consumption has increased, one of the explanations for stagnating poverty over time is widening inequality, with consumption of richer parts of the population growing faster. The top consumption quintile has experienced annual growth rates more than three times higher than the bottom one over the four years in between the latest two NRVA survey rounds. At the same time, inequality measured by the Gini index has increased from 29.7 to 31.6.*

As the labor endowment is one of the most critical assets for households, poverty is strongly correlated with household size and demographic composition, being the highest in households with higher dependency ratios. Similarly, education and employment status of the household head are matched with wide differences in poverty vulnerability. In particular, the analysis reveals that about 70 percent of the poor population belongs to households headed by illiterate or uneducated individuals. Moreover, household head's underemployment, casual labor and employment in the farm or construction sectors are strongly correlated with higher poverty incidence.

6.1 Introduction

One of the main objectives of the NRVA is to provide information on living standards, on their evolution over time, and their distribution over households. Of particular concerns are living standards amongst the poorest segments of the population, and NRVA survey data provide the principal means for estimating the extent and severity of poverty in Afghanistan.

The measure of welfare adopted to assess population living standards is based on household consumption. In particular, an individual is considered as poor if her/his level of consumption is not sufficient to satisfy basic needs i.e. if her/his consumption falls below the minimum threshold identified by the poverty line. In line with international standards, the official absolute poverty line for Afghanistan is estimated following the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) approach and it was set using the NRVA 2007-08. The CBN absolute poverty line represents the level of per capita consumption at which the members of a household can be expected to meet their "basic needs" in terms of both food and non-food consumption.[1] In order to assess the evolution of wellbeing over time, the 2007-08 poverty line was updated to 2011-12 prices to reflect changes in the cost of living.[2]

This chapter focuses on the estimation and trend analysis of poverty and inequality, and it presents some basic correlates between household characteristics and poverty.

1 More specifically, the food component of the poverty line captures the cost of consuming 2,100 Kcal per day following the typical food consumption patterns of the relatively poor; the non-food component of the poverty line is estimated as the median non-food expenditure of individuals with food consumption around the food poverty line. See IRoA and WB (2010.

2 For more details, see Annex VII.

6.2 Measuring trends in poverty 2007-2011

There are three major poverty indexes that are calculated on the basis of poverty lines. The first is the *headcount index*, which represents the percentage of the population whose monthly per capita consumption expenditure are below the poverty line. This index is the most commonly used for poverty measurement mainly because of its simplicity and ease of interpretation. However, the major limitation of the headcount index is its insensitiveness to the "degree" of poverty, i.e. its inability to provide information as to whether the poor consume just or far below the poverty line. In fact, two populations with the same poverty headcount index might have totally different living standards in that in one, the poor are concentrated just below the poverty line, while in the other they have consumption levels well below the line. The second index used for poverty measurement is the *poverty gap*. This index represents the average distance between the consumption levels of the poor and the poverty line, thus capturing whether the poor have consumption just or far below the poverty line. The *squared poverty gap*, the third poverty measure, is similar in construction to the poverty gap but it differs in that it applies an increasing weight to greater distances below the poverty line, thus capturing the "severity" of poverty. [3]

MDG Indicator 1.2

Poverty gap ratio

8.6 percent

Table 6.1 reports the evolution of poverty over time. It clearly indicates that poverty has not changed over time, irrespective of the poverty indicator used. In order to further confirm the lack of poverty changes over time, Table 1 also reports the 95% confidence interval for each poverty estimate.[4] At the national level and for each of the three poverty indicators, none of the differences over time is statistically significant at a 5-percent level.

Table 6.1: Trends of poverty measures, by survey year[a]

Poverty indicators	Survey year		95% Confidence Interval	
	2007-08	2011-12	2007-08	2011-12
Poverty headcount	36.3	36.5	[34.96, 37.62]	[34.84, 38.14]
Poverty Gap	7.9	8.6	[7.49, 8.31]	[8.11, 9.10]
Squared Poverty Gap	2.6	3.0	[2.39, 2.75]	[2.75, 3.19]

[a] Provinces of Helmand and Khost were excluded from the original sample in both survey years.

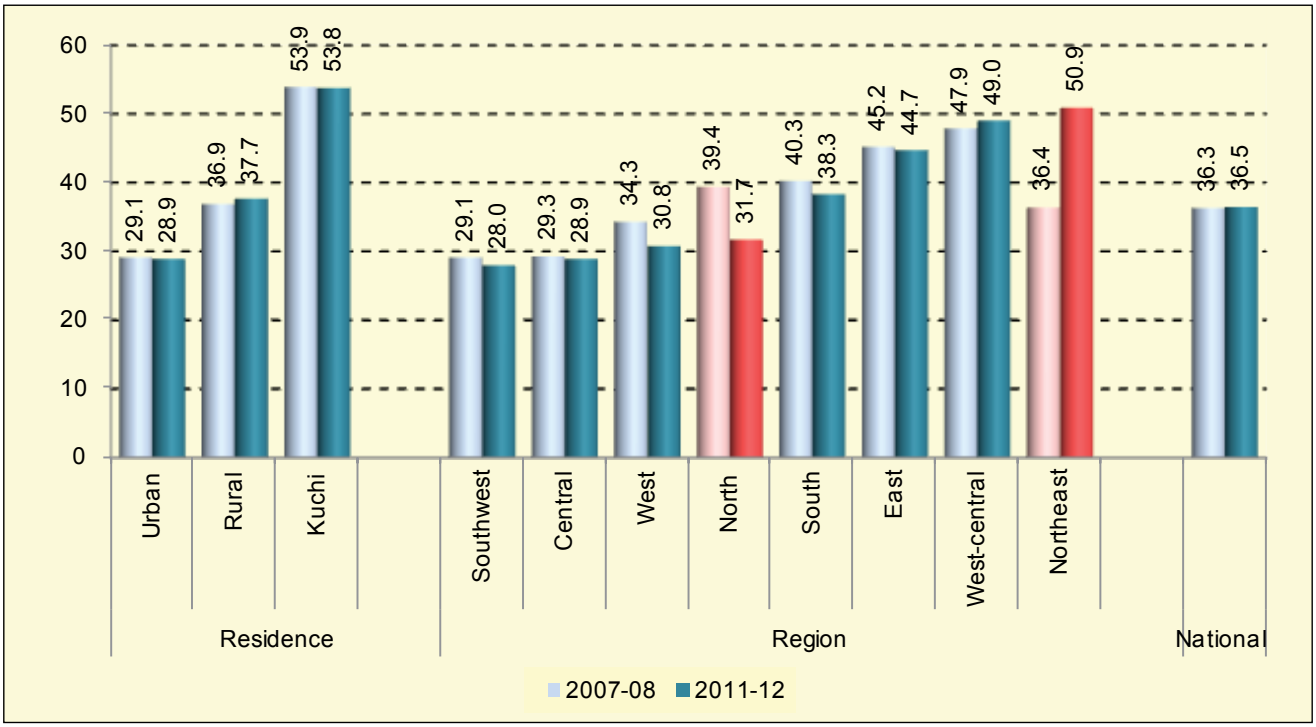
As evidenced in the 2007-08 NRVA report, Afghanistan is characterized by sharp differences in poverty incidence by residence and by region. The analysis of NRVA 2011-12 confirms previous results (*Figure 6.1*). The incidence of poverty in rural areas is 9 percentage points higher than in urban ones, being 37.7 and 28.9 percent respectively. The nomadic Kuchi population is the most vulnerable to absolute poverty, with poverty rates of 53.8 percent.

In line with the results observed at the national level, poverty has not changed significantly over time within each of the domains considered; it remains constant by residence and region, with the only exceptions being the North and North East regions where poverty has significantly – respectively – decreased and increased over time (*Figure 6.1*).

3 Formally, the three measures (poverty headcount, poverty gap and squared poverty gap) belong to the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) class of poverty measures.

4 As poverty measures are estimates based on sample surveys, they are subject to sampling errors. The confidence interval indicates the range in which the true (or population) indicator would lie with a probability of 95%.

Figure 6.1: Trend of poverty headcount, by residence and region (in percentages) [a, b, c]



[a] Central: Kabul, Kapisa, Parwan, Wardak, Logar, Panjsher; South: Ghazni, Paktika, Paktya, Khost; East: Nangarhar, Kunarha, Laghman, Nooristan; Northeast: Badakhshan, Takhar, Baghlan, Kunduz; North: Samangan, Balkh, Jawzjan, Sar-e-Pul, Faryab; West: Badghis, Herat, Farah; Southwest: Nimroz, Helmand, Kandahar, Zabul, Urozgan; West-central: Ghor, Bamyan, Daykundi.
[b] Poverty estimates for South Region exclude Khost province in both survey years; poverty estimates for Southwest Region excludes Helmand province in both survey years.
[c] Red bars indicate that the difference over time is statistically significant at a 5 percent level.

6.3 Growth and distribution

One of the explanations for the lack of poverty reduction over time in spite of an increase in average consumption is increasing consumption inequality. This is seen clearly from *Table 6.2*, indicating that while mean consumption increased 3.2 percent annually for the richest quintile, the corresponding growth rate in mean consumption for the poorest one was only 0.9 percent. As the same time, the consumption share of the poorest 40 percent of the population decreased from 22 to 21 percent to the benefit of top quintile's consumption share.

MDG Indicator 1.3

Share of poorest quintile in national consumption

8.5 percent

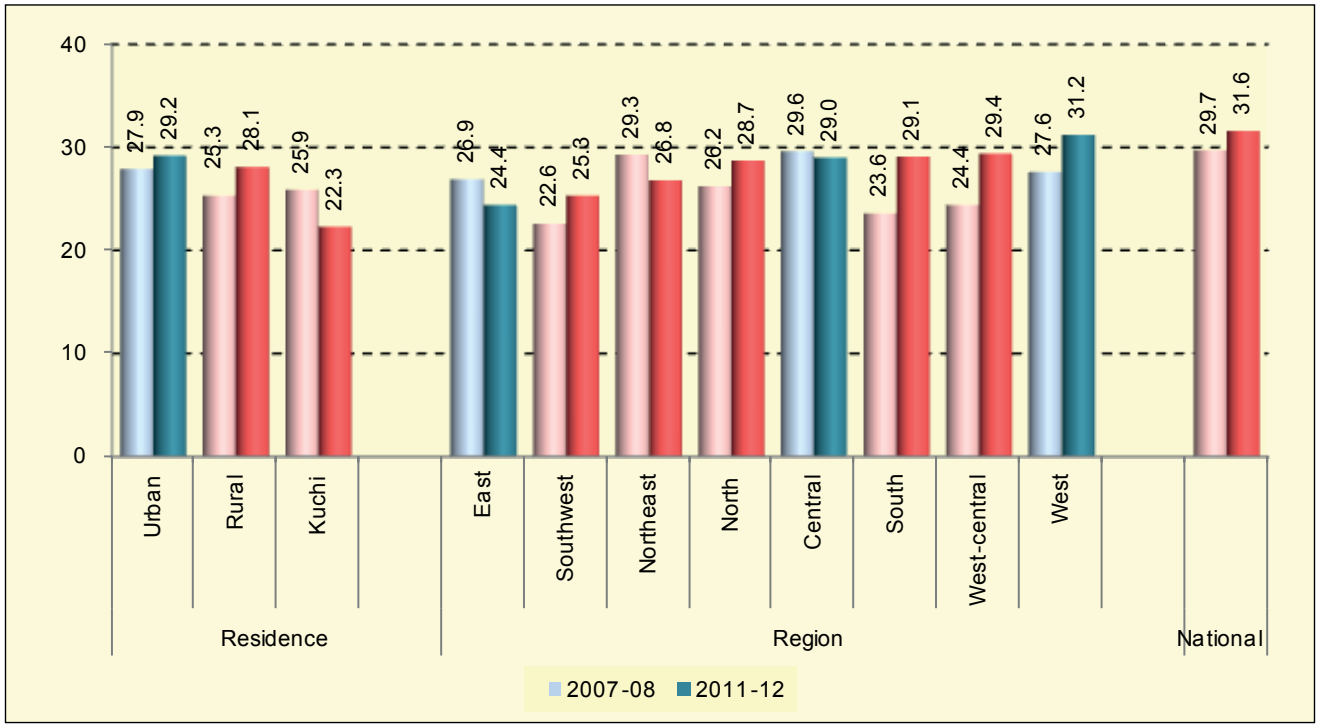
Results in *Figure 6.2* confirm that recent economic growth has widened consumption inequality in Afghanistan. The Gini Index measures the extent to which the distribution of consumption among individuals or households differs from a perfectly equal one. A value of 0 represents absolute equality with everybody consuming the same amount, a value of 100 absolute inequality, where all consumption is concentrated in one person. The Gini Index increased nationally from 29.7 to 31.6, and inequality significantly widened in the rural sub-sample. At the regional level, inequality increased in the South West, North, South and West Central regions, while decreased in the North East.

Table 6.2: Mean real per capita consumption (at 2011-12 prices), by poverty quintile[a]

Quintile	Survey year		Annual growth (%)
	2007-08	2011-12	
Poorest	984	1,019	0.9
2	1,414	1,515	1.7
3	1,818	1,971	2.0
4	2,412	2,645	2.3
Richest	4,294	4,863	3.2
Total	2,184	2,403	2.4

[a] The 2007-08 consumption has been inflated to 2011-12 prices using the inflation implicit in poverty lines by region-strata.

Figure 6.2: Trend of Gini index, by residence and region [a, b, c]



[a] Central: Kabul, Kapisa, Parwan, Wardak, Logar, Panjsher; South: Ghazni, Paktika, Paktya, Khost; East: Nangarhar, Kunarha, Laghman, Nooristan; Northeast: Badakhshan, Takhar, Baghlan, Kunduz; North: Samangan, Balkh, Jawzjan, Sar-e-Pul, Faryab; West: Badghis, Herat, Farah; Southwest: Nimroz, Helmand, Kandahar, Zabul, Urozgan; West-central: Ghor, Bamyan, Daykundi.
[b] Poverty estimates for South Region exclude Khost province in both survey years; poverty estimates for Southwest Region excludes Helmand province in both survey years.
[c] Red bars indicate that the difference over time is statistically significant at a 5 percent level.

6.4 Poverty profile

Household demographic and socio-economic characteristics are important correlates of poverty. In particular, this section presents results as to how poverty correlates with household size or dependency ratio at the household level as well as the education and employment characteristics of the household head. While unveiling causality is beyond the scope of the current report, these results are important for guiding future analysis of poverty determinants.

6.4.1 Demographic profile

The youngest segments of the population are over-represented amongst the poor. As shown in *Figure 6.3*, children below 15 represent a larger share of the poor then of the total population – a result in line with the finding that larger households and with relatively more dependents are more likely to be vulnerable to the risk of poverty. As labor endowment is often the only form of capital available to relatively poorer households, a higher child dependency ratio[5] at the household level is normally associated with higher poverty rates (*Table 6.3*).

Figure 6.3: Total population and poor population, by age (in percentages)

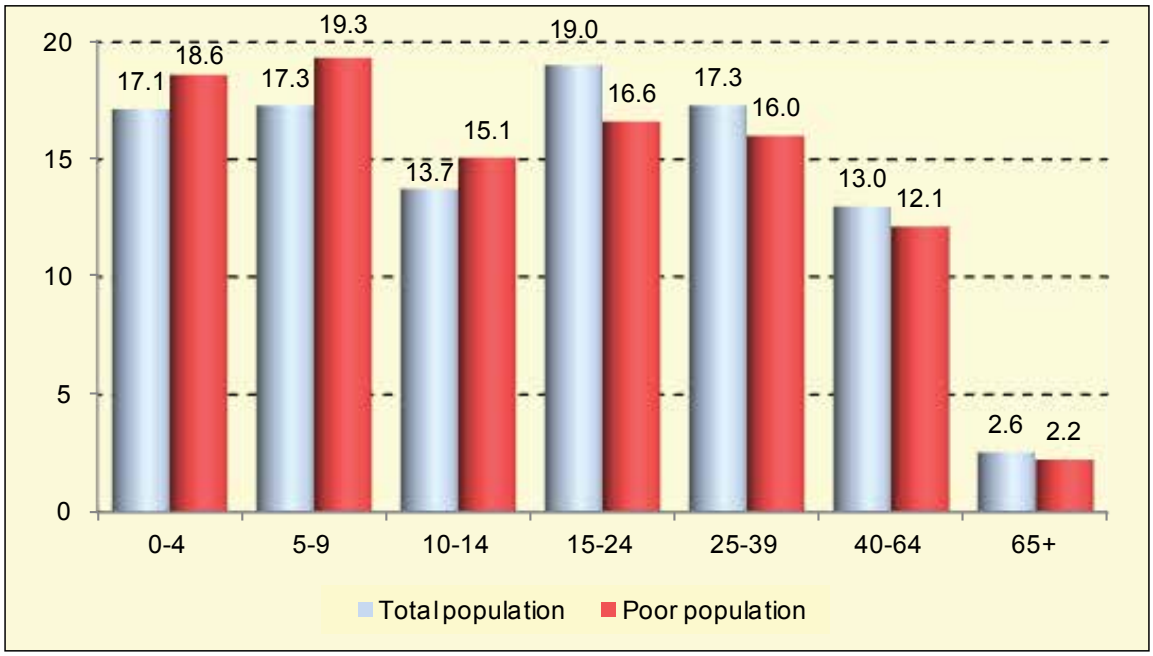


Table 6.3: Poverty headcount, by child dependency ratio (household level)

Child dependency ratio	Poverty headcount
Below 100	28.2
100-199	39.4
200-299	45.7
300 and more	53.6

5 The child dependency ratio is here defined as the number of children aged 0-14 over the population in the most productive ages (15-64).

6.4.2 Household head characteristics

The head of household is in most instances the breadwinner, i.e. the person mostly responsible for household livelihood. As a result, the attributes of the household head are one of the strongest determinants of poverty.

As shown in *Table 6.4*, the head's literacy status and education level are strongly correlated with the risk of poverty. Poverty rates for individuals living in households with an illiterate head are 14 percentage points higher than those of individuals living in households with a literate head (41.6 and 27.6 percent respectively). Similar results emerge when looking at the head's education attainment: poverty rates are the highest for individuals living in households with an uneducated head (42.1 percent). Interestingly and possibly correlated with the low level of education at the aggregate level in the economy, even partial schooling at the primary level is enough to substantially reduce poverty rates.[6] Taking the poor population as a whole, more than 70 percent of poor individuals come from households whose heads have no education or are illiterate.

Table 6.4: Poverty headcount, poor- and total population shares, by selected characteristics of household head (in percentages)

Household head characteristics	Poverty headcount	Share of poor population	Share of total population
Male	36.4	99.3	99.6
Female	54.7	0.7	0.5
Literate	27.6	27.7	36.6
Illiterate	41.6	72.3	63.5
No education	42.1	73.0	63.0
Incomplete primary school (less than grade 5)	31.9	4.0	4.6
Completed primary school (grade 5 or higher)	30.9	9.0	10.6
Completed lower secondary school	25.9	3.5	4.9
Completed upper secondary school	22.9	6.1	9.8
Completed teacher college or technical college	27.1	1.5	2.0
Completed university or post-graduate	14.7	0.9	2.3
Attended or completed Islamic school	25.9	1.6	2.3

Labor market characteristics of the household head are another important correlate of poverty. *Table 6.5* indicates that poverty headcount is the highest amongst individuals in households whose head is underemployed. The highest incidence of poverty associated with underemployment – as opposed to unemployment – is in line with previous findings from NRVA 2007-08 (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, Ministry of Economy, and the World Bank 2010) showing that individuals in poorer households cannot "afford" being unemployed and are more likely to be engaged in some form of income generating activity, irrespective of its quality, to simply make ends meet. While the direction of causality cannot be determined a priori, results from NRVA 2011-12 confirm the importance of employment quality for poverty reduction.

6 Decades of conflict have had a long lasting impact on the human capital stock of the country. Despite significant improvements in school enrollment rates and education achievement in younger (urban) cohorts, the education gap remains substantial by international standards, also taking into account country's level of development (see also chapter 8 on education).

Table 6.5: Poverty headcount, poor- and total population shares, by labor market characteristics of household head (in percentages)

Household head characteristics	Poverty headcount	Share of poor population	Share of total population
Employed	35.0	66.6	69.6
Underemployed	41.6	17.3	15.2
Unemployed	39.4	5.0	4.6
Inactive	38.2	11.2	10.7
Day labourer	52.1	30.4	21.1
Salaried worker, private sector	31.4	6.7	7.6
Salaried worker, public sector	29.8	9.9	12.0
Self-employed	32.8	47.9	52.8
Employer	18.2	0.6	1.1
Unpaid family worker	30.8	4.6	5.4
Agriculture	38.7	32.3	30.1
Livestock	44.0	8.1	6.7
Manufacturing/processing	31.9	2.6	2.9
Construction	42.8	12.1	10.2
Wholesale and retail trade	27.0	9.9	13.2
Transportation and communication	23.9	5.4	8.2
Health	20.1	0.6	1.1
Education	32.4	3.4	3.8
Other government services	27.4	5.8	7.6
UN/NGOs	15.6	0.7	1.6
Other services	47.3	19.1	14.6

Looking at categories of employment, daily labor is confirmed to be associated with higher poverty rates. The poverty headcount for individuals in households with a day laborer head are more than 20 percentage points more likely to be poor than those in households with a salaried head in either public or private sector jobs. Among the sector of employment, having the head working in agriculture or in livestock production is strongly correlated with poverty, in line with the relatively higher poverty rates registered in rural areas and especially amongst the Kuchi population. In particular, the emerging poverty profile and the lack of progress in poverty reduction over time could be explained by the significant contraction of agriculture production at the time of NRVA 2011-12 data collection.[7] The construction sector also emerges as particularly vulnerable, possibly reflecting the higher incidence of casual and poor quality types of jobs in this sector.

6.5 Conclusions

The analysis of data from NRVA 2011-12 reveals the absence of progress in poverty reduction over the past 4 years. While additional analysis would be required to better understand the causes for stagnating poverty despite the positive performance of the Afghan economy, the preliminary analysis presented in this chapter seems to suggest that the poorest segment of the population have not benefited from the general improvement in economic conditions. In particular, limited human capital endowments (literacy, education attainment) in poorer households might have prevented them from reaping the opportunities of better employment opportunities in the non-farm and (high-skill) service sector, resulting in stagnating poverty rates and widening inequality. As poverty is concentrated amongst households engaged in the agriculture, the sector's low productivity and the extreme volatility of agriculture production remain one of the biggest challenges to poverty reduction in Afghanistan.

7 In particular, while the agricultural sector grew by more than 15 percent in 2007-08, it contracted by 7.6 percent in 2011-12.

7 FOOD SECURITY

SUMMARY. *A high proportion of Afghanistan's 27 million people face chronic and transitory food insecurity. Food insecurity based on calorie consumption[1] is estimated at 30.1 percent, comparable to the 28.2 percent measured by NRVA 2007-08. Of the 7.6 million food-insecure people, an estimated 2.2 million (or 8.5 percent) are very severely, 2.4 million (9.5 percent) severely, and 3.1 million (12.2 percent) moderately food insecure.*

The proportion of food insecurity increased in urban and to lower extent in rural populations, whereas it slightly improved among the Kuchi compared to 2007-08. Food insecurity has increased in urban areas from 28.3 percent in 2007-08 to 34.4 percent (1.7 million people) in 2011-12. In rural areas, an estimated 29.0 percent (5.2 million people) are food insecure. The Kuchi population is slightly but not significantly better off compared to the rural and urban, with 25.6 percent or about 350 thousand being food insecure. Food insecurity is mainly attributed to households' lack of access to sustainable income.

The diet of the Afghan population is not only quantitatively inadequate, but also qualitatively poor and heavily cereal-based. In total, 19.4 percent of the Afghan population or 4.9 million people do not consume adequate protein of at least 50 grams per person per day from the available food basket. Among them, 4.7 million people (or 62 percent of the 7.6 million food-insecure people with calorie deficiency) are deficient in both calories and protein. Inadequate protein and calorie consumption at household level will particularly affect nearly a million under-five children who are likely to be vulnerable to malnutrition.

7.1 Introduction

Food security exists when all people, at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food for a healthy and active life. In this report, households that meet a minimum of 2,100 calories per person per day are considered as food secure. In the NRVA 2011-12, data were collected on household expenditure, quantities and type of foods, and number of days certain foods are consumed over a seven-day recall period, throughout the survey period. This information allows a calculation of household food security, based on kilocalorie (Kcals) intake data.[2] Furthermore, thresholds of calorie consumption are used to categorize the severity of food insecurity in 5 groups from very severely food insecure to food secure (*see Table 7.1*).

Table 7.1: Levels of food security

Level of food security	Kcal intake per person per day
Very severely food insecure	Less than 1,500
Severely food insecure	1,500 to 1,799
Moderately food insecure	1,800 to 2,099
Borderline	2,100 to 2,399
Food secure	2,400 and more

This chapter is divided into eight sections. Following this introduction; section 7.2 describes the overall current food security situation, in terms of the number and percentage of the food-insecure among urban, rural and Kuchi populations; section 7.3 gives an indicative comparison of the food security situation of the NRVA 2011-12 with NRVA 2007-08; section 7.4 presents characteristics of food-insecure households; section 7.5 describes the impact of seasonality on food security; section 7.6 describes access and supply; section 7.7 provides information about dietary diversity and the calculation of the Food Consumption Score; whilst section 7.8 outlines coping mechanisms generally adopted by surveyed households.

1 Excluding Helmand and Khost provinces due to lack of reliable data on food security.
2 Adjusted for age, sex and additional caloric requirements during the winter period.

7.2 Current food security

MDG Indicator 1.9

Percentage of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption

30.1

Table 7.2 shows that food-insecure households are distributed across all population groups of Afghanistan. Overall, an estimated 7.6 million people or 30.1 percent of the Afghan population are very severely to moderately food insecure. Of these, 2.2 million people or 8.5 percent are very severely food insecure, as they consume on average less than 1,500 Kcal per person per day. In relative terms, more urban households, including the peri-urban population, are food-insecure than their rural and Kuchi counterparts. A total of 34.4 percent of the urban population are food insecure compared to 29.1 percent of the rural population and 25.6 percent of the Kuchi population. However, in terms of absolute numbers, there are more food-insecure people (5.2 million) living in rural areas, where 72 percent of the country's population resides, excluding the 5 percent Kuchi population. The Kuchi are slightly but not significantly better off compared to the rural and urban populations. An estimated 350 thousand Kuchi and1.7 million urban residents are defined as food insecure.

Table 7.2: Population with types of food deficiency, by residence

Residence	Calorie deficiency (food insecure)		Protein deficiency		Calorie and protein deficiency	
	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage	Millions	Percentage
Urban	1.7	34.4	1.3	21.3	1.2	20.3
Rural	5.2	29.1	3.4	19.1	3.3	18.2
Kuchi	0.4	25.6	0.2	15.3	0.2	14.5
National	7.6	30.1	4.9	19.4	4.7	18.5

The majority of people facing caloric deficiency are also affected by inadequate protein consumption[3] across all population groups. In total, 4.9 million people or 19 percent of the Afghan population do not meet the daily protein requirement of at least 50 grams per person per day from the available food basket. Among them, 4.7 million are facing both calorie and protein deficiency. Inadequate protein consumption will particularly affect children under five years of age, who account for 21 percent of the surveyed population under the NRVA analysis. This means at least 1.5 million under-five children reside in food insecure households, of which more than 900 thousand children are living in households where the consumption of protein and calories are both inadequate, and hence, they are likely to be vulnerable to malnutrition.

By population group, 1.3 million (or 21 percent) of the urban population are protein deficient. Among the 2.1 million urban food-insecure people, 1.2 million face both protein and caloric deficiency. For rural areas, 3.4 million (or 19 percent) of the rural population are protein deficient. Among the 5.2 million rural food-insecure people, 3.3 million face both protein and caloric deficiency. The Kuchi population has a better protein consumption with some 0.2 million (or 15 percent) facing protein deficiency, and almost all of these show both protein and calorie deficiency.

3 Protein thresholds applied for calculating protein deficiency were: 'Very severe deficit' is considered as >50% of protein requirement (consumption <25grams/per person/day); 'Severe deficit' is of 25 to 50% of protein requirement (consumption of 25 to <37.5g/person/day; 'Moderate deficit' of < 25% of requirement (consumption of 37.5 to <50 g/person/day)' and 'Acceptable' consumption ≥ 50 grams per person per day.

7.3 Distribution by region

The highest proportion of food insecure people is reported in the North-eastern region (46 percent), followed by Central Highland region (39 percent). The largest number of food insecure population of 1.7 million people is in the North-eastern, followed by 1.6 million people in the Central and 1.1 million in the Central Highlands region (*Table 7.3*).

Table 7.3: Food-insecure population, by food-security status, and by region

Residence	Food-security status							
	Very severely food insecure		Severely food insecure		Moderately food insecure		Total food insecure	
	1,000s	Perc.	1,000s	Perc.	1,000s	Perc.	1,000s	Perc.
North	221	6.2	327	9.2	491	13.8	1,039	29.1
North-East	684	18.3	561	15	466	12.5	1,711	45.8
Central Highland	426	15.2	301	10.8	352	12.6	1,080	38.5
Central	305	4.6	529	8.1	752	11.5	1,587	24.2
South	40	4.1	57	5.8	135	13.8	232	23.7
East	155	5.5	209	7.4	308	11	672	23.9
West	185	6.1	213	7	326	10.7	724	23.8
South-West	135	7.2	201	10.8	264	14.1	599	32.1
National	2,152	8.5	2,397	9.5	3,095	12.2	7,645	30.1

7.4 Comparison of food security between NRVA 2011-12 and NRVA 2007-08

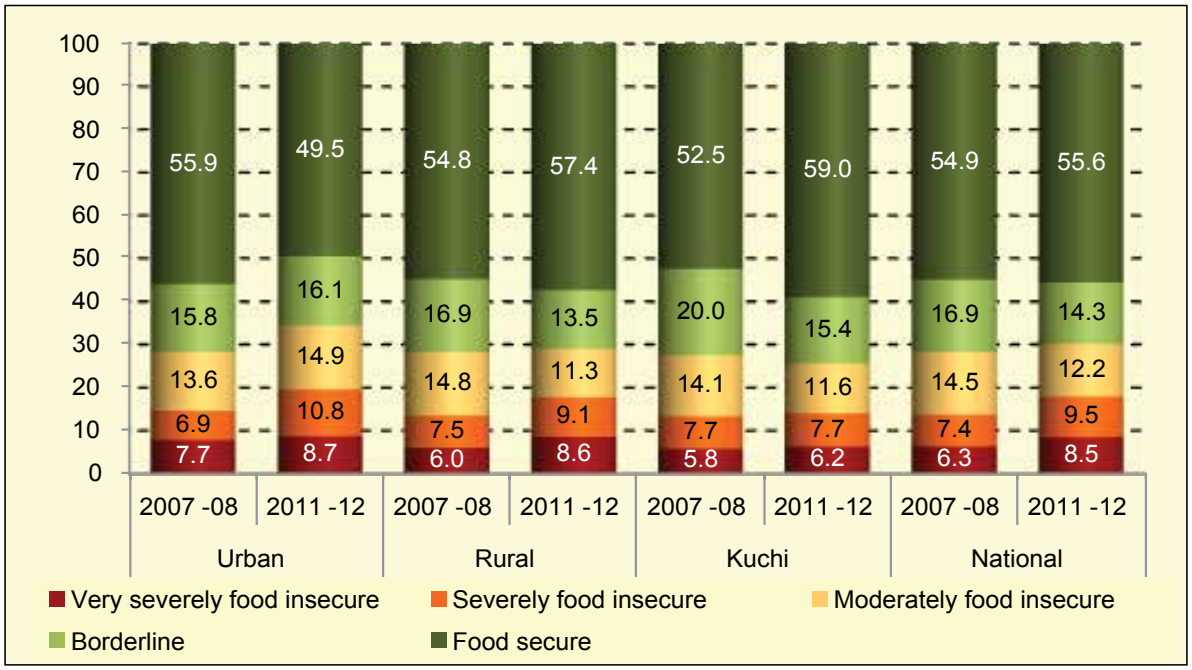
Figure 7.1 presents insights into changes in food insecurity severity among population groups when a comparable method for calculating food insecurity of NRVA 2007-08 and NRVA 2011-12 is used.[4] Based on this comparable analysis, the total food insecurity prevalence has increased from 28 percent to 30 percent over this period. This can be attributed to the deterioration of food security caused by the 2011 severe drought in 14 northern provinces of the country, most of which are usually surplus producing areas. The Rapid Emergency Food Security Assessment (REFSA) (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, WFP and Food Security and Agriculture Cluster 2011) that was conducted in November 2011 estimated over 2.8 million drought-affected people across 14 provinces who required food assistance.

The largest deterioration in food security based on caloric consumption occurred in urban areas, where the proportion of the food-insecure population increased from 28 percent in 2007-08 to 34 percent in 2011-12. One among the reasons for the significantly increased food insecurity in urban areas includes the different sample design applied in these two NRVA surveys. In the NRVA 2007-08 urban areas were a separate analytical domain covering 11 provincial main cities, while the NRVA 2011-12 did not have urban as separate analytical domain. Urban areas of all provinces had a proportion sample to size of the urban areas. Food insecurity in rural areas did not change significantly (28 percent in NRVA 2007-08 and 29 percent in the present survey). Food insecurity among the Kuchi populations, however, improved by two percent points to 25.6 percent from 27.5 percent in NRVA 2007-08. The reason for this could be consecutive good pasture conditions in the years 2009, 2010 and 2012.

4 I.e. based on adjusted calorie requirement to sex, age and winter temperature, excluding Helmand and Khost provinces, and applying individual weights.

The proportion of very severely- and severely-food insecure people shows a pronounced increase from 13.7 percent in 2007-08 to 17.9 percent in 2011-12. This increase is reported across all population groups, but is more noticeable in urban and rural areas.

Figure 7.1: Population, by level of food security, and by residence, survey year (in percentages)



7.5 Characteristics of the food-insecure population

7.5.1 Characterization by main income source

Income sources are assessed and classified according to the proportion the source contributed to the total household income. In general, income that contributes at least 50 percent of total household income is considered as the main source of income. Some households in urban areas have income sources which include rural activities such as agriculture, because of the inclusion of the Nahias (peri-urban locations) as urban centers. Three main income sources from which the majority of the households earn their income include unspecified wage labour (21 percent of the households), production and sale of field crops (15 percent), and shop keeping/small business and other trade (11 percent). Other activities are engaged in by less than 10 percent of the households. On average, doctors, medical workers and non-government workers have the largest average main income level. Following this group are mechanics, road construction workers and other people engaged in other production work. Among those with the lowest average amount of main income source are those dependent on agricultural wage labour, shepherding, Zakat, other wage labour, borrowing, production and sale of livestock, and field crops.

The main source of household income is related to food security status. Households dependent on borrowing, followed by those relying on food processing, street market sale and other service work, shepherding and Zakat have the highest proportion of the food insecure, at 57 percent and around 30 percent, respectively. After these are households whose main income source is shop-keeping, small business, remittance, rental income, other wage labour, carpet weaving and other handicrafts with around 27-29 percent of the population in each group being food insecure. Households with the lowest proportion of the food insecure (from 12 to 23 percent) are those who depend on production and sale of opium and opium wage labour, production and sale of orchard products, and agricultural wage labours (*Table 7.4*).

Table 7.4: Households, by livelihood group, asset holding and food insecurity (in percentages)

Livelihood activity	Percentage engaged in activity	of which	
		with poor asset holding	food insecure
Borrowing	3	55	57
Food processing, street market sales and other service work	5	29	30
Shepherding and Zakat	4	61	30
Shopkeeper/small business and other trade	11	20	29
Remittances and rental income	3	38	29
Other wage labour	21	63	28
Carpet weaving, sewing and other handcraft	3	42	27
Military, police and security	5	33	26
Production and sale of livestock	5	46	26
Production and sale of field crops	15	41	26
Teacher and government office work	6	23	25
Doctor, medical worker, non-Government, NGO, UN work	4	15	25
Taxi/transport	8	17	25
Mechanics, road construction and other production work	2	29	25
Agricultural wage labour	4	71	23
Production and sales of orchard products	2	21	22
Production and sale of opium and opium labour	1	17	12
Total	100	40	28

7.5.2 Characterization by asset ownership

Households dependent on agricultural wage labour, other wage labour, shepherding and borrowing are among those with the highest proportion of asset poverty. However, the ownership of household assets such as refrigerators, bicycles, tractors, etc., does not seem to closely correlate with the level of food insecurity, as some of these livelihood groups have a high percentage of households with poor asset holding, yet the proportion of food-insecure households among them is relatively low. For example, 71 percent of households dependent on agricultural wage labour are asset poor, while the percentage of food-insecure households among them is as low as 23 percent. Meanwhile, households dependent on the production and sale of opium and on opium labour have the second lowest proportion of the asset poor at 17 percent, and also have the lowest food insecurity rate at 12 percent (*Table 7.4*).

7.5.3 Characterization by demographics

Food insecurity tends to increase with household size. Households with more than eight members are more food-insecure than smaller households with less than three people (*Table 7.5*). This trend is similar across all population groups. The age of the household head does not seem to be related to food insecurity status, except among the Kuchi where households headed by adults under 19 years of age tend to be more food insecure. This could be related to lower livestock ownership among young household heads. On marital status of the household head, the widowed and divorced in urban and rural areas tend to be more food insecure compared to other groups.

Table 7.5: Percentage of food-insecure households, by residence, and by selected household characteristics

Household characteristic		Residence			
		Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Household size	1-2 members	13	11	0	11
	3-5 members	25	21	18	21
	6-8 members	37	27	26	29
	More than 8 members	36	32	29	33
Age of head of household	Less than 20	23	18	62	23
	20-44	32	24	21	26
	45-64	36	31	26	32
	65 and more	30	31	28	30
Marital status of head of household	Married	32	27	23	28
	Divorced or widowed	49	33	40	37
	Never married	37	19	46	26

7.6 Seasonality and food insecurity

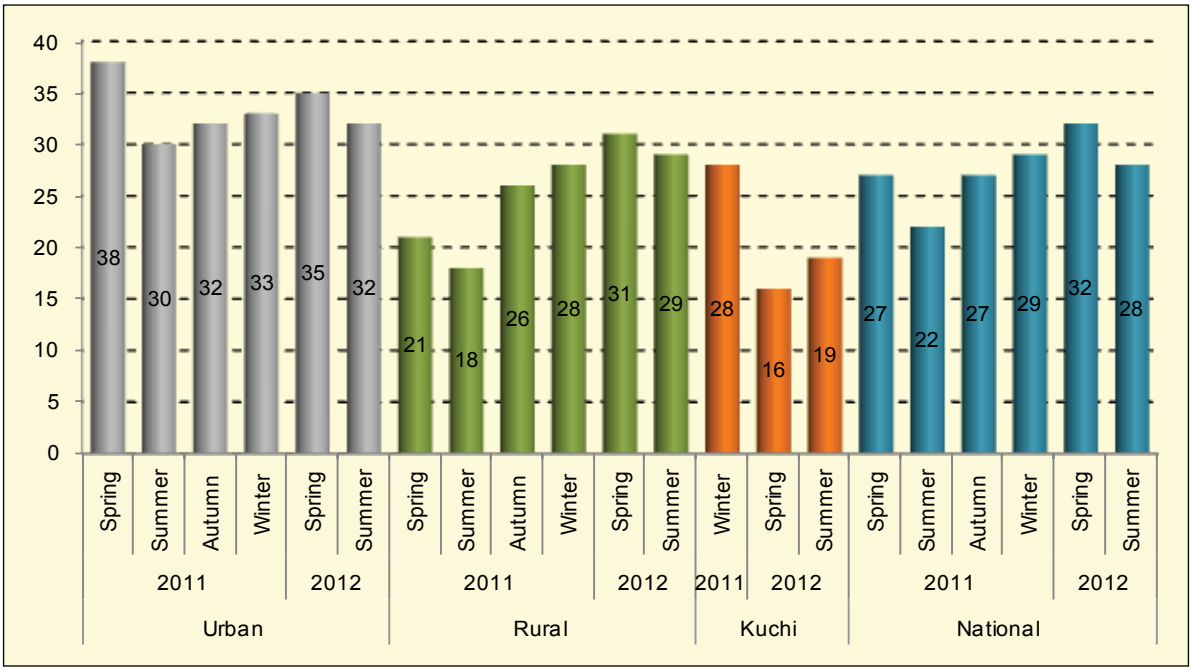
7.6.1 Afghan calendar seasonal differences

There is wide variability in the seasonal agricultural pattern in Afghanistan, particularly in areas where food availability from production relies heavily on access to irrigation. Hence, the agricultural production seasons and harvest periods vary considerably across the country, with some areas cultivating two crops (spring and winter). Wheat production comprises 78 percent of all cereal production, based on an 11-year average (MAIL 2012). With this seasonal diversity, some areas experience an interval of up to five months between winter and spring harvests of wheat and maize, whilst in other areas the interval is less than three months. This wide variation results in differences in the start and length of the pre-harvest (lean season), harvest and post-harvest periods that ultimately have an impact on food availability, markets and food security.

In the Afghanistan calendar, Spring lasts from 21 March to 21 June; Summer from 22 June to 22 September; Autumn from 23 September to 21 December; and Winter from 22 December to 20 March. Food insecurity varies slightly within these periods of the year. Overall food insecurity was estimated at 27 percent in the spring of 2011 and declined to 22 percent in the summer of 2011, before climbing to a peak of 29 percent in the winter of 2011. The high food insecurity in 2011 was likely associated with the below average harvest that year, caused by a severe drought, especially in 14 provinces of the northern belt of the country. The level of food insecurity further deteriorated to 32 percent in the spring of 2012 before improving to 28 percent in summer of 2012.

Seasonal differences also occur across the rural and urban areas, with a higher proportion of the population being food insecure in spring and winter in urban areas (35 percent and 33 percent, respectively) (*Figure 7.2*). A similar higher proportion of food insecurity (31 percent) is reported in spring in rural areas. Food insecurity significantly declines in spring for the Kuchi population compared to the urban and rural areas over the same period, which is probably due to a better availability of dairy products in spring. In general, the variability of food insecurity across the seasons is not dramatic for rural and urban areas, which could be associated with the inherent high level of food insecurity across Afghanistan.

Figure 7.2: Population, by level of food security, and by residence, season (in percentages)



7.6.2 Harvest and lean season's differences

The main harvest period is generally between May and July for main staples including wheat, maize and barley crops. The post-harvest period is usually from August to mid-December, and pre-harvest (the lean season) is generally from mid-December to April. However, there is considerable variation in these seasons across the country (see also Annex VII).

Considering these three distinct periods of the harvest, post-harvest and lean season there is a general decrease in the proportion of food-insecure people between the lean season and the harvest period across all regions, except in Central Highlands where the proportion increased from 22 percent to 36 percent in 2011 (*Table 7.6*). Based on the 2011 seasonal trend, the percentage of food-insecure people increased between the harvest and post-harvest periods in all regions, except the South-west. This increased food insecurity was likely related to the poorer crops in 2011 and diminished cereal stocks due to the severe 2011 drought. An improved situation is reported for the period between the lean season and harvest, as well as between the harvest and post-harvest periods in 2012, when the proportion of food-insecure people consistently decreased in all regions. The above findings indicate that the critical period of food insecurity usually occurs during the lean season that generally lasts from mid-December to April in most parts of the country, and can extend to July in Badakhshan and the provinces of the Central Highlands.

A comparison across population groups shows a similar trend, with the largest proportion of people facing food insecurity during the lean season, except in rural areas in 2011 when the rate remained the same as for the harvest period that same year, which is probably due to the good 2010 harvest. In urban areas in 2012, the proportion of population facing food insecurity increased from 32 percent during the lean season to 37 percent at harvest time, and then reduced to 21 percent in post-harvest period. Since urban food insecurity is affected not only by the amount of harvested crop available in the urban markets, but also by other market and economic factors, the impact of food insecurity seems to go beyond seasonal factors.

Table 7.6: Percentage of food-insecure households, by year, harvest season, and by region and residence

Region and residence	2011			2012		
	Lean season	Harvest period	Post-harvest period	Lean season	Harvest period	Post-harvest period
Region						
North	23	16	22	41	32	-
North-East	42	30	43	52	46	-
Central highland	22	36	41	33	25	-
Central	30	18	22	25	16	-
South	22	16	27	20	22	-
East	22	8	18	27	26	13
West	17	13	23	25	21	15
South-West	46	30	27	31	20	-
Residence						
Urban	38	29	32	32	37	21
Rural	21	21	27	30	28	11
Kuchi	-	-	32	24	20	15
National	28	23	28	30	28	13

For rural areas in 2012, the percentage of the population who were food insecure steadily decreased from 30 percent in the lean season to 28 percent in the harvest period and to 11 percent in the post-harvest season. A similar improving trend of food insecurity is also reported among the Kuchi in 2012, where the proportion of population who were food insecure steadily reduced from 24 percent during the lean season to 20 percent during the harvest season and to 15 percent in the post-harvest season. Improved agricultural production, with a good national harvest in 2012, was likely an important factor for dramatically improved food security in the country during post-harvest period of 2012, as compared with the same period in 2011.

7.7 Food access and supply

7.7.1 Availability of different food items by food security status

The average quantity of food items available and consumed per person per day varies with the food security status of the household. The very severely-, severely- and moderately food insecure households consume on average, respectively, 238 grams, 318 grams and 371 grams of cereals per person per day. The quantity of cereals consumed by these food-insecure groups is significantly lower than the recommended cereal ration of 400 grams per person per day for relief food aid interventions. Households with lower caloric intake from cereals are therefore not meeting the recommended requirement for an active and healthy life. There seems to be a very high consumption of dairy products and fruits among the households with better caloric intake, indicating a better quality diet, richer in micronutrients and vitamins. It should be noted that some dairy products consumed, such as dough and ghee, contain no protein. Obviously, food-insecure households consume a much less diversified diet and in lower quantities, making them more vulnerable to food insecurity (*Table 7.7*).

Table 7.7: Average quantity of foods available for consumption, by food security status, for selected food commodities (in grams per person per day)

Food commodity	Deficit			Borderline	Adequate		Total
	Very severe	Severe	Moderate		Surplus	Large surplus	
Cereals	238	318	371	426	483	666	512
Tubers	35	45	51	54	60	74	61
Meat and fish	16	24	31	35	40	59	44
Pulses	9	12	15	18	21	35	25
Dairy	41	60	75	89	100	158	114
Oil and fats	20	27	30	33	37	52	40
Vegetables	15	25	29	34	40	53	40
Fruits	32	48	62	72	86	118	88
Nuts	0	1	1	1	2	4	2
Sugar	16	22	25	29	33	50	37

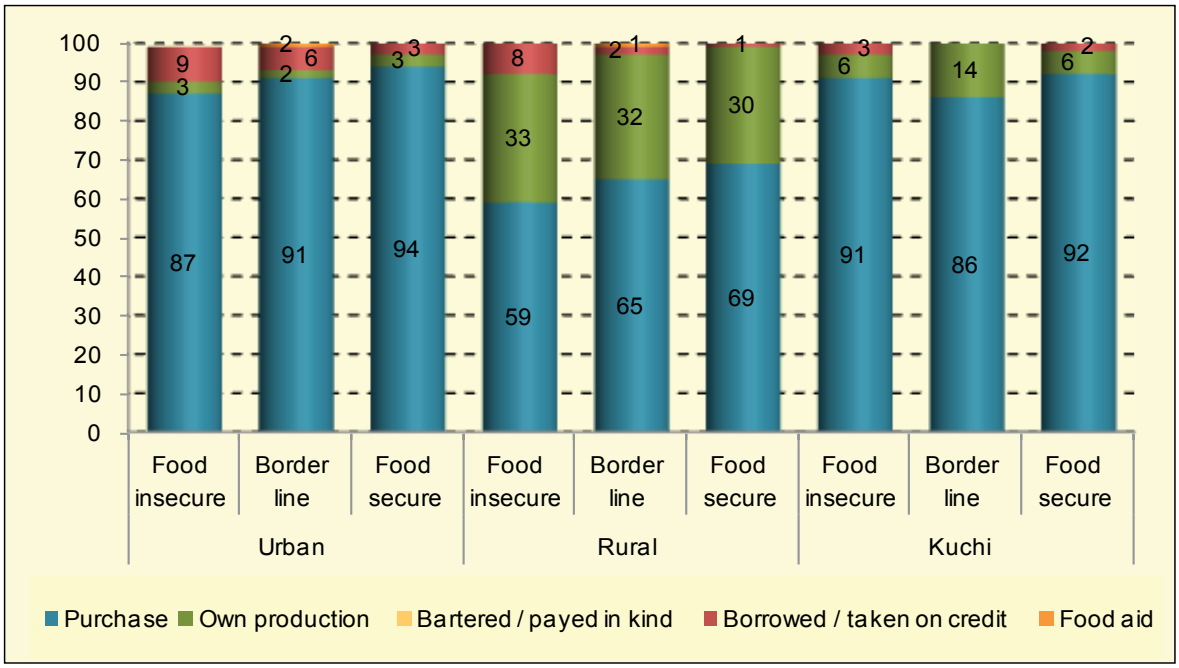
7.7.2 Availability of different food items by residence

In urban areas, the average food consumption is around 1,000 grams per person per day. However, the consumption peaks above 1,000 grams per person per day from Saratan (June-July) through Mizan (September-October). Fruit consumption is highest from June to September for both urban and rural areas. Consumption of other commodities is spread almost equally throughout the year in urban areas. In rural areas, the average food consumption is 947 grams per person, per day. The peak consumption above the average is between Saratan (June-July) and Aqrab (October-November). Cereal consumption in both urban and rural areas tends to be slightly higher in the winter months from December to March to meet an increased calorie requirement in low temperature conditions.

7.7.3 Sources of food items by population group and food security status

When considering food sources, since the major staple food across most parts of Afghanistan is wheat, sources of wheat flour are used as a measure of where households mainly obtain their food. Across all households, 73 percent depend on wheat flour purchases, 23 percent use their own production as their main source, while 4 percent rely on borrowing and taking food on credit. More urban and Kuchi households (about 90 percent of households), depend on purchases for wheat flour. The proportion of households dependent on food purchases in both rural and urban areas increases relatively with the improvement in food security. Across all population groups, a higher proportion of food-insecure households depends on borrowing and credit as a source of food, compared to food-secure households (*Figure 7.3*).

Figure 7.3: Households, by source of wheat flour, and by residence, food security status (in percentages)



7.7.4 Sources of food items by main income source

The sources of food vary with livelihood type. As expected, households dependent on agriculture get a relatively larger proportion of their wheat from their own production. However, these households still depend on the market for the balance of their wheat flour needs. Across all livelihood groups, purchases or own production are the most important sources of food. Borrowing and getting food on credit, though not significant, is the third most important wheat flour source. Those households that borrow wheat flour as one of the major sources of food in addition to purchases are also those whose main income source is borrowing. Food aid is more pronounced in households dependent on Zakat and shepherding as a main income source.

7.7.5 Sources of food items by season

Within the year, sources of wheat flour vary slightly and purchases remain as the main source for the Kuchi and urban households, with borrowing becoming more pronounced for the urban households, especially from September to December, as well as between February and April. In rural areas, about a third of households depend on their own production for their wheat throughout the year, and around two-thirds depend on purchases. The proportion of households dependent on purchases in rural areas increases to 70 percent and above in the January to March winter period. For Kuchi households, about 10 percent depend on their own production from June to August, but otherwise purchases are the main source of wheat flour for most of the year.

7.8 Food consumption

7.8.1 Dietary diversity

The number of days each food commodity is consumed determines the dietary diversity in the household. In general, all urban, rural and Kuchi people consume at least seven days of cereals and almost seven days of oil and fats and sugar per week. Urban households tend to have more days of consumption of meat and fish, pulses and lentils, fruits and vegetables, compared to the rural and Kuchi households. As expected, the Kuchi households consume more dairy products compared to other groups. The number of days of consumption of protein- and micronutrient-rich foods in urban areas is still higher among the households with very severe calorie deficiency, indicating that these households tend to compensate for their lower cereal and tuber intake as described above. The wider diversity of foods available in urban areas is likely because most commodities are purchased from the market, an easier access to commodities, as well as the higher cash income levels – and, therefore, a better purchasing power – compared to rural areas and among the Kuchi (*Table 7.8*).

Table 7.8: Average number of days of food consumption per week, by residence, and by selected food items

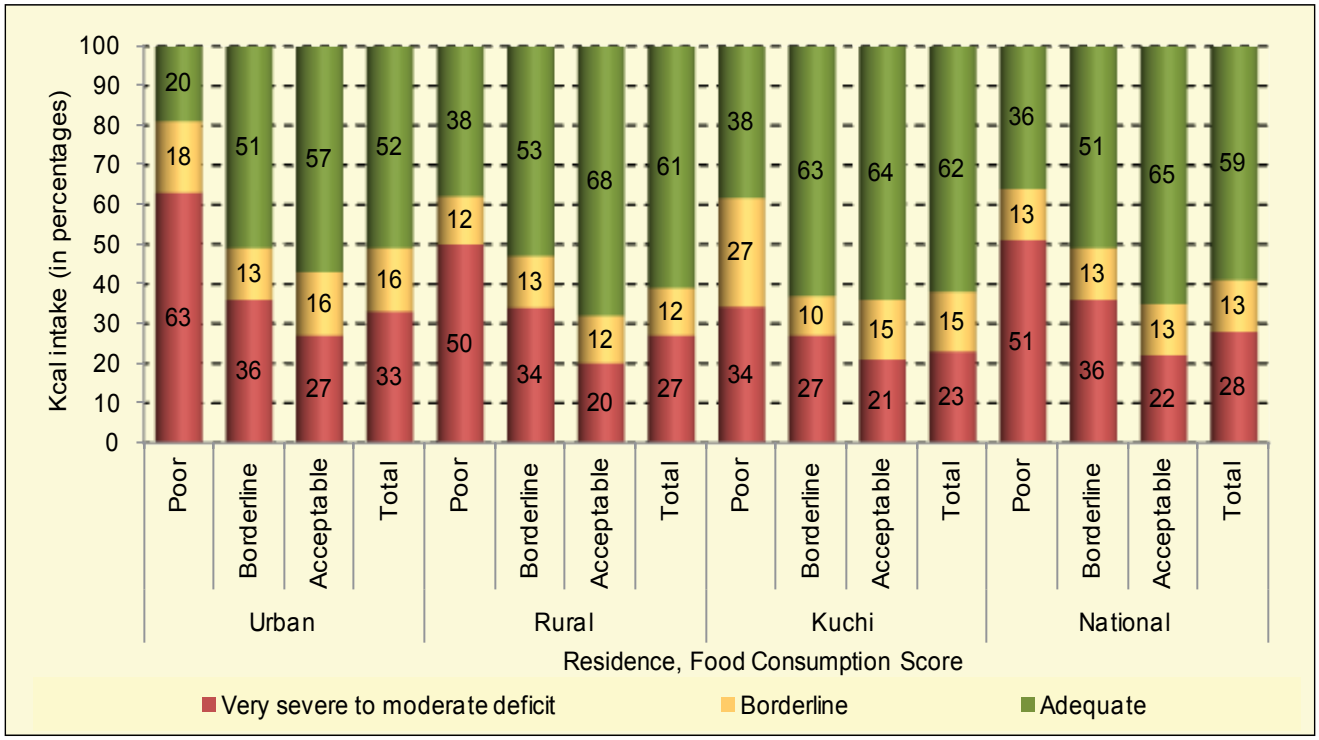
Food item	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Cereals	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.0
Tubers	2.9	2.6	2.2	2.6
Meat and fish	3.3	2.3	1.7	2.5
Pulses	2.1	1.6	1.5	1.8
Dairy	3.2	3.4	4.3	3.4
Oil and fats	6.7	6.5	6.7	6.5
Vegetables	2.8	1.7	1.8	2.0
Fruits	3.2	1.8	1.1	2.1
Nuts	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.3
Sugar	6.7	5.9	5.9	6.1

7.8.2 Food Consumption Score

Food consumption can be measured based on the food consumption score (FCS[5]) which is normally used as a proxy to measure food security when quantitative data on calorie intake is not available. As described earlier, since the NRVA 2011-12 provides sufficient quantitative data on calorie intake, the food security level in this report is determined based on the caloric quantity consumed per person per day against the recommended daily calorie requirement. However, in order to strengthen the calorie intake analysis and confirm the relevance of alternative uses of the FCS in rotating years of the NRVA in the future, the relationship between caloric intake and FCS is explored. As such, calorie intake is cross-tabulated with the FCS. Findings show a clear relationship between FCS and caloric intake. In all urban, rural and Kuchi populations, the proportion of households with acceptable food consumption score consistently increased with better caloric intake. Overall, the percentage of households with adequate caloric intake accounts for 65 percent among households with an acceptable food consumption score, while it is much lower (36 percent) among those with a poor food consumption score. In urban areas, 57 percent of the households with adequate caloric intake are found among those with acceptable food consumption score, while this proportion is only 20 percent among those with poor food consumption score. A similar pattern is found for the rural and the Kuchi populations, where 68 percent of the rural households and 64 percent of the Kuchi households with acceptable food consumption also have adequate caloric intake – much higher than among those with poor food consumption score (*Figure 7.4*).

5 The Food Consumption Score (FCS) is an acceptable proxy indicator to measure caloric intake and diet quality at household level, giving an indication of food security status of the household if combined with other household access indicators. It is a composite score based on dietary diversity, food frequency, and relative nutritional importance of different food groups. The FCS is calculated based on the past 7-day food consumption recall for the household and classified into three categories: poor consumption (FCS = 1.0 to ≤28); borderline (FCS = 28.1 to ≤42); and acceptable consumption (FCS = >42.0). The FCS is a weighted sum of food groups. The score for each food group is calculated by multiplying the number of days the commodity was consumed and its relative weight.

Figure 7.4: Households, by Kcal intake, and by residence, Food Consumption Score (in percentages)



7.8.3 Contribution of different food groups to caloric intake

The mean calorie intake per person per day is calculated at 2,749 Kcal, and a median of 2,582 Kcal, with no significant difference between residential population groups (2,642 Kcal in urban; 2,788 Kcal in rural, and 2,794 Kcal among the Kuchi). However, the average total calorie intake significantly varies among food security groups. The food insecure consume 1,669 Kcal, which is only 79 percent of the recommended daily requirement of 2,100 Kcal, and this low calorie intake is similar among the food insecure of all population groups. Meanwhile, the borderline population consumes 2,284 Kcal on average and the food-secure population 3,382 Kcal.

Of the total calorie intake, cereals and tubers contribute 67 percent; oils and fats 13 percent; meat, fish, pulses and dairy products 11 percent; vegetables and fruits 4 percent; and sugar 5 percent. The contribution of cereals and tubers is slightly higher in rural areas and among the Kuchi households, respectively at 69 percent and 68 percent of total calories, as compared to 61 percent in urban areas. However, within each population group, the proportion of calories contributed by cereals and tubers is relatively similar across all food security groups.

Oil and fats contribute 15 percent of the total calories in urban areas, 12 percent in rural areas and 11 percent among the Kuchi. Dairy and its products are consumed at a slightly higher rate by the Kuchi – at 7 percent of the total calories, as compared to 5 percent and 4 percent in rural and urban areas, respectively. The urban population consumes slightly more sugar products – at 7 percent of total calories as compared to 5 percent in rural areas and among the Kuchi. The contribution of other foods such as pulses, meat and fish, vegetables and fruits is minimal, at only 1 to 4 percent, and it is similar across all areas as well all food security groups.

7.9 Coping with shocks

When coping with household shocks, the majority of households (62 to 80 percent) use short-term strategies including decreasing food expenditure, reducing food quality, and taking loans or credit. Around one-third of the households reduce food quantity or purchase food on trader credit (*Table 7.9*).

Table 7.9: Households applying coping strategies, by residence, and by use of selected coping strategies (in percentages)

Coping strategy	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
Reducing food quantity	29	40	31	37
Reducing food quality	66	82	93	79
Decreasing food expenditure	69	84	78	80
Purchasing food on trader credit	16	40	25	34
Taking loans or credit	68	66	59	66
Selling house or land	3	5	0	4
Selling reproductive livestock	2	24	56	21
Selling other productive assets	5	6	14	6
Dropping children from school	5	11	13	10
Increasing child labour	10	23	20	20
Selling child brides	2	3	3	3
Begging	1	1	3	1

However, it should be emphasized that some unviable (distressed) coping strategies are also adopted by households, such as selling reproductive livestock (21 percent of households), selling house or land or other productive assets (10 percent), pulling children out of schools (10 percent), increasing child labour (20 percent), selling child brides (3 percent) and even begging (1 percent).

While the short-term strategies are more commonly adopted across all population groups, more rural and Kuchi households reduce food quality and food expenditure than their urban counterparts. These households also adopt more unviable strategies than urban households, such as selling reproductive livestock or other productive assets, pulling children out of school and increasing child labour.

8 EDUCATION

SUMMARY. *The general education picture presented by the NRVA 2011-12 is one of great improvement in the course of the decade preceding the survey. Indicators like adult and youth literacy rates, attendance ratios and gender equity all show significant improvement. However, there are also indications that the rate of improvement may have declined compared with the observations of NRVA 2007-08: the largest improvements in primary school attendance were recorded prior to that survey and since then progress has been only modest. The present NRVA suggests that the current rate of improvement for education, literacy and related gender-equity indicators will fail to achieve the ANDS targets by 2020. Despite major achievements in the last decade, education performance in Afghanistan is still among the poorest in the world. Opportunities to attend education are few, especially for girls and women, and rural and Kuchi populations in general, even though the gender gap in education and literacy show continuous improvement, in both absolute and relative terms.*

The share of the adult Afghan population who have completed any level of education is very small – less than 25 percent, and for women as few as 10 percent. However, major improvements in primary and secondary school completion are observed for the younger age group 15-24 years, especially for girls. This is the result of increasing school attendance in the past decade. The net primary attendance ratios for girls and boys are now 48 and 64 percent respectively, up from 29 and 43 percent in 2005, and 42 and 60 percent in 2007-08. This still means that some 1.2 million girls and over 900 thousand boys are missing out on the opportunity to learn basic life skills. Net secondary attendance ratios are 23 and 42 for girls and boys respectively, up from 10 and 22 percent in 2007-08. Reasons for not attending school differ strongly between places of residence, education levels and the sexes. For girls, cultural barriers are dominant, for boys the need to contribute to family income. The importance of these reasons increases with age. Insecurity and distance to schools are largely reasons for non-attendance in rural areas. No more than around two in five rural households live within two kilometres of a primary school. Overall net primary school attendance in rural areas is 54 percent, while in urban areas it is 78 percent.

With regard to literacy, similar patterns and changes are recorded as for school attendance. The adult literacy rate is 45 percent for men and 17 percent for women. The improvements in literacy between 2005 and 2011-12 are particularly observed in the youth literacy rate, which increased from 20 to 32 percent for female youth and from 40 to 62 percent for male youth. Again, the population in rural areas is at a severe disadvantage: the youth literacy rate there is only 39 percent, compared to 71 percent in urban areas.

8.1 Introduction

Education is one of the most important aspects of human development. The Convention on the Rights of the Child – the most widely ratified human rights treaty – enshrines the right of all children to a primary education that will give them the skills they need to continue learning throughout life. Yet, a large majority of Afghan people have been denied this right, most of them women and girls. Consequently, they are bereft of many opportunities for personal development and contributions to society.

Afghanistan is faced with a huge challenge to recover from thirty years of conflict and political unrest that resulted in the destruction of the Afghan education system in terms of staffing, premises, curricula and student attendance. During the Taliban rule girls were even prohibited from attending schools. Since 2001, a nationwide reconstruction process is being implemented with large support from the international community. This was reflected in the results of the NRVA 2007-08, which showed significant improvements in the areas of literacy and educational attendance compared to NRVA 2005.

The NRVA 2011-12 covered again several components for a situational analysis on education in the period 2011-12. Section 8.2 addresses the present performance of Afghanistan's educational system by reviewing attendance and non-attendance, and some of their backgrounds. Section 8.3 is dedicated to the accumulated human capital in terms of highest educational levels attained by Afghanistan's adult population. Finally, section 8.4 provides an assessment of the situation with regard to literacy, being one of the key effects of education. The chapter also presents most of the education-related MDG indicators.

8.2 Educational attendance

8.2.1 Educational attendance in residential and gender perspective

MDG Indicator 2.1

Net attendance in primary education, both sexes

Boys	**64.4 percent**
Girls	**48.3 percent**
Both sexes	**56.8 percent**

Attendance rates indicate the present functioning of the education system to serve the school-age population. The net attendance rate[1] shows the extent of participation in a given level of schooling of children belonging to the official age-group corresponding to that specific level of education.[2] The net primary attendance rate is used as the MDG indicator to monitor progress towards the goal of achieving universal primary education, which provides children with basic reading, writing, and mathematics skills, along with an elementary understanding of such subjects as history, geography, natural science, social science, art and music.

Table 8.1 provides the net attendance rates for primary, secondary and tertiary education. It shows that national net attendance rates obscure large differentials by residence and sex. Thus, for each of the educational levels, urban attendance is much higher than attendance in rural areas. At the same time it can be observed that the higher the educational level, the larger is the relative difference in attendance rates between urban and rural areas. The attendance levels in the Kuchi population are again much lower than in the rest of the population, and their relative deprivation is again larger the higher the educational level. Overall, the attendance rates found for Afghanistan indicate that the country is still among the poorest performers in providing adequate education to its population.

The net primary attendance rates presented here imply that some 2.1 million primary school age children in Afghanistan miss out on primary education. The large majority of these (90 percent or 1.9 million) are from the rural or Kuchi population. The absolute number of persons who are not participating in secondary education (2.5 million) is in the same order of magnitude, due to the combination of a lower attendance rate at this level and a smaller base population. The overrepresentation of the rural and Kuchi population is with 94 percent even larger at this level.

In Afghanistan, many children may enter school late and stay at a specific educational level well past the official school age due to late entry or grade repetition. In addition, children may also enter a specific school level early. This is especially the case in primary education with the recent change in the entry age for primary school from 7 to 6 years. A comparison of the net attendance rate with the gross attendance ratio[3] (*Table 8.1*, middle panel) shows the extent to which early and delayed enrolment and grade repetition occur. At all levels, and for girls and boys alike, this occurs to a significant extent, as indicated by the ratio between gross and net attendance of close to 1.3. This ratio implies that close to 30 percent of pupils at respective education levels do not have the official age for those levels. The breakdown of this ratio by residence shows little variation (not shown here).

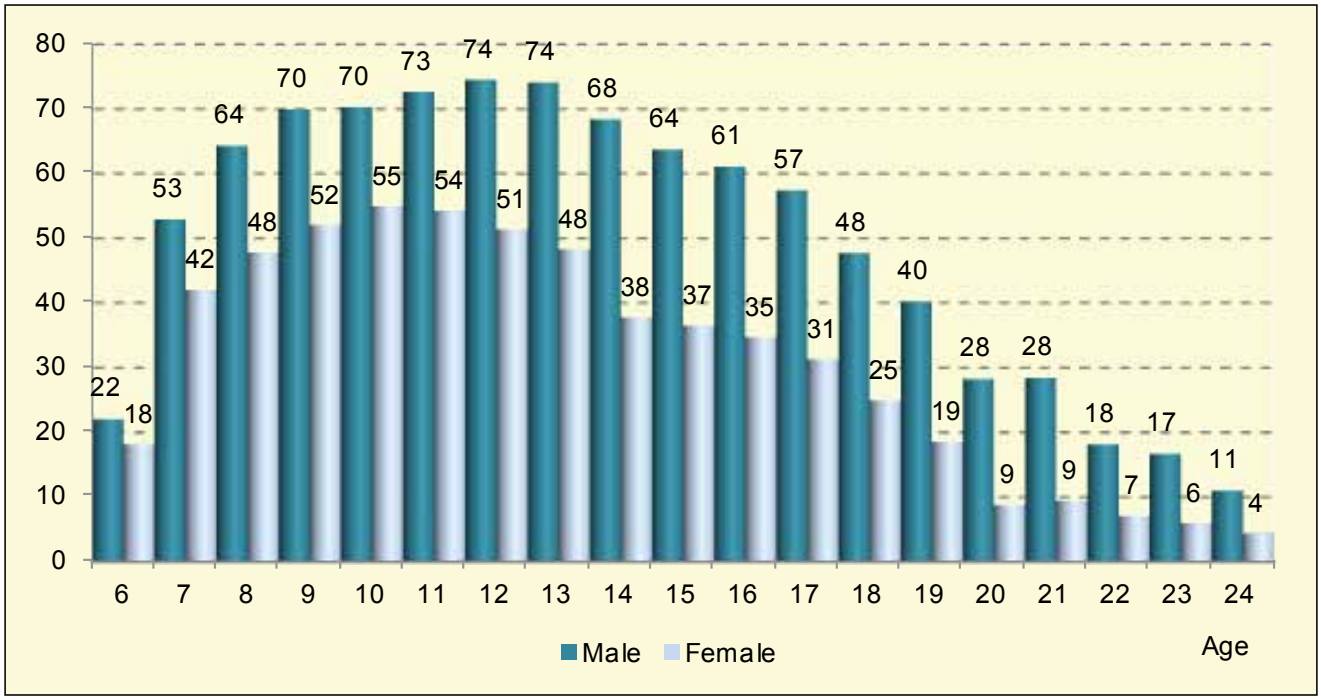
1 The net attendance rate is calculated as the number of pupils of the theoretical school-age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.
2 In this report, the age range of 7 to 12 is used for primary education, 13-18 for secondary education and 19-24 for tertiary education.
3 The gross attendance ratio is the total attendance in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education.

Table 8.1: Net attendance rate and gross attendance ratio, by residence, and by education level, sex; Gender parity index, by residence, and by educational level; GAR/NAR ratio, by educational level

Educational level, sex and gender parity index	Net/gross attendance ratio, residence								Ratio GAR/NAR Total
	Net attendance ratio				Gross attendance ratio				
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	
Primary									
Male	81.8	62.7	24.5	64.4	104.3	80.9	31.4	82.8	1.29
Female	73.6	43.8	13.4	48.3	93.4	55.0	17.1	60.9	1.26
Both sexes	77.9	53.8	19.4	56.8	99.1	68.7	24.9	72.4	1.28
Gender parity index	0.90	0.70	0.55	0.75	0.90	0.68	0.54	0.74	
Secondary									
Male	62.0	37.0	7.1	42.0	80.0	49.3	10.1	55.3	1.32
Female	47.0	15.1	0.7	23.2	59.4	18.7	1.2	29.0	1.25
Both sexes	54.3	26.3	4.1	32.7	69.5	34.3	6.0	42.3	1.29
Gender parity index	0.76	0.41	0.10	0.55	0.74	0.38	0.12	0.53	
Tertiary									
Male	16.8	4.4	0.2	8.1	18.3	5.3	0.2	9.1	1.13
Female	8.9	0.5	0.0	2.7	11.8	0.9	0.0	3.8	1.39
Both sexes	13.1	2.4	0.1	5.4	15.3	3.1	0.1	6.5	1.20
Gender parity index	0.90	0.68	0.54	0.74	0.65	0.17	0.00	0.42	

Age-specific attendance ratios show a pattern of highest attendance in the late primary and early secondary school ages (*Figure 8.1*). It also indicates that many children enter primary school at ages beyond 7.

Figure 8.1: Education attendance rate, by sex, and by age



With regard to gender-specific educational attendance, a standard pattern can be observed that girls and women are disadvantaged compared to boys and men, and that this effect is more pronounced for each higher level of education. This is reflected in MDG indicator 3.1 – the gender parity index for the gross attendance ratio – which evaluates gender disparity in different levels of education. As shown in *Table 8.1*, this index declines from a relatively high 0.74 (even 0.90 for urban populations) for primary education to 0.42 (and only 0.17 for rural populations) for tertiary education. Education beyond primary school for Kuchis girls is virtually non-existent.

MDG Indicator 3.1

Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education

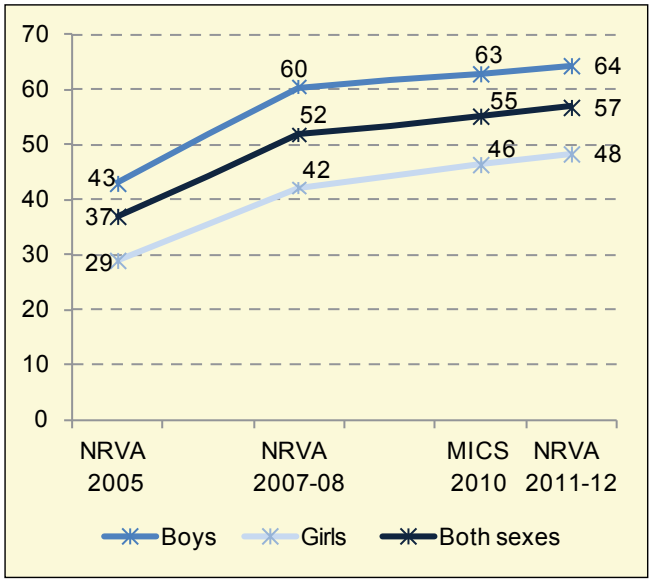
Primary	**0.74**
Secondary	**0.53**
Tertiary	**0.42**

8.2.2 Change in educational attendance

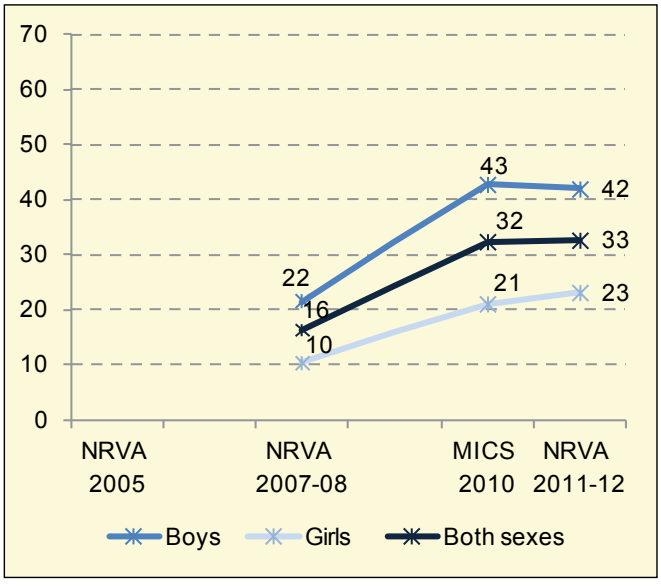
Successive rounds of NRVA demonstrate a pattern of improvement of net attendance ratios (*Figure 8.2*). The findings of the 2010 Afghanistan MICS are consistent with this pattern. However, panel a of Figure 8.2 suggests a rapid improvement until the period observed by the NRVA 2007-08 and subsequently a relatively small further increase. These observations imply that the intermediate 2010 benchmarks of the Afghanistan Compact (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan 2006) – 60 percent net enrolment in primary school for girls and 75 for boys – have not been met. A likely explanation for the lower pace of improvement in recent years may relate to the disappearance of the catch-up effect of children entering primary school after having missed the opportunity to do so during the years of the Taliban regime. A second possible explanation could be the increasing difficulty of overcoming obstacles to education once the easy-to-reach and education-inclined population segments have been serviced. The NRVA results also indicate that the overall rate of increase since 2007-08 in secondary attendance (Figure 8.2.b) is larger than that of primary attendance (Figure 8.2.a).

Figure 8.2: Net attendance ratio, by sex, and by survey for (a) primary education and (b) secondary education

a. Primary education



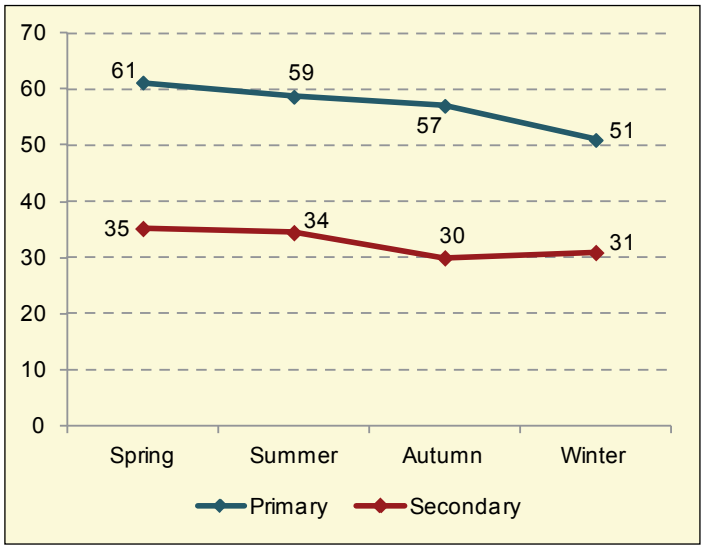
b. Secondary education



The change in the gender equity in the period between the NRVA 2007-08 and 2011-12 also shows improvement. In roughly four years the gender parity index for primary education increased modestly from 0.69 to 0.74, while the index for secondary education showed a larger increase from 0.42 to 0.53. However, the overall rates of improvement are too low to achieve the ANDS education-related gender-equality targets of full equity by 2020 (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan 2009).

Net school attendance ratios change with a rather steady downward trend within the cycle of a year (*Figure 8.3*). This suggests that attendance is more affected by cumulative drop-out of pupils and less to possible seasonal influences related to, for instance, farm activities and weather conditions. The trend for net primary school attendance – dropping from 61 percent in spring to 51 percent in winter – is more distinct than that for secondary school attendance.

Figure 8.3: Net attendance ratio, by educational level, and by season



8.2.3 Reasons for not attending

The results on educational attendance show that well over half the population of primary-school age, around one-third of secondary-school age and just one-twentieth of tertiary school age are participation in school or advanced education. These figures imply that large numbers – respectively 2.1, 2.5 and 2.4 million persons from the primary-, secondary- and tertiary-school age groups – were not involved in education at the time of the survey. Access to education and actual attendance are multi-facetted issues, which involves – among others – economic, cultural, security, health and distance considerations. As can be seen in *Table 8.2*, the reasons why potential students do not attend education vary considerably by age, residence and sex.

The most important reason for girls not to attend education is a complex of cultural considerations, including unwillingness of the family to send girls to school, a lack of female teachers and marriage. Whereas this is the main reason for around one-third (34 percent) of primary-school age girls, it is the reason for more than half of those in later ages (52-53 percent), when reluctance to female exposure to the outside world and the pressure to marry become more important. For boys on the other hand, economic considerations – predominantly the need to work for the family and much less the costs of education – are the main reason for non-attendance. Although for one in nine (11 percent) boys in primary school age this is the first reason, at older ages this is the case for 42-46 percent.

Table 8.2: Population 6-24 years not attending school, by school age, sex, and by residence, reason for not attending (in percentages)

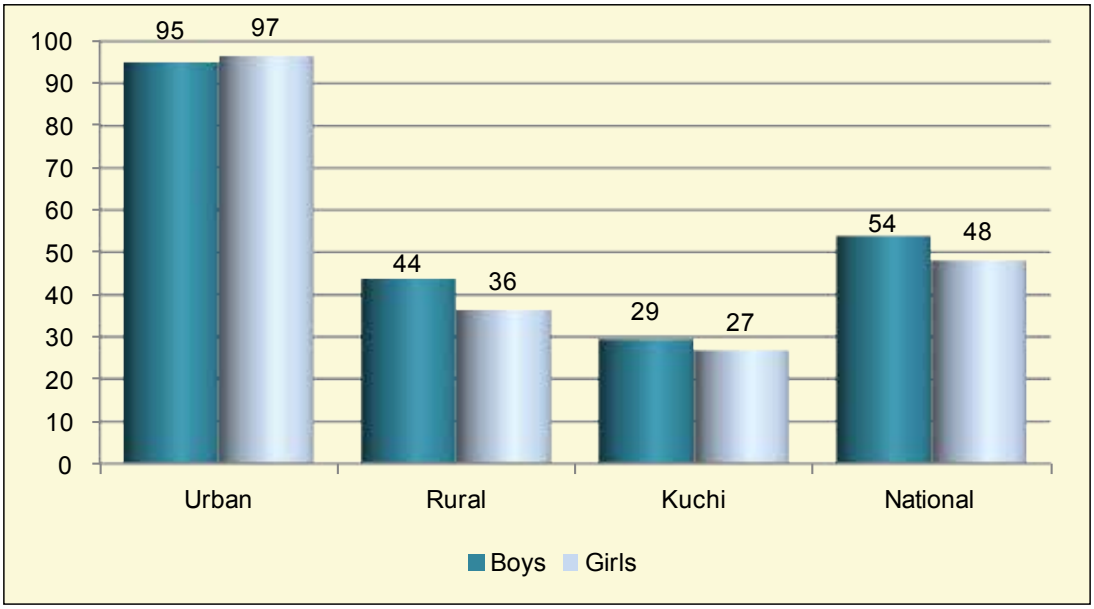
Residence, reason for non-attendance	School-age, sex								
	Primary			Secondary			Tertiary		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
Urban	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Distance / access	4	4	4	2	3	3	1	5	3
Economic reasons	12	7	9	53	6	22	52	4	27
Cultural reasons	10	36	25	6	60	43	3	57	31
Insecurity	1	2	1	1	3	2	5	6	5
Problems with school	16	10	13	19	12	14	11	10	10
Child too young	44	26	33	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other reasons	14	15	15	19	15	16	28	19	23
Rural	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Distance / access	32	28	30	23	23	23	16	22	20
Economic reasons	11	3	7	43	4	19	46	3	22
Cultural reasons	8	35	24	6	53	35	6	54	32
Insecurity	7	6	7	5	6	6	6	8	7
Problems with school	23	15	19	17	10	12	10	7	8
Child too young	13	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other reasons	6	4	5	6	4	5	16	6	11
Kuchi	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Distance / access	60	60	60	55	55	55	54	56	55
Economic reasons	8	3	6	24	4	14	22	2	11
Cultural reasons	5	23	14	2	27	14	7	25	16
Insecurity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Problems with school	12	7	10	8	6	7	5	7	6
Child too young	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other reasons	12	5	9	12	8	10	12	10	11
National	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Distance / access	33	29	31	24	22	23	14	20	17
Economic reasons	11	4	7	42	5	19	46	3	23
Cultural reasons	7	34	23	5	52	35	5	53	31
Insecurity	6	5	6	4	5	5	6	7	6
Problems with school	21	14	17	16	10	12	10	7	8
Child too young	14	9	11	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other reasons	7	5	6	8	6	7	19	9	14

The non-attendance reason of ‘problems with school’ refer to issues like schools being temporarily closed, providing poor quality education or not allowing students access. According the survey, this is a major cause of non-attendance, although more so at the level of primary education (17 percent) than at secondary (12 percent) and tertiary (8 percent) levels, and more for boys than for girls. The motivation that children are too young largely refers to six-year olds. This indicates that the recent decrease in admission age from seven to six for primary schools does not yet enjoy wide support or is not yet widely known.

Insecurity is primarily a rural obstacle for participation in education, and also the distance to or absence of educational facilities is almost entirely restricted to rural populations and is even by far the most important reason for the Kuchi.

Assuming that under normal circumstances two kilometres is an acceptable walking distance for primary-school students, only around half of Afghan households live within easy reach of primary education facilities: 54 percent within two kilometres of boys primary schools and 48 percent within that range for girls primary education (*Figure 8.4*). This would imply that some 2.5 million children in primary school age (7 to 12 years) do not have access to school within two kilometres distance. The percentage of households that have physical access to primary education within five kilometres distance would be 69 percent for boys education and 60 percent for girls education. This corresponds to around 1.8 million children in primary school age.

Figure 8.4: Households within two kilometres distance from primary education facilities, by sex of student population, and by residence (in percentages)



Disparity of physical accessibility by residence is very large. Whereas almost all urban households live within acceptable walking distance from primary education facilities, in rural areas the corresponding percentages for households that have, respectively, boys and girls primary education within two kilometres are only 44 and 36. The figures for Kuchi households are even far below that. Expanding the distance criterion to 5 kilometres would imply that of all rural primary school age children, some 63 percent boys and 51 percent girls live within this distance from relevant education facilities. For Kuchi children – boys and girls alike – this would only be 42 percent, whereas for urban children virtually all can reach school within five kilometres.

8.3 Educational attainment

Educational attainment can be used as an indicator of the stock and quality of human capital within a country, and as a measure to assess the needs and establish policies for upgrading it. It also reflects the structure and performance of the education system and its accumulated impact on human capital formation. The internationally recommended indicator measures the percentage distribution of the population 25 and over by the number of years or highest level of schooling completed (UNESCO 2009).

Table 8.3 shows that less than one quarter of the adult population (25 years and over) in Afghanistan has any formal education. For men this is around one-third and for women only one-tenth. Overall, only 12 percent has more than primary school (excluding Islamic schooling), with the corresponding figures for males and females, respectively 19 and 4 percent.

Table 8.3: Population 25 years over, by sex, and by educational attainment

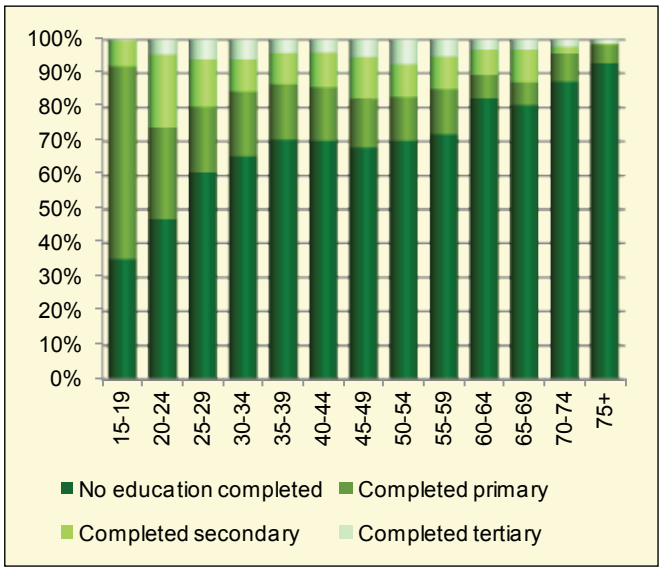
Educational attainment	In thousands			In percentages		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
No education	2,682	3,572	6,254	64.5	90.3	77.1
Incomplete primary education	173	53	226	4.2	1.3	2.8
Completed primary education	405	109	513	9.7	2.7	6.3
Completed lower secondary education	206	36	242	5.0	0.9	3.0
Completed upper secondary education	399	67	466	9.6	1.7	5.7
Completed teacher/technical college	87	29	115	2.1	0.7	1.4
Completed university / post graduate	110	18	128	2.6	0.5	1.6
Completed Islamic school	98	70	168	2.4	1.8	2.1
Total	4,159	3,955	8,113	100.0	100.0	100.0

Compared to the NRVA 2007-08, the share of persons 25 and over without any education has decreased with 5 percentage points (from 82.5 percent), but the absolute number has remained the same at over 6 million people (data not shown here). On the other hand, the relative and absolute numbers of adults who completed primary, secondary and tertiary education have increased. The adult population with primary school completion increased with 0.6 percentage points (from 5.7 percent) and 82 thousand people; those with completed lower or upper secondary school increased with 1.0 percentage point (from 7.8 percent) and 122 thousand persons, and the corresponding figures for those with completed tertiary education (college or university) are 1.8 percentage points (from 1.2 percent) and 151 thousand persons.

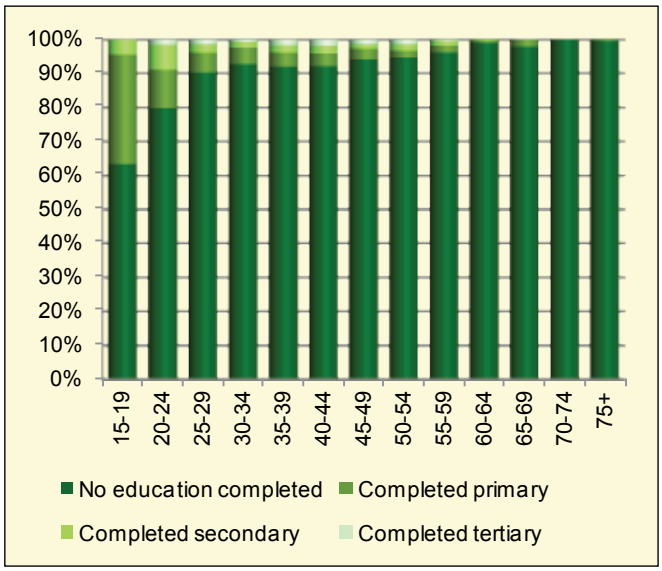
The most salient outcomes of the breakdown of educational attainment by age and sex (*Figure 8.5*) is the very large difference between males and females. Except for the youngest age group 15-24, 10 percent or less of the female population has completed any level of education. In the male population, on the other hand, up to age 60 a significant minority of at least 30 percent has done so. A second remarkable finding is the rapid expansion of the shares with completed secondary or primary education in the population under 25, especially for women. The percentage with completed secondary education increased more than 50 percent between age groups 25-29 and 20-24 for men, and even tripled for women. And the percentage with completed primary education doubled between age groups 20-24 and 15-19 for men, and almost tripled again for women. These results reflect the large progression that has been made in education system in the decade before NRVA 2011-12.

Figure 8.5: Population 15 years and over, by educational attainment, and by age, for (a) males and (b) females

a. Males



b. Females



8.4 Literacy

8.4.1 Literacy in residential and gender perspective

Literacy generally denotes the ability to read and write and to use written words in everyday life. Literacy is one of the intended outcomes of education, as well as a measure of a person's ability to function in society and his or her potential for further intellectual growth and contribution to economic and socio-cultural development of society. The complementary illiteracy indicates the extent of need for policies and efforts in organizing adult literacy programmes and quality primary education.

The adult literacy rate – referring to the population aged 15 and over – indicates the accumulated achievement of primary education and literacy programmes in providing basic literacy skills to the population. *Table 8.4* indicates very low adult literacy rates for Afghanistan, with 31 percent overall literacy in the population 15 years and over. It also shows pronounced differences by residence: in the urban population the adult literacy rate is more than twice as high as that in the rural population (54 against 25 percent), whereas among the Kuchi adult literacy is as low as 7 percent.

Table 8.4: Adult literacy rate, by residence, and by sex; Gender equity indicators, by residence

Sex and gender equity indicators	Residence			Total
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	
a. Sex				
Male	68.7	39.1	13.2	45.4
Female	37.9	10.4	1.2	17.0
Both sexes	53.5	25.0	7.2	31.4
b. Gender equity indicators				
Absolute difference	30.8	28.7	12.0	28.4
Gender parity index	0.55	0.27	0.09	0.37

Nationally, only around one in six (17 percent) women 15 years and over is able to read and write, compared to 45 percent for men. The corresponding figure for rural women is one in ten (10 percent). As shown in *Table 8.4*, these figures imply poor gender equity indicators with large absolute differences between male and female literacy and low female-to-male literacy ratios (gender parity indices). Although the absolute gender differences between urban and rural populations are of similar magnitude (on average 28 percentage points), the performance in terms of the ratio indicator is twice as high in urban areas (0.55) as in rural areas (0.27). The maps of *Figures 8.6a* and *8.6b* below allow a comparison of literacy rates by province and sex. Of the altogether 9.5 million illiterate people 15 years and over in Afghanistan, 5.7 million or 60 percent are women and 3.8 million or 40 percent are men. The absolute gap of 1.8 million could be interpreted as the number of women who should be made literate to achieve at least equality between the sexes.

MDG Indicator 2.3

Literacy rates of 15-24 years old

Male	**61.9 percent**
Female	**32.1 percent**
Both sexes	**47.0 percent**

The youth literacy rate – the rate calculated for the sub-population aged 15-24 – is one of the MDG indicators to measure progress towards universal primary education (MDG goal 2). It reflects the outcomes of primary education over roughly the previous 10 years. As a measure of the effectiveness of the primary education system, it is often seen as a proxy measure of social progress and economic achievement. *Table 8.5* again indicates large differences in youth literacy rates by residence and sex, and especially the difficulty to service the Kuchi and the female rural population. The overall youth literacy rate of 47 would imply that Afghanistan takes a sixth-last place in international performance on this indictor (UNICEF 2012).

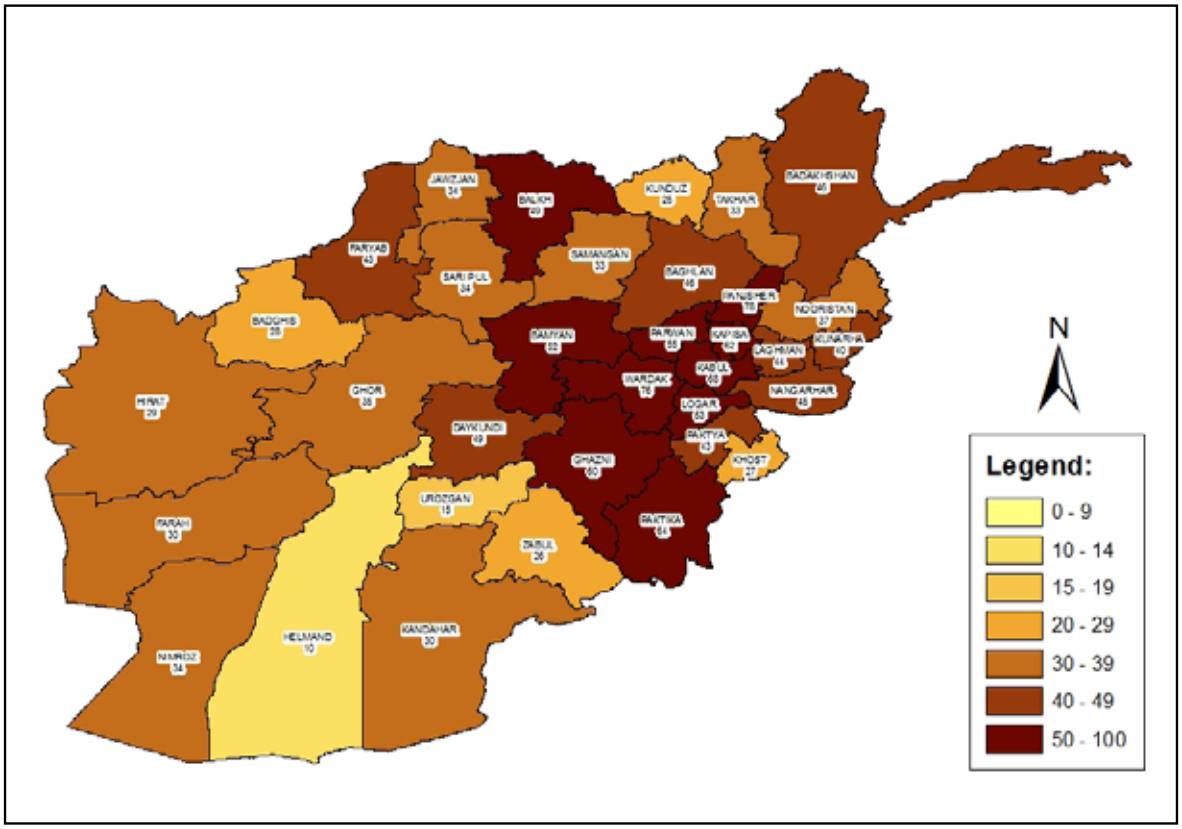
Table 8.5: Youth literacy rate, by residence, and by sex; Gender equity indicators, by residence

Sex and gender equity indicators	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
a. Sex				
Male	82.2	55.9	17.9	61.9
Female	60.1	22.5	1.6	32.1
Both sexes	71.4	39.1	9.7	47.0
b. Gender equity indicators				
Absolute difference	22.1	33.4	16.3	29.8
Gender parity index	0.73	0.40	0.09	0.52

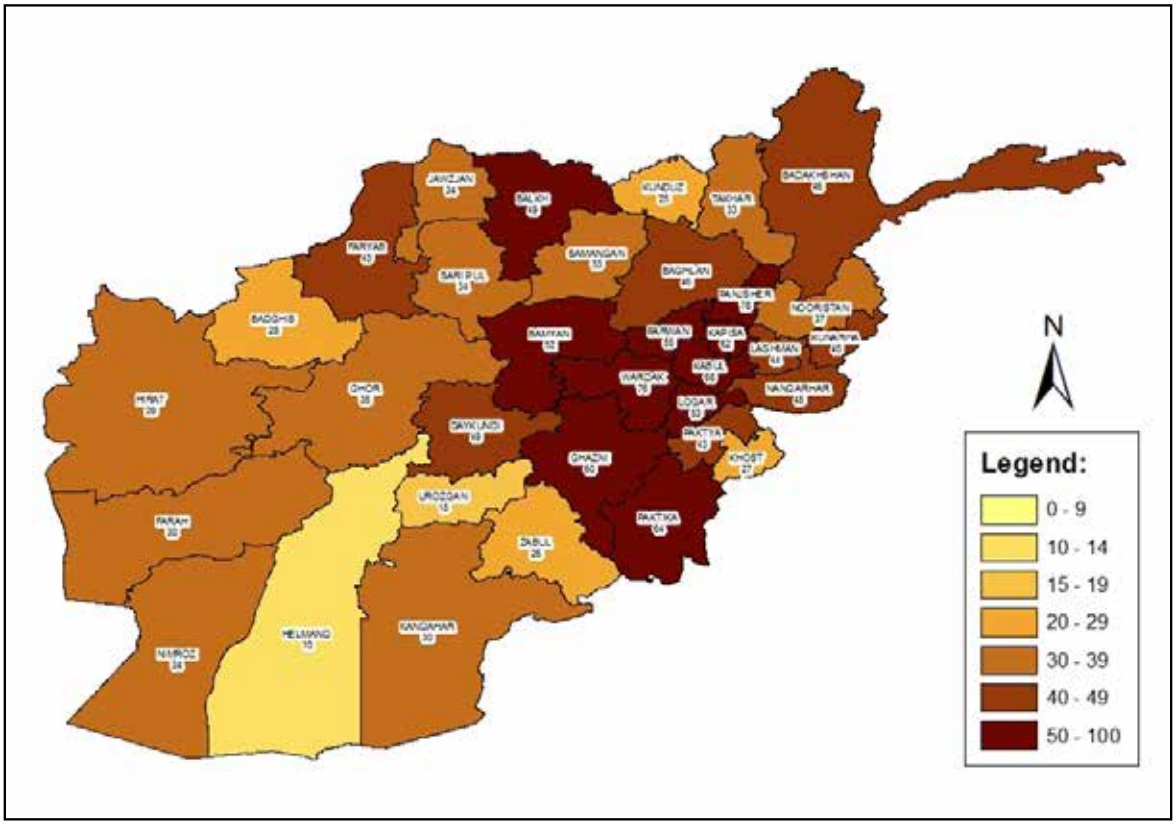
The literacy gender parity index – a former MDG indicator – is the ratio of the female literacy rate to the male literacy rate for the age group 15–24. The indicator measures progress towards gender equity in literacy and learning opportunities for women in relation to those for men and is also a key indicator of empowerment of women in society. At national level, NRVA 2011-12 found a figure of 0.52 for this indicator (from 0.45 in 2007-08) (see Table 8.2). The corresponding figures for urban and rural populations were, respectively, 0.73 (from 0.71 in 2007-08) and 0.40 (from 0.31).

Figure 8.6: Adult literacy rate, by province, for (a) males and (b) females (in percentages)

a: Males



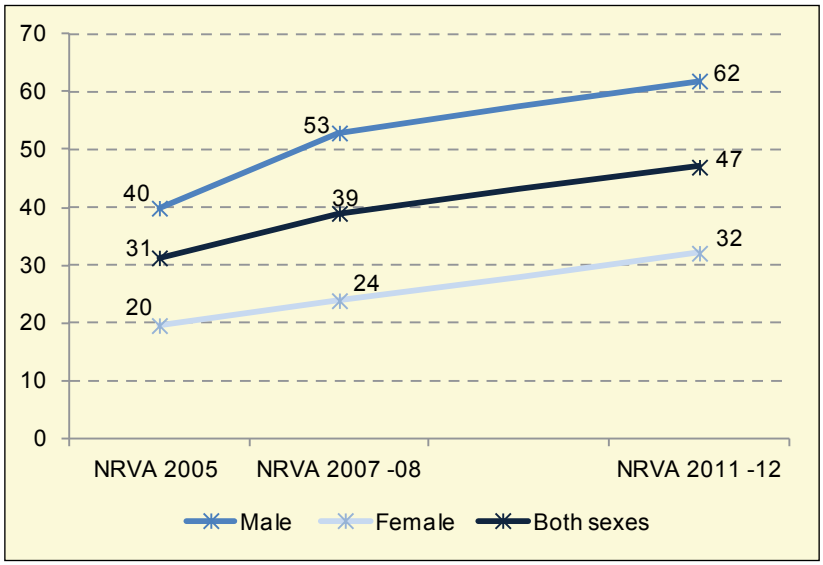
b: Females



8.4.2 Change in literacy levels

The pattern of change in literacy rates ratios is consistent with the finding of the change in net attendance rates over time (section 8.2.2). Even though literacy rates in Afghanistan are very low, successive NRVAs showed significant improvement. This improvement is most visible in young cohorts that reached an age where literacy education is completed. Thus, the MDG indicator of the youth literacy rate shows more than 50 percent increase in the rate between NRVA 2005 and NRVA 2011-12 for both males (from 40 to 62 percent) and females (from 20 to 32 percent) (*Figure 8.7*). This implies a steady continuation of the improvement in literacy that was found in the previous NRVA.

Figure 8.7: Youth literacy rate, by sex, and by survey year (in percentages)

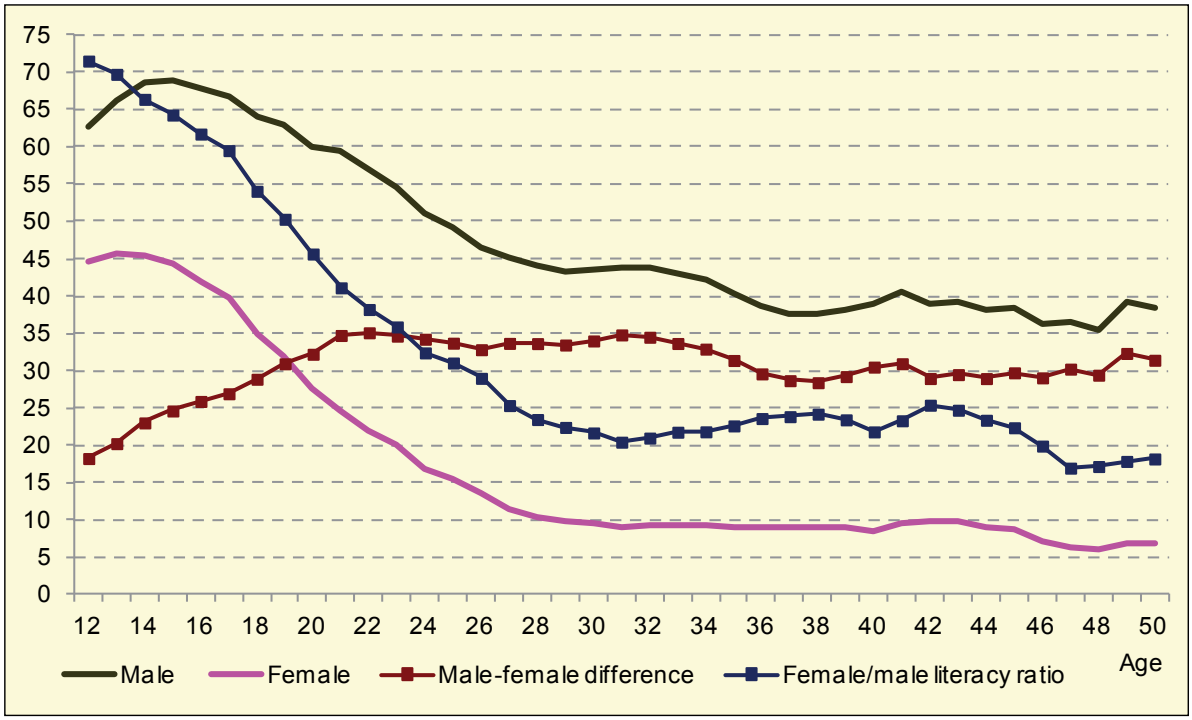


The adult literacy rate – referring to the population 15 years of age and older – has also increased, from 26 percent in 2007-08 to 31 percent in 2011-12 (data not shown). The observed increases for this indicator for the male and female population are, respectively from 39 to 45 and from 12 to 17 percent. These figures imply that the targets defined in the Education Strategic Plan 2010-2014 by the Ministry of Education for 1393 (2014) (MoE 2010) – 48 percent overall literacy, and 54 and 43 percent for males and females respectively – are beyond reach.

Figure 8.8 similarly indicates an improvement in educational performance in the decade before the survey, thereby continuing and confirming the analysis made in the NRVA 2007-08 report (CSO 2009, p. 66). Educational improvement is suggested by the increase of literacy rates in younger age groups at the left of the graph, an effect that is most clear for women. For all women aged 30 and over the literacy rate is below 10 percent, indicating that during the years in which they were in their school age educational opportunities were very poor. The up-turn that can be observed for women in their late twenties, which continues for each successively younger age, reflect the opening-up of the opportunity to enter the formal education system after the remove from power of the Taliban regime in 2001.[4] For the youngest age group with age around 12, 45 percent of girls is able to read and write and around 65 percent of boys is able to do so.

4 The age location of the up-turn in the late 20s is due to the combined effect of girls entering education at an advanced age, the application of five-year moving averages in the graph and age misreporting.

Figure 8.8: Literacy rate, by sex, and by age; Gender equity, by age[a]



[a]The series in this graph present five-year moving averages.

The changes in educational opportunities since 2001 directly affected the gender equity indicators. Although both girls and boys benefitted from improved access to school, the relative impact for the former was much greater. As can be seen in Figure 8.8, the ratio of female-to-male literacy sharply increases from just over 20 percent for persons around 30 years old (who were too old to effectively benefit from the change) to over 70 percent for children around age 12. In absolute terms, the gap between the male and female literacy rates shows a narrow variation band between 30 and 35 percentage points from older ages up to around age 21. Here, also the absolute gap starts to decrease from 35 percentage points to below 20 around age 12.

The basic message of these figures is that in recent years a large improvement must have been achieved in primary education, and that, relatively, girls benefitted more than boys and have begun to catch up with them. In no previous living generation has the gender gap for literacy been so small.

9 HEALTH

SUMMARY. *The NRVA 2011-12 confirms the image of a recovering health system in Afghanistan in the past decade, even to the extent that in some areas it achieves performance levels not previously recorded. Although Afghanistan's health indicators are poor in an international perspective and cultural barriers impede progress for many components of maternal and child health, significant improvement is evident from successive surveys in the post-Taliban period.*

In terms of time required to reach the nearest health facility, access to these facilities has improved significantly with the implementation of outreach programmes of the Ministry of Public Health and the distribution of private health facilities across the country. However, cultural responsiveness of the health sector – for instance in terms of provision of female health care providers – remains an important obstacle for the effective use of health care, especially by women. In addition, costs for health services and treatment are prohibitive for many households, in particular for poor households.

The 2011-12 round of NRVA collected limited information about child health. The information indicates mixed results with regard to vitamin A supplementation, prevalence of acute respiratory diseases and Tetanus Toxoid Injection (TT) coverage. In addition, the proportion of children officially registered at birth is still small: 35 percent.

Perhaps the most consistent and impressive improvements are observed for maternal health indicators. The proportions of women served by skilled ante-natal care providers and skilled birth attendants, and the proportion delivering in institutional health facilities have increased dramatically in the last decade and reached levels of 51, 40 and 36 percent respectively.

One of the main concerns with respect to Afghanistan's health system performance is the very unequal health care provision between urban and rural populations. Invariably, for the majority of Afghanistan's rural population service delivery and health outcome indicators are significantly lower than for urban dwellers. And the situation is generally even far worse for the nomadic Kuchi population.

9.1 Introduction

The health system of Afghanistan is recovering from a collapse in the recent decades of conflict, especially after the adoption of new health policies and a strategy of delivering a basic package of health services since 2005 (MoPH 2005). Although remaining low in international comparison, many of Afghanistan's main health indicators are rapidly improving. Whereas the food security situation in the country remains fragile (see chapter 7) and adequate sanitation remains poorly available, significant advance has been achieved with respect to access to safe drinking water (see chapter 10). Other progress has been made with regard to the availability, access and quality of health care services. NRVA 2011-12 provides information about several of these health components, as well as actual health-care use.

9.2 Access to health services

Access to health services is a multi-dimensional concept. It not only relates to the physical distance to health facilities or the travel time involved, but also involves the costs of travel and services, as well as opportunity costs, cultural responsiveness to clients' needs, mobility of women, and even the 'value' attached to the health and survival of specific household members, such as children and women. The NRVA 2011-12 provides information about travel time and travel costs required to reach health facilities, as well as information about gender-specific availability of health care staff, out-of-pocket expenditure on health and actual use of health care providers.

9.2.1 Distance to nearest health facility and costs to reach it

Distance and costs to reach a health facility can be primary reasons for low use of health care, especially in remote areas. Thus, the 2006 Afghanistan Health Survey (AHS) suggested that – after the absence of urgency for seeking health care – the most important reason for not seeking care was distance (27 percent) and the fourth-most important reason mentioned was transport costs (11 percent). In line with this, male and female Shuras responses to the successive rounds of NRVA invariantly mentioned improved access to health facilities among the top priorities (see section 11.4 of this report). It should be expected that given the expansion of Afghanistan's health care system the importance of these reasons will have been reduced. The text box on access to health care below provides information about travel time to health facilities and costs involved, as well as staff availability in health facilities. However, due to low response rates,

Access to health care

Table 9.1, panel a gives the present percentage of population that is able to reach different types of health facilities within a specified time by any means of transport. It is evident that the urban population has virtually universal access to health care of any type within two hours. For rural and Kuchi populations access time is less favourable, but around nine in ten of the non-urban population can reach the nearest health facility within two hours. The corresponding overall figure reported in the 2006 Afghanistan Health Survey (AHS) was only 60 percent.

Table 9.1: Access characteristics of the nearest health facility for different health facilities, by residencea

a. Population, by minimum travel time to nearest health facility (in percentages)

Type of health facility, residence	Less than 2 hours	2 to 6 hours	More than 6 hours
a. Health post			
Urban	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Rural	88.4	8.8	2.8
Kuchi	89.5	5.1	5.4
National	91.2	6.4	2.3
b. Public clinic			
Urban	99.4	0.0	0.6
Rural	82.7	14.2	3.1
Kuchi	89.7	10.3	0.0
National	86.9	10.7	2.4
c. District or provincial hospital			
Urban	99.3	0.7	0.0
Rural	76.4	18.3	5.3
Kuchi	74.4	10.8	14.8
National	81.7	13.6	4.6
d. Private doctor or clinic			
Urban	100.0	0.0	0.0
Rural	82.9	12.7	4.4
Kuchi	76.7	7.5	15.8
National	86.7	9.3	4.0

b. Mean and median one-way travel cost per person by private transport (in Afghanis)

Type of health facility, residence	Mean	Median
a. Health post		
Urban	n.a.	n.a.
Rural	208	100
Kuchi	470	250
National	176	100
b. Public clinic		
Urban	154	100
Rural	320	140
Kuchi	309	150
National	278	120
c. District or provincial hospital		
Urban	141	100
Rural	447	200
Kuchi	413	300
National	368	150
d. Private doctor or clinic		
Urban	117	100
Rural	353	150
Kuchi	366	250
National	291	150

[a] Figures are indicative only due to high levels of missing values, ranging from 13 percent for public clinics to 33 percent for health posts.

The costs involved to reach a health facility by private transport differ by the type of care provider and by residence (Table 9.1, panel b). Half of the population need to pay Afg. 150 or less to reach any type of health facility, but the mean costs are usually twice as high as the median costs, indicating that for the other half of the population the costs are excessively higher. It should be borne in mind that financial constraints to health service access are often larger for women, since they are usually required to be accompanied by a male, doubling any travel costs.

Availability of health care staff

In the gender-sensitive context of Afghanistan, another impeding factor to seek health care is the absence of same-sex health care staff. Results from the NRVA 2011-12 show that within the public health system only higher up in the referral system and in urban areas any presence of female staff reaches levels close to full coverage (*Table 9.2*). For example, in rural areas only 52 percent of the population can consult a female doctor in a public clinic and for 14 percent no midwife is available. However, compared to NRVA 2007-08 the availability of female health care staff has increased significantly: the corresponding figures for female doctors and midwives in public clinics at that time were 38 and 60 percent only (CSO 2009). The availability of male health care staff is generally better guaranteed. The figures presented here should be treated with care because of high non-response rates, as well as because of the possible respondents' inability to distinguish between different health care staff.

Table 9.2: Availability of health care staff in nearest health facility, by sex of staff, residence, and by health care provider, staff type (in percentages)[a]

Type of health facility, residence	Female health care staff				Male health care staff			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
a. Health post								
Community health worker	91.9	58.3	45.9	67.4	96.8	72.7	93.9	79.6
b. Public clinic								
Doctor	96.0	52.3	52.3	63.1	98.9	91.4	100.0	93.6
Nurse	96.0	66.3	60.1	73.3	97.2	88.5	96.8	91.0
Midwife	96.7	85.5	80.4	87.9	na	na	na	na
c. District or provincial hospital								
Doctor	97.6	87.1	89.0	89.7	100.0	97.9	100.0	98.5
Nurse	99.6	92.0	97.9	94.1	97.7	86.5	96.5	89.8
Midwife	100.0	97.1	98.6	97.9	na	na	na	na
d. Private doctor or hospital								
Doctor	95.7	72.3	88.9	79.1	98.3	92.0	100.0	94.0
Nurse	95.9	74.5	92.4	80.8	87.2	63.8	96.1	71.6
Midwife	97.9	86.3	92.4	89.5	na	na	na	na

[a] Figures are indicative only due to high levels of missing values, ranging from 8 percent for district or provincial hospitals to 43 percent for health posts.

9.2.2 Household expenditure on health

The 2006 AHS found that the third-most important reason – with 24 percent of all reasons – for not seeking medical care was the inability to pay the cost of treatment. For many households health expenditure may be prohibitive, especially if advanced and prolonged treatment or hospitalisation is required. Table 9.3 provides an overview of out-of-pocket expenditure on health in the year preceding the NRVA 2011-12 interviews.

Less than one quarter of all households had any costs for in-patient care, but if costs were made it was usually a large amount with a median of 6.6 thousand Afs. and an average expenditure of 34 thousand Afs. On average households in Afghanistan – including those without costs – mentioned an expenditure of 7.5 thousand Afs. for in-patient care. Expenditure on out-patient care was considerably lower (with a median of 300 Afs. and a mean of 1.5 thousand Afs. by all households), but was made twice as often – by 51 percent of all households – as in-patient care costs. Other health-related expenditure was again smaller but more frequent (by 63 percent of households). Overall, households in Afghanistan spent on average more than nine thousand Afs. on health care, with a median expenditure of 1.1 thousand Afs. For those households that did make any costs the corresponding figures are, respectively, 11.2 and 1.6 thousand Afs. It is notable that urban households have a significantly higher level of expenditure than rural households, which is likely related to lower urban poverty levels and better access to health services.

Table 9.3: Mean and median household health-related expenditure for A. Households with specified expenditure and B. all households, by expenditure type, residence (in Afghanis)
A. Households with specified expenditure B. All households

Expenditure type,	Households with expenditure		All households	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
a. In-patient care expenditure				
Urban	46,445	8,000	11,376	0
Rural	30,756	6,000	6,586	0
Kuchi	21,082	6,000	3,684	0
Total	34,281	6,600	7,504	0
b. Out-patient care expenditure				
Urban	3,735	1,100	2,119	450
Rural	2,535	1,200	1,301	200
Kuchi	1,903	1,200	901	0
Total	2,796	1,200	1,463	300
c. Other health-related expenditure				
Urban	661	250	429	100
Rural	651	300	371	100
Kuchi	518	200	315	90
Total	646	300	381	100
d. Total health-related expenditure				
Urban	16,021	1,600	13,924	1,200
Rural	10,035	1,600	8,258	1,050
Kuchi	6,103	1,380	4,900	1,000
Total	11,232	1,600	9,348	1,100

Table 9.4: In-patients (A) and out-patients (B) in the year before the survey, by sex, and by age

A. In-patients

a. In thousands

Age	Male	Female	Total
0-9	123	99	221
10-19	56	63	120
20-29	35	126	161
30-39	33	89	122
40-49	29	67	96
50-59	31	64	95
60-69	37	33	70
70-79	23	13	37
80-89	9	3	12
90+	1	0	1
Total	378	558	935

b. In percentages

Age	Male	Female	Total
0-9	32.5	17.7	23.7
10-19	14.9	11.4	12.8
20-29	9.2	22.7	17.2
30-39	8.8	16.0	13.1
40-49	7.7	12.0	10.3
50-59	8.1	11.5	10.1
60-69	9.8	5.9	7.5
70-79	6.2	2.4	3.9
80-89	2.4	0.5	1.2
90+	0.3	0.0	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

B. Out-patients

a. In thousands

Age	Male	Female	Total
0-9	557	477	1,033
10-19	149	193	342
20-29	103	270	372
30-39	72	214	286
40-49	70	166	236
50-59	77	158	235
60-69	80	67	147
70-79	35	22	57
80-89	17	5	22
90+	5	1	6
Total	1,163	1,573	2,736

b. In percentages

Age	Male	Female	Total
0-9	47.8	30.3	37.8
10-19	12.8	12.3	12.5
20-29	8.8	17.1	13.6
30-39	6.2	13.6	10.5
40-49	6.0	10.6	8.6
50-59	6.6	10.1	8.6
60-69	6.8	4.3	5.4
70-79	3.0	1.4	2.1
80-89	1.4	0.3	0.8
90+	0.4	0.0	0.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

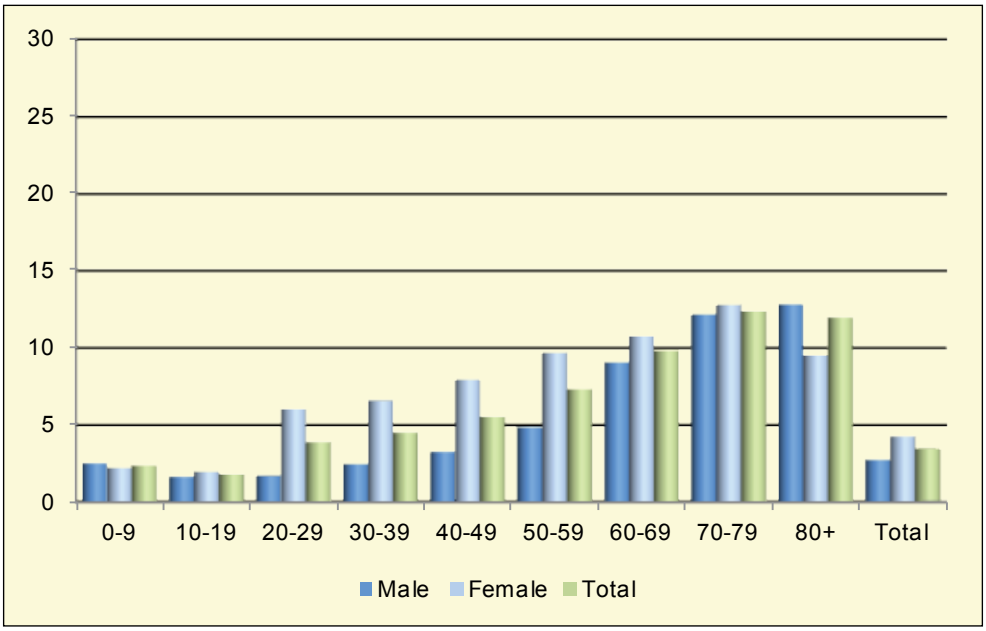
9.2.3 Visits to health care facilities

NRVA 2011-12 inquired into occurrence of visits to health care facilities in the year preceding the interview. The results show that from more than 800 thousand households one or more members have been admitted to stay overnight in a health facility. In total this referred to 935 thousand different in-patients, 60 percent of whom were women or girls.

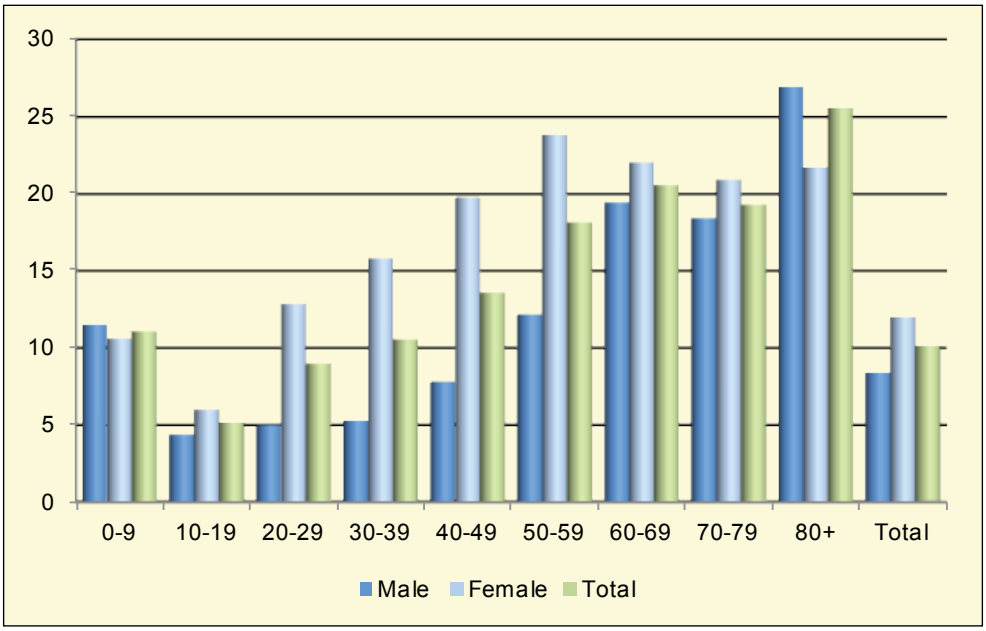
As can be seen from *Table 9.4*, the concentration of female in-patients is in the reproductive ages and is closely related to ante-natal-, delivery- and post-delivery care. Half (51 percent) of all female patients who stayed overnight in a health facility is in the age bracket 15-49, whereas only a quarter (26 percent) of the male in-patients belongs to this age group. In absolute numbers the figures of in-patients decline with age, due to the typical pyramid shape of the population with relatively small numbers of elderly and large numbers of children. However, calculating the number per age group as a percentage of the total population, the incidence of hospitalisation clearly concentrates in the old age groups (*Figure 9.1*, panel A). This is the expected pattern, as health problems tend to increase with age, with the exception of the immediate years after birth. However, the pattern for women is strongly influenced by visits for maternity reasons as can be seen in the sharp increase of the female prevalence at age group 20-29.

Figure 9.1: In-patients (A) and out-patients (B) in the year before the survey, by sex, and by age as percentage of the total population in the same age-sex group.

A. In-patients



B. Out-patients



With 2.7 million, the volume of out-patients is considerably larger than that of in-patients (*Table 9.4*, panel B). In terms of the age-sex distribution, the most notable is the over-representation of children under ten and again women in the reproductive age group. This is made visible in *Figure 9.1*, panel B, where it can be seen that around 11 percent of children under 10 had sought ambulant medical care. Only 5 percent of persons in the age group 10-19 did so, a level that is maintained for men up to the age group 40-49, whereas for women the share that received out-patient care is rising rapidly from age 20 onwards. Overall, 10 percent of the population received ambulant care, 12 percent among women and girls, and 8 percent among men and boys.

9.2.4 Use of health care providers

There are significant differences in the use of health services between in-patient and out-patient care, as well as between urban and rural populations. For hospitalisation public health facilities are the most important care providers, with 19 percent for national hospitals and 58 percent for provincial and other public health facilities in-patient care (*Table 9.5*). Private clinics and private doctors and NGOs serve 17 percent of the population for in-patient care, and 5 percent is treated abroad.

For ambulant health services, the first category is private and NGO care, which provides more than half of the services. In urban areas this is even 69 percent, but also in rural areas it is close to half of out-patient service delivery – almost as important as public health care. All together, the private sector served around 1.5 million people for ambulant care.

Table 9.5: Health care seekers in the year before the survey, by residence, and by health care provider

A. In thousands **B. In percentages**

Health care provider	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
a. In-patient health care provider								
National hospital	101.7	72.6	4.8	179.1	43.1	11.2	12.5	19.4
Other public health facility	65.2	446.3	26.2	537.6	27.6	68.7	68.3	58.2
Private health facility	54.4	99.7	4.5	158.5	23.0	15.3	11.7	17.2
Health facility abroad	14.9	31.0	2.9	48.8	6.3	4.8	7.6	5.3
Total	236.2	649.5	38.4	924.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
b. Out-patient health care provider								
National hospital	90.5	41.3	1.9	133.7	14.0	2.1	1.4	4.9
Other public health facility	102.4	941.4	64.9	1,108.7	15.8	48.6	47.7	40.7
Private health facility	448.9	942.6	68.8	1,460.3	69.2	48.7	50.5	53.7
Health facility abroad	6.7	10.9	0.6	18.2	1.0	0.6	0.4	0.7
Total	648.6	1,936.2	136.2	2,721.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

9.3 Child health

Based on the principle of rotating modules, the NRVA 2011-12 round had a restricted battery of questions on child health compared to the 2007-08 round. Only information about Vitamin A supplementation, fever and diarrhea, and acute respiratory illness (ARI) for children under five was collected. Reduction of vitamin A deficiency, diarrhea and pneumonia are critical to the achievement of MDG 4, the reduction in under-five mortality. In addition to this child health information, the number of under-fives with a birth certificate was recorded.

9.3.1 Birth registration

Although strictly not a health indicator, the percentage of children with a birth certificate may have health implications in the sense of admission difficulty to health facilities, as well as access to various other services and human rights. The International Convention on the Rights of the Child – to which Afghanistan is a party – states that every child has the right to a name and a nationality, and the right to protection from being deprived of his or her identity. Birth registration is a fundamental means of securing these.

NRVA 2011-12 indicated that 35 percent of children under 5 had a birth certificate[1] (*Table 9.6*), slightly below the share reported by the MICS 2010 (37 percent). This would imply that 3 million under-fives are not registered as citizen of Afghanistan. Urban children were more than twice as likely to be registered as rural children (64 compared to 29 percent), and only 16 percent of Kuchi children were registered.

1 Based on verbal report, without having seen the certificate.

9.3.2 Child health indicators

Vitamin A supplementation

Vitamin A deficiency is of major public health significance in many parts of the world where poverty is extensive and resources are limited. The association between vitamin A deficiency and an increase in childhood prevalence and severity of infectious diseases, blindness and mortality has been well documented.

As shown in *Table 9.6*, the share of children under-five that received vitamin A supplementation was found to be 60 percent, which is higher than the MICS 2010 figure of 51 percent. The AHS 2006 reported a 77 percent coverage.[2] These results may vary because vitamin A supplementation often coincides with polio or measles campaigns, which occur at specific intervals.

Fever and diarrhea

Fever was the second-most reported health problem in the past month for children under-five in the AHS 2006. In the NRVA 2011-12 a share of 40 percent of under-fives was recorded to have had fever in the last month before the survey. Of these children with fever, 55 percent (22 percent of all under-fives) also had diarrhea.

Table 9.6: Children under five years of age, by residence, and by different indicators (in percentages)

Indicator	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
With birth certificate	63.8	29.5	16.3	35.2
With vitamin A supplementation	75.8	56.4	50.5	59.8
In last month before the interview:				
With fever	40.1	40.3	39.6	40.2
With fever and diarrhea	20.7	22.8	20.6	22.2
With symptoms of acute respiratory illness	13.4	13.8	13.0	13.7

[a] Based on verbal report, without having seen the certificate.

Acute respiratory illness

Pneumonia is the world number one killer of children under-five (UNICEF and WHO 2006). Undernourished children, particularly those not exclusively breastfed, are at higher risk of developing pneumonia. Similarly, children and infants suffering from other illnesses, such as measles, are more likely to develop pneumonia. Environmental factors, such as living in crowded homes or indoor air pollution, may also have a role to play in increasing children's susceptibility to pneumonia and its severe consequences. All these factors are particularly present in Afghanistan (see sections 10.2.2).

According to NRVA 2011-12 out of all children under-five, 14 percent (corresponding to 611 thousand children) had symptoms of acute respiratory illness, measured as having been ill with a cough accompanied by short, rapid breathing at any time during the month preceding the interview.

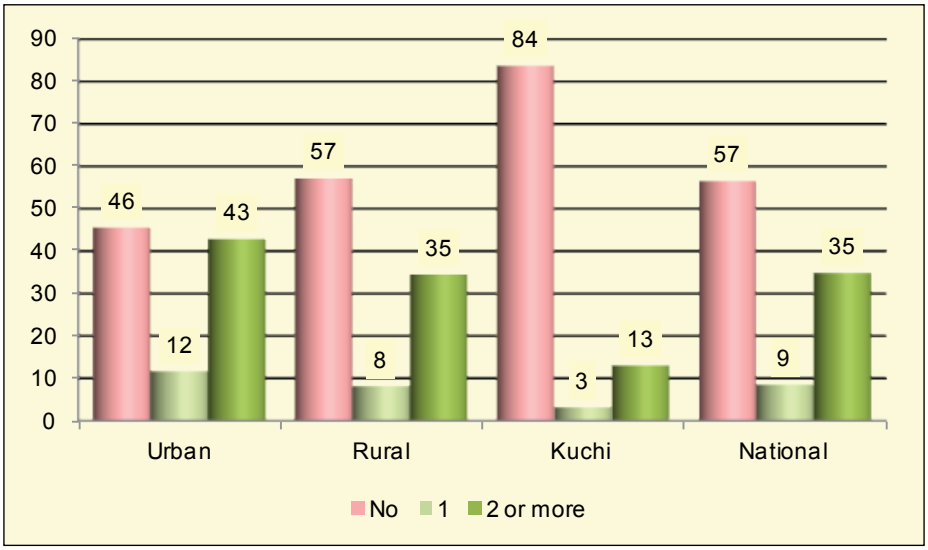
Injections against neonatal tetanus

People of all ages can get tetanus, but the disease is particularly common and serious in newborn babies. Neonatal tetanus, which is mostly fatal, is particularly common in rural areas where deliveries are mostly done at home without adequate sterile procedures. Tetanus can be prevented through immunization with tetanus-toxoid (TT) containing vaccines, which is given to women of childbearing age with, either during pregnancy or outside of pregnancy. This protects the mother and – through a transfer of tetanus antibodies to the fetus – also her baby. For full protection, a pregnant woman should receive at least two doses during each pregnancy. If a woman has been vaccinated during a previous pregnancy or during maternal and neonatal tetanus vaccination campaigns, however, she may only require one dose for the current pregnancy. Five doses are considered to provide lifetime protection.

2 MICS and AHS reported for children 6-59 months of age.

Figure 9.2 presents the percentage of women aged 15-49 with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey by the number of TT injections received during the last pregnancy. Overall and for pregnancies of rural women, full protection was recorded for just over one-third (35 percent) of the women. For urban women the corresponding share was higher, but still close to half (46 percent) did not receive the required two injections. Kuchi women are very much deprived of TT coverage, as 84 percent did not receive any injection at all during their last pregnancy.

Figure 9.2: Women aged 15-49 with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, by residence, and by the number of TT injections received during the last pregnancy (in percentages)



9.4 Maternal health

Reproductive health implies that women have the right of access to appropriate health care services that will enable them to go safely through pregnancy and childbirth and provide couples with the best chance of having a healthy infant.

A limited and non-representative survey in 2002 suggested a maternal mortality ratio (MMR) of at least 1,600 per 100,000 births, which would imply that the life-time risk of women dying to pregnancy-related causes was at least one in nine (Bartlett et al. 2005). These figures would rank Afghanistan among the very highest in the world in terms of maternal mortality.

9.4.1 Ante-natal care

Skilled antenatal care (ANC) services present opportunities for reaching pregnant women with interventions that may be vital to their health and that of their infants. These interventions include medical check-ups, referrals of pregnancies that could result in complicated deliveries, and information about managing pregnancies and deliveries, immunization, breastfeeding and child spacing.

Overall, 51 percent of women reported at least one visit to or of skilled ANC providers (doctors, nurses or midwives). Use of skilled ANC services during a woman's last pregnancy in urban and rural areas was, respectively, in 78 and 46 percent of the cases (*Figure 9.3*, panel a). The proportion of women using skilled ANC services was lowest among the Kuchi women (23 percent). Some 49 percent of the women did not receive any care at all (22 percent in urban areas and 54 percent in rural areas).

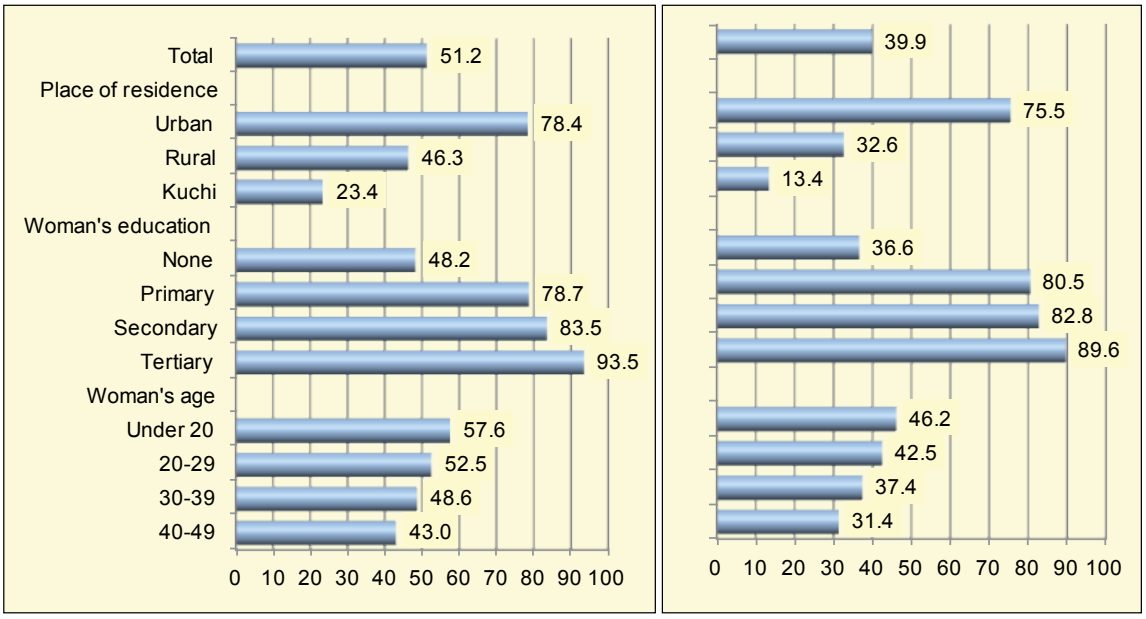
Education was significantly associated with skilled antenatal care, and especially the difference between women with no education and primary education is notable: 80 percent of the latter received ante-natal care, whereas only 49 of the former did so. Women with higher education approach universal coverage. Age of mother was also clearly associated with the use of skilled ANC services.

For women without pregnancy complications, the WHO recommendation is to have at least four ANC visits as the necessary minimum to provide adequate screening for pregnancy complications. Only 10 percent of the pregnant women in the last five years has realised this minimum, although urban women did so more than two times as much. One-third of the women had two or three visits and about 9 percent had just one visit.

MDG Indicator 5.5
Antenatal care coverage
At least one visit: **51.2 percent**
At least four visits: **9.9 percent**

Figure 9.3: Women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received maternal health care during their last pregnancy, by selected characteristics (in percentages)

a. Ante-natal care (at least one visit) **b. Skilled birth attendance**



9.4.2 Skilled attendance at birth and place of delivery

Skilled birth attendance (SBA) is considered to be the single most critical intervention for ensuring safe motherhood, because it hastens the timely delivery of emergency obstetric and newborn care when life-threatening complications arise. It also implies access to a more comprehensive level of obstetric care in case of complications requiring surgery or blood transfusions. The proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is an indicator of a health system's ability to provide adequate care for pregnant women.

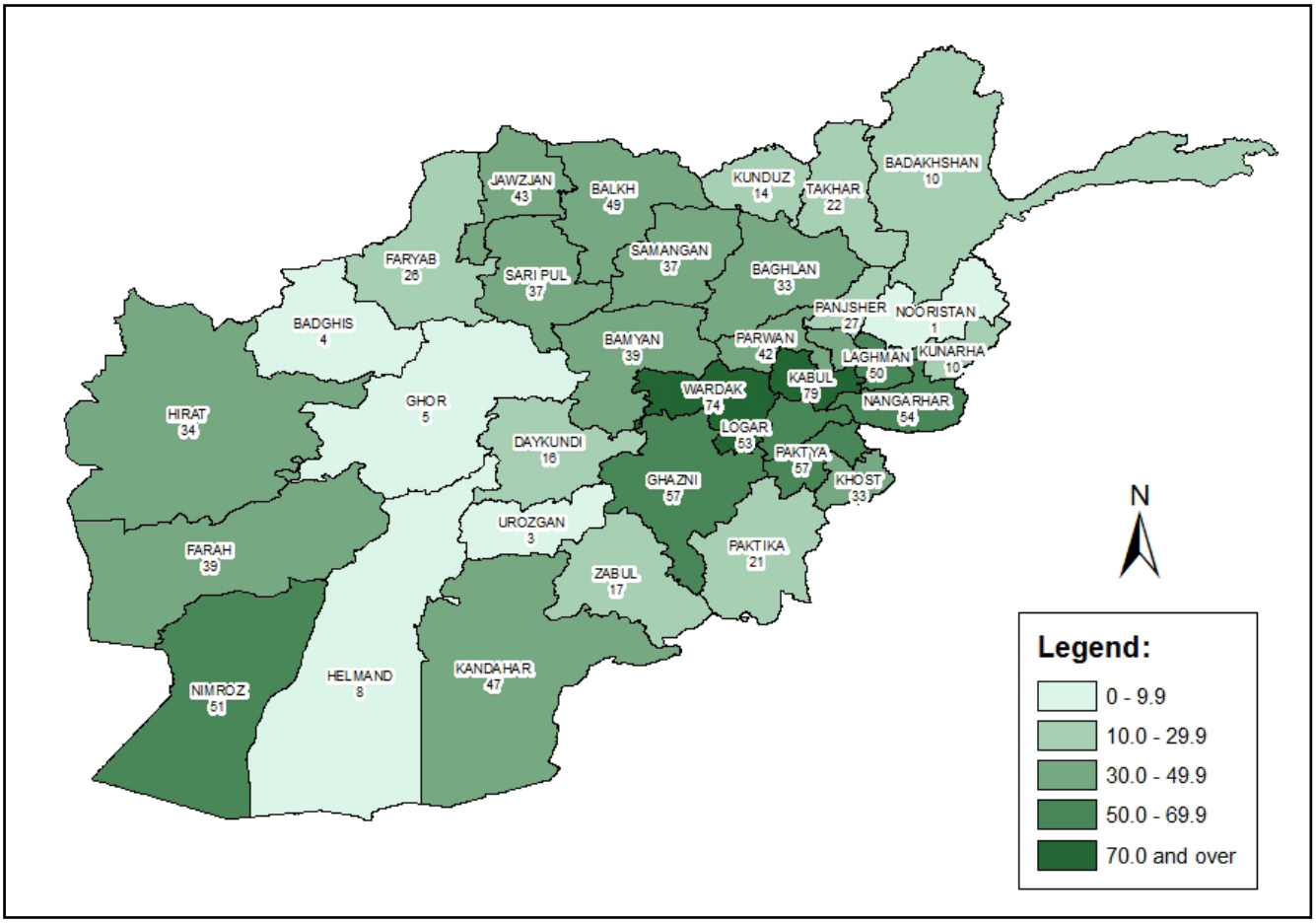
MDG Indicator 5.2
Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
39.9 percent

The 2011-12 NRVA reports an overall proportion of women delivering with skilled birth assistance (doctors, nurses and midwives) of 40 percent for the last delivery in the past five years. Overall, traditional birth attendants assisted in 44 percent of the deliveries, and family members or neighbours in 13 percent. All in all, some 1.7 million women were exposed to high risks of largely preventable maternal mortality and morbidity during their last delivery.

As with ANC, there are large differences in the use of professional delivery care by background characteristics. Rural women are less than half as likely to be assisted by a skilled birth attendant as urban women (33 against 75 percent), and for Kuchi women the likelihood is again less than half of that of rural women (13 percent) (*Figure 9.3*, panel b). Provincial differences are presented in *Figure 9.4*.

Educational attainment of the women has a positive effect on the probability of skilled birth attendance, but the effect is strongest for women who proceed from no education at all to primary education. Also, younger women increasingly rely on skilled birth attendance.

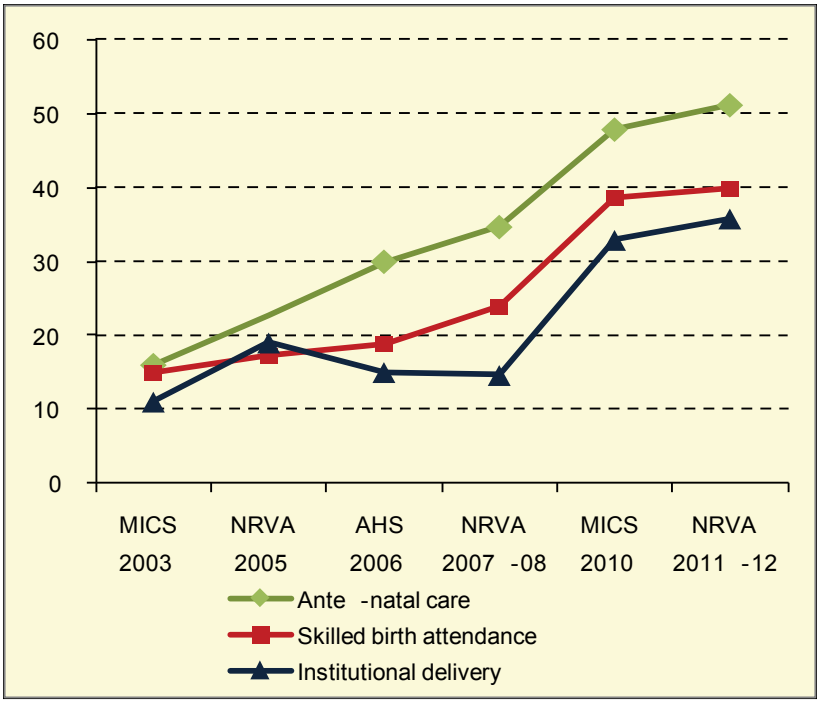
Figure 9.4: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who were assisted by skilled birth attendants at last delivery, by province



The level of 36 percent of deliveries taking place in health facilities is close to that of skilled birth attendance. Overall, close to two-thirds of deliveries (63 percent) take place at home. Rural deliveries take place in health institutions in only 29 percent of the cases, while the corresponding urban share is more than three times as high (69 percent). Besides the different proportions of institutional deliveries between rural and urban women, also the use of private facilities differs: 16 percent of urban women have their births in private facilities against 8 percent of rural women.

The present figure of 40 percent skilled delivery assistance indicates a large improvement from the 24 percent recorded in the NRVA 2007-08. This improvement fits in the general trend of rapidly improving maternal health care provision observed in successive surveys in Afghanistan since 2003 (*see Figure 9.5*). The trends for ante-natal care coverage and institutional delivery follow similar paths of rapid improvement.

Figure 9.5: Women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received maternal health care during their last pregnancy and who delivered in institutional facilities, by survey[a] (in percentages)



[a] NRVA 2011-12 uses births in the last five years, MICS 2010 and 2003, AHS 2006 and NRVA 2007-08 and 2005 use births in the last two years. AHS uses births of only pregnant women, other surveys use those of ever-married women.

10 HOUSING AND HOUSEHOLD AMENITIES

SUMMARY. *The housing conditions of the Afghan population can be defined as poor, with large differences between urban and rural communities. However, several indicators show marked improvements.*

Physical access to rural communities is often problematic, as around 14 percent of households there live in villages located more than 6 kilometres from the nearest drivable road. Only 14 percent of Afghans – 45 percent in urban areas and 5 percent in rural areas – live in a dwelling that can be considered durable. Just over one in three (37 percent) live in an overcrowded dwelling, and – taking water and sanitation conditions into account – 87 percent of urban dwellers (5.3 million people) live in slum-like conditions of poverty and physical and environmental deprivation.

Overall, 46 and 8 percent of the population use improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities respectively. The figure for safe drinking water is a significant improvement compared to 2007-08, when it was only 27 percent. The situation improved in rural areas in particular, where the percentage using improved sources increased from 20 (2007-08) to 39. The situation with regard to sanitation improved slightly, but continues to be poor, with only 8 percent of the population having access to improved sanitation. The still widespread lack of basic infrastructure for water and sanitation implies high risks of potentially fatal diseases, and is especially detrimental for the health and survival chances of infants and young children.

Health conditions in the household are further impaired by the use of solid fuels for cooking (80 percent) and heating (97 percent). The lack of electricity is becoming less of an impediment for the effective spread of information to the general public through mass media, like radio, TV and the internet, as 69 percent of households had access to some source of electricity in the month preceding the survey, compared to 42 percent in 2007-08, and only 23 percent in 2005. However, use of the internet is still virtually non-existent among the population (only 5 per thousand people use the internet), while mobile phones are used by only 14 percent of the population (up from 6 percent in 2007-08).

10.1 Introduction

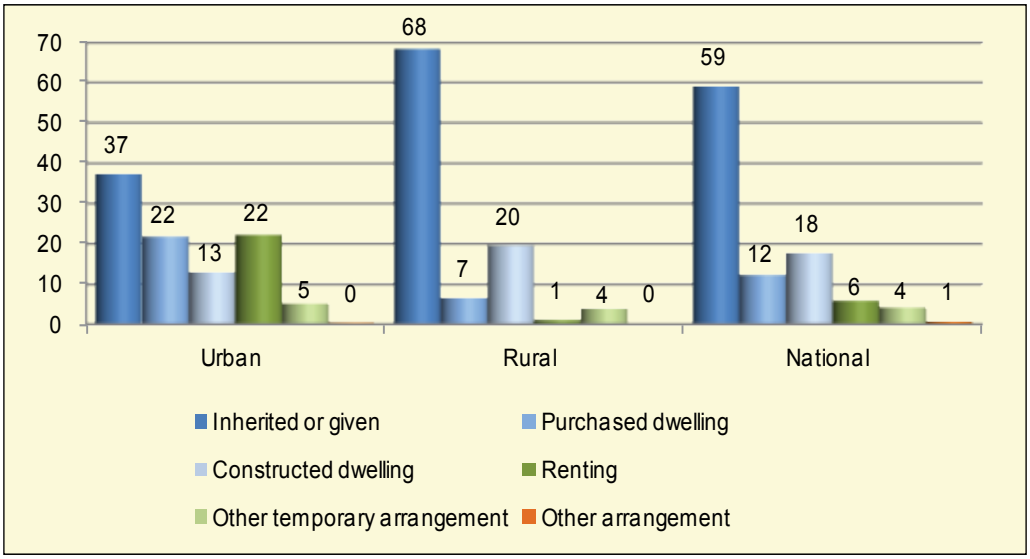
The housing situation of a population is often a direct reflection of their living conditions and socio-economic development. This chapter describes different housing characteristics, including the tenancy status (section 10.2), building materials (10.3) and various facilities usually related to the housing situation, such as water supply and sanitation, but also available communication and information means (section 10.4). Consequently, the chapter also covers several related MDG indicators, including the access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation.

10.2 Tenancy and dwelling characteristics

10.2.1 Tenancy

Tenancy arrangements showed little difference compared with NRVA 2007-08 and even with NRVA 2005. The large majority of urban and rural households (89 percent; 85 percent in 2007-08 and 2005) claim ownership of the house where they live, by either inheritance or in family possession or given freely (59 percent), by purchase (12 percent), or by construction (18 percent) (*see Figure 10.1*). The concentration in owned dwellings is even stronger in rural areas (95 percent), and here the share of dwellings inherited or in family possession is especially prominent. Renting and other temporary tenancy arrangements hardly occur here. In urban areas, on the other hand, a more even distribution exits between dwellings in own possession (still 72 percent) and those occupied on the basis of more temporary arrangements (27 percent), such as care taking, mortgaging or living in a dwelling of a relative or friend. Due to the mobility and continuous influx of new residents in urban areas, the share of inheritance is lower here (37 percent) than in rural areas (68 percent) and the share of purchased and rented dwellings is higher (both 22 percent). As can be seen in *Figure 10.1*, renting is an almost exclusively urban phenomenon. The categories of tenancy used are less appropriate to describe the situation in the Kuchi population.

Figure 10.1: Households, by tenancy status, and by residence (in percentages)



10.2.2 Dwelling characteristics

A typical Afghan house is made of mud brick walls and a mud roof (64 and 63 percent, respectively) and has an earthen floor (86 percent) (*Table 10.1*). Urban houses somewhat deviate from this general picture in the sense that concrete is a more common building material. Thereby, these dwellings provide more durable shelter than the traditional Afghan house. Kuchi households – for 70 percent living in tents – have, as expected, a very different pattern of building materials. Dwellings for which the walls, the roof and the floor are all mainly constructed of durable materials – fired brick, stone, concrete or tiles, and wood for the roof – are considered durable dwellings. According to this definitions only in urban areas is a sizable proportion of the households living in a durable dwelling (45 percent).

The distribution of the number of rooms per dwelling is fairly similar for urban and rural households. Around one-third of these dwellings have two rooms and close to another 40 percent has three or four rooms (*Table 10.2*, panel a). Kuchi dwellings usually consist of one or two tents.

Table 10.1: Households, by residence, and by construction material for (a) walls, (b) roofs and (c) floors (in percentages)

Construction material and dwelling durability	Residence			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	National
a. Construction material of walls				
Fired brick/stone	20.8	3.6	1.0	7.3
Concrete	9.9	0.5	0.0	2.6
Mud bricks/mud	60.5	68.4	20.1	63.9
Stone/mud	8.4	26.4	8.1	21.4
Other	0.4	1.0	70.8	4.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
b. Construction material of roof				
Concrete	17.0	1.2	0.0	4.7
Wood	28.0	26.8	4.4	25.8
Mud bricks/mud	51.7	69.7	24.3	63.1
Other	3.3	2.4	71.3	6.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
c. Construction material of floor				
Mud/earth	53.6	94.5	100.0	85.6
Concrete/tile	44.8	4.6	0.0	13.4
Other	1.5	0.9	0.0	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
d. Durability of dwelling				
Percentage durable	44.8	4.9	0.0	14.2

Overcrowding is a manifestation of housing inequality and is also a hidden form of homelessness. UN-Habitat defines overcrowding as dwellings with more than three persons per room (UN-Habitat 2007). The effects of overcrowding include an increased risk of disease transmission for a wide range of respiratory diseases, including pneumonia, tuberculosis and many allergies and negative social behaviours, such as domestic violence and child abuse, and negative outcomes of education and child development. NRVA 2011-12 shows that 37 percent of all households in Afghanistan live in such overcrowded dwellings (*Table 10.2*, panel b). For Kuchi households, the share is even 70 percent.

Overcrowding and durability of dwellings, together with access to safe drinking water and improved sanitation (see section 10.3.1 below), are four criteria[1] that determine if an urban household is defined as a slum household. The MDG indicator 7.10 for environmental sustainability that is based on this definition is the percentage of urban population that lives in slum households. In the NRVA 2011-12 a percentage of 87 percent was found for this indicator, which represents 5.3 million people.

MDG Indicator 7.10
Percentage of urban population living in slums
86.6 percent

1 The fifth criterion – secure tenure – was not considered in NRVA 2011-12.

Table 10.2: Households, by residence, and by number of rooms in the dwelling (in percentages); also stating occupancy density indicators

Number of rooms and occupation density indicators	Residence			National
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	
a. Number of rooms in the dwelling				
1	13.7	14.5	48.2	16.2
2	34.0	34.7	36.7	34.7
3	23.1	25.0	10.6	23.8
4	15.7	14.9	3.5	14.4
5	5.8	6.1	0.7	5.8
6	3.3	2.7	0.2	2.7
7 or more	4.4	1.9	0.0	2.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
b. Occupancy density indicators				
Mean number of persons per room	3.0	3.1	4.8	3.2
Median number of persons per room	2.7	2.7	4.0	2.7
Percentage overcrowded	33.6	35.5	69.9	37.0

[a] Overcrowded dwellings are defined as dwellings with more than 3 persons per room.

Around 42 percent of Afghan households have the preferred kitchen arrangement, that is a separate room within the dwelling. For most households members this helps avoiding intensive exposure to toxic fumes from burning solid fuels, and at the same time protect those who are cooking – usually women – against rain and cold. The situation is generally best for urban households and worst for Kuchi households, where for the largest part cooking is done out in the open or within the tent (*Table 10.3*).

Table 10.3: Households, by location of cooking facility, and by residence (in percentages)

Residence	Inside dwelling		Outside dwelling		Other	Total
	Separate room	Part of room	Separate room	In the open		
Urban	59.0	4.9	20.9	7.6	7.6	100.0
Rural	40.1	9.7	32.1	17.4	0.7	100.0
Kuchi	4.3	28.3	7.1	59.1	1.2	100.0
National	42.4	9.6	28.2	17.5	2.3	100.0

10.3 Household amenities

10.3.1 Water and sanitation

Basic hygiene provided by safe drinking water and adequate sanitation are the most effective strategies to improve the health status of the population. There is evidence that globally provision of adequate sanitation services, safe water supply, and hygiene education represents an effective health intervention that reduces the mortality caused by diarrhoeal disease by an average of 65 percent, and the related morbidity by 26 percent (WHO 2001). Provision of safe, convenient and sustainable water and sanitation services will not only result in reduced morbidity and mortality (particularly under-five mortality), but also reduce health costs and increase worker productivity, school attendance and overall well-being.

Drinking water

MDG Indicator 7.8
Proportion of the population using improved drinking water sources
45.5 percent

The NRVA 2011-12 inventory of community preferences for development among male and female Shuras emphasized the importance of water supply, as they assigned it top priority (see section 11.4). The household survey recorded that access to improved drinking water sources [2] is available to 46 percent of the population of Afghanistan. Compared to the results of the NRVA 2007-08 round this indicates a sharp increase of the share of the population with safe drinking water from 27 to 46 percent. The situation especially improved in rural areas, where the share of the population using improved sources almost doubled between 2007-08 and 2011-12 from 20 to 39 percent. If this rate of improvement is continued, the ANDS target of 61.5 percent in 2020 will easily be achieved.

Large differences are observed in the share with access between the urban population on the one hand (71 percent) and the rural and Kuchi populations on the other (39 and 21 percent, respectively) (*Table 10.4*). Similar differences exist between the provinces, with access ranging from 7 and 9 percent in Urozgan and Zabul to 67 and 78 percent in Balkh and Kabul (*Figure 10.2*). Close to half the population (49 percent) – equivalent to 14.7 million people – relies on surface water for their main source of water and 28 percent on hand pumps (an improved drinking water source). The reliance on piped water (improved source) is 9 percent overall, but with 26 percent it the most important source in urban areas (data not shown).

Table 10.4: Percentage of households with access to improved sources of drinking water[a], by residence; Time to reach drinking water source (all water sources), by residence

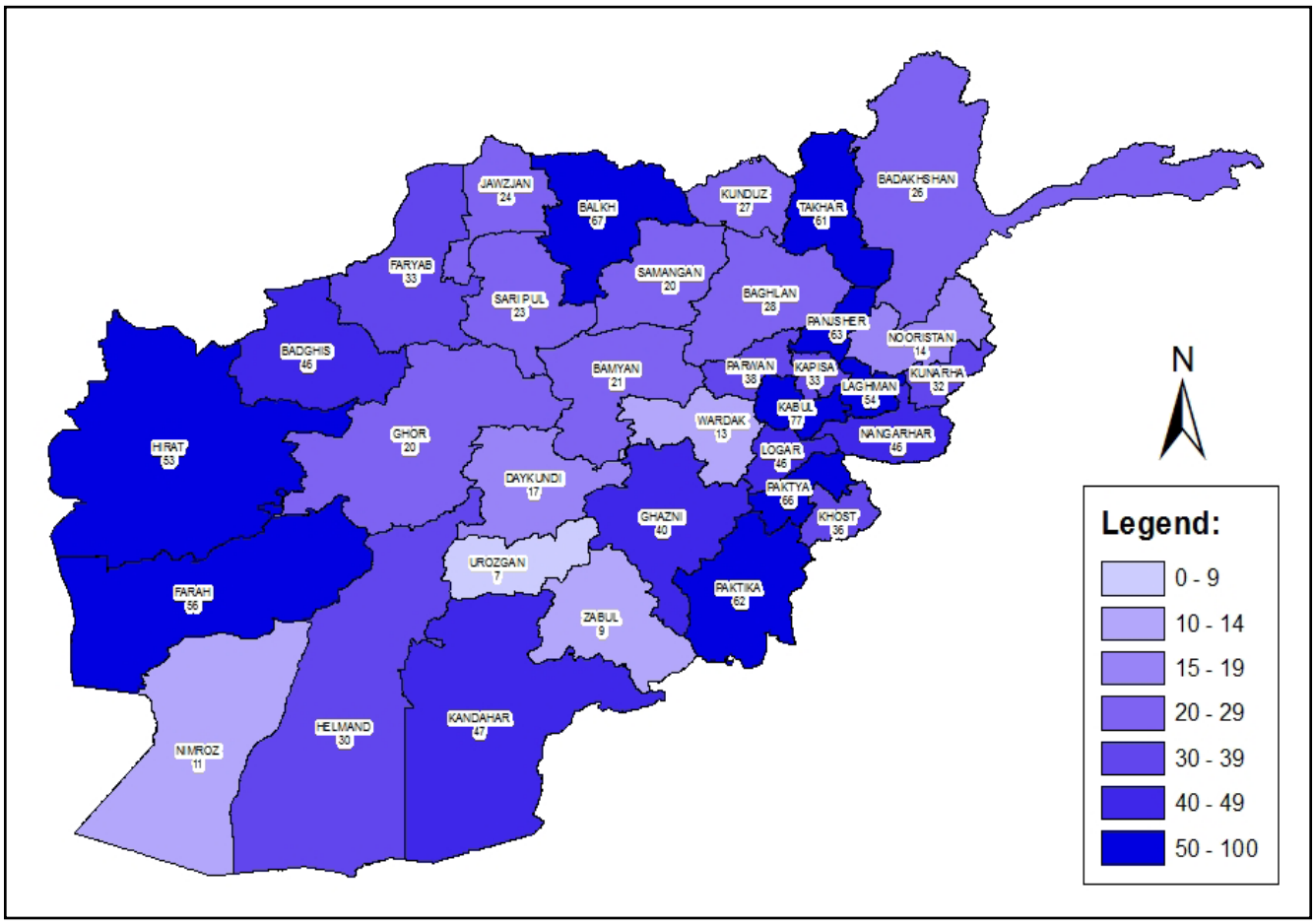
Indicator	Residence			National
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	
Percentage of population with access to improved drinking water source	70.9	39.4	21.0	45.5
Time to reach drinking water source (one way, in minutes)				
Mean time	1	7	18	6
Median time	0	3	10	1

[a]Improved sources of drinking water include: hand pump (private or public), bored wells, protected spring, piped water (private or municipal); un-improved sources include: surface water (open well, unprotected spring, kariz, river, lake, channel, pool, drainage), water tanker, bottled water.

The time to reach the main source of drinking water varies significantly by residence, and especially for rural households. Overall, Afghan household members – usually women and children – have to walk on average six minutes to reach the nearest water point and another six minutes to walk back. This average time hides a substantial variation, as 50 percent of the households need only one minute or less and some 11 percent requires half an hour or more for a return trip (data not shown). For urban households, the mean time to reach the water point is only one minute and close to 80 percent has water in or next to the dwelling. The corresponding share of rural households without travel time is half of this (39 percent) and for Kuchi only 15 percent.

2 Improved sources of drinking water in NRVA include: hand pump (private or public), bored wells, protected spring, piped water (private or municipal); un-improved sources include: surface water (open well, unprotected spring, kariz, river, lake, channel, pool, drainage), water tanker, bottled water.

Figure 10.2: Percentage of households with access to safe drinking water, by province



Sanitation

MDG Indicator 7.9

Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility [3]

8.3 percent

Safe disposal of human excreta creates the first barrier to excreta-related disease, helping to reduce transmission through direct and indirect – for example, animal and insect – routes. The 2011-12 NRVA found that 8.3 percent of the population used improved sanitation facilities (*Table 10.5*).[3] Compared with NRVA 2007-08, the present survey shows relative improvement up from 5 percent, but in absolute terms the share of the population with improved sanitation remained very low.

The most commonly-used sanitation facilities are a covered latrine and open pit (respectively 57 percent and 19 percent; both considered unimproved) (data not shown). Darean and open field or bush (open defecation) are used by 15 percent of the population. The situation for the urban population is considerably better, as here up to 29 percent of the population has access to improved sanitation.

WHO and UNICEF recently apply a more refined definition of the quality of sanitation, by distinguishing private and shared facilities within the category of improved sanitation (WHO-UNICEF 2013). Using this additional criterion, only 6 percent of the population – 19 percent in urban areas, 2 percent in rural areas and none of the Kuchi – rely on the most adequate method for sanitation.

3 Improved sources of drinking water in NRVA include: hand pump (private or public), bored wells, protected spring, piped water (private or municipal); unimproved sources include: surface water (open well, unprotected spring, kariz, river, lake, channel, pool, drainage), water tanker, bottled water.

Table 10.5: Population, by use of improved sanitation[a], access privacy, and by residence (in percentages)

Residence	Use of improved sanitation, access privacy								
	With access			Without access			Total		
	Private	Shared	Total	Private	Shared	Total	Private	Shared	Total
Urban	19.0	10.0	29.1	43.5	27.4	70.9	62.5	37.5	100.0
Rural	1.9	0.5	2.4	68.7	28.9	97.6	70.6	29.4	100.0
Kuchi	0.0	0.0	0.0	24.3	75.7	100.0	24.3	75.7	100.0
National	5.7	2.7	8.3	60.5	31.1	91.7	66.2	33.8	100.0

[a] Improved sanitation includes flush latrine, improved latrine and covered latrine; un-improved sanitation includes open pit, darean and open defecation.

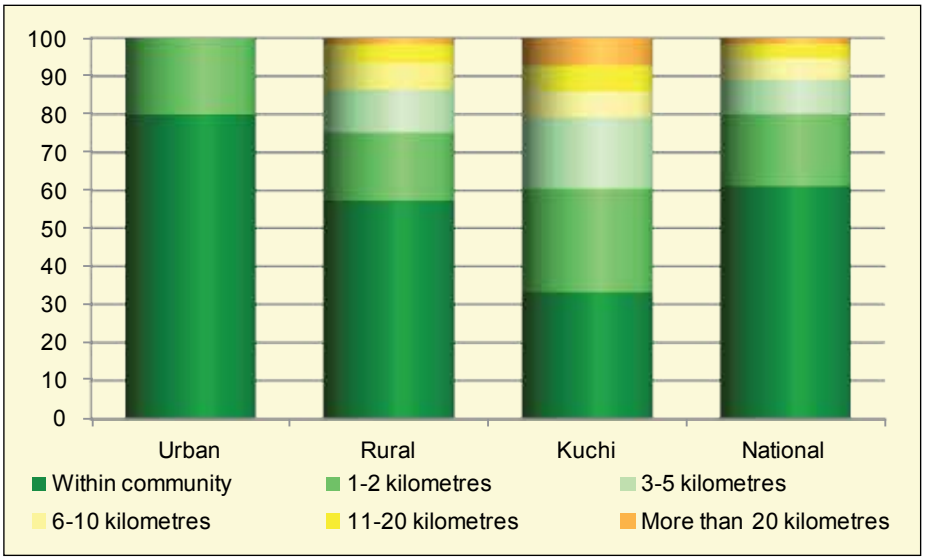
10.3.2 Other household amenities

Road access

For around 10 percent of households it was reported that access to the dwelling was possible by a paved road, whereas 32 percent could only be reached by a footpath. The remainder – 58 percent had direct access by an unpaved road. The accessibility in urban areas is better, as almost one-third of households had access by paved road and only 18 percent could only be accessed by a footpath.

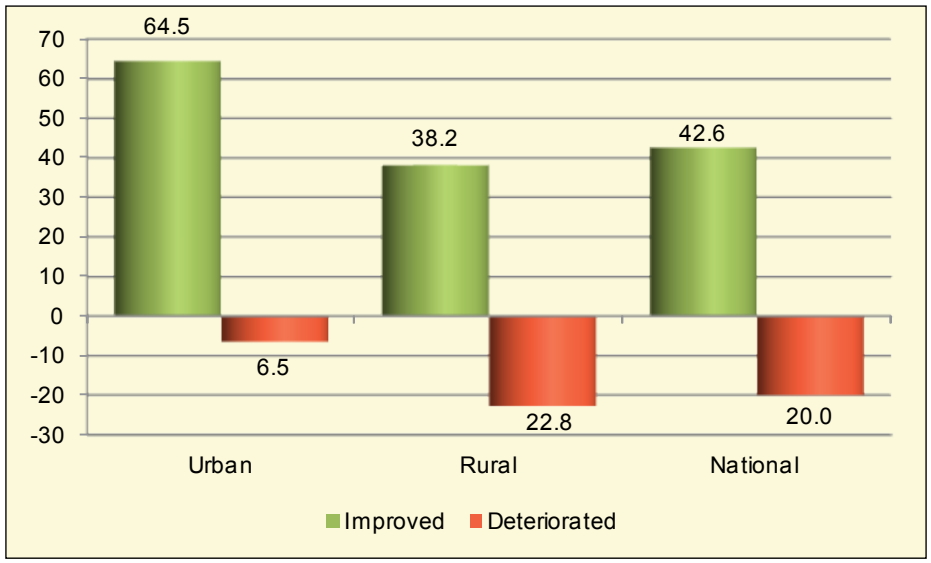
Overall, 61 percent of Afghan households live in a community that can be reached by drivable road and for 80 percent (*Figure 10.3*) the distance to the nearest drivable road is two kilometres or less. For 11 percent of the households this distance is more than five kilometres. However, for about 30 percent of the households, the nearest drivable road to the community is not passable throughout the year and only 59 percent of households have all-year access by drivable road in a distance of two kilometres or less from the community. The period in which most roads are impassable are the winter months of Jady, Dalwa and Hoot (around half-December to half-March), and to a lesser extent late autumn (Qaws – November-December) and early spring (Hamal – March-April). In Badakhshan, Bamyan, Daykundi, Ghor, Nooristan, Panshjer and Zabul more than half of the households cannot use the nearest drivable road in winter time.

Figure 10.3: Households, by distance to the nearest drivable road to the community, and by residence (in percentages)



Nationally, for 43 percent of the households NRVA 2011-12 reports an improvement in road access to the community in the three years preceding the survey (*Figure 10.4*). This is more than twice as much as households for which a deterioration was reported (20 percent), implying a significant overall improvement. Although the net balance for rural communities is positive as well, the road improvement in urban areas was relatively much stronger with 65 percent of households enjoying better access against only 6 percent experiencing a deterioration. The community assessment of development needs (see section 11.4) indicates further improvement of the road infrastructure as one of the most frequently mentioned priorities.

Figure 10.4: Households, by change in condition of the access road to the community, and by residence (in percentages)



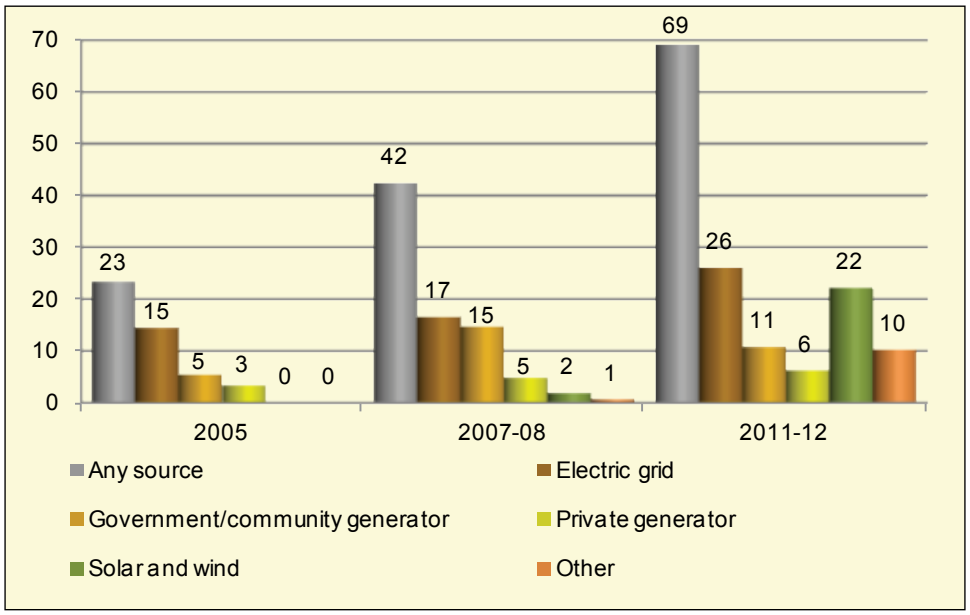
Source of electricity

The number of households that have access to electricity has grown very rapidly since 2005. For that year, NRVA reported 23 percent of households having access to any source of electrical power. The corresponding figures reported by NRVA 2007-08 and 2011-12 increased to, respectively, 42 and 69 percent, a three-fold increase in six years time *(Figure 10.5)*.[4] Around 64 percent of rural households and 95 percent of urban households have access to any source of electricity.

The main sources for which use have increased are the electric grid (from 15 in 2005 to 26 percent in 2011-12) and renewable solar and wind power (mainly solar; from virtually nothing to 22 percent). The electric grid is primarily an urban source of electrical power (44 percent in 2007-08 and 85 percent in 2011-12, compared to the rural figures of, respectively 5 and 9 percent), while solar power is concentrated in rural areas (3 percent in 2007-08 and 29 percent in 2011-12, compared to the urban figures of, respectively 0 and 4 percent).

4 Access to a source of electricity refers to access at any time in the past month.

Figure 10.5: Households, by source of electricity, and by survey year (in percentages)



Fuel for cooking and heating

The use of solid fuels for heating and cooking in homes usually results in incomplete combustion and hence in the emission of hundreds of compounds, some of which may induce cancer and other health problems. It also produces greenhouse gases that contribute to global climate change. The nature of the exposure to indoor air pollution and its consequences for health depends on the interactions between the source of pollution (fuel and stove type), its dispersion (housing structure and ventilation) and when household members are in the home. The type of fuel used in cooking has consistently been the most important predictor of this exposure (United Nations 2003). The proportion of population using solid fuels is included as indicator for MDG 7 – ensuring environmental sustainability – has been removed from the international list of MDG indicators. However, it still figures in the Afghanistan National Development Strategy.

Table 10.6 provides the percentage of the population using solid fuel for both cooking and heating the dwelling in winter time. Almost all households use solid fuel for cooking and heating, except urban households who primarily use gas for cooking (detail not shown). For rural households, bushes, firewood and animal dung – in this order – are the most important cooking fuels, whereas firewood is the preferred fuel for heating, followed by bushes and animal dung. For urban households, next to firewood as the primary source for heating, charcoal is a second important fuel. For Kuchi households animal dung is the most important source for both cooking and heating.

Table 10.6: Population using solid fuels for (a) cooking and (b) heating in winter, by residence (in percentages)

Residence	(a) Cooking	(b) Heating
Urban	32.5	99.1
Rural	93.4	92.3
Kuchi	99.8	100.0
National	79.9	97.4

Information and communication means

Modern information and communication technologies are important instruments in the process of development. Telephones, computers and internet allow people to exchange experiences and learn from each other, enabling higher returns on investment and avoiding problems of duplication or missing information. They can also help people in rural areas to find out about market prices and sell their products at a better price, and can overcome traditional barriers to better education by making books and documentation available online. They can also make governments more transparent, thereby reducing corruption and leading to better governance. The use of these technologies is included as MDG indicators.

The use of mobile phones in Afghanistan is still very low in international comparison: there are only 14 mobile phones per 100 population. The figure in urban areas is almost twice as high (27 per 100 population), but lower for rural and Kuchi populations (respectively 11 and 6 per 100 population). However, the present overall number of 14 implies a significant increased from 6 as reported by NRVA 2007-08.

The use of internet is still reserved for extremely small pockets in the population. Only 5 of every thousand people used internet in the month preceding the survey. This share was 8 per thousand for males, 2 per thousand for females, and 16 per thousand in urban areas. For 2007-08, NRVA reported only 3 internet users per thousand population.

MDG Indicator 8.15	**MDG Indicator 8.16**
Mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants	Internet users per 100 population
14 percent	**0.5 percent**

11 CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES

SUMMARY. *Household and community assessments depict challenging and uncertain living conditions for a large majority of the population in Afghanistan. This situation is based on a wide range of social, economic, natural and other development-related circumstances. Both households and Shuras stress the need for further improvement of a safe drinking water supply. In addition, improvement of road, irrigation, electricity, health and education infrastructure are high on the Afghan wish list.*

Household shocks – risk events with negative outcomes that are outside people's direct control – were experienced by 84 percent of households in the year preceding the survey. The combination of a largely agricultural society, harsh climatic conditions and underdeveloped farming and veterinary support leads to dramatic fluctuations in agricultural production and food prices. As a result of the limited availability of productive employment, many households have resorted to food intake reduction (42 percent of households that experienced a household shock) or other detrimental coping strategies like sale of production means or removing children from school and placing them in low-paid jobs. Decreasing household expenditure (52 percent) and taking out loans or buying on credit (39 percent) are other strategies frequently applied by households experiencing such a shock. The NRVA survey indicates that 55 percent of Afghan households are in debt, to an average amount of 77 thousand Afs. The survey also suggests that various food-for-work, cash-for-work or income-generating programmes employed more than 420 thousand people and benefited 320 thousand households.

11.1 Introduction

Afghanistan is a country with a high-risk profile, due to a combination of climatic and natural circumstances and being a historically grown hotbed of social and political conflict and economic vulnerability. The various indicators reported on in this NRVA volume reveal that a large share of the Afghan population live in difficult circumstances, despite marked improvements in several areas. This last chapter brings together the challenges encountered by households and communities, as well as the strategies that are applied to deal with such challenges.

11.2 Indebted households

A large share of 55 percent of Afghan households were currently indebted at the time of the survey (*Table 11.1*). The mean debt of households with any debt was around 77 thousand Afs. As the median debt was only 40 thousand Afs, this implies quite a large variation of the debt amounts. Although a large share of households had relatively small debts of below 50 thousand Afs, there were still significant numbers of households with large and very large debts.

Table 11.1 also shows considerable differences between urban households on the one hand and rural and Kuchi households on the other. Although the share of indebted households does not differ very much across these groups (from 54 to 59 percent), the amount of debt of urban households is around twice as large as that of rural and Kuchi ones. The former households are much more represented in the categories of high and very high debts.

Table 11.1: Households, by debt status, debt amount (in percentages); also stating debt means (in Afs.)

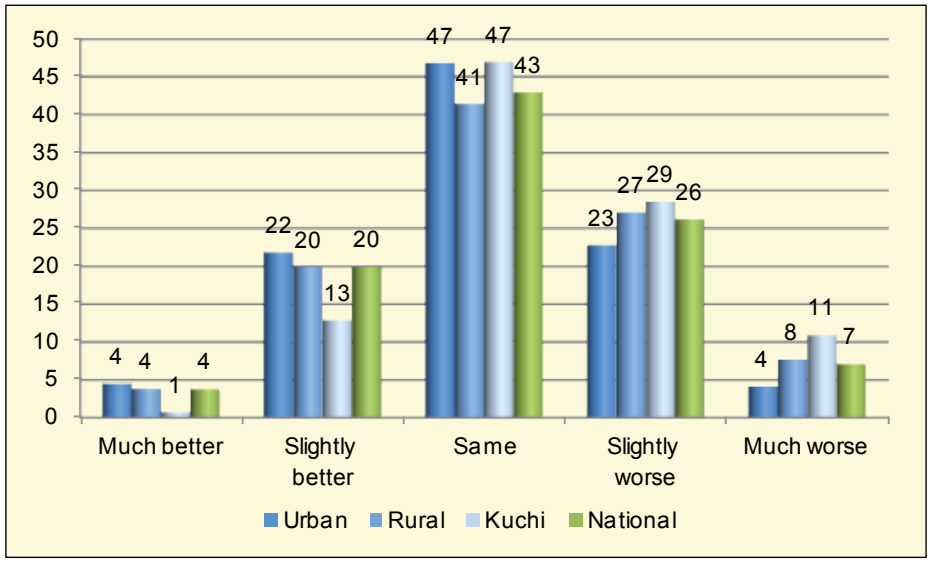
Debt status, debt amount; Debt means	Residence			National
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	
Without debt	46.2	45.1	40.8	45.1
With debt	53.8	54.9	59.2	54.9
Below 25,000	11.4	19.5	24.4	17.9
25,000 - 49,999	7.4	12.7	13.1	11.5
50,000 - 74,999	8.9	9.8	7.3	9.4
75,000 - 124,999	9.1	6.4	6.6	7.0
125,000 - 299,999	9.9	4.5	5.2	5.8
300,000 and over	7.1	2.0	2.6	3.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Debt means of indebted households[a]				
Mean debt	124,359	63,444	64,619	76,800
Median debt	70,000	35,000	30,000	40,000

[a] Applying a 1 percent trimmed mean

Compared to the previous NRVA, the debt situation of households seems to have changed. Although in 2007-08 even more of the households reported being indebted (67 percent), the mean and median debt was significantly lower – 45 and 20 thousand, respectively (data not shown).

The survey respondents also reported about their assessment of any change in the economic situation of the household compared to one year before.[1] A large proportion of 43 percent experienced no change (*Figure 11.1*). Of the 57 percent households for which the economic situation did change, more experienced a deterioration (33 percent) than an improvement (24 percent). Whereas the net balance for urban households was about neutral, rural and especially Kuchi households fared worse: respectively 11 and 26 percent more households reported a deterioration than an improvement.

Figure 11.1: Households, by assessment[a] of their economic situation compared to one year before, and by residence



[a] The assessment is based on the average of male and female reports

1 The presented figures of the economic assessment are based on the average of male and female reports. Gender-specific reports were very similar.

11.3 Household shocks and coping strategies

11.3.1 Household shocks

Like on previous occasions, the present NRVA investigated into the shocks experienced by households in the 12 months preceding the interview. Shocks are considered those events that have negative outcomes and that are outside the direct control of households. These outcomes can be temporary and relatively mild, but they can also shake the very existence of the household and its members, for which no coping strategy can provide an adequate answer.

A basic distinction is made between generic shocks and idiosyncratic shocks. The first relate to general occurrences that can possibly affect an entire community, like floods, livestock diseases, droughts or general insecurity, whereas the second refer to events affecting specific households or persons, such as the death of a household member, loss of employment or a burnt-down home. The box on household shocks below provides the classification of specific shocks into larger categories.[2]

A large majority of 84 percent of households reported the experience of any shock during the year before the survey, which is much more than in 2007-08 (65 percent) and 2005 (45 percent) (*Table 11.2*). The overview of shocks experienced in different years shows large fluctuations, which partly describes the changing situation on the ground and probably partly also a changing perspective or reporting tendency. It can be observed that urban households are less exposed to most shocks than rural and especially Kuchi households.

Household shocks

Drinking water: reduced drinking water quantity and quality.

Agricultural: reduced agricultural water quality and quantity, unusually high level of crop pests and diseases, opium eradication, abandoning opium cultivation, unusually high level of livestock diseases, reduced availability of grazing areas, and reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes.

Natural disasters: earthquakes, landslides and avalanches, flooding, late damaging frosts, heavy rains preventing work, severe winter conditions and hailstorms.

Insecurity: insecurity, violence and theft.

Food and farm gate price: unusually high increases in food prices, unusual decrease in farm gate prices.

Epidemics: unusually high level of human disease.

Idiosyncratic: bankruptcy of family business, serious illness or accident for working household member, death of a working household member, death or illness of other household member, involuntary loss of house or land, involuntary loss of livestock, loss of employment by a household member, reduced salary of a household member.

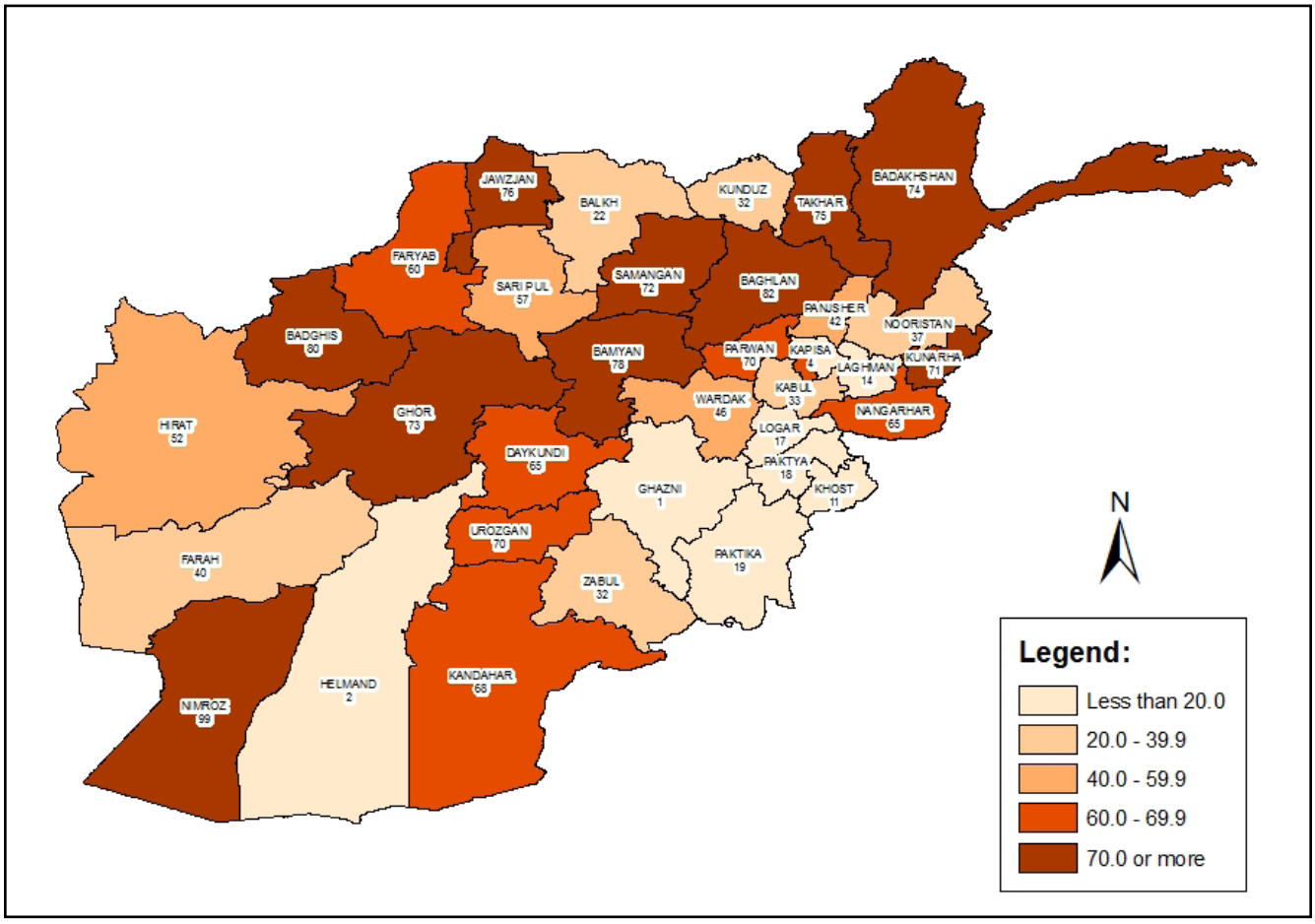
2 For reasons of comparability the category of 'influx of returnee households' is left aside. In 2011-12, 2.8 percent of households reported this as an event that had negative consequences to them.

Table 11.2: Households, by experience of household shocks, and by survey year, residence (in percentages)

Survey year, residence	Generic shocks							
	Any shock	Drinking water	Agricultural	Natural disaster	Security	Food and farm prices	Epidemics	Idiosyncratic shocks
NRVA 2011-12								
Urban	77	36	8	26	6	64	5	23
Rural	85	48	44	38	17	58	13	20
Kuchi	94	78	62	37	32	76	15	38
National	84	47	37	36	15	61	11	22
NRVA 2007-08								
Urban	34	6	5	18	2	4	0	15
Rural	72	21	24	44	13	3	1	31
Kuchi	81	28	48	40	13	1	0	37
National	65	18	22	39	11	3	0	28
NRVA 2005								
Urban	18	23	10	36	9	27	9	26
Rural	51	25	48	55	12	19	10	10
Kuchi	52	30	68	40	9	9	8	15
National	45	25	47	53	11	19	9	11

Particular rises were observed for shocks related to drinking water and food and farm gate prices. This may be related to the drought experienced in the northern provinces in 2011. Next to rise in food prices, the single shocks mentioned most frequently by households were drinking water quantity (40 percent), drinking water quality (35 percent) and agricultural water (26 percent) (data not shown). *Figure 11.2* shows the percentage of households that were affected by drinking water problems for each province. The belt of northern provinces stand out as a region that suffered drought in 2011. With respect to natural disasters, the most commonly encountered problems were severe winter conditions (26 percent), flooding (18 percent), late damaging frosts and heavy rains (both 17 percent).

Figure 11.2: Percentage of households experiencing a drinking water shock in the year before the survey, by province



Actual experience of violence or insecurity occurred to one in seven households (15 percent), which is a slight increase from earlier NRVAs. This fairly corresponds with the rating by household members of the security situation in their district of residence. The male and female household representatives reported in, respectively, 14 and 12 percent of the cases that the district they were living in was considered – moderately or very – insecure. The corresponding figures for – moderately or very – secure districts were 78 percent for both male and female respondents, the remainder being not secure and not insecure. At province level Nooristan, Urozgan and Logar were rated as the most insecure provinces, and Balkh and Panshjer as the most secure. Urban districts were generally rated as much more secure (for around 94 percent of the households) than rural districts (for only 74 percent of the households). A majority of the respondents (around 78 percent) was satisfied with the performance of the police in the district in serving and protecting the people. However, around 10 percent was moderately or very dissatisfied with the police conduct, around 3 percent in urban areas and around 12 percent in rural areas. There is a strong correspondence between areas that are rated as secure and satisfaction with the police.

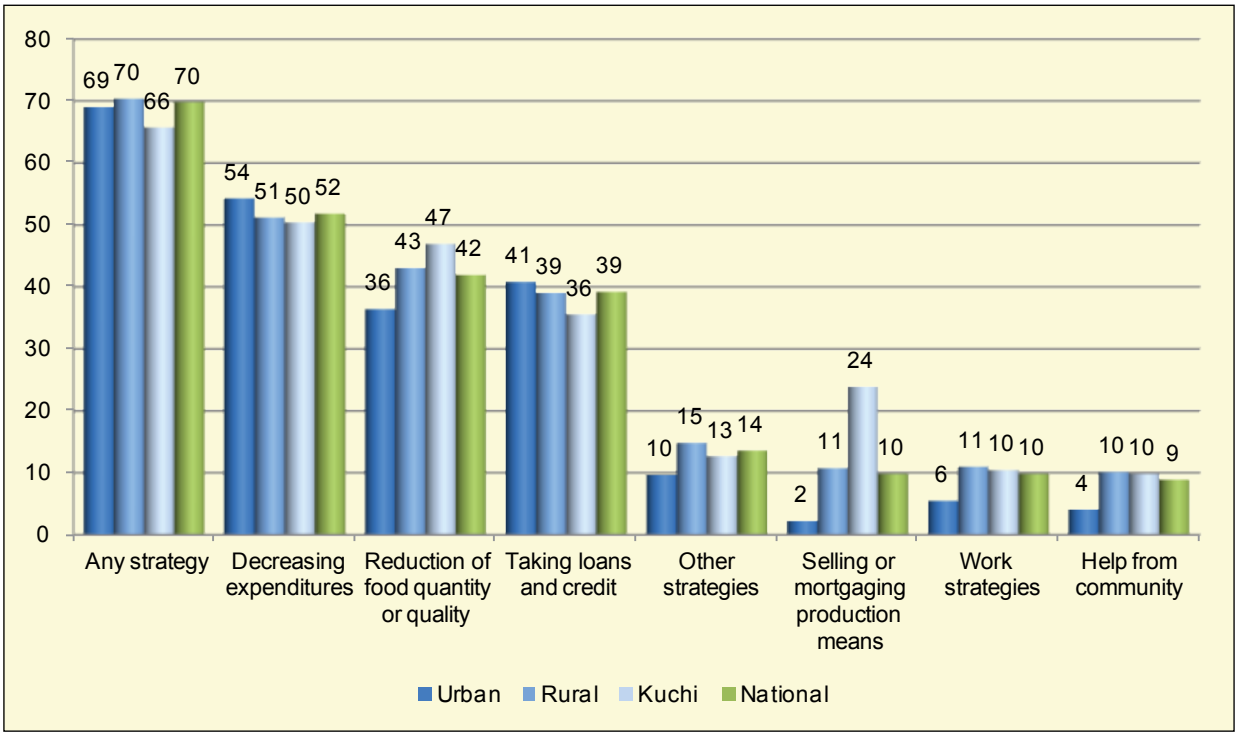
11.3.2 Coping strategies

Depending on the severity of shocks experienced, households need to find strategies to adjust their livelihood in response. If so, households may find resort in a variety of such coping strategies, depending on the nature and severity of shocks the households.

Of all households that experienced one or more shocks in the year before the survey, 74 percent mentioned not having fully recovered (data not shown) and 70 percent applied any coping strategy to mitigate the situation (*Figure 11.3*). The most common strategies were decrease of expenditures (52 percent), food reduction (42 percent, mostly in terms of reduced quality) and taking loans or buying on credit (39 percent). However, for those households that were affected by

food price increases, food reduction (64 percent) is the most common coping strategy. Households that applied food-reduction strategies at any time represent 9.5 million people.

Figure 11.3: Percentage of households applying coping strategies, by residence



Transferring the house or production means (renting, mortgaging or selling the house, land or female reproductive livestock), was another main strategy for Kuchi households (for 24 percent of those that experienced any shock), and to a lesser extent for rural households (11 percent). Despite the short-term mitigating effect of this strategy, it may severely undermine the longer-term capability of the household to recover and improve their economic position. Strategies that directly affected the wellbeing of children included dropping children from school (by 6 percent of households that experienced any shocks), increasing child labour (7 percent) and selling child brides (1 percent) (data not shown).

A small percentage of households that suffered from shocks (2.4 percent) mentioned working in relief programmes as a specific coping strategy, but 9 percent of all households – representing around 320 thousand households – reported that one or more members participated in any such relief programme. The survey results suggest that some 424 thousand persons worked in food-for-work, cash-for-work or income-generating programmes. Compared to NRVA 2007-08 (280 thousand) this suggests a significant increase in the number of households that benefited from such programmes.

11.4 Community development priorities

In most communities in which the survey was conducted, male and female Shuras were interviewed to obtain their views about development priorities to which the government should pay attention. *Figure 11.4* gives an insight into the different community priorities by residence and gender. Despite the marked progress made in drinking water supply (see section 10.3.1), this remains the concern that was most often mentioned as the first priority for improvement. This is particularly the case for urban and Kuchi populations, and more so for women than for men (31 against 26 percent). The latter difference might be related to the larger female burden of collecting water and water treatment.

The second development issue that is most frequently mentioned as first priority by women is improvement of health facilities (by 17 percent of the female Shuras) and by men improvement of road infrastructure (by 21 percent of the male Shuras). Whereas the male Shuras did not differentiate between improvement for male and female health facilities, the female Shuras mentioned general health facilities as often as health facilities specifically for women (data not shown). This indicates that particularly for women access to health services is a major concern. It can also be noted that the need for health facility improvement is concentrated in rural areas and is much less an issue in urban areas.

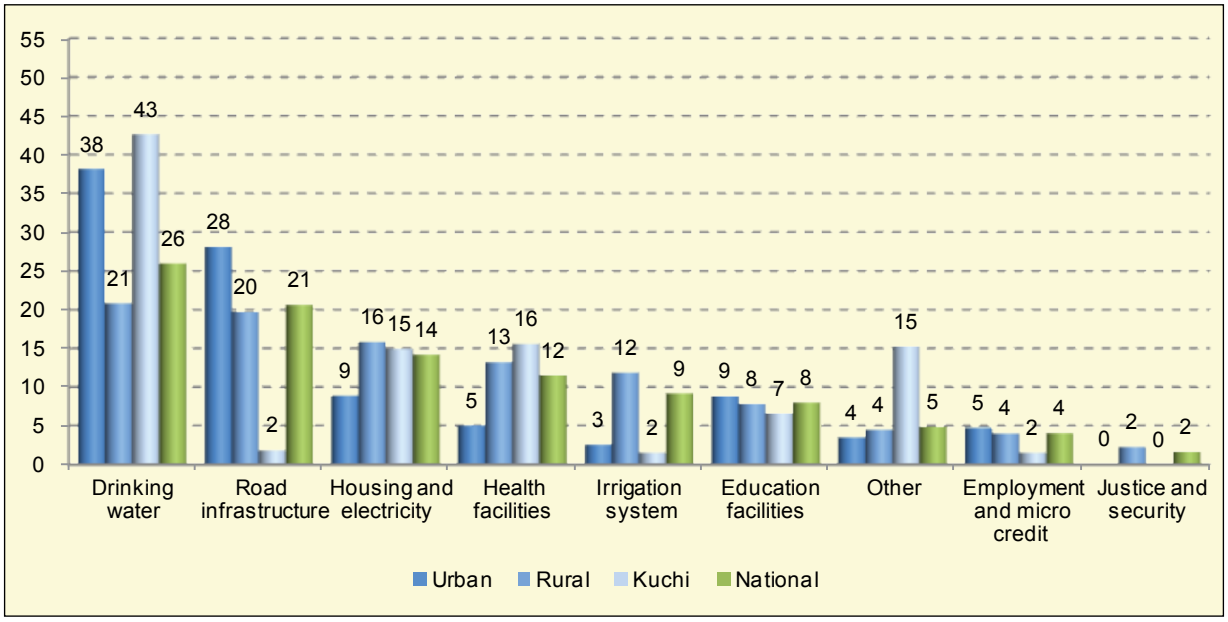
Housing and – particularly – electricity as first development priority is mentioned next often, and about as often by men and women (13-14 percent). Again, this is an issue less important in urban than in rural areas. It should be noted that electricity provision – together with health care – is consistently among the most mentioned second and third priorities (data not shown). The repair of the irrigation system is particularly a rural male issue and hardly figures for women and urban and Kuchi populations. In the NRVA 2007-08 the reconstruction of the irrigation system was still the most frequently mentioned priority, even at national level.

Education – covering basic education, literacy training and vocational training – is a further main development priority, but more for women (12 percent) than for men (8 percent). In addition, whereas the male and female Shuras more or less alike report the need for basic education for both girls and boys, female Shuras also specifically call for attention to literacy and vocational skills training for women (data not shown).

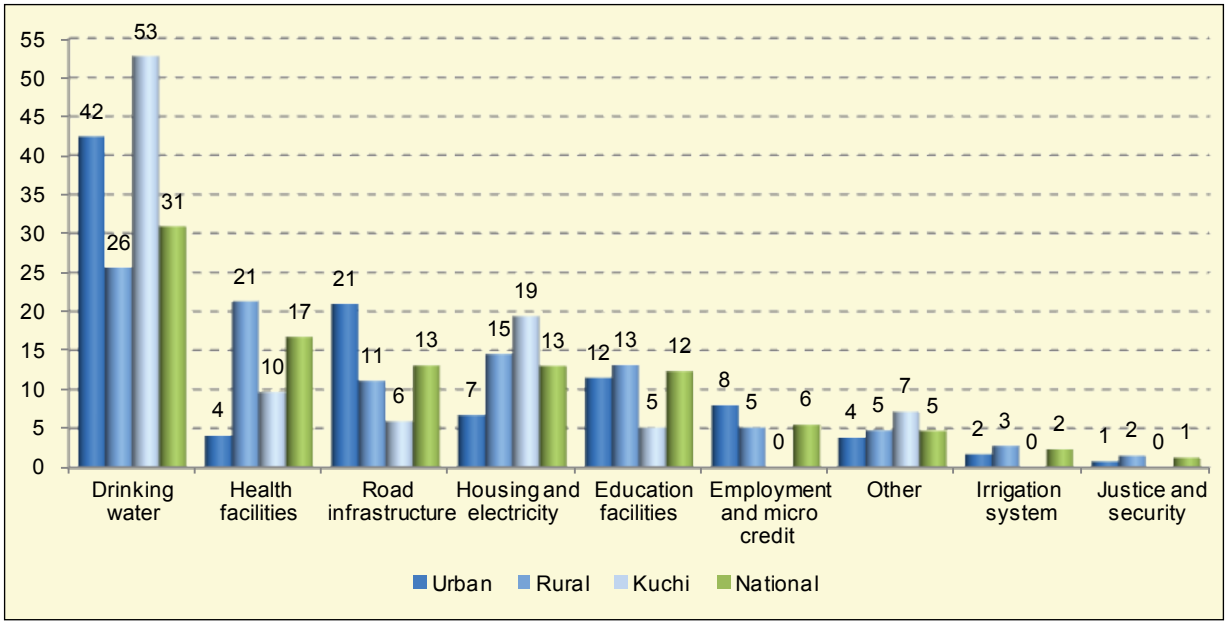
With regard to remaining development priorities, the most notable result is the importance of veterinary services for the Kuchi population, which explains the high value in the ‘Other’ category for the male Shuras. Employment opportunities and justice and security are not mentioned very often as first development priorities. This may either mean that the issue is not of primary importance or that communities do not see a major role for the government in improving the situation in these areas.

Figure 11.4: Households, by first community development priority[a] for (a) male Shuras and (b) female Shuras, and by residence (in percentages)

(a) Male Shuras



(b) Female Shuras



a Drinking water: improved quality and quantity of drinking water; Road infrastructure: repair and construction of local roads and bridge construction/ rehabilitation; Housing and electricity: new/improved housing and electricity provision; Health facilities: New/improved local health facilities for women, for men and for women and men; Irrigation system: rehabilitation of the irrigation system; Education facilities: new/improved local education facilities for girls, for boys, for girls and boys, literacy training for women, for men and for women and men, vocational skills training for women, for men and for women and men; Employment and micro credit: increased employment opportunities for women, for men and for women and men, new/ improved micro-credit schemes; Justice and security: reformed/improved local justice systems, local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms and disarmament of local militia/commanders; Other: improved veterinary services, various.

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ANNEX I PERSONS INVOLVED IN NRVA 2011-12

I.1 CSO staff

Mohammad Sami Nabi	-	Project Leader / Head of Field Operation and Sampling Department
Ahmad Khalid "Amarkhel"	-	Lead Statistician
Tamim Ahmad "Shakeb"	-	Admin Officer
Hafiz Saadat	-	Database Manager / Field Operations Director (to December 2011)
Esmatullah "Hakimi"	-	Field Operations Director (from December 2011)
Mohammad Muneer "Jamshidi"	-	Data Checking Supervisor
Abdul Ahmad "Sherzai"	-	Support Staff
Mohammad Sadeq "Sediqi"	-	Data Quality Checker
Ahmad Sameer "Samadi"	-	Data Quality Checker
Mohammad Aman "Rahimi"	-	Data Quality Checker
Mohammad Waheed Ibrahimi	-	Database Director
Ahmad Zubair “Sarwary”	-	Data Entry Director
Shakeeba “Rahimi”	-	GIS Director
Ghulam Hazrat “Faqiri”	-	Deputy Director Field Operations and Sampling
Sayed Ali Aqa “Hashimi”	-	Head of Data Processing
Nargiss "Akbar"	-	Secretary
Masjedy “Mohammadi”	-	Driver

I.2 ICON

Inga Korte	-	Project Manager (to November 2011)
Christophe Dietrich	-	Project Manager (from November 2011)
Jan Bartlema	-	Team Leader
Bart de Bruijn	-	Chief Analyst / Editor
Ahmad Tariq Wardak	-	Database Consultant
Tarana Feroz	-	Financial Manager
Ahmad Fawad “Barakati”	-	Driver (to November 2011)
Samiullah Zazai	-	Driver (from November 2011)

I.3 Steering Committee

H.E.Abdul Rahman Ghafoori, President General CSO
Prof. Hasibullah Mowahed, Deputy President General CSO
Mr. Giacomo Miserocchi, Attaché Rural Development, EU Delegation to Afghanistan
Mr. Wali Mohammed Farhodi, Programme Manager - Rural Development, EU Delegation to Afghanistan
Mr. Amanullah Assil, Programme Officer, WFP-VAM
Mr. Abdul Rehman Shekib, AIRD Executive Director, MRRD
Mrs. Siping Wang, Chief PME, UNICEF
Mr. Esmatullah Ramzi, Advisor to the President General, CSO
Mr. Mohammad Sami Nabi, Head of Field and Sampling Department, CSO
Dr. Prafulla Chandra Mishra, Capacity Development Advisor, CSO
Mr. Safdar Rajabekof, SRF Project Coordinator, CSO
And non-disclosed others

I.4 Technical Advisory Committee

H.E. Abdul Rahman Ghafoori, President General CSO
Prof. Hasibullah Mowahed, Deputy President General CSO
Mr. Esmatullah Ramzi, Advisor to the President General, CSO
Mr. Mohammad Sami Nabi, Head of Field and Sampling Department, CSO
Dr. Prafulla Chandra Mishra, Capacity Development Advisor, CSO
Mr. Amanullah Assil, Programme Officer, WFP-VAM
Dr. Dean Joliffe, Senior Economist, Economic Policy and Poverty Team (SASEP), South Asia Region, World Bank
Dr. Silvia Redaelli, Economist, Economic Policy and Poverty Team, World Bank
Dr. Jan Bartlema, Team Leader NRVA 2011-12, ICON
Dr. Bart de Bruijn, Chief Analyst/Editor NRVA 2011-12, ICON
And non-disclosed others

ANNEX II SUBJECT COVERAGE IN NRVA 2007-08 TO 2015-16

Subject	NRVA round				
	2007-08	2011-12	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16
Household structure	X	X	X	X	X
Housing and amenities	X	X	X	X	X
Livestock	X	X	Reduced	X	Reduced
Agriculture	X	Reduced	X	Reduced	X
Labour	X	Reduced	Expanded	X	Expanded
Child labour	X	-	Expanded	-	Expanded
Poverty	X	X	Reduced	X	Reduced
Food security	X	X	Reduced	X	Reduced
Education	X	X	X	X	X
Migration	X	Reduced	Expanded	Reduced	Reduced
Disability	X	-	-	X	-
Child health	X	Reduced	-	X	Reduced
Maternal health	X	Reduced	Reduced	X	X
Fertility and mortality	X	Reduced	-	X	-
Gender	X	-	X	-	-
Shocks and coping	X	X	X	X	X

X – NRVA 2007-08 coverage level
Reduced – Reduced coverage
Expanded – Expanded coverage

N.B. Survey rounds 2007-08 and 2011-12 have been implemented, rounds 2013-14 to 2015-16 are scheduled

ANNEX III NRVA 2011-12 QUESTIONNAIRES

III.a Household questionnaire

National Risk and Vulnerability Survey (NRVA) 1389-90

Afghanistan's Multi-Purpose Household Survey

Household questionnaire

1. Household identification

Supervisor-filled information		Interviewer-filled information	
1.1	Cluster code	1.8	Geo reference waypoint code
1.2	Residentce code (Urban ..... 1, Rural ..... 2, Kuchi ..... 3)	1.9	GPS ID code
1.3	Province name	1.10	Latitude Range: 29.35 to 38.40 N
1.4	District name	1.11	Longitude Range: 60.31 to 75.00 E
1.5	Urban Nahia	1.12	Altitude (m.) Range: 200 to 4500 m.
1.6	Control and Enumeration Area	1.13	Household number (1-15)
1.7	Village name	1.14	Name of head of household
		1.15	Head's father's name
			If respondent is not the head of household, fill 1.16 and 1.17
		1.16	Respondent's name
		1.17	Respondent's line number
		1.18	Door number (from tracking sheet)

2. Process monitoring

2.1	Date of interview	Day		Month		Year	
2.2	Interviewers' number	Male interviewer			Female interviewer		
2.3	Supervisor's number			2.4	Regional Supervisor's number		
2.5	Date of office editing	Day		Month		Year	
2.6	Office editor's code						
2.7	Date of data entry	Day		Month		Year	
2.8	Data-entry officer code						

3. Household roster

INTERVIEWER: We would like to start with some information about the people who usually live and sleep in this household, starting with the head of the household. Please mention all people who usually stay here, including babies and infants, and people who are not immediate kin.

3.1 Line no.	3.2 Write the name of each household member	3.3 What is the relationship of <name> to the head of house-hold? For codes, see below	3.4 Is <name> male or female? 1=Male 2=Female	3.5 How old was <name>? on his/her last birthday? If less than one year, write '00'	3.6 What is <name's> marital or engagement status? For codes, see below If not married, go to 3.8	3.7 Line number of (first) spouse If 'Not in this household', write '99'	3.8 Does <name's> father live in this house-hold? 1=Yes 2=No If 'No', go to 3.10	3.9 Line number of this father	3.10 Does <name's> mother live in this house-hold? 1=Yes 2=No If 'No', go to next line	3.11 Line number of this mother
01		1	1 2				1 2		1 2	
02			1 2				1 2		1 2	
03			1 2				1 2		1 2	
04			1 2				1 2		1 2	
05			1 2				1 2		1 2	
06			1 2				1 2		1 2	
07			1 2				1 2		1 2	
08			1 2				1 2		1 2	
09			1 2				1 2		1 2	
10			1 2				1 2		1 2	
11			1 2				1 2		1 2	
12			1 2				1 2		1 2	
13			1 2				1 2		1 2	
14			1 2				1 2		1 2	
15			1 2				1 2		1 2	
16			1 2				1 2		1 2	
17			1 2				1 2		1 2	

Codes for 3.3 (Relationship to head of household)

1 = Household head
2 = Wife or husband
3 = Son or daughter
4 = Son-/daughter-in-law
5 = Grandchild
6 = Father or mother
7 = Nephew or niece
8 = Brother or sister
9 = Brother-/sister-in-law
10 = Other relative
11 = Unrelated member

Codes for 3.6 (Marital status)

1 = Married
2 = Divorced, separated
3 = Widowed
4 = Never married, but engaged
5 = Never married, not engaged

4. Housing and amenities

4.1	What type of dwelling best describes your current dwelling?	Single family house ..... 1 Part of a shared house ..... 2 Separate apartment ..... 3 Shared apartment ..... 4 Tent ..... 5 Temporary shelter/shack ..... 6 Other 7	Go to 4.6
4.2	What is the major construction material of the exterior walls of the dwelling, in the main living area of the family?	Fired brick/stone ..... 1 Concrete ..... 2 Wood ..... 3 Mud bricks/mud ..... 4 Stone/mud ..... 5 Other 6	
4.3	What is the major construction material of the roof of the dwelling that protects the main living area of the family from rain?	Concrete ..... 1 Wood ..... 2 Tin/metal ..... 3 Mud bricks/mud ..... 4 Other 5	
4.4	What is the major construction material of the floor of this dwelling, in the main living area of the family?	Dirt/earth ..... 1 Concrete/tile ..... 2 Other 3	
4.5	When was this dwelling constructed?	Less than 2 years ago ..... 1 2-4 years ago ..... 2 5-9 years ago ..... 3 10-19 years ago ..... 4 20-29 years ago ..... 5 More than 30 years ago ..... 6 Don't know 7	
4.6	How did you acquire this dwelling or what is the occupancy status?	Inheritance or from family ..... 1 Purchased dwelling ..... 2 Constructed dwelling ..... 3 Caretaker ..... 4 Mortgaging ..... 5 Relative or friend of owner ..... 6 Own - given free, charity ..... 7 Tenant (renting) ..... 8 Other 9	Go to 4.8
4.7	How much money per month does your household pay to live in this dwelling? Afs. ☐☐,☐☐☐ (If pay in goods or services, estimate the value per month)		Go to 4.9
4.8	If you were to purchase this dwelling today, how much would it cost? ☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐ IF 'DON'T KNOW', WRITE '888'		
4.9	What kind of kitchen/cooking facilities does this dwelling have?	Kitchen is separate room in dwelling ..... 1 Kitchen is part of a room in the dwelling (or part of the tent) 2 Cooking room is in a separate room outside the dwelling .... 3 Cooking done in the open ..... 4 Other 5	
4.10	How many rooms does your household occupy (exclude corridors, balconies)? ☐☐ FOR KUCHI HOUSEHOLDS LIVING IN TENTS, RECORD NUMBER OF TENTS		

4.11	INTERVIEWER: RECORD ACCESS TO DWELLING		Footpath ..... 1 Unpaved road ..... 2 Paved road 3	
4.12	Has your household had electrictiy at any time in the past month from any of these sources? INTERVIEWER: READ ALL OPTIONS a-i		Yes No a Electric grid ..... 1 2 b Government generator ..... 1 2 c Private generator (engine) ..... 1 2 d Private generator (hydro) ..... 1 2 e Community generator (engine) .. 1 2 f Community generator (hydro) .. .. 1 2 g Solar ..... 1 2 h Wind ..... 1 2 i Battery 1 2	
4.13	In the past month, what has been the household's main source of cooking fuel?		Animal dung ..... 1 Bushes (ping), twigs/branches ..... 2 Firewood ..... 3 Crop residue, trash ..... 4 Charcoal, coal ..... 5 Kerosene or oil ..... 6 Gas ..... 7 Electricity ..... 8 Other 9	
4.14	What is the main source of heating for this house in winter?		No heating in house ..... 1 Bushes(ping), twigs/branches, straw 2 Firewood ..... 3 Animal dung ..... 4 Crop residue, trash ..... 5 Charcoal, coal ..... 6 Kerosene, diesel, petrol ..... 7 Gas ..... 8 Electricity ..... 9 Other 10	
4.15	How much did this household spend in the last month for each type of fuel used in the household? (in Afghanis) READ ALL QUESTIONS a-f IF HOUSEHOLD DID NOT SPEND ON A SPECIFIC TYPE OF FUEL, WRITE '0' IF 'DON'T KNOW', WRITE '888'		a Electricity ..... , b Gas ..... , c Fuel, oil ..... , d Firewood ..... , e Charcoal, coal ..... , f Ping, straw, manure .. ,	
4.16	What main toilet facility does your household use?		Open pit ..... 1 Traditional covered latrine ..... 2 Improved latrine ..... 3 Flush latrine ..... 4 None (open field, bush) or sahrahi .. 5 Dearan (not pit) ..... 6 Other 7	Go to 4.18
4.17	Is the toilet facility shared with other households?		Yes ..... 1 No 2	

4.18	What is the main source of drinking water for members of your household in the past month?	Open well - public ..... 1 Open well - private ..... 2 Hand pump - public ..... 3 Hand pump - private ..... 4 Bored wells (motorised/hand pump) . 5 Spring - unprotected ..... 6 Spring - protected ..... 7 Piped - private ..... 8 Piped - municipal ..... 9 Kariz ..... 10 River, lake, channel, pool, drainage . 11 Water tanker ..... 12 Bottled water, mineral water ..... 13 Other, specify 14	
4.19	How much did you pay (or will you pay) for water from this drinking water source for the last month? (in Afghanis) IF NO PAYMENT, WRITE '0' IF 'DON'T KNOW', WRITE '888'	,___	
4.20	How many minutes does it take to walk, one way, to this main source of water? IF DO NOT HAVE TO WALK, WRITE '0' IF 'DON'T KNOW', WRITE '888'	___	

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

5. Livestock

5.1	Does any member of your household own any livestock, including poultry at the present time?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 5.10

5.2 5.3	5.2: How many of the following animals does your household own today?	5.3: How many of these <animal type> are productive females?
	IF NO ANIMALS OF SPECIFIC TYPE OWNED, WRITE '0' FOR QUESTION 5.2 AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT TYPE IF ANY ANIMALS OF SPECIFIC TYPE OWNED, WRITE NUMBER IN QUESTION 5.2 AND ASK QUESTION 5.3	
	a Cattle (meat and dairy)	Cattle (meat and dairy) .....
	b Oxen, yaks	
	c Horses	
	d Donkeys	
	e Camels	
	f Goats	Goats .....
	g Sheep	Sheep .....
	h Chickens	Chickens .....
	i Turkeys, ducks, geese, other birds	Turkeys, ducks, geese, other birds

5.4	Do you have access to animal feed concentrate?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	
5.5	In the past 12 months, have you vaccinated any of your livestock or poultry?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 5.7
5.6	Which type of livestock have you vaccinated in the past 12 months? ASK FOR ALL TYPES OF LIVESTOCK a-e MENTIONED	Yes No a Cattle ..... 1 2 b Sheep ..... 1 2 c Goats ..... 1 2 d Poultry ..... 1 2 e Other livestock 1 2	
5.7	Did your household obtain information on livestock, medicine for livestock or veterinary help in the last 12 months?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 5.9
5.8	What was the main type of veterinary service provider that your household used?	Goverment veterinary service ..... 1 VFU (Veterinary Field Unit) ..... 2 Other NGO veterinary service ..... 3 Private veterinary service ..... 4 Other 5	Go to 5.10
5.9	What was the main reason you did not use any advice or help from veterinary services in the past 12 months?	Did not need service ..... 1 Had too few animals/poultry ..... 2 Could not afford / too expensive .... 3 Too far away ..... 4 Do not know how to find/obtain ..... 5 Provider would not work with me .... 6 Other 7	
5.10	Did your household sell any live animals in the past 12 months?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 5.12

5.11	How many of the following live animals did you sell in the last 12 months? ASK FOR EACH OF THE LIVESTOCK a-i MENTIONED WRITE '0' IF NO ANIMAL SOLD	a Cattle ……. ☐☐☐ b Oxen, yaks ……. ☐☐ c Horses ……. ☐☐ d Donkeys ……. ☐☐ e Camels ……. ☐☐ f Goats ……. ☐,☐☐ g Sheep ……. ☐,☐☐ h Chickens ……. ☐,☐☐ i Turkeys, ducks, geese, other birds ,☐☐	
5.12	Did your household sell any animal products in the past 12 months, like milk, meat, poultry, wool, cashmere, hides or eggs?	Yes ……. 1 No ……. 2	Go to next module
5.13	What quantity of <item> did you sell in the last 12 months? ASK FOR EACH OF THE PRODUCE a-f MENTIONED IF ITEM NOT SOLD, WRITE '0' AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT ITEM	a Milk ……Liters ☐,☐☐ b Meat from sheep, goats, cattle, horses, etc. ..Kg. ☐,☐☐ c Meat from poultry (chicken, geese, etc.) …….Kg. ☐,☐☐ d Wool, cashmere ……. Kg. ☐☐☐ e Furs, skins, hides, leather ……. Pieces ☐☐☐ f Eggs …….. Number ☐,☐☐	

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

6. Agriculture

INTERVIEWER: Now, I would ask you some questions about land ownership and access to agricultural land in the most recent spring cultivation season

6.1	Does any of your household members **own** agricultural land or a garden plot?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.5
	How many jeribs of each of the following types of land is **owned** by this household? IF NO LAND OF A SPECIFIC TYPE OWNED, WRITE '0.0'		
6.2	Irrigated land	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐	
6.3	Rain-fed land	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐	
6.4	Garden plot	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐	Go to 6.6
6.5	Did anyone in your household have access to agricultural land or a garden plot - without owning it - in the most recent spring cultivating season?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to next module
6.6	Did anyone in your household have access to any irrigated land - owned or not owned - in the most recent spring cultivation season, excluding a garden plot?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.18
6.7	How many jeribs of irrigated land - without garden plot - did members of your household together cultivate in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐ IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	
6.8	How many jeribs of irrigated land did your household leave fallow in the main spring cultivation season?	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐ IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.10
6.9	What was the main reason for not cultivating the irrigated land in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Lack of water ..... 1 Lack of money to provide water .... 2 No budget for cultivation ..... 3 Conflict over water or land ..... 4 Security concerns ..... 5 Land not fertile ..... 6 Shifting cultivation ..... 7 Other 8	
6.10	What was the most important crop you harvested from the last spring cultivation season?	FOR CODES, SEE AT BOTTOM OF PAGE ☐☐	
6.11	How much of this <most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ☐☐,☐☐☐	
6.12	What was the second most important crop you harvested from the last spring cultivation season?	FOR CODES, SEE AT BOTTOM OF PAGE ☐☐ IF NO SECOND CROP, WRITE '00'	If '0.0', go to 6.16
6.13	How much of this <second-most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ☐☐,☐☐☐	
6.14	What was the third most important crop you harvested from the last spring cultivation season?	FOR CODES, SEE AT BOTTOM OF PAGE ☐☐ IF NO THIRD CROP, WRITE '00'	If '0.0', go to 6.16
6.15	How much of this <third-most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ☐☐,☐☐☐	

Codes for 6.10 - 6.12 and 6.14 (Harvested crops)

1=Wheat	5=Flax	8=Millet	12=Kourgit	16=Tomato	20=Fruit/nut trees
2=Maize/sorghum	6=Sugar cane/beet	9=Cotton	13=Potatoes	17=Onions	21=Melon/watermelon
3=Barley	7=Alfalfa/clover/ other fodder	10=Opium	14=Beans	18=Okra	22=Other fruits
4=Rice		11=Cumin	15=Eggplant	19=Other vegetables	23=Other crop

6.16	What was the main source of irrigation for the majority of the irrigated land you cultivated during the spring cultivation season?	Irrigated river, canal, dam ..... 1 Irrigated deep-well pump ..... 2 Spring ..... 3 Kariz ..... 4 Nawara ..... 5 Absialab, snow melt, flood ..... 6 Other 7	
6.17	In the past spring cultivation season, did you have sufficient irrigation for your irrigated crops?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	

6.18	Did anyone in your household have access to any rain-fed land - owned or not owned - in the most recent spring cultivation season, excluding a garden plot?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.28
6.19	How many jeribs of rain-fed land - without garden plot - did members of your household together cultivate in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐ IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	
6.20	How many jeribs of rain-fed land did your household leave fallow in the main spring cultivation season?	Jeribs ☐☐,☐☐☐.☐ IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.22
6.21	What was the main reason for not cultivating the rain-fed land in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Lack of rain ..... 1 No budget for cultivation ..... 2 Conflict over ownership ..... 3 Security concerns ..... 4 Land not fertile ..... 5 No manpower to help ..... 6 Other 7	
6.22	What was the most important crop you harvested in the most recent spring cultivation season from rain-fed land?	Wheat ..... 1 Barley ..... 2 Maize / sorghum ..... 3 Cotton ..... 4 Flax ..... 5 Cumin ..... 6 Melon / watermelon ..... 7 Other crop 8	
6.23	How much of this <most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ☐☐,☐☐☐	
6.24	What was the second most important crop you harvested in the most recent spring cultivation season from rain-fed land?	Wheat ..... 1 Barley ..... 2 Maize / sorghum ..... 3 Cotton ..... 4 Flax ..... 5 Cumin ..... 6 Melon / watermelon ..... 7 Other crop ..... 8 No second-most important crop 9	Go to 6.28
6.25	How much of this <second-most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ☐☐,☐☐☐	

6.26	What was the third most important crop you harvested from the most recent spring cultivation season from rain-fed land?	Wheat ..... 1 Barley ..... 2 Maize / sorghum ..... 3 Cotton ..... 4 Flax ..... 5 Cumin ..... 6 Melon / watermelon ..... 7 Other crop ..... 8 No third-most important crop 9	Go to 6.28
6.27	How much of this <third-most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ,	

6.28	Did your household have acces to a garden plot in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.34
6.29	How many jeribs of garden plot did your household cultivate in the most recent spring cultivation season?	Jeribs . IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '00', go to 6.34
6.30	What was the most important crop you harvested in the last spring cultivation season from the garden plot?	Fruit / nut trees ..... 1 Grapes ..... 2 Other fruits ..... 3 Maize / sorghum ..... 4 Alfalfa/clover/other fodder ..... 5 Shakarpara ..... 6 Other (specify) 7	
6.31	How much of this <most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ,	
6.32	What was the second most important crop you harvested in the last spring cultivation season from the garden plot?	Fruit / nut trees ..... 1 Grapes ..... 2 Other fruits ..... 3 Maize / sorghum ..... 4 Alfalfa/clover/other fodder ..... 5 Shakarpara ..... 6 Other (specify) ..... 7 No second-most important crop 8	Go to 6.34
6.33	How much of this <second-most important crop> did you harvest?	Kgs. ,	

6.34	What was the total amount of money you spent on agricultural input on the following (a-f): WRITE '00' IF NO MONEY SPENT ON AN ITEM	Afghanis
	a Seeds	,
	b Water	,
	c Fertilisers (UREA/DAP) and pesticides	,
	d Labour costs (e.g. for weeding)	,
	e Machine/tractor rent	,
	f Other input costs	,

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

7. Household assets

7.1 How many of the following items does your household own?

Item	Item code	No. of pieces
Refrigerator	1	
Stove / gas balloon	2	
Sewing machine	3	
Iron	4	
Radio, tape recorder	5	
Total items A		

	Item code	No. of pieces
TV	6	
VCR/DVD	7	
Satellite phone	8	
Electric fan	9	
Bicycle	10	
Total items B		

Item	Item code	No. of pieces
Motorcycle	11	
Car	12	
Tractor / thresher	13	
Total items C		

7.2 **Grand total of A+B+C** ..... ☐☐

INTERVIEWER: LIST ALL THE ITEMS IDENTIFIED IN QUESTION 7.1 WITH THE CODE NUMBER BELOW.
THE LIST SHOULD HAVE THE SAME NUMBER AS THE GRAND TOTAL OF QUESTION 7.2.
THEN ASK QUESTIONS 7.3-7.5 FOR EACH LISTED ITEM.

7.3 / 7.4 / 7.5	Item			7.3	7.4	7.5
	No.	Description	Code	Did you buy this <item> in the last 12 months? 1=Yes 2=No	How much did you pay for this <item>?	According to current prices, what do you think you could get if you sold it?
				If 7.3 is '2', go to 7.5	If 'Don't Know', write '888' Go to next item	If 'Don't Know', write '888'
	01	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	02	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	03	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	04	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	05	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	06	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	07	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	08	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	09	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	10	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	11	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	12	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	13	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	14	_____	☐☐	1 2	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐,☐☐☐,☐☐☐

7.3 7.4 7.5	Item			7.3	7.4	7.5
	No.	Description	Code	Did you buy this <item> in the last 12 months? 1=Yes 2=No If 7.3 is '2', go to 7.5	How much did you pay for this <item>? If 'Don't Know', write '888' Go to next item	According to current prices, what do you think you could get if you sold it? If 'Don't Know', write '888'
	15			1 2	, ,	, ,
	16			1 2	, ,	, ,
	17			1 2	, ,	, ,
	18			1 2	, ,	, ,
	19			1 2	, ,	, ,
	20			1 2	, ,	, ,
	21			1 2	, ,	, ,
	22			1 2	, ,	, ,
	23			1 2	, ,	, ,
	24			1 2	, ,	, ,
	25			1 2	, ,	, ,

INTERVIEWER: ASK QUESTIONS 7.6 AND 7.7 FOR FIRST ITEM, THEN
CONTINUE WITH 7.6 AND 7.7 FOR SECOND ITEM, ETC.
IF NO ITEM IN 7.6, WRITE '0' AND CONTINUE WITH 7.6 AND 7.7 FOR NEXT ITEM

7.6 7.7	Item	7.6 How many of the following items does this household own?	7.7 According to current prices, how much do you think you could get if you sold all of them?
	Mobile phones		,
	Carpets (khalin) (expensive best quality hand-woven)		,
	Gilim, satrangi, namad, fash (other carpet- products)		,
	Blankets		,
	Kitchen utensils (dishes / pots and pans)		,

7.8	How many male household members have used the Internet in the past 12 months?	
7.9	How many female household members have used the Internet in the past 12 months?	
7.10	CHECK QUESTION 7.6; IF HOUSEHOLD HAS MOBILE PHONE, ASK 7.10, OTHERWISE GO TO 7.11 Could we please ask you to give us your phone number? This will only be used to contact you in case we have forgotten something and will be entirely confidential.	
7.11	Does your household have any debt at present? Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to M8
7.12	What is the value of the total outstanding debt for this household at present? Afs. , ,	Go to Module 8

8. Labour

INTERVIEWER: COPY THE LINE NUMBER OF ALL HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS WHO ARE 14 YEARS OR OLDER FROM THE HOUSEHOLD ROSTER TO 8.1.

8.1	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.8
COPY LINE NUMBER	In the last **week**, did <name> do **any** work for pay, for profit, or for family gain, including farm work or tending livestock or poultry, or **any** occasional work?	Although <name> did not work last week, does he/she have work from which he/she was temporarily absent?	What is the main reason that <name> was absent from work in the last week?	Was <name> available for work in the last week if it had been offered?	Did <name> try to find work or start a business in the last week?	What is the main reason <name> did not look for work in the last week?	In the last **month**, did <name> do **any** work for pay, for profit, or for family gain, including farm work or tending livestock or poultry, or **any** occasional work?
	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	For codes, see below	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	For codes, see below	1=Yes 2=No
	If 'Yes', go to 8.9	If 'No', go to 8.5	All: go to 8.8		If 'Yes', go to 8.8		Go to next person or next module
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2
	1 2	1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2

Codes for 8.4 (Reason for absence from work)
1=Illness / injury
2=Holiday/ramzan/vacation/leave
3=School/education/training
4=Bad weather
5=Work reduction/suspension
6=Enterprise closure/lay off
7=Strike/lock out
8=Security situation
9=Other (specify)

Codes for 8.7 (Reason not looking for work)
1=Student / pupil
2=Housewife / housekeeping
3=Retired / too old
4=Illness / injury
5=Handicapped
6=Being apprentice
7=In military service
8=Have already found a job
9=Temporarily laid off
10=Waiting for busy season
11=Do not want to work
12=No chances to get a job / no jobs available
13=Other (specify on line in box for Line No.)

THIS IS PAGE 1 OF

INTERVIEWER: COPY THE LINE NUMBER OF ALL HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS WHO ARE 14 YEARS OR OLDER FROM THE HOUSEHOLD ROSTER TO 8.1.

8.1	8.9	8.10	8.11	8.12	8.13	8.14	8.15
COPY LINE NUMBER	In what sector of the economy is the main job of <name>	What type of activity did <name> do in the main job in the most recent week he/she was working?	Was <name> self-employed or working on own account, or as unpaid family or salaried worker, or as day labourer or employer?	How many days did <name> work in the most recent week he/she was working?	How many hours per day, on average, did <name> work in the most recent week he/she was working?	Is <name> willing to work more hours in a week?	Is <name> available to work more hours in a week if offered?
	For codes, see below	For codes, see below				1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2
						1 2	1 2

Codes for 8.9 (Sector of economy)

1=Agriculture
2=Livestock
3=Manufacturing / processing (handicraft, food processing, tailoring, etc.)
4=Construction (e.g. roads, buildings)
5=Wholesale and retail trade
6=Transportation, communication
7=Health
8=Education
9=Other governement services
10=UN/NGOs
11=Other services

Codes for 8.10 (Type of activity)

1=Farming
2=Shepherding
3=Sales and trade
4=Construction and mining
5=Food processing
6=Metal and wood work
7=Handicraft work
8=Plant and machine operating
9=Drivers (car, truck, bus, taxi)
10=Health workers
11=Teaching
12=Security work
13=Other service work
14=Other work

Codes for 8.11 (Employment status)

1=Day labourer
2=Salaried worker, private sector
3=Salaried worker, public sector
4. Self-employed (own-account farmers, independent workers, etc.)
5=Employer
6=Unpaid family worker

9. Household income

9.1 9.2	9.1 From what kind of activities did your household earn the largest share of money in the last year? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW ☐☐ IF NO MONEY EARNED, WRITE '00' AND GO TO MODULE 10	9.2 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? ☐☐☐ Percent IF 100 PERCENT, GO TO 9.9
9.3 9.4	9.3 Which activities provided the second most important source of money income for this household? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW ☐☐ IF NO SECOND SOURCE, WRITE '00' AND GO TO 9.9	9.4 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? ☐☐☐ Percent
9.5 9.6	9.5 Which activities provided the third most important source of money income for this household? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW ☐☐ IF NO THIRD SOURCE, WRITE '00' AND GO TO 9.9	9.6 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? ☐☐☐ Percent
9.7 9.8	9.7 Which activities provided the fourth most important source of money income for this household? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW ☐☐ IF NO FOURTH SOURCE, WRITE '00'	9.8 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? ☐☐☐ Percent
9.9	What was approximately the total amount of money income from <NAME MOST IMPORTANT ACTIVITY> in the last year?	☐☐☐,☐☐

Codes for 9.1, 9.3, 9.5, 9.7 (Income-generating activities)

Agriculture and livestock
1=Production & sale of field crops (non-opium)
2=Production & sale of opium
3=Production & sale of orchard products
4=Agricultural wage labour (non-opium)
5=Opium wage labour
6=Production & sales of livestock and livestock products
7=Sheparding wage labour

Production and Manufacturing
11=Carpet weaving
12=Sewing, embroidery, etc
13=Other handicraft work
14=Food production and processing (bakers, butchers, etc)
15=Mechanics work
16=Road/building construction
17=Other production work

Services
21=Teacher
22=Doctor/nurse/medical worker
23=Military service
24=Police
25=Office work, government
26=Office work, non-government
27=Other government/NGO/UN work
28=Taxi/transport
29=Security
30=Other service work

Trade
41=Shopkeeping/small business
42=Street/market sales
43=Other trade

Other labour
51=Other work, wage labour
52=Other work, day labour

Other income
61=Borrowing
62=Rental income
63=Remittances from migrants
64=Zakat

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

10. Household expenditure

I want to ask you a series of questions about expenses made by all household members in the last month. Other questions wil refer to expenses made in the past year. Please carefully consider and include all expenses made by this household.

INTERVIEWER: ASK ALL QUESTIONS 10.01-10.20
IF NO EXPENSES ARE MADE FOR A SPECIFIC ITEM, WRITE '0'

Can you please tell me what the household spent in the last **month** for the following: Afghanis

10.01	Food consumed at home, including drinks	10.01
10.02	Food and drinks consumed outside the home	10.02
10.03	Cigarettes	10.03
10.04	Tobacco/snuff	10.04
10.05	Matches	10.05
10.06	Laundry powder/ detergents, cleaning supplies	10.06
10.07	Soap (hand, toiletry)	10.07
10.08	Shampoo	10.08
10.09	Toothpaste	10.09
10.10	Personal grooming (haircuts, etc) for males	10.10
10.11	Fee for public bath	10.11
10.12	Laundry charges	10.12
10.13	Fee for baking bread	10.13
10.14	Fixed phone line and use (including PCO booths)	10.14
10.15	Mobile phone charges (minutes and prepaid)	10.15
10.16	Internet service/ internet café, fax, mail	10.16
10.17	Tranportation fare - bus and taxis	10.17
10.18	Fuel for car/motor bike (do not include business vehicles)	10.18
10.19	Taxes (formal and informal)	10.19
10.20	Other miscellaneous expenses in last month	10.20

Can you please tell me what the household spent in the last **year** for the following:
ASK ALL QUESTIONS 10.21-10.37 Afghanis

10.21	House construction and repair (materials and labour)	10.21
10.22	Education fees (tuition for school, college, university)	10.22
10.23	School uniforms	10.23
10.24	Textbooks	10.24
10.25	Pens, pencils and notebooks (school supplies)	10.25
10.26	Other stationery	10.26
10.27	Repair, maintenance and tires for motor vehicles	10.27
10.28	Airfares	10.28
10.29	Men's clothing (excluding shoes)	10.29
10.30	Women's clothing (excluding shoes)	10.30

10.31	Children's clothing (excluding school uniforms and shoes)	,	10.31
10.32	Men's shoes	,	10.32
10.33	Women's shoes	,	10.33
10.34	Children's shoes	,	10.34
10.35	Fines or debt payments	,	10.35
10.36	Weddings and funerals, haj	,	10.36
10.37	Annual celebrations and charitable donations (khair-o-khairat)	,	10.37

Now I would like to ask you about how much your household and all its members spend on health services. Expenditures can be monetary, or non-monetary payments, such as gifts. The value of non-monetary payments should be included in the cost.

10.38	In the last **year**, how many members of your household were admitted to stay at a health facility overnight?		If '0' go to 10.49

	Who was/were the household member(s) that stayed overnight at a health facility?	INTERVIEWER: LIST NAME(S) AND LINE NUMBERS OF IN-PATIENTS IN 10.40		
10.40	Line no. in-patientss [COPY FROM ROSTER] Name			
10.41	How many times was <name> admitted in the health facility in the last 12 months?			
10.42	Where did <name> most recently stay overnight for health care?	CODES ARE BELOW	CODES ARE BELOW	CODES ARE BELOW
10.43	In total, for this most recent visit, how much was spent on treatment and services received during <name's> stay? We want to know about all costs related to this visit, including any charges for fees, laboratory tests, medicines, or ambulance If gifts or non-monetary payments were made, please estimate cash value and include in total costs	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,
10.44	How much of this total cost, including gifts or non-monetary payments, was paid for just medicines?	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,
10.45	How much of this total cost, including gifts or non-monetary payments, was paid for just diagnostic services (excluding laboratory test, x-ray)?	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,	Afghanis ,

Codes for 10.42 (Health facility where stayed overnight)

Public health facilities in Afghanistan	**Private health facilities in Afghanistan**	**Other health facility in Afghanistan**
1=National hospital	7=Private hospital	11=NGO
2=Regional hospital (EPHS)	8=Private clinic	12=Mosque
3=Provincial hospital (EPHS)	9=Other private facility	13=Nursing home
4=District hospital (BPHS)		14=Pharmacy
5=Comprehensive Health Centre	**10=Hospital/clinic abroad**	15=Other in Afghanistan
6=Other public health facility		

	Line no. in-patients [COPY FROM 10.40]	☐☐	☐☐	☐☐
10.46	In addition to costs for treatment and services, how much was paid for transport (non-ambulance), including gifts or non-monetary payments?	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐
10.47	How much additional was paid for food, including gifts or non-monetary payments?	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐
10.48	How many nights did <name> stay overnight during this last visit?	☐☐	☐☐	☐☐

10.49	Now I would like to ask some questions about the household members who consulted a health care provider in the last month, **but did not stay overnight** In the last **E118**, did any member of your household receive care from a health provider, a pharmacy, or traditional healer without staying overnight? Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 10.57

	Who was/were the household member(s) that were admitted at a health facility without staying overnight?	INTERVIEWER: LIST NAME(S) AND LINE NUMBERS OF OUT-PATIENTS IN 10.52		
10.51	Line no. out-patients [COPY FROM ROSTER] Name	☐☐ _____	☐☐ _____	☐☐ _____
10.52	From what type of health provider did <name> get care most recently without staying overnight?	☐☐ CODES ARE BELOW	☐☐ CODES ARE BELOW	☐☐ CODES ARE BELOW
10.53	In total, for this visit, how much was spent on treatment and services received during <name's> most recent consultation? We want to know about all costs related to this consultation, including consultation fees, laboratory tests and medicines If gifts or non-monetary payments were made, please estimate cash value and include in total costs	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐
10.54	How much of this total cost, including gifts or non-monetary payments, was paid for just medicines?	☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐☐,☐☐☐
10.55	How much of this total cost, including gifts or non-monetary payments, was paid for just diagnostic services (excluding laboratory test, x-ray)?	☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐☐,☐☐☐	☐☐☐,☐☐☐

Codes for 10.53 (Health facility providing care)

Public health facilities in Afghanistan	**Private health facilities in Afghanistan**	**Other health facility in Afghanistan**
1=National hospital	7=Private hospital	11=NGO
2=Regional hospital (EPHS)	8=Private clinic	12=Mosque
3=Provincial hospital (EPHS)	9=Other private facility	13=Nursing home
4=District hospital (BPHS)		14=Pharmacy
5=Comprehensive Health Centre	**10=Hospital/clinic abroad**	15=Other in Afghanistan
6=Other public health facility		

	Line no. out-patients [COPY FROM 10.51]	☐☐	☐☐	☐☐
10.56	In total, how many times did <name> get care from a health provider in the last month without staying overnight?	☐☐	☐☐	☐☐

10.57	Apart from any costs for health care consultations (you told me about), how much did the household spend for (additional) visits, on health-related items in the last month? We want to include all health-related items such as drugs, vitamins, herbal remedies, family planning methods, etc.	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐ IF NO SPENDING, WRITE '0'
10.58	In the last 12 months, how much was spent on:	IF NO SPENDING, WRITE '0' — Afghanis
	a. Prescription glasses and other vision products? ……	☐☐☐,☐☐☐
	b. Hearing aids, canes and prosthetic devices? ……	☐☐☐,☐☐☐

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

11. Migration

Line no.	11.1 For all: Where was <name> born? For codes, see below	11.2 CIRCLE LINE NO. IF PERSON IS 7 YEARS OR OLDER	11.3 If person is 7 years or older (Line no. in 11.2 circled): Where was <name's> usual place of residence at the time Karzai was elected as president in 1383? If not yet born, write '0' and go to next person If answer is '1' ('In this district'), go to 11.7	11.4 How many years did <name> live there? If born there, go to 11.6 Write '0' if less than 1 year	11.5 What was the main reason <name> went to live in that place?	11.6 What was the main reason <name> came to live in this place?	11.7 CIRCLE LINE NO. IF PERSON IS 14 YEARS OR OLDER	11.8 If person is 14 years or older (11.7): Did <name> spend one month or more away from the household for seasonal work in the past 12 months? 1=Yes 2=No If '2', go to next person	11.9 Where did this person spend most of the time during the absence for seasonal work in the past 12 months? For codes, see at bottom of page
			For codes for 11.3, 11.5 and 11.6, see bottom of page						
01		01					01	1 2	
02		02					02	1 2	
03		03					03	1 2	
04		04					04	1 2	
05		05					05	1 2	
06		06					06	1 2	
07		07					07	1 2	
08		08					08	1 2	
09		09					09	1 2	
10		10					10	1 2	
11		11					11	1 2	
12		12					12	1 2	
13		13					13	1 2	
14		14					14	1 2	
15		15					15	1 2	
16		16					16	1 2	
17		17					17	1 2	
18		18					18	1 2	

Codes for 11.1, 11.3 and 11.9

1=This same district

Elsewhere,

2=Same province, urban
3=Same province, rural
4=Other province, urban
5=Other province, rural
6=Pakistan
7=Iran
8=Arabian Penisula
9=Other country
88=Don't know

Codes for 11.5

1=Parents' place of origin
2=Went there for work
3=Fled there as refugee/IDP
4=To get married
5=Moved there with the family
6=Joined the own family there
7=To attend education
8=Access to health services
9=Other reason

Codes for 11.6

1=To find work / better work
2=Security/protection problems
3=Returning refugees/IDPs
4=To get married
5=Moved with the family
6=To join the own family
7=To attend education
8=Access to health services
9=Other reason

11.10	How many persons 14 years of age or older who were members of this household one year ago (including daughters), and have moved away and are no longer household members? INTERVIEWER: ASK FOR EACH PERSON THAT MOVED AWAY QUESTIONS 11.11 TO 11.15 IF NO PERSON MOVED AWAY, WRITE '0 AND GO TO 11.16	If 'None', go to 11.16

	11.11	11.12	11.13	11.14	11.15
	What is the relationship of this person to the head of household?	Is this person male or female?	What is this person's age now?	Where does this person live now?	What was the main reason to move to that place?
	For codes, see at bottom of page	1=Male 2=Female	If answer is 'Don't know', write '98'	For codes, see at bottom of page	For codes, see at bottom of page
E01		1 2			
E02		1 2			
E03		1 2			
E04		1 2			
E05		1 2			
E06		1 2			
E07		1 2			
E08		1 2			
E09		1 2			
E10		1 2			
E11		1 2			

11.16	Since 1381 (2002), has this household returned from displacement from outside or inside Afghanistan?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	go to M12
11.17	Where did the household return from?	Pakistan ..... 1 Iran ..... 2 Other country ..... 3 In Afghanistan - this province, urban area .... 4 In Afghanistan - this province, rural area ..... 5 In Afghanistan - other province, urban area .... 6 In Afghanistan - other province, rural area 7	
11.18	When did the household return?	Shamsi year	
11.19	How did the household return? Were you assisted by UNHCR or another agency or were you deported or did you return spontaneously?	Assisted by UNHCR or other agency ..... 1 Deported ..... 2 Returned spontaneously 3	

Codes for 11.11
2 = Wife or husband
3 = Son or daughter
4 = Son or daughter-in-law
5 = Grandchild
6 = Father or mother
7 = Nephew or niece
8 = Brother or sister
9 = Brother or sister-in-law
10 = Other relative
11 = Unrelated household member

Codes for 11.14
1=This same district
Elsewhere,
2=Same province, urban
3=Same province, rural
4=Other province, urban
5=Other province, rural
6=Pakistan
7=Iran
8=Arabian Penisula
9=Other country
88=Don't know

Codes for 11.15
1=To find work / better work
2=Security/protection problems
3=Returning refugees/IDPs
4=To get married
5=Moved with the family
6=To join the own family
7=To attend education
8=Access to health services
9=Other reason

12. Education

	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.4	12.5	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.9
Line no.	Name	Age	For persons 6 years of age and over					For persons age 6-24	
			Can <name> read and write?	Did <name> have any home schooling or literacy school?	Did <name> ever attend formal school? (including formal Islamic school) 1=Yes 2=No	What is the highest level of formal school <name> attended?	What is the highest grade <name> completed at this level? If no grade completed, write '00'	Is <name> currently attending school? 1=Yes 2=No	What is the main reason that <name> is not attending school?
	COPY THIS INFORMATION FROM HOUSEHOLD ROSTER		1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	If 'No', go to 12.9	For codes see below		If Yes, go to next person	For codes see below
01			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
02			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
03			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
04			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
05			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
06			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
07			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
08			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
09			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
10			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
11			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
12			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
13			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
14			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
15			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
16			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	
17			1 2	1 2	1 2			1 2	

Codes for 12.6 and 12.7 (Education level & grade)

1=Primary (1-6)
2=Lower secondary (7-9)
3=Upper secondary (10-12)
4=Teacher college (13-14)
5=University (13-16)
6=Post-graduate (17-19)
7=Technical college (13-14)
8=Madrassa (1-12)
9=Dar ul ulum (13-14)
10=Dar ul hefaz (1-12)

Codes for 12.9 (Reason for non-attendance)

1=No school/school too far
2=Studied as far as needed
3=Poor health / disability
4=Family didn't allow
5=School didn't allow
6=Security concerns
7=Marriage
8=Child needed to work to help family
9=Didn't like school/didn't learn enough
10=Schooling too expensive
11=No female teachers
12=School temporarily not functioning
13=Child too young
14=Other reason

THIS IS PAGE 1 OF

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE (UNLESS THERE ARE MORE THAN 17 HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS)

13. Household shocks and coping strategies

13.1 In the past year, has the household been negatively affected by any of the following?

READ ALL OPTIONS a-ad

		Yes	No
a	Reduced drinking water quantity	1	2
b	Reduced drinking water quality	1	2
c	Reduced agricultural water quality or quantity	1	2
d	Unusually high level of crop pests or diseases	1	2
e	Opium eradication	1	2
f	Grew opium last season but not this season	1	2
g	Unusually high level livestock diseases	1	2
h	Insecurity or violence	1	2
i	Reduced availability of grazing areas	1	2
j	Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	1	2
k	Earthquakes	1	2
l	Landslides and avalanches	1	2
m	Flooding	1	2
n	Late damaging frosts	1	2
o	Heavy rains preventing work	1	2
p	Severe winter conditions	1	2
q	Hailstorms	1	2
r	Unusually high level of human disease	1	2
s	**Large influx of returnee households**	**1**	**2**
t	Unusually high increases in food prices	1	2
u	Unusual decrease in farm gate prices	1	2
v	Loss of employment by a household member	1	2
w	Reduced salary of a household member	1	2
x	Bankruptcy of family business	1	2
y	Serious illness or accident for working household member	1	2
z	Death of a working household member	1	2
aa	Death or serious illness of other household member	1	2
ab	Theft or violence	1	2
ac	Involuntary loss of house or land	1	2
ad	Involuntary loss of livestock	1	2

INTERVIEWER: CHECK QUESTION 13.1 - IF NO SHOCKS MENTIONED (IF ALL ANSWERS ARE '2'), GO TO 13.5

CHECK QUESTION **13.1.s** - IF 13.1.s IS '1' (Yes), ASK 13.2, OTHERWISE GO TO 13.3

13.2 Was was the main problem with returnees?

Disputes on land 1
Disputes on house 2
Competition for employment 3
Competition for water 4
Competition for other natural resources 5
Security 6
Other, specify 7

13.3	Has the household recovered from the shocks mentioned for the past year?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	
13.4	What did the household do to cope with any of these shocks? PROBE FOR ANSWERS Any other strategy that you can think of? CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY a Did not need to do anything to compensate ..... 1 b Reduced quality of diet ..... 2 c Reduced amount of food or skipped meals ..... 3 d Decreased expenditures ..... 4 e Purchased food on credit from traders ..... 5 f Took loans ..... 6 g Received help from others in the community ..... 7 h Sold assets ..... 8 i Rented out or mortgaged land ..... 9 j Sold house, land or female reproductive livestock 10 k Worked on relief programmes ..... 11 l Joined military ..... 12 m Dropped children from school ..... 13 n Increased child labour ..... 14 o Sold child brides ..... 15 p Begging ..... 16 q Other, specify 17		
13.5	Has any member of your household participated in any cash-for-work, food-for-work or income-generating programmes or projects during the past year?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 13.7
13.6	How many people worked in the following programmes/projects? IF NO PEOPLE WORKED IN SPECIFIC PROGRAMME, WRITE '0'	a Food-for-work ..... ☐☐ b Cash-for-work ..... ☐☐ c Income-generating ..... ☐☐	
13.7	How do you compare the overall economic situation of the household with one year ago?	Much better ..... 1 Slightly better ..... 2 Same ..... 3 Slightly worse ..... 4 Much worse 5	
13.8	To what extent are you satisfied with the police in this district doing their job of serving and protecting the people?	Very satisfied ..... 1 Moderately satisfied ..... 2 Not satisfied, not dissatisfied ..... 3 Moderately dissatisfied ..... 4 Very dissatisfied 5	
13.9	How do you rate the security situation in this district?	Very secure ..... 1 Moderately secure ..... 2 Not secure, not insecure ..... 3 Moderately insecure ..... 4 Very insecure 5	

END OF MALE QUESTIONNAIRE; COMPLETE MODULES 1 AND 2
THANK THE RESPONDENT

National Risk and Vulnerability Survey (NRVA) 1389-90
Afghanistan's Multi-Purpose Household Survey

20. Household identification (female section)

COPY INFORMATION FROM SECTION 1 (HOUSEHOLD IDENTIFICATION)

20.1	Cluster code	20.6	Control and Enumeration Area
20.2	Residence code: Urban ..... 1, Rural ..... 2, Kuchi 3	20.7	Village name
20.3	Province name	20.8	Household number (1-15)
20.4	District name	20.9	Door number (from tracking sheet)
20.5	Urban Nahia name	20.10	Name of head of household
		20.11	Line number of senior female respondent

SECTIONS 21-23 SHOULD BE ADMINISTERED TO THE SENIOR FEMALE HOUSEHOLD MEMBER, WHO IS EITHER THE WIFE OF THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, THE MOST ACTIVE AND IMPORTANT FEMALE MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD, OR IN CASE OF FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD

START WITH MODULE 21

21. Missing household members

INTERVIEWER: We listed all the members of this household, but I would like check with you to see whether really everyone who usually lives here is included. We are especially eager to see that no children, newborns, girls and women - especially older women - are omitted from the list

GO THROUGH THE HOUSEHOLD LISTING WITH THE RESPONDENT AND ADD MISSING PERSONS WITH ADDITIONAL INFORMATION BELOW

21.1	21.2	21.3	21.4	21.5	21.6	21.7	21.8	21.9	21.10	21.11
Line no. CON-TINUE FROM LAST NUM-BER	Name of additional household member	What is the relationship of <name> to the head of house-hold? For codes, see below	Is <name> male or female? 1=Male 2=Female	How old was <name>? on his/her last birthday? If less than one year, write '00'	What is <name's> marital or engagement status? For codes, see below If not married, go to 21.8	Line number of (first) spouse If 'Not in this household', write '99'	Does <name's> father live in this house-hold? 1=Yes 2=No If 'No', go to 21.10	Line number of this father	Does <name's> mother live in this house-hold? 1=Yes 2=No If 'No', go to next line	Line number of this mother
			1 2				1 2		1 2	
			1 2				1 2		1 2	
			1 2				1 2		1 2	
			1 2				1 2		1 2	
			1 2				1 2		1 2	

Codes for 21.3 (Relationship to head of household)

1 = Household head
2 = Wife or husband
3 = Son or daughter
4 = Son-/daughter-in-law
5 = Grandchild
6 = Father or mother
7 = Nephew or niece
8 = Brother or sister
9 = Brother-/sister-in-law
10 = Other relative
11 = Unrelated member

Codes for 21.6 (Marital status)

1 = Married
2 = Divorced, separated
3 = Widowed
4 = Never married, but engaged
5 = Never married, not engaged

CONTINUE WITH NEXT MODULE

22. General living conditions

INTERVIEWER:
THIS SECTION SHOULD BE ADMINISTERED TO THE SENIOR FEMALE HOUSEHOLD MEMBER, WHO IS EITHER THE WIFE OF THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, THE MOST ACTIVE AND IMPORTANT FEMALE MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD, OR IN CASE OF FEMALE-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS, THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD

22.1	In the past year, was the food supply always sufficient for this household?	Yes .... 1 No 2	Go to 22.7
22.2	How often in the past year did you have problems satisfying the food needs of the household?	Rarely (1 to 3 times) .... 1 Sometimes (4 to 6 times) .... 2 Often (a few times every month) .... 3 Mostly (this happens a lot) 4	

22.3 / 22.4 / 22.5 / 22.6

	22.3 Did you apply any of the following strategies to cope with the food shortage? INTERVIEWER: READ ALL STRATEGIES a-l	Yes	No	22.4 Did you do this in the last week? 1=Yes 2=No	22.5 How severe do you think this is for your household? 1=High severity 2=Mid severity 3=Low severity	22.6 IF REDUCED AMOUNT OF FOOD OR SKIPPED MEALS, ASK 22.6. For whom did you reduce the amout of food or skipped meals?	Yes	No
				IF ANSWER TO 22.3 IS '1' ('Yes'), ASK 22.4 THROUGH 22.6				
a	**Reduced amount of food or skipped meals**	**1**	**2**	1 2	1 2 3	→		
b	Reduced quality of diet	1	2	1 2	1 2 3	Boys	1	2
c	Decreased expenditure on food	1	2	1 2	1 2 3	Girls	1	2
d	Purchased food on credit from traders	1	2	1 2	1 2 3	Men	1	2
e	Took loans or purchased food on credit	1	2	1 2	1 2 3	Women	1	2
f	Sold house or land	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
g	Sold female reproductive livestock/hens	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
h	Sold other productive assets	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
i	Dropped children from school	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
j	Increased child labour	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
k	Sold child brides	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			
l	Begging	1	2	1 2	1 2 3			

22.7	How would you compare the overall economic situation of the household with 1 year ago?	Much better .... 1 Slightly better .... 2 Same .... 3 Slightly worse .... 4 Much worse 5	
22.8	To what extent are you satisfied with police in this district doing their job of serving and protecting the people?	Very satisfied .... 1 Moderately satisfied .... 2 Not satisfied, not dissatisfied .... 3 Moderately dissatisfied .... 4 Very dissatisfied 5	
22.9	How do you rate the security situation in this district?	Very secure .... 1 Moderately secure .... 2 Not secure, not insecure .... 3 Moderately insecure .... 4 Very insecure 5	
	What has the household spent in the last **month** for:	WRITE '0' IF NOTHING SPENT ON ITEM	
22.10	Cosmetics and beauty supplies	__ , __ __	
22.11	Personal grooming (beauty parlours, haircuts, etc) for women and girls (NOT MALES)	__ __ , __ __	
22.12	What has the household spent in the last **year** for tahwiz/shoyest (talisman for health)?	__ __ , __ __	

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

23. Food consumption (to senior woman)

23.1	How many household members were resident and ate at least four times dinner in the household during the last 7 days, including yourself? ..... ☐☐
23.2	How many meals from the household cooking pot were eaten by guests in the last 7 days? ..... ☐☐☐ WRITE '0' IF NO GUESTS ATE IN THE HOUSE IN THE LAST 7 DAYS
23.3	How many meals have been eaten outside of the home (not from household food) by resident household members in the last 7 days? ..... ☐☐

INTERVIEWER: I would like to ask you about all the different foods that your household members and any guests have eaten in the **last 7 days**.
Could you please tell me how many days in the past week your household has eaten the following foods, and from what source this food came?

Food item	23.4 How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days? If not eaten, write '0'	23.5 What was the main source of this item? For codes, see below	23.6 What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
Bread and cereals			
Rice, high quality	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Rice, low quality	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Wheat flour	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Purchased nan	☐	☐	☐☐☐ Pieces
Barley	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Maize (corn)	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Beans	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Mung	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Chick peas	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Lentils	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Pasta, macaroni	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Other bread and cereals	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Meat and fish			
Beef	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Veal	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Mutton	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Goat	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Chicken	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Liver	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Dried meat	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Fish	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Other meat and fish	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs

Codes for 23.5 (Food source)
1 = Purchase
2 = Own production
3 = Bartered / payment in kind
4 = Borrowed / taken on credit
5 = Received as gift
6 = Food aid
7 = Other

Food item	23.4 How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days? If not eaten, write '0'	23.5 What was the main source of this item? For codes, see below	23.6 What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
Milk, cheese and eggs			
Milk (fresh)			. Kgs
Milk (powdered)			. Kgs
Yogurt			. Kgs
Curd (chaka)			. Kgs
Krut (dried)			. Kgs
Dogh			. Kgs
Ghee			. Kgs
Butter			. Kgs
Cheese			. Kgs
Eggs (number)			Number
Other dairy products			. Kgs
Oils and fat			
Vegetable oil, cotton oil or sesame oil			. Kgs
Animal fat			. Kgs
Other oils and fat			. Kgs
Vegetables			
Potato			. Kgs
Sweet potato			. Kgs
Onion			. Kgs
Tomato			. Kgs
Okra			. Kgs
Spinach			. Kgs
Cauliflower			. Pieces
Eggplant			. Kgs
Carrots			. Kgs
Pumpkin, squash			. Kgs
Cucumber			. Kgs
Radish			. Kgs
Turnip			. Kgs
Cabbage			. Kgs

Codes for 23.5 (Food source): 1 = Purchase; 2 = Own production; 3 = Bartered / payment in kind; 4 = Borrowed / taken on credit; 5 = Received as gift; 6 = Food aid; 7 = Other

Food item	23.4 How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days? If not eaten, write '0'	23.5 What was the main source of this item? For codes, see below	23.6 What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
Vegetables (continued)			
Leek			. Kgs
Hot pepper			. Kgs
Wild leafy vegetables			. Kgs
Coriander			. Kgs
Mint			. Kgs
Dried tomatoes			. Kgs
Dried vegetables			. Kgs
Pickled vegetables			. Kgs
Green beans			. Kgs
Other vegetables Specify: _____			. Kgs
Fruit and nuts			
Apple			. Kgs
Grapes			. Kgs
Melon, watermelon			. Kgs
Peach			. Kgs
Fresh apricots			. Kgs
Dried apricots			. Kgs
Orange, citrus			. Kgs
Plum			. Kgs
Pomegranate			. Kgs
Pear			. Kgs
Banana			. Pieces
Raisins			. Kgs
Fresh mulberries			. Kgs
Dried mulberries			. Kgs
Mangoes			. Pieces
Walnuts (without shells)			. Kgs
Pistachio (without shells)			. Kgs
Almonds (without shells)			. Kgs
Other fruit			. Kgs

	Codes for 23.5 (Food source)	1 = Purchase 2 = Own production	3 = Bartered / payment in kind 4 = Borrowed / taken on credit	5 = Received as gift 6 = Food aid	7 = Other

Food item	23.4 How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days? If not eaten, write '0'	23.5 What was the main source of this item? For codes, see below	23.6 What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
Sugar and sweets			
White sugar	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Brown sugar	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Honey	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Chocolates, candy, sherinigack	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Beverages			
Black tea	☐	☐	☐,☐☐☐ Grams
Green tea	☐	☐	☐,☐☐☐ Grams
Bottled/canned beverages, mineral water (liters)	☐	☐	☐☐☐ Liters
Other beverages	☐	☐	☐☐☐ Liters
Spices			
Salt	☐	☐	☐☐.☐ Kgs
Black pepper	☐	☐	☐,☐☐☐ Grams
Ginger and garlic	☐	☐	☐.☐ Kgs
Tomato sauce	☐	☐	☐.☐ Kgs
Mixed spices	☐	☐	☐.☐ Kgs
Other spices	☐	☐	☐.☐ Kgs

	Codes for 23.5	1 = Purchase	3 = Bartered / payment in kind	5 = Received as gift	7 = Other
	(Food source)	2 = Own production	4 = Borrowed / taken on credit	6 = Food aid	

CONTINUE WITH THE NEXT MODULE

24. Maternal and Child Health

We are interested in every woman who is 49 years or less [ROSTER, QUESTION 3.5] and has been ever married [ROSTER, ANSWERED 1, 2 or 3 to QUESTION 3.6]; ask every woman separately

24.1		24.2	24.3	24.4	24.5	24.6	24.7	24.8	24.9	24.10	24.11	24.12	24.13	24.14
Line no.	Name	WHAT IS THE RESULT OF THE INTERVIEW WITH THIS WOMAN?	What is your current marital status?	What is the name of your husband?	Does your husband have more wives?	How old are you?	At what age were you married the first time?	Did you ever give birth to a live-born child? PROBE: I mean even a child that survived minutes, hours or days?	How many boy children?	How many girl children?	How many boys are still alive?	How many girls are still alive?	When was your last liveborn child born (even if the child has died)?	Was it a boy or a girl?
COPY NAME AND LINE NO. OF ALL EVER-MARRIED WOMEN, AGED 49 OR LESS FROM ROSTER		For codes, see below	For codes, see below If widowed, divorced or separated go to 24.6	COPY LINE NO. OF HUSBAND FROM ROSTER IF HUSBAND IS NOT HOUSE-HOLD MEMBER, WRITE '99'	1=Yes 2=No			1=Yes 2=No If 'No', next person	WRITE '0' IF NO BOYS Number of boys	WRITE '0' IF NO GIRLS Number of girls	WRITE '0' IF NO BOYS Number of boys	WRITE '0' IF NO GIRLS Number of girls	INDICATE YEAR IN SHAMSI OR CHRISTIAN CALENDAR IF 'DK', write '8888'	1=Boy 2=Girl
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2
					1 2			1 2						1 2

Codes for 24.2 (Interview result)
1=Completed
2=Not at home
3=Refused
4=Partly completed
5=Incapacitated
6=Other

Codes for 24.3 (Marital status)
1=Married
2=Widowed
3=Divorced/separated

24. Maternal and Child Health (continued)

24.1	24.15	24.16	24.17	24.18	24.19	24.20	24.21	24.22	24.23	24.24	24.25
Line no.	Did you see anyone for ante-natal care during your last pregnancy?	How many times did you receive antenatal care during your last pregnancy?	Whom did you see?	Who assisted with the delivery of your last child?	Where did this delivery take place?	During this pregnancy, did you receive an injection in the arm or shoulder to prevent the baby from getting tetanus, that is convulsions after birth?	How many doses / injections did you receive during this pregnancy	How many children under age 5 do you have?	How many of these <number> children received a birth certificate at birth?	How many of these <number> children received a Vitamin A tablet or capsule in the last six months?	How many of these <number> children had fever in the last month?
COPY LINE NOs	1=Yes 2=No 3=Don't know		PROBE AND CIRCLE ALL MENTIONED			1=Yes 2=No 3=Don't know		Use <number> in questions 24.23-24.25 and 24.27			
	If 24.15 is '2' or 3', go to 24.18	If 'Don't know', write '9'	For codes, see below		For codes, see below	If 'No' or 'DK', go to 24.22		If '0', go to next person	If 'None', write '0'	If 'None', write '0'	If 'None', write '0'
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					
	1 2 3		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			1 2 3					

Codes for 24.17 and 24.18
(Antenatal care and delivery assistance)
1=Doctor
2=Midwife
3=Nurse
4=Community Health Worker (CHW)
5=Traditional Birth Attendant (TBA)
6=Other
7=No one
8-Don't know

Codes for 24.19 (Place of delivery)
1=At home or relative's/neighbour's home
2=Public hospital
3=Other public health facility
4=Private health facility
5=Other
6=Don't know

24. Maternal and Child Health (continued)				End of interview
24.1	24.26	24.27	24.28	**Thank the respondent and go back to question 24.2 to fill in the result of the interview**
Line no.	How many of the children with fever had diarrhoea in the last month?	How many of these <number> children had illness with a cough in the last month?	How many of these children with a cough in the last month did breathe faster than usual with short, rapid breaths?	**Then complete the remaining question 20.11 in module 20**
COPY LINE NOs	If 'None', write '0'	If 'None', write '0'	If 'None', write '0'	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	
☐☐	☐	☐	☐	

III.b Male Shura questionnaire

National Risk and Vulnerability Survey (NRVA) 1389-90
Afghanistan's Multi-Purpose Household Survey

Male Shura questionnaire

1. Community identification

Supervisor-filled information		Interviewer-filled information	
1.1 Cluster code	☐☐☐☐	1.8 Geo reference waypoint code	☐☐☐
1.2 Residence code	Urban ..... 1 Rural ..... 2 Kuchi 3	1.9 GPS ID code	☐☐☐
1.3 Province name	☐☐	1.10 Latitude Range: 29.35 to 38.40 N	☐☐.☐☐☐☐☐☐
1.4 District name	☐☐☐	1.11 Longitude Range: 60.31 to 75.00 E	☐☐.☐☐☐☐☐☐
1.5 Urban Nahia	☐☐	1.12 Altitude (m.) Range: 200 to 4500 m.	☐☐☐
1.6 Control and Enumeration Area	☐☐☐☐☐		
1.7 Village name	☐☐☐		

2. Process monitoring

2.1	Date of interview	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.2	Interviewers' number	☐☐☐				
2.3	Supervisor's number	☐☐		2.4 Regional Supervisor's number	☐☐	
2.5	Date of office editing	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.6	Office editor's code	☐☐				
2.7	Date of data entry	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.8	Data-entry officer code	☐☐				

3a. Access

3.1	What is the topographical situation of the majority of cropland used by the community?	Open plain ..... 1 Valley ..... 2 Valley and hills ..... 3 Hills (no valley cultivation) 4	
3.2	How far is the nearest drivable road to this community? IF NEAREST ROAD IS IN COMMUNITY, WRITE '0'	☐☐☐ km.	
3.3	Is the closest road to your community usable by vehicles all year?	Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 3.5
3.4	During which months is the road impassable in a normal year?	INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ALL MONTHS THAT ARE MENTIONED	

Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Saratan	Asad	Sunbula	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

3.5	Has there been any program for road repair or/and bridge construction in last 3 years? INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ALL ANSWERS THAT ARE MENTIONED	Own community work ..... 1 Government road project ..... 2 WFP food-for-work road improvement 3 Other food-for-work road project ..... 4 NSP road constuction programme .... 5 NGO road consturction project ..... 6 Military road construction ..... 7 Other ..... 8 None 9	
3.6	Has there been a change in road access in the last 3 years?	No change in road access ..... 1 Road access improved ..... 2 Road access has deteriorated 3	
3.7	What is the name of the place where this community bought their foodstuffs in the last month / the last time?		
3.8	Where is this place located?	In this district ..... 1 In neighbouring district ..... 2 Provincial food market 3	Go to 3.10 Go to 3.10
3.9	What is the name of that district and province?	District name ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐ Province name ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐	Office coding ☐☐☐

	Transport type:	Foot/animal	Shared public transport / bus	Private vehicle / taxi	Bicycle
3.10	How long did it take to reach the nearest permanent food market - one way travel - by <transport type> in the past month? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW	☐ If '1', SKIP 3.11 AND 3.12	☐ If '1', SKIP 3.11 AND 3.12	☐ If '1', SKIP 3.11 AND 3.12	☐ If '1', SKIP 3.11 AND 3.12
3.11	What was the cost of return transport to the permanent food market, including overnight accommodation if needed, in the past month?	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐
3.12	What is the cost of transporting 50 kg of wheat from the permanent food market to the community in the past month?	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐	Afghanis ☐☐☐,☐☐☐

Codes for 3.10 (Time to reach food market)
1= No time - market in community
2= Near the community - within 1 hour
3= 1 to less than 3 hours
4= 3 to less than 6 hours
5= 6 less than 12 hours
6= 12 hours or more
7= Not reachable by this means of transport

3b. Access

Type of health facility	3.13 How long does it take to reach the nearest <health facility> by foot / animal in the last month? (based on one-way travel) For codes, see below	3.14 How long does it take to reach the nearest <health facility> by shared/public transport in the last month? (based on one-way travel) For codes, see below	3.15 What is the cost of one-way transport from your community to this <health facility> by shared/public transport in the last month (cost per person of one way transportation only)?	3.16 How long does it take to reach the nearest <health facility> by private vehicle / taxi in the last month? (based on one-person one-way travel) For codes, see below	3.17 What is the cost of one-way transport from your community to this <health facility> by private vehicle / taxi in the last month (cost of transportation only)?	3.18 Are the following types of staff present in the nearest <health facility>? 1=Yes 2=No 3=Don't know
Health post (house of community health worker)	☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	Female CHW .... 1 2 3 Male CHW 1 2 3
Public clinic (Basic or Comprehensive health centre)	☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	Female doctor .. 1 2 3 Female nurse .... 1 2 3 Female midwife .. 1 2 3 Male doctor ..... 1 2 3 Male nurse 1 2 3
District or Provincial hospital	☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	Female doctor .. 1 2 3 Female nurse .... 1 2 3 Female midwife .. 1 2 3 Male doctor ..... 1 2 3 Male nurse 1 2 3
Private doctor's office or private hospital	☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	Female doctor .. 1 2 3 Female nurse .... 1 2 3 Female midwife .. 1 2 3 Male doctor ..... 1 2 3 Male nurse 1 2 3
Private pharmacy	☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	☐	☐☐,☐☐	Female CHW .... 1 2 3 Male CHW 1 2 3

Codes for 3.13, 3.14 and 3.16 (Time to reach health facilities)

1= No time - health facility in community
2= Near community - 2 hours or less
3= 2 - 6 hours
4= 6-12 hours
5= More than 12 hours
6= Not reachable by this means of transport

3b. Access (continued)

Type of school	3.19 Is a <school type> present in the community? 1=Yes 2=No	3.20 How many public / government <school type> schools are there in the community?	3.21 How many private / NGO <school type> schools are there in the community?	3.22 What is the one-way distance to the nearest <school type> (in km.), either in or outside the community? IF NOT REACHABLE, WRITE '99' AND GO TO NEXT SCHOOL TYPE
Primary, co-ed/shift boys-girls	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.
Primary, girls only	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.
Primary, boys only	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.
Lower secondary co-ed/shift boys-girls	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.
Lower secondary school, girls only	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.
Lower secondary school, boys only	1 2	☐	☐	☐☐ km.

4. Projects

No.	4.1 Has the following infrastucture or programme (a-n) been created or completed in this community during projects in the last year? IF ANSWER IS 'No' ('2'), SKIP QUESTION 4.2 AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT PROGGRAMME	Yes	No	4.2 Under what programme was this activity or infrastructure financed? What is the main financing source of this activity? For codes, see below
a	Road / bridge construction or rehabilitation	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
b	Water supply / construction of wells with hand pumps	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
c	Shelter project - for returnees	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
d	Electricity - micro-hydro, diesel generator	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
e	Micro-finance project	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
f	Drainage structures (bridges, culverts, washes, retaining walls)	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
g	Irrigation infrastructure - improved/construction; dams, washes, intakes, etc.	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
h	Health facility construction or rehabilitation	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
i	School construction or rehabilitation	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
j	Flood/river protection wall	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
k	Income generation project - women	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
l	Reforestation/tree nurseries / orchard/fruit tree rehabilitation	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
m	Literacy / vocational training	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
n	Other , specify _____	1	2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Codes for 4.2 (Financing)

1=Government road project or NERAP
2=NSP
3=Other cash-for-work project
4=Income-generating programme
5=Food-for-work programme
6=UN
7=Other
8=Don't know

5. Community development priorities

Development priority INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PRIORITY EACH	5.1 What is the first priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	5.2 What is the second priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	5.3 What is the third priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?
a Improved drinking water quantity	1	1	1
b Improved drinking water quality	2	2	2
c Rehabilitation of irrigation system	3	3	3
d Repairing of local roads	4	4	4
e Construction of new local roads	5	5	5
f Bridge construction/rehabilitation	6	6	6
g New/improved local health facilities for women	7	7	7
h New/improved local health facilities for men	8	8	8
i New/improved local health facilities for women&men	9	9	9
j New/improved local education facilities for girls	10	10	10
k New/improved local education facilities for boys	11	11	11
l New/improved local education facilities for girls&boys	12	12	12
m New/improved housing in community	13	13	13
n Improved veterinary services	14	14	14
o New/improved micro-credit schemes	15	15	15
p Increased employment opportunities for women	16	16	16
q Increased employment opportunities for men	17	17	17
r Increased employment opportunities for women&men	18	18	18
s Literacy training for women	19	19	19
t Literacy training for men	20	20	20
u Literacy training for both women&men	21	21	21
v Vocational skills training for women	22	22	22
w Vocational skills training for men	23	23	23
x Vocational skills training for both women&men	24	24	24
y Electricity provision	25	25	25
z Reformed/improved local justice systems	26	26	26
aa Disarmament of local militia/commanders	27	27	27
ab Local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms	28	28	28
ac Other, specify	29	29	29

6. Calendars

6.1	INTERVIEWER: IS THIS A RURAL COMMUNITY? Yes ..... 1 No 2	END
6.2	Does this community grow winter wheat? Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.4

6.3 In which months are usually the following activities carried out for winter wheat? CIRCLE ALL MONTHS MENTIONED

Activity	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
Irrigation system maintenance ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Land preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Weeding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Fertilizing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Harvesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post-harvesting process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

6.4	Does this community grow spring wheat? Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.6

6.5 In which months are usually the following activities carried out for spring wheat? CIRCLE ALL MONTHS MENTIONED

Activity	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
Irrigation system maintenance ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Land preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Weeding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Fertilizing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Harvesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post-harvesting process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

6.6	Does this community grow rice? Yes ..... 1 No 2	Go to 6.8

6.7 In which months are usually the following activities carried out for rice? CIRCLE ALL MONTHS MENTIONED

Activity	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
Irrigation system maintenance ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Land preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Weeding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Fertilizing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Harvesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post-harvesting process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

6.8	Does this community grow barley?	Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 → Go to 6.10

6.9 In which months are usually the following activities carried out for barley? CIRCLE ALL MONTHS MENTIONED

Activity	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
Irrigation system maintenance ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Land preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Weeding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Fertilizing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Harvesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post-harvesting process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

6.10	Does this community grow maize?	Yes ..... 1 No ..... 2 → Go to 6.12

6.11 In which months are usually the following activities carried out for maize? CIRCLE ALL MONTHS MENTIONED

Activity	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
Irrigation system maintenance ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Land preparation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Weeding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Fertilizing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Harvesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post-harvesting process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

6.12	Can you tell me when for the men in this community there is strong activity, low activity or no activity for the following tasks?	1=Strong activity 2=Low activity 3=No activity	CIRCLE ACTIVITY LEVEL FOR EACH MONTH										
	Task	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
	Agriculture own land	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Agriculture working for landlords	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Environmental works: land conservation, terracing etc.	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Public works (road maintenance etc.) ..	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Shepherding	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Selling products in market	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Petty trade	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Laboring in other activities	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
6.13	Can you tell me in which months the following food items are abundantly, moderately or not available in this community?	1=Abundantly available 2=Moderately available 3=Not available	CIRCLE ACTIVITY LEVEL FOR EACH MONTH										
	Food item	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Sarat.	Asad	Sunb.	Mizan	Amrab	Maws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot
	Bread	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Fresh fruits	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Dried fruits	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Honey	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Chicken	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Lamb	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Dried meat	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Milk and dairy products	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Fresh vegetables	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Rice	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3
	Maize cobs	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3	1 2 3

III.c Female Shura questionnaire

National Risk and Vulnerability Survey (NRVA) 1389-90
Afghanistan's Multi-Purpose Household Survey

Female Shura questionnaire

1. Community identification

Supervisor-filled information

1.1	Cluster code	☐☐☐☐
1.2	Residence code	Urban ..... 1 Rural ..... 2 Kuchi 3
1.3	Province name	☐☐
1.4	District name	☐☐☐
1.5	Urban Nahia	☐☐
1.6	Control and Enumeration Area	☐☐☐☐☐
1.7	Village name	☐☐☐

2. Process monitoring

2.1	Date of interview	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.2	Interviewers' number	☐☐☐				
2.3	Supervisor's number	☐☐			2.4 Regional Supervisor's number	☐☐
2.5	Date of office editing	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.6	Office editor's code	☐☐				
2.7	Date of data entry	Day ☐☐	Month ☐☐	Year ☐☐		
2.8	Data-entry officer code	☐☐				

3. Community development priorities

Development priority INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PRIORITY EACH	3.1 What is the first priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	3.2 What is the second priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	3.3 What is the third priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?
a Improved drinking water quantity	1	1	1
b Improved drinking water quality	2	2	2
c Rehabilitation of irrigation system	3	3	3
d Repairing of local roads	4	4	4
e Construction of new local roads	5	5	5
f Bridge construction/rehabilitation	6	6	6
g New/improved local health facilities for women	7	7	7
h New/improved local health facilities for men	8	8	8
i New/improved local health facilities for women&men	9	9	9
j New/improved local education facilities for girls	10	10	10
k New/improved local education facilities for boys	11	11	11
l New/improved local education facilities for girls&boys	12	12	12
m New/improved housing in community	13	13	13
n Improved veterinary services	14	14	14
o New/improved micro-credit schemes	15	15	15
p Increased employment opportunities for women	16	16	16
q Increased employment opportunities for men	17	17	17
r Increased employment opportunities for women&men	18	18	18
s Literacy training for women	19	19	19
t Literacy training for men	20	20	20
u Literacy training for both women&men	21	21	21
v Vocational skills training for women	22	22	22
w Vocational skills training for men	23	23	23
x Vocational skills training for both women&men	24	24	24
y Electricity provision	25	25	25
z Reformed/improved local justice systems	26	26	26
aa Disarmament of local militia/commanders	27	27	27
ab Local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms	28	28	28
ac Other, specify	29	29	29

III.d Market price questionnaire

National Risk and Vulnerability Survey (NRVA) 1389-90

Afghanistan's Multi-Purpose Household Survey

Market price questionnaire

1. Identification - market location			
1.1	Cluster code	1.7	Geo reference waypoint code
1.2	Province name	1.8	GPS ID code
1.3	District name	1.9	Latitude Range: 29.35 to 38.40 N
1.4	Urban Nahia	1.10	Longitude Range: 60.31 to 75.00 E
1.5	Control and Enumeration Area		
1.6	Village name		

2. Process monitoring					
2.1	Date of interview	Day	Month	Year	
2.2	Interviewers' number				
2.3	Supervisor's number		2.4	Regional Supervisor's number	
2.5	Date of office editing	Day	Month	Year	
2.6	Office editor's code				
2.7	Date of data entry	Day	Month	Year	
2.8	Data-entry officer code				

3. Prices

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
Bread and cereals			
3.1	Purchased nan	Piece	
3.2	Barley	Kg.	
3.3	Maize (corn)	Kg.	
3.4	Beans	Kg.	
3.5	Mung	Kg.	
3.6	Chick peas	Kg.	
3.7	Lentils	Kg.	
3.8	Pasta / macaroni	Kg.	
Meat and fish			
3.9	Beef	Kg.	
3.10	Veal	Kg.	
3.11	Mutton	Kg.	
3.12	Goat	Kg.	
3.13	Chicken	Kg.	
3.14	Liver	Kg.	
3.15	Dried meat	Kg.	
3.16	Fish	Kg.	
Milk, cheese and eggs			
3.17	Milk (fresh)	Kg.	
3.18	Milk (powdered)	Kg.	
3.19	Yogurt	Kg.	
3.20	Curd (chaka)	Kg.	
3.21	Krut (dried)	Kg.	
3.22	Dogh	Kg.	
3.23	Ghee	Kg.	
3.24	Butter	Kg.	
3.25	Cheese	Kg.	
3.26	Egg	One	
Spices			
3.27	Salt	Kg.	
3.28	Black pepper	Kg.	
3.29	Ginger and garlic	Kg.	
3.30	Tomato sauce	Kg.	
3.31	Mixed spices	Kg.	

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
Vegetables			
3.32	Potato	Kg.	
3.33	Sweet potato	Kg.	
3.34	Onion	Kg.	
3.35	Tomato	Kg.	
3.36	Okra	Kg.	
3.37	Spinach	Kg.	
3.38	Cauliflower	Kg.	
3.39	Eggplant	Kg.	
3.40	Carrots	Kg.	
3.41	Pumpkin / squash	Kg.	
3.42	Cucumber	Kg.	
3.43	Radish	Kg.	
3.44	Turnip	Kg.	
3.45	Cabbage	Kg.	
3.46	Leek	Kg.	
3.47	Fresh pepper	Kg.	
3.48	Wild leaves	Kg.	
3.49	Coriander	Kg.	
3.50	Mint	Kg.	
3.51	Dried tomatoes	Kg.	
3.52	Dried vegetables	Kg.	
3.53	Pickled vegetables	Kg.	
3.54	Green beans	Kg.	
Oils and fat			
3.55	Animal fat	Kg.	
3.56	Vegetable/cotton/sesame oil	Kg.	
3.57	Other oil and fat	Kg.	
Sugar and sweets			
3.58	White sugar	Kg.	
3.59	Brown sugar	Kg.	
3.60	Honey	Kg.	
3.61	Candy, chocolates, sherinigack	Kg.	

3. Prices (continued)

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
	Fruit and nuts		
3.62	Apple	Kg.	
3.63	Grapes	Kg.	
3.64	Melon / watermelon	Kg.	
3.65	Peach	Kg.	
3.66	Fresh apricots	Kg.	
3.67	Dried apricots	Kg.	
3.68	Orange/citrus	Kg.	
3.69	Pomegranate	Kg.	
3.70	Plum	Kg.	
3.71	Pear	Kg.	
3.72	Banana	Pieces	
3.73	Raisins	Kg.	
3.74	Fresh mulberries	Kg.	
3.75	Dried mulberries	Kg.	
3.76	Mangoes	Kg.	
3.77	Walnuts (with shells)	Kg.	
3.78	Walnuts (without shells)	Kg.	
3.79	Pistachio (with shells)	Kg.	
3.80	Pistachio (without shells)	Kg.	
3.81	Almonds (with shells)	Kg.	
3.82	Almonds (without shells)	Kg.	

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
	Beverages		
3.83	Black tea	Kg.	
3.84	Green tea	Kg.	
3.85	Bottled/canned beverages, mineral water	Liter	
	Other commodities		
3.86	Wheat - local (farm-gate)	Kg.	
3.87	Wheat - local (market)	Kg.	
3.88	Wheat - imported	Kg.	
3.89	Wheat flour - local	Kg.	
3.90	Wheat flour - imported	Kg.	
3.91	Rice - high quality	Kg.	
3.92	Rice - high quality	Kg.	
3.93	Liquid gas	Kg.	
3.94	Kerosene	Liter	
3.95	Diesel	Liter	
3.96	Gasoline/petrol	Liter	
3.97	Dry bread	Gram / Piece	

ANNEX IV SAMPLE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

IV.1 Introduction

The sampling design of the NRVA 2011-12 was developed to produce results that are statistically reliable for most of the indicators at national and provincial level. In addition, the aim of the sampling design was to have representative estimates by season according to the Shamsi calendar used in Afghanistan,[1] in order to capture seasonal fluctuations in a number of key indicators.

The design developed for the 2011-12 survey round was a stratified, two-stage cluster approach. Upon discussion with the Technical Advisory Committee it deviated from the NRVA 2007-08 design in the sense that it did not explicitly stratify for urban and rural areas. However, the sample distribution is sufficiently close to the national urban-rural distribution that separate analysis for these populations is justified. Other differences with 2007-08 were the shift of proportional to equal sub-sample sizes to each of the provinces and the increase of the cluster size from eight to ten households.

IV.2 Sample frame

As in 2007-08, NRVA 2011-12 had to use the pre-census household listing that was conducted by CSO in 2003-05 as the sampling frame. Although more recent listings were carried out since 2005, these were not considered sufficiently complete or reliable at the start of the present survey. The 2003-05 household listing covered 21,194 EAs that were used as PSUs in the first sampling stage. Prior to the fieldwork, the selected EAs – urban and rural – were visited for a mapping update of the households, on the basis of which the second sampling stage was implemented.

The sampling frame that was used for the Kuchi population was the 2003-04 National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK-2004). Although far from perfect given the rate of settlement of Kuchis in recent years and ongoing discussion about the definition of Kuchi, this is the best frame available for this part of Afghanistan's population.

IV.3 Sample size

Analysis of previous NRVA rounds showed that a sample size of around 21 thousand households with a cluster size of ten households would produce sufficiently reliable estimates for most variables. Consequently, this sample size was set as the standard for future NRVA rounds.

IV.4 Stratification

The sample was stratified into 35 analytical domains: one for each of the 34 provinces of Afghanistan and one for the Kuchi population. Each of these strata were assigned with an equal number of households – 600 – in order to give sufficient weight to provinces with small populations. Since the provincial sub-samples were equally distributed over 12 survey months, the four seasons also become separate analytical domains. The Kuchi stratum was only divided into the 2011 summer and 2011-12 winter season in view of the practical difficulty of locating migrating communities in spring and autumn.

IV.5 Cluster size and number of clusters

The cluster size in the NRVA 2011-12 was established at ten households, compared to eight in NRVA 2007-08, in order to reduce fieldwork costs. There is a pragmatic upper limit to the cluster size, given the time and costs involved in reaching remote villages and the lack of accommodation for fieldworkers in such areas. In addition, the specific conditions in Afghanistan prescribe that in insecure areas the field staff should not be exposed to risks of a stay of more than two days in the interview area. Ten household interviews (plus two Shura interviews) is the maximum that can be achieved in two days time.

The cluster size of ten, in combination with 35 strata, a fixed number of clusters per stratum and a total sample size of 21 thousand, implies 60 clusters per province and five clusters (50 households) per province per month.

IV.6 Sampling stages and selection process

Within each of the 34 provincial strata an equal number of 60 EAs were selected as PSUs in the first sampling stage, based on PPS. In the second stage a cluster of ten households was selected from the updated household listing, based on a fixed-interval and random-start procedure. This two-stage sampling procedure implies an equal sampling probability for all households in a stratum. In rural EAs that contained more than one village, a third sampling stage was introduced to select one of the villages, as it was not feasible to cover different villages during the household update prior to the fieldwork.

In order to accommodate for possible non-response different procedures were devised. Non-response within a cluster was addressed by drawing an additional five households from the household listing in the EA, which could replace households not present or refusing or not able to accommodate an interview.

Replacement of selected EAs that were not accessible due to physical access (mainly in winter time) or insecurity was done by using sampled EAs from later months in the survey period. This principle was based on the assumption that physical access in another time of the year would be feasible and that security is a fluid condition, which may improve over time. However, in a later stage of the fieldwork an alternative strategy was devised to replace clusters insecure areas. A reserve sample of PSUs was drawn from the sampling frame, from which districts that were defined as insecure by the supervisors and PSOs were excluded, as well as EAs that were originally sampled. EAs that were originally selected in these districts and not yet covered were replaced by EAs from this reserve list. Isolated emerging security issues in other districts could also urge the use of replacement from this reserve list. The 27 districts excluded from the sampling frame for the reserve sample list are listed in *Table IV.1*.

For the Kuchi stratum a first-stage PPS selection of Kuchi communities was carried out on the basis of the NMAK list. The second stage consisted of systematic sampling of clusters of ten households, based on a field compilation of tents and permanent dwellings occupied by Kuchis. This resulted in large communities having more than one cluster, up to a community with nine clusters.

Table IV.1 Districts excluded from sample frame for reserve sample

Province	District number and name	
Kapisa	06	Tagab
	07	Alasay
Parwan	03	Shinwari
	07	Syahgirdi Ghorband
	08	Kohi Safi
Wardak	02	Nerkh
	04	Chaki Wardak
	05	Sayydabad
Logar	06	Khar War
	07	Azra
Laghman	05	Dawlat Shah
Baghlan	02	Dahana-e-Ghuri
Baghlan	03	Dushi

Province	District number and name	
Paktya	03	Zurmat
	09	Jani Khel
Takhar	16	Chahab
Samangan	06	Dara-e-Soof-e-Payin
Sar-e-Pul	01	Prov. capital of Sar-e-Pul
Daykundi	03	Gizab
Zabul	06	Shah Joi
	11	Kakar (Khak-e-Afghan)
Kandahar	12	Nesh
Jawzjan	05	Qush Tepa
	11	Darzab
Helmand	11	Reg-e-Khan Nishin
	12	Baghran
Nimroz	05	Khashrod

[1] For conversion of Shamsi season dates, see Annex XI.

IV.7 Sample design implementation

Two major issues impeded the implementation of the sampling design during the fieldwork period. One was the security situation in parts of the country, which halfway the survey led to the introduction of the reserve sample. In total 133 clusters (6.3 percent of the original 2,100 clusters) were thus replaced with ones from other districts. In addition, 17 clusters, representing 170 households, were not implemented and not replaced. Figure 1.1 in chapter 2 shows in which districts the survey was implemented according to the sample design, and in which districts fewer or no data collection took place.

A second interference with the sampling design concerned delays in the fieldwork due to administrative, logistic and technical issues. This had the following implications:

- The fieldwork was extended from 12 to 16 months in order to capture the full sample.
- Information for spring and summer time was collected in two different years (2011 and 2012)
- The Kuchi sample was implemented in winter 2011-12 and summer 2012 instead of summer 2011 and winter 2011-12.
- There was especially an underrepresentation of coverage during the autumn season.

Table IV.2 presents the number of households interviewed by season and year. In total 20,828 households were covered, 172 (0.8 percent) short of the targeted sample.

Table IV.2 Interviewed households, by year, and by season (Shamsi calendar)

Season	Year		Total
	1390	1391	
Spring	1,671	4,866	6,537
Summer	3,289	4,149	7,438
Autumn	2,753	0	2,753
Winter	4,100	0	4,100
Total	11,813	9,015	20,828

Non-response within clusters was very limited. Only in 797 (3.8 percent) of the scheduled interviews in the 2,099 accessed EAs households were not available or refused or were unable to participate. In 779 of these cases households were replaced by reserve households listed in the cluster reserve list, leaving 18 households unaccounted for (0.09 percent).

IV.8 Calculation of sampling weights and post-stratification

By design, the sample observations in the sample are self-weighted. An implication of this is that the expansion factor for all observations within a specific stratum is simply the ratio of the number of households in a stratum divided by the number of sample observations from each stratum. This applies to the provincial strata as well as to the Kuchi stratum.

For the purpose of calculating the sampling weights, scaling factors were constructed based on the number of households in Afghanistan. The estimated number of households was derived from the CSO population projections by province for January 2012. For the settled population, the provincial population was divided by the average household size in the NRVA 2011 sample of each province to obtain the number of households in the middle of the survey period. This ratio is the scaling factor Whsq that expands the sample of households to the total population of households and reflects the product of the probabilities of selection for the Primary Sampling Unit (PSU) and the Ultimate Sampling Unit (USU):

Whsq = [prob(PSU) * prob(USU)]

where h identifies the household, s identifies the stratum, and q identifies the calendar quarter.

Because the unweighed sample allocation was not uniform across seasons, uncorrected annual estimates would place relatively larger weights on those seasons which had a large sample (spring and summer), thereby distorting the representativeness of national results. Because the sample was stratified by season, and imposing the assumption that the level of seasonal, international migration is negligible, the weighted distribution can be smoothed out to ensure that the estimated population size by quarter is the same. That is to say, the sample-based estimate of the population of Afghanistan is the same in the summer as it is in the winter. This adjustment is implemented as:

$$Whsq = [prob(PSU) * prob(USU)] * [0.25 * POPs, 2012] / \sum hsq\ HHSIZEhsq$$

where POP is the CSO estimate for the settled population for January 2012 (25,500,100). This population is divided by four to uniformly allocate the population to each quarter of the year (assuming away seasonal international migration). The denominator term HHSIZEhsq is the size of household h in stratum s sampled in quarter q. The denominator gives the total number of sampled, settled individuals in each stratum by quarter. The adjustment term in the numerator gives the population of individuals for each stratum by quarter as estimated by CSO of the settled population.

In order to obtain an expansion factor for the count of individuals the following calculation was made:

$$whsq = Whsq * HHSIZEhsq$$

Whsq and whsq are included in the NRVA 2011-12 dataset as sampling weights to produce survey results for the total populations of households and individuals.

ANNEX V POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX

Table V.1.a: Population, by residence, sex, and by five-year age groups (in thousands)

Age	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
0-4	452	419	871	1,779	1,708	3,486	166	135	301	2,396	2,262	4,658
5-9	459	418	877	1,844	1,670	3,514	138	140	278	2,442	2,228	4,670
10-14	425	402	826	1,425	1,275	2,700	112	83	194	1,962	1,759	3,721
15-19	400	428	828	971	976	1,947	65	57	121	1,436	1,461	2,897
20-24	333	282	616	727	769	1,496	45	53	98	1,105	1,105	2,209
25-29	233	220	453	651	714	1,365	54	61	115	939	995	1,933
30-34	161	161	322	534	521	1,055	38	36	74	733	718	1,451
35-39	141	153	294	452	448	900	34	37	71	628	638	1,265
40-44	120	111	232	356	344	700	25	23	49	501	479	981
45-49	92	89	181	283	254	536	22	18	40	396	361	757
50-54	83	110	193	257	303	559	20	21	41	359	434	793
55-59	60	68	128	198	153	351	13	9	22	271	230	502
60-64	54	53	107	188	142	330	11	9	20	252	205	457
65-69	49	30	79	102	64	166	6	6	12	157	100	257
70-74	40	24	64	92	48	140	7	4	11	140	75	215
75-79	14	10	24	37	15	52	2	3	5	53	28	81
80-84	14	6	20	32	13	45	4	-	4	50	19	69
85+	11	...	15	18	5	23	2	-	2	31	9	40
Total	3,141	2,989	6,130	9,945	9,420	19,365	764	696	1,459	13,850	13,105	26,955

Table V.1.b: Population, by residence, sex, and by five-year age groups (in percentages)

Age	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
0-4	14.4	14.0	14.2	17.9	18.1	18.0	21.7	19.5	20.6	17.3	17.3	17.3
5-9	14.6	14.0	14.3	18.5	17.7	18.1	18.1	20.1	19.1	17.6	17.0	17.3
10-14	13.5	13.4	13.5	14.3	13.5	13.9	14.6	11.9	13.3	14.2	13.4	13.8
15-19	12.7	14.3	13.5	9.8	10.4	10.1	8.5	8.2	8.3	10.4	11.1	10.7
20-24	10.6	9.4	10.0	7.3	8.2	7.7	5.9	7.6	6.7	8.0	8.4	8.2
25-29	7.4	7.3	7.4	6.5	7.6	7.0	7.1	8.8	7.9	6.8	7.6	7.2
30-34	5.1	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.4	4.9	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.4
35-39	4.5	5.1	4.8	4.5	4.8	4.6	4.5	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.9	4.7
40-44	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.6
45-49	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8
50-54	2.6	3.7	3.2	2.6	3.2	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.8	2.6	3.3	2.9
55-59	1.9	2.3	2.1	2.0	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.5	2.0	1.8	1.9
60-64	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.9	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.8	1.6	1.7
65-69	1.6	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.8	1.0
70-74	1.3	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.8
75-79	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3
80-84	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.5	-	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.3
85+	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	-	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

ANNEX VI MORTALITY ESTIMATION

VI.1 Methodology

The NRVA 2011-12 round did not foresee the production of fertility and mortality estimates. However, at last instance an abridged module was added to collect information about children ever born and children alive. Since no full birth histories were collected, it is not possible to estimate fertility in a way comparable to NRVA 2007-08. However, the data do allow the estimation of mortality indicators similar to the previous round.

For the calculation of the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) and the Under-five Mortality Rate (U5MR), the Brass method of indirect mortality estimation was applied, using the Trussell variant and the West model life tables of the Coale-Demeny model life tables (United Nations 1983, United Nations 1990). The Brass method uses data on the total number of women by five-year age group, their children ever born and children dead. In combination with coefficients that are estimated by regression analysis of simulated model cases, these data can be used to derive estimates of q(x), the probability of dying between birth and age x, accounting for the duration of exposure to the risk of mortality, which is approximated by the women's ages and the fertility pattern in the country. The number of women of each age group includes all women, regardless of marital status and parity, while the numbers of children ever born and dead refer to ever-married women between the ages of 15 and 49 in the female section of the NRVA questionnaire. This procedure has also been followed in the NRVA 2007-08 and MICS 2010 (CSO and UNICEF 2012) and was one of the variants applied in the AMS 2010 (APHI/MoPH et al 2010). Women's weights were calculated to adjust for women's non-response to module 24 and large absence of information on children-ever-born and children dead from Zabul province.

VI.2 Sources of errors

There are several sources of error that must be considered when calculating child mortality estimates for Afghanistan from a household survey. This section focuses on non-sampling errors and does not examine sampling errors associated with taking a sample as opposed to collecting data on everyone in the population.

One of the problems faced in survey taking in the Afghan population is age misreporting due to illiteracy, lack of birth registration and general ignorance the date of birth. Although the age accuracy has improved compared to NRVA 2007-08, the Whipple index (223) and the Myers index (20.6) indicate highly inaccurate age reporting. The use of five-year age groups helps mitigate age errors to some degree.

A second source of errors relate to the reporting of the population by sex. As mentioned in section 3.2.1, the overall sex ratio in the survey population was 107, which is likely caused by underreporting of female household members. This is supported by the analysis of members that were added to the household listing after checking with the senior female household representative by female interviewers. This showed that detected omissions in the household roster for 79 percent referred to female household members.

As for the sex ratio recorded for the total population, the sex ratio at birth suffers from a male bias. Whereas almost anywhere in the world the biological sex ratio at birth varies only between 105 and 106 boys per 100 girls (UNFPA 2011), with most extreme estimates ranging from 104 to 107 boys per 100 girls (Dubuc and Coleman 2007), the NRVA survey reported on average a sex ratio at birth of 113. Other surveys in Afghanistan collecting information of births experienced the same phenomenon.[1] The bias in NRVA 2011-12 is most pronounced in the mothers' age group 20-24 (*Table VI.1*). The skewed ratio is most likely resulting from one or both of two phenomena: intentional misclassification of girls as boys (for instance related to shame of having mostly or only girl children) and underreporting of girl children (under the assumption that the total number of boys reported is correct). The former would affect sex-specific mortality ratio's, but not the overall mortality ratio, while the latter would likely affect female mortality ratio's as well as the overall mortality ratio.

1 E.g. The AMS 2010 found a sex ratio a t birth of 114, the MICS 2010 115 and NRVA 2007-08 110.

Table VI.1 Sex ratio of children ever born and children dead, by age group of the mother

Age of mother	Sex ratio	
	Children ever born	Children dead
15-19	110	110
20-24	127	145
25-29	113	98
30-34	109	108
35-39	109	104
40-44	111	101
45-49	124	106
Total	113	106

There is also some evidence of problems of reporting on deceased children by sex in the mothers' age categories 20-24 and 25-29. However, the overall sex ratio of deceased children of 106 is plausible, given the biological higher mortality of boys compared to girls.

A simulation was done to compensate for the alleged missing girls born. This simulation assumed a sex ratio at birth of 106 and a conservative estimate of the proportion dead among these missing girls of 25 percent. This procedure would raise the IMR from 48 to 54 and the U5MR from 91 to 92. The results, however, cannot be taken as an improvement as the assumptions are insufficiently substantiated.

VI.3 Mortality estimation

Table VI.2 represents the calculation of probabilities of dying before a specified age x for all reported children born and separately for boys and girls. The estimates for the IMR and U5MR are, respectively 48 and 91 and refer to, respectively early 2011 and late 2005. The value for the IMR is unexpectedly low and given the problems encountered with age reporting, under-registration of girls born and sex ratios of deceased children of mothers in age group 20-29, there are good reasons to mistrust this result.

The U5MR, on the other hand, suffers less from the age-specific problems mentioned above. Moreover, the level of 91 deaths before reaching age 5 per thousand live births is well in line with results found in the MICS 2010 and the AMS 2010 (respectively 102 and 97 [2]), given time progressed, the 2007-08 NRVA benchmark of 161 death per thousand live births and sampling confidence intervals.

Whereas, as expected, the IMR of boys is higher than that of girls (49 compared to 46 per thousand live births), the U5MR of girls is higher than that of boys: 92 against 89 per thousand live births.

2 Referring to the AMS estimate based on the Brass methodology and excluding the South zone, as this was considered the most reliable result.

Table VI.2 Estimation of probability of dying and associated reference date, by sex

a. Both sexes

Woman's age	Index (i)	Number of women	Children ever born CEB(i)	Parity (Pi)	Children deceased CD(i)	Proportion deceased D(i)	Multiplier k(i)	Age of children (x)	Probability of dying before x q(x)	Time of estimate t(i)	Reference date T(i)
15-19	1	1,460,995	218,977	0.1499	8,959	0.0409	1.1644	1	**0.0476**	0.9	2011.0
20-24	2	1,104,892	1,487,378	1.3462	124,592	0.0838	1.0843	2	0.0908	2.1	2009.9
25-29	3	994,606	3,151,085	3.1682	243,129	0.0772	1.0147	3	0.0783	3.9	2008.0
30-34	4	717,773	3,330,199	4.6396	297,055	0.0892	1.0165	5	**0.0907**	6.2	2005.8
35-39	5	638,012	3,767,540	5.9051	389,761	0.1035	1.0316	10	0.1067	8.7	2003.2
40-44	6	479,266	2,990,814	6.2404	342,509	0.1145	1.0172	15	0.1165	11.5	2000.5
45-49	7	361,014	2,258,664	6.2564	288,637	0.1278	1.0110	20	0.1292	14.4	1997.5
Total		5,756,558	17,204,657		1,694,642						

b. Boys

Woman's age	Index (i)	Number of women	Boys ever born CEB(i)	Parity (Pi)	Boys deceased CD(i)	Proportion deceased D(i)	Multiplier k(i)	Age of boys (x)	Probability of dying before x q(x)
15-19	1	1,460,995	114,550	0.0784	4,701	0.0410	1.2014	1	**0.0493**
20-24	2	1,104,892	831,131	0.7522	73,807	0.0888	1.0821	2	0.0961
25-29	3	994,606	1,669,676	1.6787	120,492	0.0722	1.0045	3	0.0725
30-34	4	717,773	1,736,824	2.4197	154,463	0.0889	1.0050	5	**0.0894**
35-39	5	638,012	1,962,847	3.0765	198,577	0.1012	1.0191	10	0.1031
40-44	6	479,266	1,574,643	3.2855	171,955	0.1092	1.0042	15	0.1097
45-49	7	361,014	1,249,179	3.4602	148,293	0.1187	0.9984	20	0.1185
Total		5,756,558	9,138,850		872,288				

c. Girls

Woman's age	Index (i)	Number of women	Girls ever born CEB(i)	Parity (Pi)	Girls deceased CD(i)	Proportion deceased D(i)	Multiplier k(i)	Age of girls (x)	Probability of dying before x q(x)
15-19	1	1,460,995	104,427	0.0715	4,258	0.0408	1.1201	1	**0.0457**
20-24	2	1,104,892	656,247	0.5939	50,785	0.0774	1.0864	2	0.0841
25-29	3	994,606	1,481,409	1.4894	122,637	0.0828	1.0262	3	0.0849
30-34	4	717,773	1,593,375	2.2199	142,592	0.0895	1.0298	5	**0.0922**
35-39	5	638,012	1,804,693	2.8286	191,184	0.1059	1.0460	10	0.1108
40-44	6	479,266	1,416,171	2.9549	170,554	0.1204	1.0321	15	0.1243
45-49	7	361,014	1,009,485	2.7962	140,344	0.1390	1.0254	20	0.1426
Total		5,756,558	8,065,807		822,354				

ANNEX VII UPDATING THE POVERTY LINE USING NRVA 2011-12

VII.1 Methodology

The official poverty line for Afghanistan was set in 2007-08, using information available from the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) survey. In particular, adhering to international best practices, the poverty line was set following the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) method and it represents the level of per capita consumption at which the members of a household can be expected to meet their "basic needs" in terms of both food a and non-food consumption.[1] The measurement of poverty based on the NRVA 2011-12 is obtained by updating the poverty line set using the NRVA 2007-08.

Updating the original poverty line, as opposed to setting a new one, has the advantage of preserving the comparability of poverty estimates over time, thereby allowing an analysis of changes in poverty. In particular, for poverty estimates to be comparable over time between the NRVA 07-08 baseline and the newly released NRVA 11-12, the measure of welfare used to rank households (i.e. consumption aggregate) should be constructed following the same methodology used for the baseline; the "updated" poverty line should be estimated to capture the same level of wellbeing identified by original poverty line, but evaluated at the prices obtained from the current survey. Thus, while in effect updating the poverty line entails the definition of a new poverty line for the 2011-12 survey round, the "poverty line basket" is taken to be pre-determined.[2]

VII.2 Effective sample size

The effective sample size for the poverty analysis is 19,598 households spread across 32 of the 34 provinces in Afghanistan. Two of the provinces, Helmand and Khost, were dropped from the sample used for poverty estimation due to problems of data quality, which emerged in the measurement of the consumption aggregate and, most notably, in the measurement of food component of the aggregate.[3]

VII.3 Building the consumption aggregate using NRVA 2011-12

The process of constructing the consumption aggregate matches the one used for setting the poverty line using information from NRVA 2007-08. In particular, the same consumption aggregate subcomponents were defined, namely (i) food component, (ii) non-food component, (iii) consumer durables, and (iv) housing.

In what follows, we provide a brief methodological overview on how each of these subcomponents were constructed, highlighting comparability issues, if any, between 2007-08 and 2011-12. For a more detailed description of the methodology followed in 2007-08, the reader should refer to Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, Ministry of Economy and the World Bank 2010.[4]

VII.3.1 Food component

Like the previous round, the NRVA 2011-12 includes a very detailed food consumption section in which female respondents are asked about household consumption (quantities/units consumed) of 91 food items, organized into nine food groups, over the past 7 days.[5] Food consumption data include food both bought, home produced, as well as food that might have been acquired by means of non-monetary transactions such as gifts and food aid. The nominal expenditure on food consumption was obtained combining food items' consumption with their price information coming from the District Price Survey (DPS) module which was administered in conjunction with the 2011-12 NRVA.[6]

1 The official national average poverty line for Afghanistan is Afs 1,253 per person per month. This represents the typical cost of attaining 2,100 calories per person per day and of meeting some basic non-food needs, in terms of fall 2007 prices from urban areas of central Afghanistan. The poverty line reflects regional differences in the cost of living, and also accounts for inflation over the time of the survey. See Islamic Republic of Afghanistan and World Bank 2010.

2 The official national average poverty line for Afghanistan is Afs 1,253 per person per month. This represents the typical cost of attaining 2,100 calories per person per day and of meeting some basic non-food needs, in terms of fall 2007 prices from urban areas of central Afghanistan. The poverty line reflects regional differences in the cost of living, and also accounts for inflation over the time of the survey. See Islamic Republic of Afghanistan and World Bank 2010.

3 The same two provinces were dropped from the analysis of food security (chapter 7).

4 Document accessible online at: http://cso.gov.af/Content/Media/Documents/CSO-WB_Tech-Report-Pov_v4(2)116201112104565155332532 5.pdf

5 Food items are organized into 9 food groups, namely: (i) bread and cereals; (ii) meat and fish; (iii) milk, cheese and eggs; (iv) oil and fat; (v) vegetables; (vi) fruits and nuts; (vii) sugar and sweets; (viii) beverages, and (ix) spices.

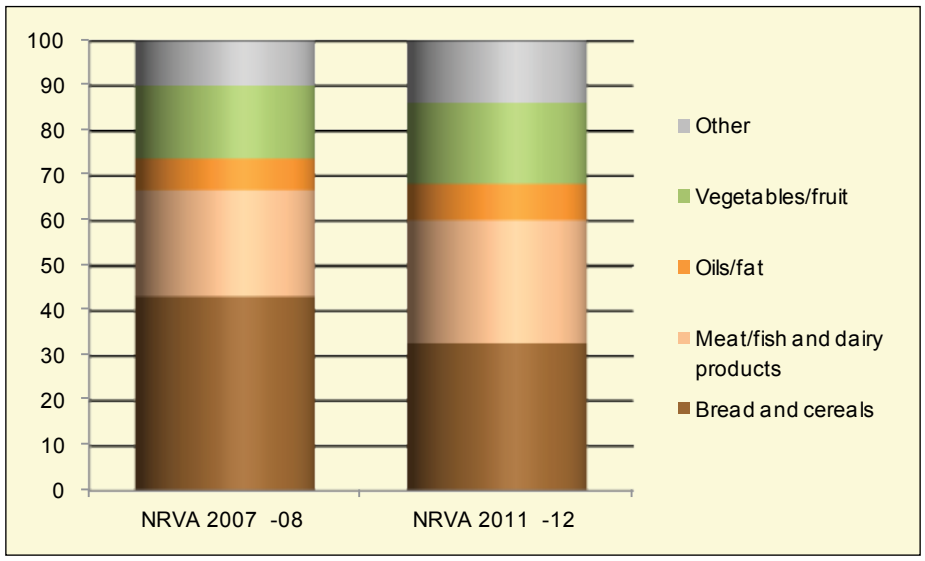
6 The District Price Survey module covers the price of all food items in the consumption module and a few other items such as grains and fuels. DPS data were collected during NRVA survey visits to the PSUs. Team supervisors were responsible to visit the markets of the respective districts (or nahia in urban areas) and to administer the survey. The identification of the relevant market to be surveyed and its location – whether it would be in the district headquarters, provincial capital, or in a neighboring district – were guided by key informant interviews within each community. Price information was matched to household level food consumption by location and month of interview.

For each of the nine food categories, NRVA 2011-12, like NRVA 2007-08, allows for a residual – "other" – food category item. Lacking a price for these residual categories, proxy prices were defined for each "other" category to be the median by month and district of the prices of items in each food group as done for the consumption aggregate in 2007-08.[7]

A final component of total food consumption is the total value of meals consumed outside the household, e.g. in restaurants, prepared food purchased from the marketplace, etc. The NRVA 2011-12 collects this information in section 10 of the Male Household Questionnaire by asking "What has the household spent in the last 30 days for food and drinks consumed outside the home?", and, accordingly, the total value of food away from home was used in the imputation of total food consumption.

A comparative analysis of food consumption patterns from the two survey rounds shows a reduction over time in the relative share of staple food (bread and cereals) over total[8] , accompanied by an increase in share of relatively more nutritious food items such as meat and fish, diary and vegetables (*Figure VII.1*).

Figure VII.1: Total food consumption aggregate, by food group, and by survey year (in percentages)



VII.3.2 Non-food component

Total expenditure on non-food items covers a wide and heterogeneous set of items such as expenditure on energy, education, transportation and clothing and was constructed by aggregating expenditures on goods and services from various sections of the NRVA.[9] Changes in the measurement of health expenditure in survey instruments made it impossible to build a comparable estimate for health across the two survey rounds. As a result, health expenditure is not included in the non-food component of the consumption aggregate.[10]

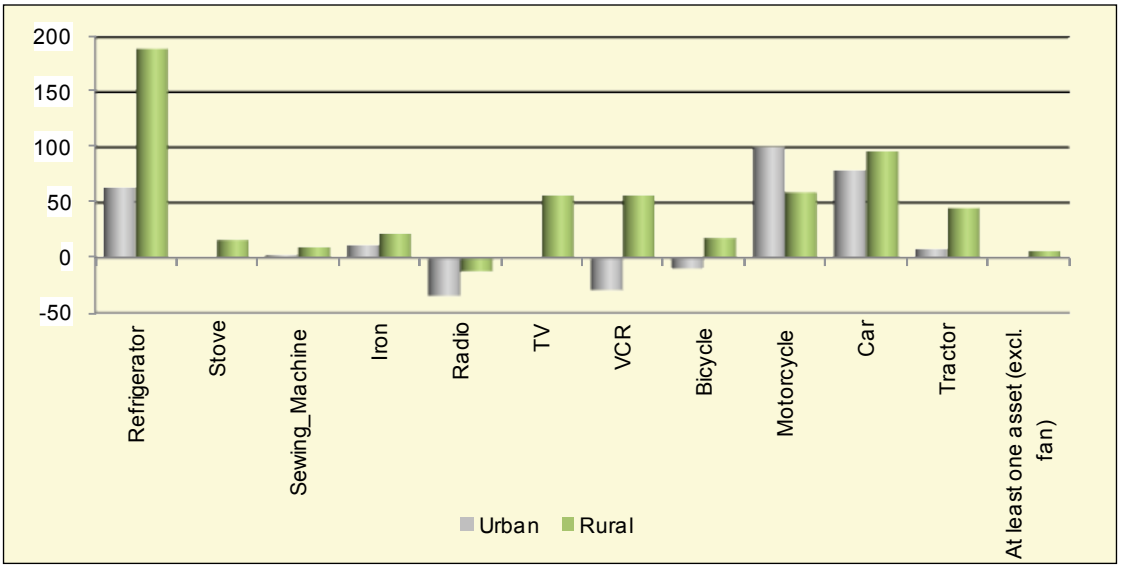
Consumer durables

Following baseline methodology and international best practice, "rental equivalent" of consumer durables are included in the consumption aggregate, to reflect the opportunity cost of money tied up in durable goods and their lifetime and depreciation.[11] As done in the previous survey round, asset life is assumed to be 10 years (with a flat-line depreciation of 10 percent per year), and an interest rate 4 percent, implying the effective discount rate of 14 percent.

7 For details on the rationale for the definitions for each category, refer to Islamic Republic of Afghanistan and World Bank 2010.
8 The share of breads and cereals in total consumption declined from 43 % to 33% while the shares of all other categories increased.
9 Expenditures such as education, transportation and clothing were reported on an annual basis, and converted into monthly values. Energy expenditures cover all sources: electricity, gas, oil, firewood, charcoal, coal, straw, ping, and manure. Following the 2007-08 approach and standard best practice, the non-food aggregate does not include three categories of expenditure, namely: (1) lumpy expenditures, (2) investment expenditures, and (3) expenditures not related to household well-being.
10 In order to produce comparable estimates of poverty over time, the 2007-08 consumption aggregate had to be recomputed to exclude medical expenditure and the baseline poverty line re-estimated to reflect this change in non-food consumption.
11 Durable items include: refrigerator, stove/ gas balloon, sewing machine, iron, radio/tape recorder, TV, VCR/DVD player, satellite phone, electric fan, bicycle, motorcycle, car, tractor/thresher, mobile phones, carpets *(khalin), gilim*, blankets, and kitchen utensils.

Analysis of asset ownership reveals interesting temporal patterns (Figure VII.2). In particular, an increase in the share of households owning at least one asset is observed, especially in rural areas, where the ownership of assets such as refrigerators, TV, cars and motorbikes has markedly increased since 2007-08.

Figure VII.2: Change in households that own selected durables between NRVA 2007-08 and NRVA 2011-12 (in percentages)



Housing

As in the case of consumer durables, the contribution of housing to household welfare is captured in the consumption aggregate by estimating its rental value. Following the same approach adopted for the baseline, the rental value of housing is estimated by fitting a hedonic pricing model, i.e. by regressing self-housing value information on house characteristics. Following baseline methodology, model specifications vary by urban, rural and Kuchi subsamples. Table 1 shows the medians of actual and predicted housing values from the three dwelling groups. The predicted values lie within two percent margin of the actual value and are closest to the actual value among rural households, which account for most of NRVA sample.

Table VII.1: Median of reported and predicted housing value, by residential dwelling type (in Afghanis)[a]

Dwelling type	Housing value	
	Reported	Predicted
Urban dwelling	702,500	619,666
Rural dwelling	165,500	158,318
Tents	7,000	8,590

[a] Estimates based on the subsample of households reporting actual housing values

Housing values were converted to monthly rent by imposing a relationship based on interest and depreciation rates. In particular, a discount rate (d) of 1.5 percent and interest rate (r) of 4 percent were used.

Analysis of the consumption aggregate

The consumption aggregate based on the NRVA 2011-12 is constructed as the sum of the food-, non-food-, durables- and housing components. The relative share of each component to the total appears to have stayed constant across the two survey rounds, with food consumption having the largest share in the aggregate. Interestingly, differences in consumption composition between the poorest and richest segments of the population seem to have narrowed, overall reflecting an increase in “other than food” expenditure for the first (poorest) quintile.

Table VII.2: Consumption aggregate, by consumption-aggregate component, survey year, and by wealth quintile (in percentages)

Wealth quintile	Consumption-aggregate component, survey year							
	Food		Non-food		Durables		Rent	
	2007-08	2011-12	2007-08	2011-12	2007-08	2011-12	2007-08	2011-12
1 (Poorest)	69	63	22	24	2	2	7	11
2	67	64	24	25	2	2	7	10
3	64	64	25	24	3	3	8	9
4	61	63	27	24	3	4	9	10
5 (Richest)	53	58	29	26	5	6	14	10
Total	63	62	25	24	3	3	9	10

VII.4 Updating the poverty line using NRVA 2011-12

The poverty line represents the benchmark for assessing whether an individual can attain the minimum level of wellbeing required to satisfy basic needs in terms of food and non-food consumption. The ultimate objective of poverty measurement using the NRVA 2011-12 is to produce poverty estimates that are comparable with the one based on the absolute poverty line estimated on NRVA 2007-08. More specifically, the NRVA 11-12 poverty line should reflect the same level of wellbeing identified by the 07-08 baseline official poverty line. This section focuses on the methodology adopted for updating the poverty line.

VII.4.1 Food poverty line

According to the Cost of Basic Needs approach, the food poverty line reflects the cost of consuming the reference basic-needs basket, i.e. the food bundle corresponding to a minimum caloric requirement (*Table VII.3*). In the case of Afghanistan, the food poverty corresponds to the cost of attaining 2,100 Kilocalories based on the typical consumption of the relatively poor. [12]

In order to update the food poverty line, the basic-needs basket estimated in 2007-08 was priced using information from the 2011-12 Price District Survey. In particular, each of the items in the basket was priced at its average price by region-quarter to obtain a matrix of 56 region-quarter nominal food poverty lines. As a result, the average national "nominal" poverty line expressed in 2011-12 prices is equal to 1,013 Afs per person per month, and it represents the average cost of purchasing the basic-needs food basket in 2011-12.

Table VII.3: NRVA 2007-08 basic needs basket[a], by main food category[b] (in kg. per person per day)

Food category	Quantity
Grains and bread	0.4268
Meat	0.0182
Dairy	0.1022
Oil	0.0279
Vegetable	0.1566
Fruits	0.0452
Sweets and sugar	0.0235

[a] The basic need basket is composed of 83 consumption items.
[b] In this table, items were grouped into main food categories.

12 The relatively poor are defined as those individuals whose consumption level is in the 2-5th deciles of real per-capita consumption in each region (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, Ministry of Economy and the World Bank 2010).

VII.4.2 Non-food poverty line

In order to fully reflect basic needs, the poverty line also includes an allowance for non-food basic needs. The approach followed for updating the non-food poverty line is identical to the one used in 2007-08. In particular, the non-food allowance is based on the typical non-food expenditure of the subsample of households in each region, whose per capita food expenditure is relatively close to the food poverty line.

Updated 2011-12 poverty line

The overall poverty line is obtained as the sum of the food poverty line and the non-food allowance. The national average poverty line based on NRVA 2011-12 is 1,710 Afs per person per month; it represents the sum of the cost of attaining 2,100 calories per person per day based on the basic need basket set in 2007-08 and the cost of meeting basic non-food needs. A household is defined as poor if the total value of per capita consumption is less than the poverty line.[13]

Table VII.4: NRVA 2011-12 poverty indicators[a]

Poverty Indicators	Estimate	Std. Err.	[95 percent C. I.]	
Poverty Headcount rate	36.5	0.84	34.84	38.14
Poverty Gap	8.6	0. 25	8.11	9.10
Poverty Gap Squared	3.0	0. 11	2.75	3.19

[a] Individual-level weights used, standard errors corrected for complex survey design.

13 The subsample used for estimating the non-food poverty line is selected to reflect equal proportions of households above (10 percent) and below (10 percent) the food poverty line at the regional level.

ANNEX VIII FOOD SECURITY ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

VII.1 Food security analysis methodology

Within NRVA 2011-12, data were collected on household expenditure, quantities and type of foods, and number of days certain foods are consumed over a seven-day recall period. Hence, to determine household food security, kilocalorie (Kcal) intake data based on a seven-day recall is used. The available calories per household and per person are calculated based on the caloric content of all the food commodities reported consumed by the household over a period of seven days. Given that some of the food was consumed by visitors and that some members of the household were away during the survey period, an effective household size is calculated that is then used to determine the calories consumed per household and per person per day.

The household caloric requirement is determined based on household sex and age composition. The calories of food consumed per person per day are calculated to determine whether individuals within the household consumed sufficient calories for a normal and healthy life. The calorie requirement adjusted for sex and age of household members also takes into consideration the additional requirements during the severe winter cold season across the country – 300 Kcal per person per day for adults, 100 Kcal per person per day for children 5 to 9 years old, 150 Kcal per person per day for children 10 to 14 years old, and zero additional calories for children under five years. In considering the winter months, upon consultation with FEWS NET Afghanistan, the calorie requirement in six provinces including Badakhshan, Nuristan, Panjsher, Bamyan, Ghor and Daykundi is adjusted for five winter months (November-March), while in the remaining provinces it is adjusted for three winter months (January-March).

The Kcal thresholds used in food security are then triangulated with other indicators such as demographics, livelihoods, food consumption and expenditure levels to identify variations of food security and key characteristics of food-insecure households. Furthermore, the protein deficit analysis based on the food quantity consumed and the protein requirement by age and sex of the household members is also included in the analysis.

Calculation of calories available

a) $\mathbf{Kh} = \sum_{n}\{(\mathbf{QF1})\mathbf{x}\ \mathbf{F1c} + (\mathbf{QF1})\mathbf{x}\ \mathbf{F1c} + \cdots\}$

b) $\mathbf{Kpc} = (\frac{\mathbf{Kh}}{\mathbf{HHsize}})/\mathbf{T}$

where:

Kh	=	Kilo calories *available* per household over specific period
QF1	=	Food quantity consumed per household over a specific period
n	=	Number of food items
F1c	=	calorie content of the food item
Kpc	=	Calories available per person per day
HHsize	=	Number of persons per household
T	=	Period food was consumed

Calculation of calories required

c) $\mathbf{Kr} = \sum_{N}\{(\mathbf{Ha1})\mathbf{x}\ \mathbf{A1r} + (\mathbf{Ha2})\mathbf{x}\ \mathbf{A2r} + \ldots\}$

d) $\mathbf{Krpc} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{Kr}}{\mathbf{Nh}}\right)$

where:

Kr	=	*Kilo calories **required** per household per day by age group and gender*
Ha1	=	*Number of persons in age category in the household*
N	=	*Number of age groups categories by sex*
A1r	=	*Calories required by the age group and gender Krpc = Calories required per person per day*
Nh	=	*Number of persons per household*

Deficit/Surplus e) $\mathbf{Ksp} = \mathbf{Kpc} - \mathbf{Krpc}$ *Ksp = Calories per person per day surplus or deficit*

The Food Consumption Score (FCS) is an acceptable proxy indicator to measure caloric intake and dietary quality at the household level, giving an indication of the food security status of the household if combined with other household food access indicators. The FCS is useful when data on caloric intake and protein intake is not available. It is a composite score based on dietary diversity, food frequency (i.e. number of days certain food groups are consumed over a past seven-day recall period), and the relative nutritional importance of different food groups. The FCS is calculated based on the food consumption recall of the previous seven days for the household and classified into three categories: Poor consumption (FCS = 1.0 to 28.0); Borderline (FCS = 28.1 to 42.0); and Acceptable

consumption (FCS > 42.0). The FCS is a sum of weighted food groups. The weight for each food group is calculated by multiplying the number of days on which the commodity was consumed by its relative weight. The FCS is normally combined with other indicators such as percentage expenditure on food, coping strategy index or asset ownership. These help to determine household food access and lead to an overall classification of food security.

VII.2 Afghanistan winter and spring wheat, rice and maize harvesting calendar based on NRVA 2011-12 data

The analysis also considers the seasonality factor, based on a region's pre-harvest (or lean season), harvest and post-harvest season, as food security levels are expected to differ across seasons. The seasonal crop calendar for the different provinces of Afghanistan used in this analysis is based on the crop calendar collected during the 2011-12 NRVA (*Table VIII.1*).

Table VIII.1: Seasonal crop calendar, by region, province

Region	Province	Lean season				Lowest price on market	Winter months			Planting season Winter wheat		Planting season Spring wheat		Harvest season Winter wheat	
		Start	End	No. of months	Peak		Start	End	Severe conditions	Start	End	Start	End	Start	End
Central	Kabul	Dec	Feb	3	Feb	Jun	Jan	Mar		Sep	Oct	Mar	Apr	Aug	Aug
	Kapisa	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	_	_	Jul	Aug
	Logar	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Sep	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jul	Aug
	Parwan	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	May	Jun	Jul	Sep
	Wardak	Nov	Mar	5	Mar	Apr	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jun	July
	Panjsher	Nov	Apr	6	Mar	Jun	Nov	Mar	X	Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jul	Oct
Central Highland	Ghazni	Nov	Mar	5	Mar	Jun	Nov	Mar	X	Sep	Oct	Apr	May	Aug	Nov
	Bamyan	Nov	Apr	6	Apr	Jun	Nov	Mar	X	Sep	Oct	Apr	May	Jun	Sep
	Daykundi	Nov	Apr	6	Apr	Jul	Nov	Mar	X	Sep	Oct	Mar	Apr	Jul	Oct
	Ghor	Nov	Apr	6	Apr	Aug	Nov	Mar	X	Sep	Oct	Apr	May	Aug	Oct
Eastern	Kunar	Jan	Mar	2	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Nov	Dec	Mar	Mar	May	Jun
	Nangarhar	Jan	Feb	2	Feb	May	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	_	_	May	Jun
	Laghman	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	May	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	_	_	May	Jun
	Nooristan	Nov	Apr	5	Apr	Jul	Nov	Mar		Oct	Nov	Apr	May	Aug	Sep
North	Balkh	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Nov	Dec	Jan	Mar	Jun	Aug
	Jawzjan	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Nov	Dec	_	_	Jun	Aug
	Samangan	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jul	Sep
	Sar-e-Pul	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Nov	Dec	Mar	Apr	Jul	Oct
	Faryab	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Nov	Dec	Mar	Apr	Jun	Aug
North-east (Badakshan)	Badakshan	Nov	May	6	May	Jul	Nov	Apr	X	Sep	Oct	Apr	May	Jul	Oct

Table VIII.1: Seasonal crop calendar, by region, province (continued)

Region	Province	Lean season				Lowest price on market	Winter months			Planting season Winter wheat		Planting season Spring wheat		Harvest season Winter wheat	
		Start	End	No. of months	Peak		Start	End	Severe conditions	Start	End	Start	End	Start	End
North-east	Baghlan	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jun	Aug
	Kunduz	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jun	Jul
	Takhar	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Oct	Dec	Mar	Apr	Jul	Oct
South-East	Khost	Jan	Mar	2	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Mar	Jun	Jun
	Paktika	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Sep	Oct	Mar	Apr	Jul	Aug
	Paktya	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jul	Aug
South-West	Helmand	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Dec	Jan	_	_	May	Jun
	Kandahar	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Dec	Jan	Mar	Mar	Jun	Jul
	Nimroz	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	_	_	Jun	Jul
	Urozgan	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jul	Jan	Mar		Dec	Jan	Apr	May	Jun	Aug
	Zabul	Dec	Mar	4	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jun	Aug
West	Farah	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Oct	Nov	Mar	Apr	Jul	Aug
	Herat	Jan	Mar	3	Mar	Jun	Jan	Mar		Dec	Jan	Apr	May	Jun	Aug
	Badghis	Nov	Mar	5	Apr	Jul	Dec	Mar	X	Nov	Dec	Mar	Apr	Jun	Jul

ANNEX IX QUALITY ASSURANCE AND QUALITY ASSESSMENT

IX.1 Introduction

Quality assurance is relevant for each activity and each operations stage of statistical operations. It should be understood as a multi-dimensional concept, including the following dimensions:[1]

a. Relevance
b. Completeness
c. Accuracy
d. Comparability
e. Coherence
f. Timeliness
g. Accessibility.

This understanding implies that data accuracy is only one – albeit important – dimension of overall data quality. Section 2 of this annex gives brief overviews of measures to assess the quality of in the NRVA 2011-12 data according to these dimensions, and of actions and procedures implemented to assure data quality.

Subsequent sections IX.3 and IX.4 further elaborate on two main types of data errors that affect sampling surveys: sampling errors and non-sampling errors. Sampling errors relate to the fact that selected households are one of many possible samples that could have been selected from the sampling frame. Each of these would produce results that are somewhat different from one another and likely somewhat different from the total population. Non-sampling errors refer to a wide variety of other data errors that arise during the course of all survey activities other than sampling. Whereas estimates of sampling errors can be quantified by calculating standard errors, non-sampling errors are difficult to evaluate statistically.

IX.2 Quality assurance

No survey is able to achieve a perfect score on each of the dimensions of data quality, as many tend to improve at the expenses of the others. For example, very high quality data require training of census staff at each staff level for such extensive periods, field monitoring and supervision at such intensity, and data editing at such comprehensive detail, that the project will exceed any acceptable time and budget limit. Thus, any survey will have to find an practical and acceptable balance within the bounds of existing resources and constraints. *Table IX.1* gives an overview of the measures relevant to NRVA 2011-12 with respect to the specified dimensions of quality assurance. The remainder of this section lists the key activities and procedures implemented in the survey to assure data quality.

a. Management of relevance

- Extensive stakeholder consultation was organised to discuss and define the information to be collected in 2011-12 and subsequent rounds of NRVA (January-March 2010).
- Additional stakeholder meetings were organised to discuss the NRVA the outline of this final report and the associated tabulation and analysis plan (July and September 2012).
- Survey results and draft chapters and annexes of the NRVA 2011-12 report were shared with relevant stakeholders for review and comments (January-June 2013).
- Household lists of enumeration areas selected for fieldwork were updated immediately prior to data collection.

1 See e.g. UNECE 2006, United Nations 2008.

Table IX.1 Quality assurance dimensions and measures in NRVA 2011-12

Dimension	Description	NRVA quality assurance measures
a.Relevance	The degree to which the data serve to address the purposes for which they are produced and sought by data users. Value is further characterized by the merit of those purposes, in terms of the mandate of the agency.	• CSO is the mandated agency to produce national statistics for Afghanistan; NRVA is CSO's core instrument for the collection of household data. • Data users were involved in questionnaire design, the development of the report outline and tabulation and analysis plan, review of produced indicators and other results, and in several occasions in analysis and report writing. • NRVA is the only survey producing representative information at province level. However, there is a high demand for representative information at district level, which is not met by NRVA. • The NRVA report includes information at provincial level for 34 indicators and variables. Data users can further explore provincial details in the micro data. • NRVA is the only national survey capturing information about seasonality.
b. Completeness	The degree to which the data serve data users as completely as possible, taking restricted resources into account.	• NRVA is the only survey producing representative information for the entire population of Afghanistan, including the nomadic Kuchi (presently estimated at 5.4 percent of the total population). • Being a multi-purpose survey, information demands are not covered in as much detail as desired in every survey single round. However, the rotating principle applied in NRVA assures that with a relevant rate of recurrence desired information is provided in successive survey rounds. • Due to outdated sample frames, it is likely that considerable, but unknown, segments of the population are underrepresented in the survey results.
c. Accuracy	The degree to which the data correctly estimate or describe the quantities or characteristics that the survey was designed to measure.	• Quality assurance was sought by estimating standard errors and confidence intervals (see section IX.3), assessing coverage errors and, calculating non-response rates (section IX.4). • No procedure was in place to assess the rate of data-capture errors. • A wide range of activities was implemented to enhance data accuracy (see the sub-section on management of data accuracy).
d. Comparability	The degree to which statistics are comparable over space and time.	• Questionnaires, definitions and methodologies are increasingly harmonised with international recommendations and national practices. Thus, NRVA applies the national definition of employment, under-employment and unemployment, implements internationally recommended methodologies for poverty and food-security assessments and to a large extent complies with UNICEF-MICS and DHS procedures for indicators for health, child wellbeing and demographic indicators. • Comparability over time is one of the key criteria in the NRVA. However, this criterion is negotiated by others. Consequently, NRVA is an instrument in continuous development, receptive for changes if improvement is sufficiently important and ensured.
e. Coherence	The degree to which data from a single statistical programme, and data brought together across statistical programmes, are logically connected.	• No formalised procedure was in place to harmonise sampling, data collection, methodologies, concepts, definitions, classifications, indicators and other statistics, and dissemination across statistical activities in CSO or between CSO and other data producers and data users. • Ad-hoc, but continuous efforts were undertaken to embed NRVA in a broader stakeholder agreement on survey taking and production of statistics.
f. Timeliness	The delay between the period to which information pertains and the date on which the information becomes available.	• The time between completion of data collection and the release of the NRVA 2011-12 report was just over one year. Given the complexity of the survey and CSO experience in survey taking this is not exceedingly long, but for many data users the survey results have already lost considerable value. This is the case all the more because the start of data collection was two-and-a-half years before the release of the report. • In order to bridge the gap between data collection and dissemination, quarterly reports with a selected number of key indicators were planned. In the end only one mid-term report was realised.
g. Accessibility	The availability of information and the suitability of the form in which the information is available.	• The NRVA 2011-12 report will be available in Dari, Pashtu and English, and in all three languages both on the CSO website and in printed form. • Selected tables at national and provincial level will be available on the CSO website. • The NRVA 2011-12 report provides meta data, including information about questionnaires, sampling design, survey procedures, concepts and definitions, methodologies applied for poverty, food-security and mortality estimation, and quality assurance. • CSO adheres to a micro-data access policy, which applies to NRVA data. • The name of NRVA will change to ALCS – Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey – to enhance the survey's appeal and recognition.

- The survey was designed to produce information that:
  - is representative at the level of provinces
  - captures the seasonality of development indicators.
- The questionnaire was designed to capture information relevant to the specific context of Afghanistan.
- NRVA played a key role in defining national definitions of employment, underemployment and unemployment, in agreement with key stakeholders, such as MoEc, MoLSAMD, ILO and World Bank.
- A strategy was designed and implemented to optimise the probability of implementing fieldwork in remote and high-risk areas and thus avoiding bias in survey results.
- Key stakeholders participated in the NRVA Steering Committee and Technical Advisory Committee to ensure the soundness the overall project strategy and technical components.

b. Management of completeness

- The NRVA survey cycle is based on a rotation scheme that was agreed upon by the stakeholders (March 2010). This implies that in each survey round a core set of key indicators across development themes is produced, and that at appropriate intervals additional or expanded questionnaire modules are administered to allow more comprehensive information for selected themes in successive survey rounds.
- Special efforts were made to capture information about the nomadic Kuchi population.

c. Management of accuracy

- Questionnaire design included considerations of question justification, wording, sequence of questions and modules, complexity of routing, interview burden, classifications, formatting and layout.
- Questionnaires were tested in a pre-test and in a pilot test (October 2010).
- Field staff recruitment was based on review of CV's, a written test by and an interview with shortlisted applicants, as well as on a final exam during the field-staff training.
- Training activities and procedures included the following:
  - The field staff training was centrally organised in Kabul to ensure a uniform training by the highest qualified CSO staff.
  - The field staff training was conducted during a full three weeks to allow sufficient time for respective training elements.
  - In addition to the initial central training, two rounds of regional workshops were conducted to discuss lessons learned and provide refresher training.
- Field monitoring and supervision was implemented at several levels:
  - Field supervisors supervised day-to-day procedures and checked completed questionnaires.
  - Provincial Statistical Officers checked completed questionnaires on a sample basis.
  - Regional Statistical Officers supervised general field operations.
  - Key NRVA staff from CSO Headquarters performed monthly field monitoring missions.
- Data-processing activities and procedures included the following:
  - Monthly provincial batches of completed questionnaires were manually checked upon receipt at CSO Headquarters. In case of serious shortcomings, questionnaires were referred back to the field.
  - Data capture in MS Access consisted of double data entry with independent verification. This in principle eliminated any data typing mistakes.
  - Checks in MS Access were performed to identify and remedy essential data structure and data integrity problems.
  - A limited number of consistency and range checks in MS Access were performed before the raw dataset was delivered.
  - Comprehensive data-editing programmes were designed in Stata to perform consistency and range checks
  - Frequency and cross tabulations were produced in Stata to determine response distributions and identify any skewed data, missing values, odd results and outliers. Data were corrected as far as circumstantial evidence allowed. If this was not possible, incorrect values were converted to missing values.
  - NRVA 2011-12 results were triangulated with other data sources where available to assess their plausibility.
  - Indicators of sampling and non-sampling errors were produced to assess specific data quality components (see sections IX.3 and IX.4).

d. Management of comparability

- Advise was sought with international experts and agencies as to better harmonise NRVA data collection and analysis with international standards and keep it up-to-date with new developments.

- Consultations with national stakeholders were organised to explore comparability between NRVA and other data sources, as well as strategies to improve comparability.
- In each phase of survey implementation, comparability with previous rounds of NRVA was a key consideration.

e. Management of coherence

- In the absence of a formalised procedure NRVA explored on an ad-hoc basis the consistency of sampling, data collection, methodologies, concepts, definitions, classifications, indicators and other statistics, and dissemination across statistical activities in CSO, and between CSO and other data producers and data users. Where feasible, these were harmonised.

f. Management of timeliness

- Data collection and data processing were done in parallel to minimise the period between completion of both activities.
- Monitoring procedures were designed and implemented to monitor progress in data collection and data processing.
- The release of quarterly reports with selected key indicators one month after completion of quarterly data collection was planned. Only the release of one mid-term report with selected key indicators was realised (August 2012).

g. Management of accessibility

- The NRVA 2011-12 report will be made available in Dari, Pashtu and English, as to broaden NRVA's effective audience.
- The NRVA 2011-12 report will be made available both on the CSO website and in printed form.
- Selected tables at national and provincial level will be made available on the CSO website.
- The NRVA 2011-12 report provides meta data, which supports the understanding of the contents and quality of the survey results. These meta data include, among other, information about questionnaires, sampling design, survey procedures, concepts and definitions, methodologies applied for poverty and food-security assessment, mortality estimation, and quality assurance.
- NRVA data will be made available to data users in line with CSO's micro-data access policy.
- The name of NRVA will change to ALCS – Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey – to enhance the survey's appeal and recognition.

IX.3 Sampling errors

Statistics based on a sample, such as means and percentages, generally differ from the statistics based on the entire population, since the sample does not include all the units of that population. The sampling error refers to the difference between the statistics of the sample and that of the total population. Usually, this error cannot be directly observed or measured, but is estimated probabilistically.

The sampling error is generally measured in terms of the standard error for a particular statistic, which equals the square root of the variance of that statistic in the sample. Subsequently, the standard error can be used to calculate the confidence interval within which the true value of the statistic for the entire population can reasonably be assumed to fall: a value of the statistic produced from the sample will fall within a range of plus or minus two times the standard error of that statistic in 95 percent of all possible samples of identical size and design.

Table IX.2 provides an overview of standard errors and confidence intervals for selected indicators. Since the sample design of NRVA 2011-12 is not simple random sampling, but a multi-stage stratified design, the linearisation method is used for estimation of standard errors.

Table IX.2 Sampling errors and confidence intervals for selected indicators

Statistic	Base population	Value	Standard error	Confidence limits	
				Lower	Upper
Percentage under age 15	Total population	48.4	0.3	47.9	48.9
Average household size	All households	7.4	4.4	7.3	7.5
Employment-to-population ratio	Working-age population	45.7	0.3	45.1	46.4
Percentage not-gainfully employed	Labour force	25.0	0.5	24.1	25.9
Percentage owning irrigated land	All households	37.9	0.8	36.5	39.4
Percentage owning garden plot	All households	12.6	0.6	11.4	13.7
Percentage below the poverty line	Total population	36.5	0.8	34.8	38.1
Percentage food-insecure	Total population	30.1	0.7	28.7	31.6
Youth literacy rate	Population aged 15-24	47.0	0.9	45.2	48.8
Net attendance ratio in primary education	Primary-school-age population	56.8	0.8	55.1	58.4
Net attendance ratio in secondary education	Secondary-school-age population	32.7	0.9	30.9	34.4
Percentage receiving skilled ante-natal care (at least 1 visit)	Married women under age 50 with a birth in the five years preceding the survey	51.2	0.9	49.5	52.9
Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel.	Married women under age 50 with a birth in the five years preceding the survey	39.9	0.9	38.1	41.6
Percentage using improved drinking water sources	Total population	45.5	1.1	43.4	47.7
Percentage using improved sanitation	Total population	8.3	0.6	7.1	9.7

IX.4 Non-sampling errors

IX.4.1 Overview of possible non-sampling errors

Aside from the sampling error associated with the process of selecting a sample, a survey is subject to a wide variety of non-sampling errors. These errors may – and unavoidably do – occur in all stages of the survey process. Non-sampling errors are usually classified into two groups: random errors and systematic errors. Random errors are unpredictable errors that are generally cancelled out if a large enough sample is used. Since NRVA has a large sample size, random errors are a priori not considered to be an issue of large concern. Systematic errors are those errors that tend to accumulate over the entire sample and may bias the survey results to a considerable extent. Therefore, this category of non-sampling errors is a principal cause for concern. The following overview elaborates the main types of systematic non-sampling errors.

Coverage errors

Coverage errors occur when households are omitted, duplicated or wrongly included in the population or sample. Such errors are caused by defects in the sampling frame, such as inaccuracy, incompleteness, duplications, inadequacy or obsolescence. Coverage errors may also occur in field procedures, for instance when omitting specific households or persons.

The sampling frames used for NRVA 2011-12 included the 2003-05 pre-census household listing and the 2003-04 National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK-2004). Both listings were outdated by the time of fieldwork implementation and it is likely that in the intervening period considerable changes occurred with respect to the number and geographic distribution of households. This will have had particular effect on newly built-up (urban) areas and squatter settlements, including areas with high density of internally displaced persons and returnees. Such areas will have been systematically underrepresented in the sample selection. With regard to the Kuchi coverage, besides the observed, but un-quantified rate of settlement of Kuchi households and natural population growth, changing migration patterns will have caused a population distribution in 2011-12 that is different to the one represented in the NMAK list.

Non-response errors

There are two types of non-response: unit non-response and item non-response. Unit non-response implies that no information is obtained from a given sample unit, while item non-response refers to a situation where some but not all the information is collected for the unit. Item non-response occurs when respondents provide incomplete information, because of respondents' refusal or incapacity to answer, or omissions by interviewers. Often non-response is not evenly spread across the sample units but is concentrated among sub-groups. As a result, the distribution of the characteristics of subgroups may deviate from that of the selected sample.

Unit non-response in NRVA 2011-12 occurred to the extent that sampled clusters were not visited, or that sampled households in selected clusters were not interviewed. Out of the 2,100 originally scheduled clusters, 150 (7.1 percent) were not visited. For 133 of these non-visited clusters (6.3 percent), replacement clusters were sampled and visited. Although this ensured the approximation of the targeted sample size, it could not avoid the likely introduction of some bias as the omitted clusters probably have a different profile than included clusters.

In the visited clusters – including replacement clusters – 797 households (3.8 percent of the total) could not be interviewed because – mostly – they were not found or because they refused or were unable to participate. For 779 of these non-response households (3.7 percent of the total), replacement households were sampled and interviewed. Since the household non-response is low and it can be expected that the replacement households provide a reasonable representation of the non-response households, this non-response error is considered of minor importance. The overall unit non-response rate – including non-visited clusters and non-interviewed households, without replacement – is 10.9 percent.

With regard to item non-response, the close to 800 variables in the NRVA household and Shura questionnaires each reveal different levels of missing values. During the data-processing stages of manual checking, computerised batch editing and final editing these levels were reduced by edit strategies. For some key variables,[2] missing values were

2 All household identification variables – Cluster code (Q1.1), Residence code (Q1.2), Province code (Q1.3), District code (Q1.4), Nahia code (Q1.5), Control and Enumeration area code (Q1.6) and Village code (Q1.7), as well as individual-level variables Relationship to the head of household (Q3.3), Sex (Q3.4), Age (Q3.5) and Marital status (Q3.6).

filled in for 100 percent. For other variables, missing values were only filled in when convincing evidence could be found for assigning a specific value. Section X.4.2 gives information about missing values for selected variables. This overview reflects the finding that generally the percentage of missing values is low.[3] For household-level variables the level of missing values is typically well below 0.5 percent. The percentage of missing values in individual-level variables is somewhat higher, but generally below 3 percent. Occurrence of higher levels are exceptional and relate to misunderstanding of skipping patterns.

Response errors

Response errors result when questions are incorrectly asked, or information is incorrectly provided, received or recorded. These errors may occur because of inappropriate questionnaire design, inadequate interviewer training, incompetence or irresponsible interviewer behaviour, time pressure, or shortcomings on the side of the respondent, such as misunderstanding, inaccuracy, ignorance, recollection problems or reluctance to provide a correct answer.

The NRVA 2011-12 survey variables showed different rates of response errors, according to consistency and range checks performed. During manual checking and batch- and final editing all key variables (see above) with evidently incorrect values were corrected based on available information, referral back to the field staff or most plausible inference. Other variables were corrected as far as circumstantial evidence allowed. If this was not possible, incorrect values were converted to missing values.

Data-processing errors

In principle, each of the stages of data processing – manual questionnaire checking, data capture, batch editing and final editing – and general data management can add to the number of errors included in the final dataset. However, usually the major source of data-processing errors is data capture. Elaborate data-checking procedures and data-editing programmes can to a significant degree correct data errors, but no dataset is ever completely error-free.

NRVA 2011-12 used double data entry with independent verification for data capture. As this in principle eliminates any data typing mistakes, the only data errors in the data file are response errors. A series of computerised checks provided the information where to remedy essential data structure and data integrity problems. In addition, a limited number of consistency and range checks were performed before the raw dataset was delivered. The main thrust of data editing was done as part of the analysis phase. Although apparent data errors still exist in the final dataset, these are very few and statistically insignificant.

IX.4.2 Missing values

Table IX.3 Provides information about the percentage of missing values for selected variables. Variables were purposely selected from all household-questionnaire modules and cover both key and secondary variables.

3 Missing values also include values that were found to be incorrect, but for which no justifiable valid value could be deduced (see also the section on response errors).

Table IX.3 Percentage missing values for selected variables[a]

Variable	Base population	Percent missing values
Household-level variables		
Construction material of walls	20,828	1.9
Number of rooms in the dwelling	20,828	0.2
Main source of cooking fuel	20,828	0.4
Type of toilet facility used	20,828	0.0
Main source of drinking water	20,828	0.1
Household owning livestock	20,828	0.0
Number of goats vaccinated	2,969	0.3
Type of veterinary service provider	3,071	0.1
Households owning farm land	20,828	0.0
Jeribs of irrigated land owned	12,604	0.0
Jeribs of irrigated land cultivated	10,145	0.0
Main crop produced on irrigated land	9,993	0.5
Amount of most important crop produced	9,993	0.3
Number of mobile phones owned	20,828	0.4
Value of household debt	10,920	0.1
First household income source	20,828	0.0
Income from most important income source	20,828	0.4
Expenditure on food at home	20,828	0.0
Expenditure on children's clothing	20,828	0.0
Reduced drinking water quantity shock	20,828	0.1
Male assessment of economic situation	20,828	0.5
Sufficiency of food supply in household	20,828	0.0
Assessment of economic situation	20,828	0.8/0.4
Household members consuming dinners	20,828	0.0
Number of days consumed wheat	20,828	0.0
Amount of wheat consumed	19,828	0.2
Individual-level variables		
Person worked last week	84,023	1.1
Person worked last month	42,986	0.4
Economic activity status	84,023	1.1
Occupation	40,144	0.2
Place of birth	159,224	0.2
Place of usual residence in 1983	117,944	0.6
Years lived elsewhere	7,442	18.7
Lived elsewhere for seasonal work	84,023	1.7
Literacy	124,209	0.6
Attended formal school	124,209	2.5
Highest education grade completed	46,181	0.5
Currently attending school	36,595	1.7
Ever had a live birth[b]	24,774	3.0
Number of girls born[b]	21,457	0.0
Birth attendance[b]	21,457	0.5
Number of children under five[b]	21,457	2.1
Children under-five with birth certificate[b]	15,817	1.2

[a] Based on unweighted observations
[b] Percentages refer to, respectively, all observation units and to all units minus those from Zabul province, where female interviewers could not administer the survey.

ANNEX X TABLES AT PROVINCE LEVEL

Table X.1: Population, by sex, and by province, age groups (in thousands)

Province, age group	Sex		
	Male	Female	Both sexes
National	**13,849**	**13,106**	**26,955**
0-14	6,799	6,249	13,048
15-24	2,540	2,566	5,106
25-39	2,299	2,350	4,649
40-59	1,781	1,709	3,490
60+	430	231	662
Badakhshan	**486**	**452**	**938**
0-14	232	212	444
15-24	84	81	165
25-39	77	83	160
40-59	73	68	141
60+	21	8	29
Badghis	**320**	**290**	**610**
0-14	158	133	291
15-24	52	59	111
25-39	62	60	121
40-59	42	35	77
60+	7	3	10
Baghlan	**459**	**416**	**875**
0-14	225	194	419
15-24	93	95	187
25-39	71	67	138
40-59	59	56	115
60+	11	5	16
Balkh	**611**	**603**	**1,214**
0-14	282	252	534
15-24	129	137	266
25-39	93	110	203
40-59	88	86	174
60+	19	18	37
Bamyan	**218**	**208**	**426**
0-14	100	97	197
15-24	48	42	90
25-39	32	34	67
40-59	28	31	58
60+	11	4	15

Daykundi	**194**	**199**	**392**
0-14	95	95	189
15-24	35	41	76
25-39	29	32	61
40-59	26	28	54
60+	9	4	13
Farah	**311**	**255**	**566**
0-14	164	127	291
15-24	57	56	114
25-39	48	41	88
40-59	35	27	62
60+	7	4	12
Faryab	**475**	**488**	**963**
0-14	215	208	423
15-24	66	84	150
25-39	97	113	211
40-59	70	69	139
60+	26	14	41
Ghazni	**662**	**610**	**1,271**
0-14	341	309	649
15-24	99	108	207
25-39	122	107	229
40-59	82	79	161
60+	19	8	26
Ghor	**368**	**346**	**714**
0-14	186	168	354
15-24	59	67	126
25-39	61	62	123
40-59	50	43	93
60+	12	5	17
Helmand	**479**	**459**	**938**
0-14	241	238	479
15-24	85	92	177
25-39	88	84	172
40-59	59	44	103
60+	5	2	7
Herat	**947**	**924**	**1,871**
0-14	474	447	921
15-24	183	200	383
25-39	129	146	274

40-59	128	117	245
60+	33	15	48
Jawzjan	**250**	**250**	**500**
0-14	104	106	210
15-24	53	52	105
25-39	42	46	88
40-59	40	38	78
60+	10	8	18
Kabul	**2,219**	**2,023**	**4,243**
0-14	925	818	1,743
15-24	536	490	1,026
25-39	386	355	741
40-59	276	314	590
60+	97	45	143
Kandahar	**536**	**538**	**1,074**
0-14	299	298	597
15-24	45	59	104
25-39	103	115	218
40-59	84	64	148
60+	5	1	7
Kapisa	**214**	**205**	**419**
0-14	93	91	184
15-24	52	45	97
25-39	31	32	63
40-59	30	31	61
60+	8	6	14
Khost	**330**	**268**	**598**
0-14	193	135	328
15-24	49	51	100
25-39	41	41	82
40-59	41	39	80
60+	5	3	8
Kunarha	**232**	**221**	**453**
0-14	133	122	254
15-24	38	43	81
25-39	32	30	62
40-59	26	25	51
60+	3	1	4
Kunduz	**516**	**475**	**990**
0-14	258	238	496
15-24	105	89	194

25-39	78	81	159
40-59	60	58	118
60+	14	9	23
Laghman	**251**	**236**	**487**
0-14	137	127	264
15-24	41	39	80
25-39	38	40	78
40-59	30	27	57
60+	6	3	8
Logar	**237**	**221**	**458**
0-14	137	111	247
15-24	18	27	45
25-39	58	60	118
40-59	22	21	43
60+	2	2	4
Nangarhar	**891**	**847**	**1,738**
0-14	487	462	949
15-24	148	139	287
25-39	127	133	260
40-59	104	96	200
60+	24	17	41
Nimroz	**85**	**78**	**164**
0-14	47	41	88
15-24	16	16	32
25-39	12	13	25
40-59	10	7	17
60+	1	1	2
Nooristan	**76**	**64**	**139**
0-14	45	34	79
15-24	5	7	13
25-39	15	16	31
40-59	8	6	14
60+	1	1	2
Paktika	**229**	**218**	**447**
0-14	142	125	267
15-24	18	23	41
25-39	44	49	94
40-59	22	19	41
60+	3	2	5
Paktya	**284**	**252**	**536**

0-14	138	122	260
15-24	59	49	108
25-39	41	42	83
40-59	41	36	77
60+	6	2	8
Panjsher	**72**	**66**	**138**
0-14	33	33	66
15-24	15	10	26
25-39	12	13	25
40-59	10	9	19
60+	2	2	4
Parwan	**356**	**347**	**703**
0-14	168	159	327
15-24	81	76	157
25-39	52	60	112
40-59	41	44	85
60+	14	9	23
Samangan	**197**	**178**	**375**
0-14	94	84	178
15-24	36	30	66
25-39	34	34	69
40-59	25	25	51
60+	7	5	12
Sar-e-Pul	260	262	522
0-14	125	118	243
15-24	49	51	100
25-39	38	42	80
40-59	37	42	79
60+	10	9	19
Takhar	**476**	**457**	**933**
0-14	230	218	448
15-24	89	96	185
25-39	77	82	159
40-59	61	54	114
60+	19	7	27
Urozgan	**172**	**180**	**352**
0-14	88	95	184
15-24	33	34	67
25-39	23	26	49
40-59	22	22	44
60+	6	3	9

Wardak	**309**	**321**	**630**
0-14	159	158	317
15-24	38	53	92
25-39	77	71	148
40-59	30	33	63
60+	5	5	10
Zabul	**129**	**147**	**277**
0-14	54	74	128
15-24	24	25	49
25-39	29	28	57
40-59	20	19	40
60+	2	1	2

Table X.2: Population, by sex, marital status[a], and by province (in thousands)

Province	Sex, marital status											
	Male				Female				Both sexes			
	Married	Widowed	Never married	Total	Married	Widowed	Never married	Total	Married	Widowed	Never married	Total
National	**4,583**	**108**	**9,157**	**13,849**	**4,762**	**471**	**7,866**	**13,106**	**9,345**	**579**	**17,023**	**26,955**
Badakhshan	166	:	316	486	172	19	261	452	338	24	576	938
Badghis	118	(4)	198	320	121	11	158	290	239	15	355	610
Baghlan	138	:	319	459	144	15	257	416	281	17	577	875
Balkh	196	:	409	611	207	33	362	603	404	38	772	1,214
Bamyan	71	(2)	145	218	73	9	126	208	144	11	271	426
Daykundi	67	:	125	194	71	8	120	199	138	9	245	392
Farah	99	(5)	207	311	102	(5)	148	255	201	(10)	355	566
Faryab	185	:	283	475	199	23	265	488	385	30	548	963
Ghazni	229	:	429	662	234	(8)	368	610	463	(12)	797	1,271
Ghor	129	(4)	235	368	132	12	202	346	261	16	437	714
Helmand	177	:	298	479	181	:	275	459	358	:	573	938
Herat	314	:	626	947	329	42	551	924	643	49	1,178	1,871
Jawzjan	83	(3)	164	250	87	15	147	250	170	19	311	500
Kabul	702	:	1,506	2,219	722	89	1,211	2,023	1,424	101	2,717	4,243
Kandahar	193	:	341	536	195	(10)	333	538	388	(12)	674	1,074
Kapisa	67	:	145	214	69	10	126	205	136	12	271	419
Khost	90	:	238	330	91	:	174	268	181	:	412	598
Kunarha	73	:	159	232	76	(3)	141	221	149	(3)	301	453
Kunduz	155	:	357	516	160	24	292	475	315	27	649	990
Laghman	76	:	173	251	79	5	152	236	155	7	325	487
Logar	82	:	153	237	85	5	130	221	167	8	283	458
Nangarhar	278	:	608	891	293	18	536	847	571	23	1,144	1,738
Nimroz	27	(1)	58	85	27	3	48	78	54	4	106	164
Nooristan	25	(1)	49	76	26	1	36	64	52	2	86	139
Paktika	73	(2)	154	229	81	(3)	134	218	154	(5)	288	447
Paktya	95	(4)	186	284	99	7	146	252	193	11	332	536
Panjsher	23	:	48	72	23	2	41	66	46	2	90	138
Parwan	109	(4)	242	356	114	18	215	347	224	22	457	703
Samangan	64	(3)	130	197	68	10	101	178	132	13	230	375
Sar-e-Pul	88	:	170	260	96	16	150	262	185	17	320	522
Takhar	161	:	313	476	170	15	271	457	332	17	584	933
Urozgan	54	:	117	172	57	5	118	180	111	7	235	352
Wardak	124	:	181	309	125	15	180	321	250	18	361	630
Zabul	52	(2)	76	129	52	5	89	147	104	7	165	277

[a] for divorced/separated are suppressed because of low number of observations.
Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.3: Population, by immigrant status, and by province (in thousands)

Province	Immigrant status		
	Non-immigrant	Immigrant	Total
National	**25,620**	**1,312**	**26,932**
Badakhshan	938	:	938
Badghis	607	:	609
Baghlan	864	11	875
Balkh	1,178	35	1,213
Bamyan	416	10	426
Daykundi	385	7	392
Farah	536	30	566
Faryab	955	(8)	963
Ghazni	1,238	33	1,270
Ghor	708	(6)	714
Helmand	933	(5)	938
Herat	1,849	20	1,869
Jawzjan	467	33	500
Kabul	3,674	562	4,236
Kandahar	1,042	29	1,071
Kapisa	418	:	419
Khost	535	62	597
Kunarha	426	27	453
Kunduz	969	19	988
Laghman	473	13	487
Logar	437	20	457
Nangarhar	1,561	177	1,738
Nimroz	138	25	163
Nooristan	136	4	139
Paktika	417	30	447
Paktya	469	67	536
Panjsher	137	(1)	138
Parwan	667	35	702
Samangan	369	7	375
Sar-e-Pul	505	16	521
Takhar	929	:	933
Urozgan	349	(2)	351
Wardak	623	(6)	630
Zabul	270	6	276

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.4: Working-age population, by labour force indicators

Province	Labour Force Participation Rate	Employment-to-Population Ratio	Under-employment Rate	Unemployment Rate	Not-Gainfully Employed Population Rate
National	**49.8**	**45.7**	**16.8**	**8.2**	**25.0**
Badakhshan	49.5	43.7	22.5	11.7	34.2
Badghis	56.8	52.2	42.4	8.2	50.6
Baghlan	45.6	39.5	(2.6)	13.3	16.0
Balkh	42.2	40.5	(5.0)	(4.0)	9.0
Bamyan	49.0	37.4	17.6	23.7	41.3
Daykundi	56.8	40.8	14.4	28.1	42.5
Farah	56.2	51.1	15.9	9.2	25.1
Faryab	60.1	57.2	18.3	4.9	23.2
Ghazni	54.0	48.0	21.2	11.1	32.4
Ghor	46.2	42.0	9.9	9.0	18.9
Helmand	48.4	48.0	:	:	:
Herat	42.6	40.8	15.5	(4.4)	19.9
Jawzjan	51.7	49.0	(2.5)	5.3	7.8
Kabul	43.0	39.1	9.8	9.0	18.8
Kandahar	47.6	43.2	9.7	9.4	19.1
Kapisa	32.6	28.1	15.9	13.8	29.6
Khost	61.5	45.6	24.4	25.8	50.2
Kunarha	71.2	67.9	31.2	4.6	35.9
Kunduz	41.8	38.6	:	7.7	8.2
Laghman	67.5	61.5	25.7	8.9	34.6
Logar	78.9	73.6	29.2	6.8	36.0
Nangarhar	51.8	50.1	20.2	(3.4)	23.6
Nimroz	52.7	46.6	20.1	11.6	31.7
Nooristan	88.3	83.8	22.4	5.0	27.4
Paktika	51.3	47.2	25.4	7.9	33.3
Paktya	49.6	48.3	30.5	(2.6)	33.1
Panjsher	36.3	35.7	6.4	:	7.9
Parwan	46.5	43.2	16.3	6.9	23.2
Samangan	44.8	42.3	14.2	5.5	19.7
Sar-e-Pul	57.1	52.5	13.5	8.1	21.6
Takhar	46.8	43.7	16.9	6.6	23.5
Urozgan	70.9	68.7	38.4	3.2	41.6
Wardak	71.7	67.3	34.1	6.2	40.3
Zabul	46.6	42.3	44.0	9.3	53.3

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.5: Employed population, by status in employment, and by province (in thousands)

Province	Status in employment					
	Day labourer	Salaried worker	Own account worker	Employer	Unpaid family worker	Total
National	**1,279**	**1,181**	**3,013**	**59**	**832**	**6,364**
Badakhshan	72	42	66	0	31	212
Badghis	13	:	101	0	40	173
Baghlan	25	27	76	3	44	174
Balkh	39	55	162	18	7	281
Bamyan	14	:	42	0	24	88
Daykundi	18	6	34	0	22	80
Farah	14	16	93	0	21	144
Faryab	74	50	141	0	43	307
Ghazni	26	33	237	0	8	304
Ghor	46	10	64	1	35	156
Helmand	:	:	139	0	86	230
Herat	187	31	168	1	7	394
Jawzjan	60	34	41	0	2	137
Kabul	97	479	284	9	138	1,007
Kandahar	13	12	170	4	4	204
Kapisa	8	24	28	1	4	65
Khost	22	16	66	0	7	111
Kunarha	40	11	14	0	73	139
Kunduz	55	25	113	2	1	196
Laghman	41	17	84	0	2	144
Logar	8	17	112	0	19	156
Nangarhar	129	44	157	6	7	343
Nimroz	10	3	18	0	6	36
Nooristan	(1)	7	30	0	12	51
Paktika	10	26	31	0	13	80
Paktya	20	20	71	10	2	123
Panjsher	(1)	15	10	0	1	27
Parwan	22	53	73	2	19	168
Samangan	43	10	28	0	4	85
Sar-e-Pul	56	9	81	0	2	148
Takhar	85	27	94	1	4	211
Urozgan	9	(1)	69	0	39	118
Wardak	11	28	71	0	96	206
Zabul	6	3	46	0	8	63

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.6: Households, by ownership of different types of agricultural land (in thousands)

Province	Total households	Irrigated land	Rain-fed land	Garden plot
National	**3,629**	**1,377**	**610**	**347**
Badakhshan	135	49	61	26
Badghis	98	15	61	7
Baghlan	114	54	42	11
Balkh	165	55	15	(13)
Bamyan	56	43	14	14
Daykundi	58	49	8	6
Farah	76	53	:	12
Faryab	161	25	55	15
Ghazni	168	60	16	25
Ghor	98	64	63	7
Helmand	115	88	:	11
Herat	279	69	26	10
Jawzjan	66	21	12	:
Kabul	566	112	:	91
Kandahar	146	45	:	21
Kapisa	57	38	:	3
Khost	62	19	(4)	:
Kunarha	48	28	17	(3)
Kunduz	128	48	(6)	:
Laghman	67	31	:	9
Logar	63	31	(3)	12
Nangarhar	197	58	15	:
Nimroz	23	9	:	:
Nooristan	15	12	:	1
Paktika	46	23	6	8
Paktya	57	39	12	10
Panjsher	(22)	20	:	3
Parwan	97	44	:	21
Samangan	54	11	30	(4)
Sar-e-Pul	75	19	38	27
Takhar	144	41	46	(13)
Urozgan	33	25	(3)	4
Wardak	105	57	15	38
Zabul	36	24	11	23

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.7: Mean and median size of owned land, for different types of land, by province (in jeribs)

Province	Irrigated land		Rain-fed land		Garden plot	
	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median
National	**6.0**	**3.0**	**16.4**	**7.0**	**2.0**	**1.0**
Badakhshan	4.2	2.0	6.4	4.0	1.1	1.0
Badghis	3.3	2.0	11.4	10.0	1.7	1.5
Baghlan	6.5	4.0	13.6	8.0	1.8	2.0
Balkh	16.7	6.0	17.4	10.0	(1.3)	(1.0)
Bamyan	4.2	2.5	20.8	10.0	1.4	0.5
Daykundi	2.1	1.5	2.5	2.0	1.9	1.0
Farah	16.6	12.5	:	:	1.9	1.0
Faryab	6.3	2.0	27.5	20.0	2.4	2.0
Ghazni	7.3	5.0	84.8	36.0	2.8	2.0
Ghor	2.2	1.5	4.1	3.0	1.4	1.0
Helmand	10.0	9.5	:	:	1.2	1.0
Herat	5.0	2.0	56.7	10.0	1.9	1.0
Jawzjan	22.7	6.0	22.9	10.0	:	:
Kabul	3.4	1.0	:	:	1.8	1.0
Kandahar	10.9	8.0	:	:	6.0	6.0
Kapisa	2.2	1.5	:	:	1.8	1.0
Khost	1.6	1.0	(2.2)	(2.0)	:	:
Kunarha	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.0	(0.6)	(0.3)
Kunduz	7.3	5.0	(39.4)	(20.0)	:	:
Laghman	2.3	1.0	:	:	1.2	0.3
Logar	3.6	3.0	(3.9)	(3.0)	1.5	1.0
Nangarhar	2.2	1.5	3.0	1.5	:	:
Nimroz	27.5	17.0	n.a	n.a	:	:
Nooristan	2.4	2.0	:	:	0.6	0.5
Paktika	6.5	5.0	8.1	6.0	2.6	2.0
Paktya	5.9	2.0	6.7	4.0	1.2	0.5
Panjsher	2.5	2.0	:	:	0.9	0.6
Parwan	1.9	1.2	:	:	1.3	1.0
Samangan	3.5	2.0	14.7	10.0	(2.4)	(1.0)
Sar-e-Pul	3.0	2.0	20.6	15.0	1.5	1.0
Takhar	5.8	4.0	19.4	12.0	(1.2)	(1.0)
Urozgan	3.2	3.0	(8.7)	(7.0)	1.9	1.0
Wardak	2.3	2.0	2.9	3.0	1.8	1.5
Zabul	7.4	7.0	8.8	8.0	3.0	3.0

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.8: Households, by distance to nearest primary education facility for boys and girls, and by province (in thousands)

Province	Boys' lower secondary education				Girls' lower secondary education			
	0-2 km.	3-5 km.	6 or more km.	Total	0-2 km.	3-5 km.	6 or more km.	Total
National	**1,746**	**501**	**990**	**3,237**	**1,489**	**371**	**1,236**	**3,096**
Badakhshan	75	44	13	132	80	44	10	135
Badghis	35	15	43	92	(17)	(8)	(52)	77
Baghlan	(41)	(1)	(46)	88	(26)	(1)	(62)	89
Balkh	132	17	9	158	122	11	20	153
Bamyan	(1)	(2)	(39)	42	3	1	45	50
Daykundi	22	21	12	55	22	20	13	55
Farah	21	18	36	74	17	12	42	71
Faryab	80	49	26	154	78	48	30	156
Ghazni	63	15	65	143	36	14	100	150
Ghor	(9)	(19)	(39)	68	(8)	(8)	(50)	66
Helmand	14	6	79	99	10	1	84	95
Herat	138	26	88	252	106	26	96	228
Jawzjan	(30)	(9)	(13)	52	(24)	(7)	(21)	52
Kabul	460	22	41	523	421	10	49	481
Kandahar	59	19	55	133	(32)	(4)	(78)	114
Kapisa	34	12	9	56	35	14	6	55
Khost	26	5	27	58	21	5	34	60
Kunarha	16	12	18	46	15	9	21	44
Kunduz	11	17	77	105	3	8	92	103
Laghman	32	29	4	66	28	29	9	66
Logar	43	12	5	61	23	7	21	52
Nangarhar	86	29	58	173	86	21	60	167
Nimroz	(5)	(0)	(11)	16	(3)	(0)	(14)	17
Nooristan	(5)	(1)	(6)	12	5	1	8	14
Paktika	18	21	2	41	11	7	17	36
Paktya	28	24	4	56	(18)	(10)	(10)	39
Panjsher	14	5	3	22	14	4	3	21
Parwan	80	13	2	95	76	15	2	93
Samangan	31	10	6	47	23	5	16	44
Sar-e-Pul	38	8	24	70	39	10	20	69
Takhar	68	9	40	117	66	2	56	124
Urozgan	(4)	(0)	(19)	23	(2)	(0)	(19)	22
Wardak	(22)	(3)	(49)	75	(17)	(1)	(48)	66
Zabul	6	7	22	35	2	5	27	34

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable.

Table X.9: Households, by distance to nearest lower secondary education facility for boys and girls, and by province (in thousands)

Province	Boys' lower secondary education				Girls' lower secondary education			
	0-2 km.	3-5 km.	6 or more km.	Total	0-2 km.	3-5 km.	6 or more km.	Total
National	**1,683**	**576**	**846**	**3,106**	**1,541**	**466**	**1,136**	**3,143**
Badakhshan	71	47	17	135	71	36	21	128
Badghis	31	14	43	88	17	10	56	83
Baghlan	83	3	14	100	(49)	(1)	(28)	78
Balkh	109	19	19	148	118	13	20	151
Bamyan	33	10	10	53	31	11	11	53
Daykundi	19	23	10	51	22	19	13	55
Farah	13	14	41	68	12	10	49	70
Faryab	70	36	47	152	68	39	47	154
Ghazni	57	32	70	159	39	25	93	156
Ghor	(12)	(19)	(45)	75	(14)	(21)	(39)	73
Helmand	(9)	(14)	(65)	87	(6)	(7)	(79)	91
Herat	(86)	(29)	(65)	180	83	29	116	228
Jawzjan	28	18	8	55	31	12	16	58
Kabul	449	37	10	496	428	25	32	486
Kandahar	38	17	70	126	34	6	82	122
Kapisa	(12)	(10)	(23)	45	16	7	24	47
Khost	43	6	10	59	17	4	37	58
Kunarha	8	11	25	43	8	10	30	48
Kunduz	46	43	19	109	45	43	30	118
Laghman	22	31	12	65	26	28	14	67
Logar	39	15	5	59	25	9	20	53
Nangarhar	(78)	(36)	(40)	155	83	32	55	169
Nimroz	(7)	(0)	(9.2)	17	7	0	11	19
Nooristan	(5)	(0)	(6.3)	11	4	0	9	13
Paktika	12	7	22	41	3	0	35	38
Paktya	25	22	7	53	(15)	(10)	(16)	41
Panjsher	13	5	3	21	13	5	3	21
Parwan	75	19	0	94	76	18	0	94
Samangan	(25)	(3)	(15.5)	43	22	3	20	45
Sar-e-Pul	49	10	11	70	52	9	10	71
Takhar	89	11	20	120	89	11	25	124
Urozgan	(3)	(1)	(19.2)	23	(3)	(0)	(20)	23
Wardak	(22)	(8)	(41.1)	70	(16)	(7)	(48)	72
Zabul	4	8	22	34	2	5	28	35

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable.

Table X.10: Literacy rate of population aged 15 years older, by sex, and by province

Province	Sex		
	Male	Female	Both sexes
National	**45.4**	**17.0**	**31.4**
Badakhshan	45.7	25.2	35.7
Badghis	28.3	5.0	16.9
Baghlan	46.0	12.9	29.9
Balkh	49.4	26.8	37.8
Bamyan	52.3	17.5	35.5
Daykundi	48.5	18.0	32.9
Farah	29.6	11.1	21.0
Faryab	42.5	17.6	29.6
Ghazni	59.7	21.4	41.2
Ghor	35.2	5.1	20.3
Helmand	10.2	1.6	6.1
Herat	29.4	19.3	24.3
Jawzjan	34.0	14.6	24.4
Kabul	68.1	34.7	52.0
Kandahar	30.0	3.4	16.8
Kapisa	62.4	21.8	42.8
Khost	27.0	2.4	15.5
Kunarha	39.5	3.8	21.8
Kunduz	25.1	6.9	16.3
Laghman	44.2	6.2	25.6
Logar	53.0	11.4	31.3
Nangarhar	45.0	9.3	27.6
Nimroz	34.5	12.4	23.7
Nooristan	36.7	5.3	21.1
Paktika	63.6	2.6	32.2
Paktya	43.0	5.8	25.6
Panjsher	78.3	18.8	50.8
Parwan	54.6	21.5	38.1
Samangan	32.8	9.5	21.6
Sar-e-Pul	33.9	14.1	23.6
Takhar	32.8	15.5	24.3
Urozgan	14.7	2.4	8.5
Wardak	75.6	10.8	42.4
Zabul	25.5	1.6	13.6

Table X.11: Net and Gross Primary Attendance Ratios, by sex, and by province

Province	Net Primary Attendance Ratio			Gross Primary Attendance Ratio		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
National	**64**	**48**	**57**	**83**	**61**	**72**
Badakhshan	71	67	69	86	82	84
Badghis	59	46	53	76	57	67
Baghlan	69	55	63	90	67	79
Balkh	72	64	68	90	81	86
Bamyan	73	63	67	98	77	87
Daykundi	80	72	76	107	92	99
Farah	60	38	51	77	49	65
Faryab	78	60	69	101	82	92
Ghazni	74	40	59	87	47	70
Ghor	69	52	61	87	63	75
Helmand	21	10	15	26	12	19
Herat	58	61	59	77	79	78
Jawzjan	74	57	66	101	69	86
Kabul	80	67	74	105	86	96
Kandahar	22	15	19	28	18	23
Kapisa	84	70	78	100	88	94
Khost	57	37	49	68	42	57
Kunarha	53	33	44	70	40	56
Kunduz	46	27	37	61	37	50
Laghman	75	64	70	98	75	87
Logar	73	46	62	83	52	70
Nangarhar	70	45	58	95	59	78
Nimroz	42	42	42	49	52	50
Nooristan	35	29	33	43	34	40
Paktika	79	11	48	93	14	56
Paktya	61	27	46	79	34	59
Panjsher	95	93	94	114	118	116
Parwan	69	51	60	93	64	79
Samangan	80	60	70	107	75	91
Sar-e-Pul	66	55	61	95	75	85
Takhar	66	53	60	83	64	74
Urozgan	9	1	5	15	2	8
Wardak	68	14	45	78	17	51
Zabul	17	4	9	30	6	16

Table X.12: Net and Gross Secondary Attendance Ratios, by sex, and by province

Province	Net Secondary Attendance Ratio			Gross Secondary Attendance Ratio		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
National	**42**	**23**	**33**	**55**	**29**	**42**
Badakhshan	52	43	47	62	51	57
Badghis	20	8	15	27	11	20
Baghlan	52	21	37	76	27	52
Balkh	46	32	39	65	42	53
Bamyan	36	30	33	55	38	47
Daykundi	46	33	39	63	44	53
Farah	31	21	26	39	25	32
Faryab	45	34	40	57	43	50
Ghazni	56	32	43	72	39	55
Ghor	22	9	15	33	11	22
Helmand	18	2	10	21	3	12
Herat	22	20	21	30	27	28
Jawzjan	43	26	34	58	34	45
Kabul	60	39	49	77	47	62
Kandahar	29	9	19	38	17	27
Kapisa	75	39	57	96	49	73
Khost	30	4	19	40	5	25
Kunarha	33	5	19	42	6	24
Kunduz	28	11	20	41	13	27
Laghman	45	11	29	54	13	35
Logar	65	23	43	74	26	49
Nangarhar	42	9	27	56	12	36
Nimroz	22	14	18	25	17	21
Nooristan	31	12	22	40	14	28
Paktika	41	1	23	47	1	26
Paktya	31	9	21	45	10	30
Panjsher	78	37	61	89	41	68
Parwan	50	27	39	67	38	53
Samangan	36	15	26	46	22	35
Sar-e-Pul	30	16	23	40	22	31
Takhar	34	28	31	45	33	39
Urozgan	10	3	6	12	3	8
Wardak	70	3	35	94	4	46
Zabul	14	3	8	20	3	11

Table X.13: Children under five years of age, by birth registration and Vitamin A supplementation, and by province

Province	Without birth certificate		Without Vitamin A supplementation	
	Thousands	Percentage	Thousands	Percentage
National	**3,005**	**65**	**1,862**	**40**
Badakhshan	139	92	88	58
Badghis	(76)	(96)	63	79
Baghlan	91	65	32	23
Balkh	49	28	27	16
Bamyan	49	78	6	10
Daykundi	46	79	32	56
Farah	50	41	44	36
Faryab	121	72	44	26
Ghazni	143	64	151	69
Ghor	(116)	(95)	55	45
Helmand	(182)	(98)	(179)	(96)
Herat	166	55	103	35
Jawzjan	49	85	38	67
Kabul	188	30	75	12
Kandahar	196	86	187	83
Kapisa	33	59	31	55
Khost	99	88	88	78
Kunarha	37	41	51	56
Kunduz	151	90	126	76
Laghman	(89)	(97)	29	32
Logar	77	65	36	30
Nangarhar	163	50	28	9
Nimroz	24	82	9	29
Nooristan	(39)	(98)	(39)	(98)
Paktika	(127)	(98)	51	39
Paktya	78	94	13	15
Panjsher	13	79	12	71
Parwan	70	59	16	13
Samangan	37	66	11	19
Sar-e-Pul	23	28	34	42
Takhar	:	:	38	23
Urozgan	:	:	:	:
Wardak	44	27	48	29
Zabul	:	:	:	:

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.14: Women with a birth in the last five years, by maternal health services provided, and by province (in percentages)

Province	Skilled ante-natal care	Skilled birth attendance	Delivery in health facility	Number of Tetanus-Toxoid injections		
				None	1	2 or more
National	**51**	**40**	**36**	**57**	**9**	**35**
Badakhshan	50	10	(9)	36	:	63
Badghis	14	:	:	91	:	(7)
Baghlan	61	33	28	44	:	53
Balkh	87	49	39	38	23	39
Bamyan	63	39	37	36	(7)	56
Daykundi	32	16	16	53	(9)	38
Farah	63	39	32	35	:	61
Faryab	52	26	15	51	(7)	42
Ghazni	41	57	52	44	(5)	51
Ghor	(9)	:	:	93	:	:
Helmand	9	8	(6)	91	:	9
Herat	64	34	29	67	(8)	25
Jawzjan	39	43	31	42	(10)	49
Kabul	78	79	74	59	(13)	28
Kandahar	26	47	43	72	11	17
Kapisa	54	34	31	45	:	52
Khost	30	33	30	72	:	27
Kunarha	32	10	10	43	:	54
Kunduz	36	14	13	46	11	43
Laghman	80	50	49	69	(6)	25
Logar	45	53	50	60	11	29
Nangarhar	50	54	46	53	(8)	39
Nimroz	73	51	47	35	15	49
Nooristan	:	:	:	98	:	:
Paktika	26	21	17	48	14	37
Paktya	81	57	57	45	22	33
Panjsher	47	27	24	62	:	32
Parwan	65	42	40	56	(7)	37
Samangan	46	37	36	56	24	20
Sar-e-Pul	71	37	36	37	25	38
Takhar	52	22	20	51	(11)	38
Urozgan	:	:	:	98	:	:
Wardak	72	74	72	24	:	75
Zabul	:	:	:	:	:	:

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

Table X.15: Population, by access to housing amenities, and by province (in percentages)

Province	Safe drinking water	Improved sanitation	Any source of electricity	Drivable road within 2 km.
National	**46**	**8**	**69**	**80**
Badakhshan	37	:	57	93
Badghis	46	:	37	74
Baghlan	28	:	65	80
Balkh	67	17	77	97
Bamyan	21	:	96	79
Daykundi	17	:	96	92
Farah	56	:	75	27
Faryab	33	:	80	79
Ghazni	40	:	75	80
Ghor	20	:	90	67
Helmand	30	:	34	77
Herat	53	16	72	90
Jawzjan	25	:	60	59
Kabul	78	25	88	95
Kandahar	47	(6)	82	50
Kapisa	33	:	80	62
Khost	36	:	47	98
Kunarha	32	10	26	69
Kunduz	27	:	56	62
Laghman	54	:	71	72
Logar	46	:	99	95
Nangarhar	46	10	41	85
Nimroz	11	13	50	80
Nooristan	14	(4)	30	52
Paktika	62	(5)	89	(6)
Paktya	66	:	77	93
Panjsher	63	:	78	61
Parwan	38	14	86	100
Samangan	20	:	59	82
Sar-e-Pul	23	:	85	85
Takhar	61	:	59	90
Urozgan	(7)	:	7	85
Wardak	13	:	73	53
Zabul	9	:	22	24

Figures in parentheses are based on 25 to 49 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values between 20 and 50, or are considered less reliable. A colon (:) denotes figures based on less than 25 unweighted observations or on data with a percentage of missing values over 50, or are considered unreliable.

ANNEX XI CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Adult. Person age 18 or over.

Adult literacy rate. The percentage of literate persons aged 15 years and over.

Aged dependency ratio. The ratio of the number of elderly aged 65 and over to the number of persons in the most productive ages of 15-64, expressed as a percentage.

Ante-natal care. Workers/attendants which are accredited health professionals - such as a midwife, doctor or nurse - who have been educated and trained to proficiency in the skills needed to manage normal (uncomplicated) pregnancies, childbirth and the immediate postnatal period, and in the identification, management and referral of complications in women and newborns. Both trained and untrained traditional birth attendants (TBA) are excluded.

Calorie deficiency. A daily caloric intake of less than 2,100 Kcal per person.

Child. Person below age 18.

Child dependency ratio. The ratio of the number of children aged 0-14 to the number of persons in the most productive ages of 15-64, expressed as a percentage.

Contributing family workers. Those workers who hold a 'self-employment' job in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household, who cannot be regarded as partners, because their degree of commitment to the operation of the establishment, in terms of working time or other factors to be determined by national circumstances, is not at a level comparable to that of the head of the establishment.

Coping strategy. Household strategies to adjust the livelihood situation in response to household shocks.

Dependency ratio. The ratio of the number of persons in the unproductive ages of 0-14 and 65 and over to the number of persons in the most productive ages of 15-64, expressed as a percentage.

Durable housing. Housing of which the outer walls, roof and floor are made of durable materials that protect its inhabitants from the extremes of climatic conditions, such as rain, heat, cold and humidity. Fired brick, concrete, mud bricks and stone are considered durable materials. For roofs also wood is regarded durable.

Economic sector. A group of establishments engaged on the same, or similar, kinds of production activity

Educational attainment. The highest level of education an individual has successfully completed.

Elderly. Person age 65 or over.

Emigrant. A person who left a country and took up residence abroad for at least one year.

Emigration. The act of crossing an international border and taking up residence abroad for at least one year.

Emigration rate. The number of emigrants as percentage of the resident population.

Employed. All persons age 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were in paid employment or self employed and who worked at least eight hours. The employed include military and apprentices, as well as persons who were temporarily absent from work because of holidays or leave, temporary lay-off, or who had a job attachment defined by having access to irrigated farm land.

Employers. Those workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of job defined as a self-employed job, and in this capacity, on a continuous basis have engaged one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Employees. Persons who enter an agreement, which may be formal or informal, with an enterprise to work for the enterprise in return for remuneration in cash or in kind.

Employment-to-population ratio. The proportion of the working-age population that is employed.

Enumeration Area. Areas into which a country is divided that covers a number of households that can be enumerated in

a census by one enumerator.

Food security. Food security exists when all people, at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food for a healthy and active life. Here, households that meet a minimum of 2,100 calories per person per day are considered as food secure.

Gender parity index. The ratio of the number of female students attending primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education to the number of male students in each level (based on the gross attendance ratio).

Gross attendance ratio. The number of pupils attending a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the theoretical age group for the same level of education.

Gini Index. An index measuring the extent to which the distribution of consumption expenditure among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution.

Head of household. The person commonly regarded by the household members as their head. Usually it is the main income earner and decision maker for the household.

Headcount index. The percentage of the population whose monthly per capita consumption expenditure are below the poverty line.

Health post. A community health service provided by community health workers from their home, delivering basic health care services.

Household. A group of people, either related or unrelated, who live together as a single unit in the sense that they have common housekeeping arrangements, that is, they share or are supported by a common budget. They live together, pool their money, and eat at least one meal together each day.

Household shocks. Natural, climatic, economic or conflict events with negative outcomes that are outside the direct control of households.

Immigrant. A person who has entered a country and took up residence there for at least one year.

Inactive population or persons not in the labour force. All persons age 14 and over who were not employed or unemployed during reference period of one week because of (a) attendance at educational institutions, (b) engagement in household duties, (c) retirement or old age, (d) infirmity or disablement or (e) other reasons, which may be specified.

In-migrant. A person who has entered an administrative area from within a country and took up residence there for at least one year.

In-patient. A patient who is formally admitted (or 'hospitalised') to an institution for treatment and/or care and stays for a minimum of one night in the hospital or other institution providing in-patient care.

Immigration. The act of crossing an international border into a country and taking up residence in the country for at least one year.

Immigration ratio. The number of immigrants as percentage of the resident population.

Improved water source. Includes hand pump (private or public), bored wells, protected spring, piped water (private or municipal); does not include surface water (open well, unprotected spring, kariz, river, lake, channel, pool, drainage), water tanker, bottled water.

Improved sanitation facility: Includes flush latrine, improved latrine and covered latrine; does not include open pit, darean and open defecation.

In-migration. The act of crossing an administrative area border within a country and taking up residence in the area for at least one year.

In-migration ratio. The number of in-migrants as percentage of the resident population.

Internal migration. The act of crossing a border between two administrative areas within a country and taking up residence in another area for at least one year.

International migration. The act of crossing a border between two countries and taking up residence abroad for at least one year.

Internally displaced person. A persons who has been forced or obliged to flee or to leave his/her home or place of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Islamic education. Encompasses Madrassa (grades 1-12), Dar-ul-ulum (grades 13-14) and Dar-ul-hefaz (grades 1-12).

Life-time migrant. A person who changed residence across an administrative border – either national or international – since birth.

Labour force. The economically active population – encompassing the (under)employed and unemployed – in the working-age (14 and over).

Labour force participation rate. The ratio of the labour force to the working-age population (14 and over), expressed as a percentage.

Life-time migration. Migration – either internal or international – since birth.

Maternal mortality ratio. The number of pregnancy-related deaths during a given time period per 100,000 live births during the same time period.

Migration. The act of crossing a border and taking up residence elsewhere for at least a year.

Net attendance ratio. The number of pupils of the theoretical school-age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Occupation. A set of jobs whose main tasks and duties are characterised by a high degree of similarity. Persons are classified by occupation through their relationship to a past, present or future job.

Out-migrant. A person who left an administrative area and took up residence elsewhere in the country for at least one year.

Out-migration. The act of crossing an administrative area border within a country and taking up residence elsewhere in the country for at least one year.

Out-migration rate. The number of out-migrants as percentage of the resident population.

Out-patient. A patient who receives medical treatment and/or care at health facility, but is not admitted for an overnight stay.

Overcrowded dwelling. Dwelling in which more than three persons live per room.

Own-account workers. Those workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of job defined as a self-employed job, and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them during the reference period.

Poverty gap. The average distance between the consumption levels of the poor and the poverty line.

Primary education. Encompasses education at grades 1-6.

Protein deficiency. A daily protein consumption of less than 50 grams per person.

Quality assurance. Any method or procedure for collecting, processing or analysing survey data that is aimed at maintaining or enhancing their reliability or validity.

Recent migrant. A person who changed residence across an administrative border – either national or international – a specific point in recent time, here defined as migration since October 2004.

Recent migration. Migration – either internal or international – since a specific point in recent time, here defined as migration since October 2004.

Returnee. A person who has returned from displacement either within the country (former IDP) or to another country (former refugee or asylum seeker). There are subcategories of returnees in terms of the way the return is implemented, e.g. voluntary, forced, assisted and spontaneous returnees.

Season. Seasons are defined according the Shamsi calendar:

Shamsi Year			
1390		**1391**	
Spring:	21 March to 21 June 2011	Spring:	20 March to 20 June 2012
Summer:	22 June to 22 September 2011	Summer:	21 June to 21 September 2012
Autumn:	23 September to 21 December 2011	Autumn:	22 September to 20 December 2012
Winter:	22 December 2011 to 19 March 2012	Winter:	21 December 2012 to 20 March 2013

Seasonal migrant. A a person who spends at least one month, but less than a year away from the household for seasonal work.

Secondary education. Encompasses lower (grades 7-9) and upper (grades 10-12) education.

School age. Age ranges used in this report are 7-12 for primary school, 13-18 for secondary school and 19-24 for tertiary education.

Skilled birth attendant. Health personnel trained in providing life saving obstetric care, including giving the necessary supervision, care and advice to women during pregnancy, labour and the post-partum period, conducting deliveries on their own and caring for newborns. Traditional birth attendants, even if they received a short training course, are not included.

Slum household. A household lacking one or more of the following conditions:
- Access to improved water
- Access to improved sanitation
- Overcrowded dwelling
- Durability of housing

Status in employment. The status of an economically active person with respect to his or her employment, or the type of explicit or implicit contract of employment with other persons or organisations that the person has in his/her job.

Tertiary education. Encompasses teacher college (grades 13-14), technical college (grades 13-14), university (grades 13-16) and post-graduate education (grades 17-19).

Underemployed. Persons working hours of work that are insufficient in relation to an alternative employment situation in which the person is willing and available to engage (time-related underemployment). The Afghanistan national time-criterion is working less than 40 hours.

Unemployed. All persons age 14 and over who during the reference period of one week were:
a. without any work or working less than eight hours, and
b. seeking work.
The unemployed include persons not working who are not seeking work because of being discouraged in finding any (the 'relaxed unemployment' definition).

Unemployment rate. The number of unemployed as a percentage of the labour force.

Working age. Age 14 and over.

Youth literacy rate. The percentage of literate persons aged 15–24 years.