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Central Statistics Organization



AFGHANISTAN LIVING CONDITIONS SURVEY 2016-17



Analysis Report



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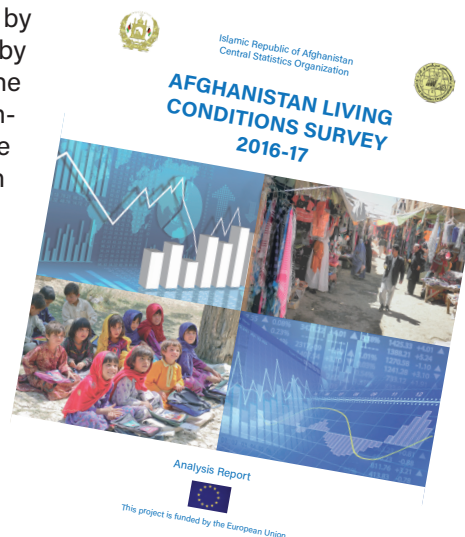
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FOREWORD

The present Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS), conducted by the Central Statistics Organization (CSO) and financially supported by the European Commission, is the sixth round of data collection since the start of the survey in 2003. The history of the ALCS has seen an enlargement of coverage of development themes that are crucial for the development planning of Afghanistan, while maintaining a balance in the details and periodicity of reporting that are relevant for the large number of stakeholders involved in and benefiting from the survey. At the same time, the ALCS has been able to accommodate international standards and methodologies to produce internationally comparable indicators and to improve the quality and speed of reporting. The release of the ALCS 2016-17 report almost exactly one year after the completion of the data collection is an achievement that is hardly ever met by surveys of similar coverage and complexity. In addition, the history of the ALCS is also the account of building CSO's capacity in data collection, survey management, data processing and analysis, and I am proud of the efforts and skills demonstrated by the staff of CSO involved in the present survey.



The ALCS is the flagship of the Central Statistics Organization. Several features make the ALCS a unique instrument for policy makers and all the national and international organisations investing in the future of the country. These features include the coverage of the nomadic Kuchi population, the ability to capture seasonal variation in relevant development indicators, the ability to produce statistics at provincial level, the continuity of the survey that allows making trend analyses of key development indicators, the large number of stakeholders benefitting from the survey results and the survey's flexibility to adapt to Afghanistan's needs.

The present report is the most comprehensive in the history of the survey, covering detailed analyses on population and households, labour market, agriculture, health, education, housing, gender and the challenges faced by Afghanistan's households, their coping strategies and people's priorities for development. Next to the standard set of indicators produced in each survey round, the present ALCS report moreover focuses again on poverty and food-security analysis, and in addition provides detailed information about disability in the population. As Director General of the Central Statistics Organization, I am also very pleased that with this report, Afghanistan is one of the first countries in the world to produce official Sustainable Development Goals indicators. The present round of the ALCS produced no less than 20 indicators for 12 of the 17 SDGs. In this respect, the ALCS also provided the platform to implement the new drinking water quality test on the basis of which Afghanistan is one of the first countries in the world to produce the SDG indicator on safely managed drinking water services. Furthermore, I am appreciative that the present ALCS was partially conducted with mobile data entry in the field, thereby further expanding CSO's proficiency in applying new technologies for statistical data collection.

I am convinced that the results of the ALCS 2016-17 presented here, as well as the micro data that are available for further analysis, will be instrumental for development planning and programming for a wide range of data users. I sincerely hope that this report will be an interesting source of information and knowledge for the readers.

Jawed Rasooli
Director General of the Central statistics Organization
Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan

KEY INDICATORS

Indicator	SDG /MDG indicator	Sub-groups ^a	National
Population and households			
Percentage of population under age 15		U 42.9; R 49.0; K 52.2	47.7
Percentage of population aged 65 and over		U 3.0; R 2.6; K 1.6	2.7
Sex ratio		U 102; R 104; K 108	104
Dependency ratio		U 85; R 107; K 117	101
Child dependency ratio		U 79; R 101; K 113	96
Old-age dependency ratio		U 6; R 5; K 4	5
Average household size		U 7.3; R 7.8; K 7.6	7.7
Mean age at first marriage, women aged 20-24		U 18.0; R 17.5; K 17.4	17.6
Median age at first marriage, women aged 20-24		U 18; R 18; K 18	18
Percentage of women aged 20-24 married at age 16	SDG 5.3.1	U 2.1; R 5.0; K 4.8	4.2
Percentage of women aged 20-24 married at age 18	SDG 5.3.1	U 18.4; R 31.9; K 36.3	28.3
Percentage of married women living in a polygamous marriage			8.2
Labour force (national definition)			
Labour force participation rate		M 80.6; F 26.8 U 48.0; R 54.9; K 72.4	53.9
Employment-to-population ratio	MDG 1.5	M 65.8; F 15.8 U 35.3; R 41.7; K 63.5	41.0
Percentage not-gainfully employed population		M 34.4; F 55.1 U 35.3; R 41.2; K 35.3	39.5
Underemployment rate, as percentage of the employed		M 19.7; F 23.9 U 11.9; R 22.6; K 26.3	20.5
Underemployment rate, as percentage of the labour force		M 16.1; F 14.1 U 8.7; R 17.2; K 23.0	15.6
Unemployment rate	SDG 8.5.2	M 18.3; F 41.0 U 26.5; R 24.0; K 12.3 D 37.7; ND 23.3	23.9
Youth unemployment rate		M 24.3; F 47.4 U 39.1; R 29.6; K 13.3	30.7
Youth unemployment as percentage of total unemployment		M 44.8; F 46.4; U 48.4; R 44.5; K 44.0	45.5
Share of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training (NEET)	SDG 8.6.1	M 16.6; F 67.9; U 37.9; 44.1; 33.6; D 56.6; 41.7	42.0
Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment (in percentages) (proxy)	SDG 8.5.3	M: 66.7; F: 71.3	66.7
Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs (in percentages) (proxy)	SDG 8.9.2	M 8.5; F 0.3	6.7
Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment (in percentages)	MDG 1.7	M 77.5; F 89.9 U 60.9; R 85.8; K 90.0	80.2
Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment (in percentages)	SDG 9.2.2	M 16.4; F 24.0	18.1

Indicator	SDG /MDG indicator	Sub-groups ^a	National
Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider	SDG 8.10.2	M 9.5; F 1.1 U 9.9; R 4.0; K 0.1 D 4.7; ND 5.4	5.4
Proportion of employed persons living in a household whose members are estimated to be below the poverty line		M: 51.2; F 50.0 U 38.0; R 54.2; 59.3 D 50.4; ND 51.0	50.9
Agriculture and livestock			
Percentage of households owning irrigated land			37.9
Percentage of households owning rain-fed land			19.4
Percentage of households owning or having access to a garden plot			13.1
Percentage of households having access to irrigated land			41.4
Percentage of households having access to rain-fed land			20.5
Mean size of owned irrigated land (in jeribs ^b)			4.9
Mean size of owned rain-fed land (in jeribs ^b)			12.1
Mean size of owned or accessed garden plot (in jeribs ^b)			1.9
Mean size of accessed irrigated land (in jeribs ^b)			5.1
Mean size of accessed rain-fed land (in jeribs ^b)			12.4
Number of cattle (in thousands)			3,371
Number of goats (in thousands)			9,754
Number of sheep (in thousands)			21,813
Number of chickens (in thousands)			10,341
Poverty			
Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (in percentages)	SDG 1.2.1	U 41.6; R 58.2; K 64.1	54.5
Poverty gap	MDG 1.2	U 10.3; RK 16.4	15.0
Squared poverty gap		U 3.6; RK 6.2	5.6
Gini Index		U 0.29; RK 0.25	0.31
Food security			
Percentage of food-insecure population	MDG 1.9	U 42.1; R 46.2; K 32.3	44.6
Percentage of severely or very severely food insecure population		U 25.0; R 28.9; K 18.3	27.5
Percentage of population with protein deficiency		U 27.1; R; 31.7; K 22.7	30.1
Diet Diversity Score (mean)		U: 5.8; R: 4.9; K: 5.0	5.1
Education			
Adult literacy rate (15 years of age and over)		M 49.4; F 19.9; U 53.7; R 29.6; K 5.8	34.8

Indicator	SDG /MDG indicator	Sub-groups ^a	National
Youth literacy rate (15-24 years of age)	MDG 2.3	M 68.2; F 38.7; U 75.1; R 47.9; K 7.0	53.6
Gross intake ratio in primary education		M 53.6; F 42.9; U 77.4; RK 41.1	48.5
Net attendance rate in primary education	MDG 2.1	M 65.5; F 45.5; U 74.3; R 54.0; K 6.6	56.1
Net attendance rate in secondary education		M 46.8; F 24.1; U 51.6; R 31.7; K: 1.8	35.7
Net attendance rate in tertiary education		M 14.9; F 4.8; U 18.1; R 6.9; K 0.2	9.7
Adjusted net attendance rate in primary education		M 73.2; F 50.1	62.4
Adjusted net attendance rate in secondary education		M 47.3; F 25.7	36.9
Gross attendance ratio in primary education		M 84.4; F 58.9; U 95.5 R 69.9; K 8.9	72.5
Gross attendance ratio in secondary education		M 63.0; F 32.2; U 69.2; R 42.5; K 2.6	48.0
Gross attendance ratio in tertiary education		M 20.6; F 8.0; U 27.3; R 9.6; K 0.2	14.1
Percentage of pupils starting grade one who reach grade 5 of primary education	MDG 2.2	M 88.9 F 86.3; U 90.2 R+K 86.9	87.9
Percentage of pupils starting grade one who reach last grade of primary education	MDG 2.2	M 86.5 F 82.6; U 88.3 R+K 83.7	85.1
Percentage of school starters who drop out before reaching grade six		M 12.3 F 15.7; U 10.2 RK 15.0	13.6
Primary completion rate		M 51.9 F 33.2; U 74.6 RK 33.7	56.6
Transition rate to secondary school		M 96.2 F 93.2; U 96.6 RK 94.2	95.2
The transition rate to tertiary school		M 61.2 F 54.8; U 67.5 RK 51.1	58.9
School life expectancy (in years)		M 9.7; F 5.6; U 11.1; RK 6.7	7.8
Primary-school-age children out-of-school (in thousands)		M 864; F 1,272; U 206; RK 1,930	2,136
Secondary-school-age children out-of-school (in thousands)		M 803; F 1,298; U 336; RK 1,765	2,101
Tertiary-school-age youth out-of-school (in thousands)		M 1,036; F 1,346; U 583; RK 1,799	2,382
Participation rate of youth in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months	SDG 4.3.1	M: 39.9; F 17.2; U 42.2; R 24.6; K 1.9; D 17.9; ND 28.7	28.5
Health			
Percentage of population within two hours travel time from public clinic		U 95.8; R 92.5; K 90.4	93.2
Percentage of pregnant women who received tetanus injection during pregnancy		U 35.6; R 36.4; K 23.5	35.6
Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)	MDG 5.5	U 87.7; R 66.8; K 46.3	70.2
Antenatal care coverage (at least four visits)	MDG 5.5	U 33.5; R 12.7; K 5.4	16.3

Indicator	SDG /MDG indicator	Sub-groups ^a	National
Percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel	SDG 3.1.2 MDG 5.2	U 86.8; R 46.0; K 18.5	53.4
Percentage of deliveries in institutional facilities		U 82.7; R 43.4; K 16.4	50.5
Percentage of children aged 0-59 months who received Vitamin A tablet or capsule in the last six months		U 64.7; R 48.8; K 33.7	51.2
Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority (in percentages)	SDG 16.9.1	U 60.9; R 29.5; K 10.4	29.5
Disability prevalence rate (in percentages)		U 3.2; R 4.3; K 2.8; M 3.2; F 3.1	3.2
Percentage of people with a disability who have multiple disabilities		M 33.4; F 32.2	33.1
Housing and amenities			
Proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road (in percentages)			63.1
Percentage of households owning their dwelling		U 66.9; R 94.2; K 88.4	87.1
Average number of persons per room		U 3.1; R 3.1; K 5.2	3.2
Percentage of households living in overcrowded dwellings		U 42.7; R 41.5; K 83.3	43.9
Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing (in percentages)	MDG 7.10 SDG 11.1.1		72.4
Proportion of population with access to electricity (in percentages)	SDG 7.1.1	U 99.5; R 97.8; K 86.1	97.7
Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources ^c	MDG 7.8	U 91.5; R 56.6; K 35.8	63.9
Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services (in percentages) ^d (proxy indicator)	SDG 6.1.1	U 75.3; R 25.1; K 3.0	36.0
Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services (in percentages) ^e	SDG 6.1.1	(U 36.7; RK 10.1)	(21.0)
Percentage of households with <i>E. coli</i> in household drinking water		(U 67.1; RK 84.2)	(76.9)
Percentage of population using an improved sanitation facility (limited and basic services)	MDG 7.9	U 83.2; R 46.1; K 7.4	53.0
Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services (in percentages) (proxy indicator) ^f	SDG 6.2.1	U 56.5; R 38.8; K 6.7	41.4
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (in percentages) – for cooking	SDG 7.1.2	U 79.1; R 9.0; K 1.1	25.2
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (in percentages) – for heating	SDG 7.1.2	U 11.9; R: 1.9; K 0.6	4.2

Indicator	SDG /MDG indicator	Sub-groups ^a	National
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (in percentages) – for lighting	SDG 7.1.2	U 99.8; R 98.2; 87.7	98.1
Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone (in percentages)	SDG 5.b.1	U 60.2; R 38.4; K 24.8	43.3
Internet users per 100 population	MDG 8.16 SDG 17.8.1	U 10.8; R 1.5; K 0.2; M 6.4; F 1.3	3.9
Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (in percentages)	MDG 3.2		13.2
Proportion of women in managerial positions (in percentages)	SDG 5.5.2	U 4.4; R 3.8; K -	4.3
Adult literacy gender parity index (age 15 and over)		U 0.61; R 0.29; K 0.07	0.40
Youth literacy gender parity index (age 15-24)		U 0.81; R 0.44; K 0.10	0.57
Gender parity index of gross primary attendance ratios	MDG 3.1	U 0.90; R 0.62; K 0.30	0.71
Gender parity index of gross secondary attendance ratios	MDG 3.1	U 0.74; R 0.38; K 0.00	0.51
Gender parity index of gross tertiary attendance ratios	MDG 3.1	U 0.58; R 0.21; K 0.00	0.39

^a U: urban, R: rural, K: Kuchi, M: male, F: female, D: disabled, ND: non-disabled

^b One jerib is 0.2 hectare (2,000 m²)

^c Including water supplied by tanker trucks

^d Proxy indicator not considering eventual water contamination assessed prior to its use by households

^e Based on a non-representative sample from ten selected provinces

^f Proxy indicator not considering procedures for excreta disposal; the indicator corresponds to 'basic sanitation services' according to the sanitation ladder.

() Indicators between brackets are considered less reliable and are indicative only.

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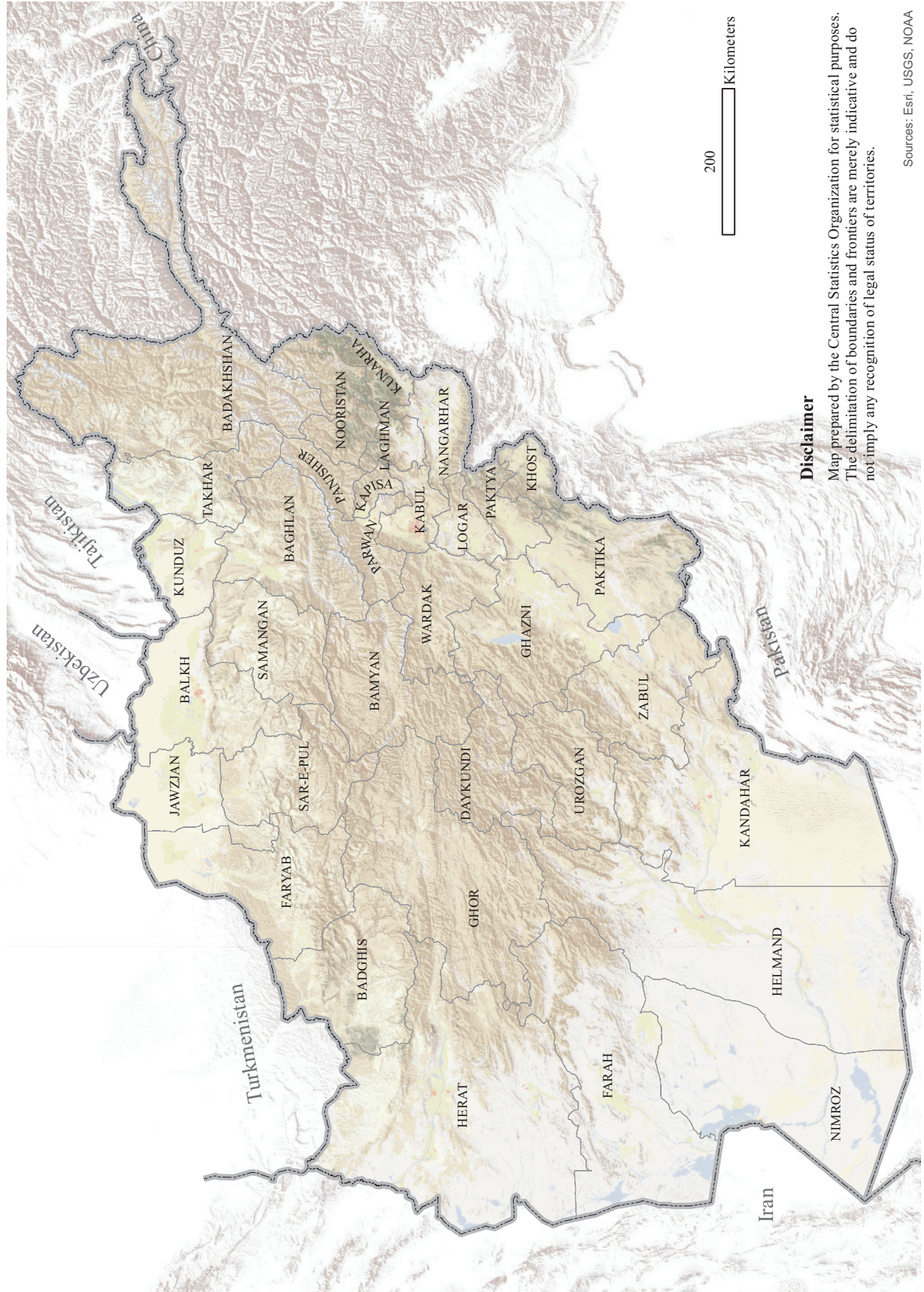
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ABBREVIATIONS

ADU	-	Afghanistan Development Update
AHS	-	Afghanistan Health Survey
ARAP	-	Afghanistan Rural Access Project
BPHS	-	Basic Package of Health Services
ADHS	-	Afghanistan Demographic and Health Survey
ALCS	-	Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey
ANC	-	Ante-natal care
ANDS	-	Afghanistan National Development Strategy
ANSP	-	Afghanistan National Statistical Plan
BPHS	-	Basic Package of Health Services
CAPI	-	Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing
CBN	-	Cost of Basic Needs
CHW	-	Community Health Worker
CI	-	Confidence Interval
CPI	-	Consumer Price Index
CSI	-	Coping Strategies Index
CSPro	-	Census and Survey Processing System
CSO	-	Central Statistics Organisation
DfID	-	UK Department for International Development
DPS	-	District Price Survey
EA	-	Enumeration Area
EML	-	Essential Medicines List
EPHS	-	Essential Package for Hospital Services
EPI	-	Expanded Program on Immunisation
EU	-	European Union
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organization
FCS	-	Food Consumption Score
GAR	-	Gross Attendance Ratio
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GIR	-	Gross Intake Ratio
GIS	-	Geographic Information System
GIZ	-	German Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
GoA	-	Government of Afghanistan
GPI	-	Gender Parity Index
GPS	-	Global Positioning System
HDDS	-	Diet Diversity Score
HHS	-	Household Hunger Scale
HIV/AIDS	-	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICF	-	International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health
ICON	-	ICON-Institute Public Sector GmbH
ICSE	-	International Classification of Status in Employment
IDP	-	Internally Displaced Person
IOM	-	International Organisation for Migration
ISCED	-	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO	-	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ICT	-	Information and Communication Technology
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
JMP	-	Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation
Kcal	-	Kilocalorie
LFPR	-	Labour Force Participation Rate
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
MoHE	-	Ministry of Higher Education
MoLSAMD	-	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled
MoPH	-	Ministry of Public Health
MoUA	-	Ministry of Urban Affairs
MoUDA	-	Ministry of Urban Development Affairs
MoWA	-	Ministry of Women Affairs
MPW	-	Ministry of Public Works
MRRD	-	Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development
NAR	-	Net Attendance Rate
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIR	-	Net Intake Ratio
NMAK	-	National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi
NNS	-	Afghanistan National Nutrition Survey
NRVA	-	National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment
NEET	-	Not in education, employment or training
NESP	-	National Education Strategic Plan
PPS	-	Probability Proportional to Size
PSO	-	Provincial Statistical Officer
PSU	-	Primary Sampling Unit
RSO	-	Regional Statistical Officer
SDES	-	Socio-Demographic and Economic Survey
SDG	-	Sustainable Development Goal
SE	-	Standard Error
SMAM	-	Singulate Mean Age at Marriage
TAC	-	Technical Advisory Committee
TBA	-	Traditional Birth Attendant
TFR	-	Total Fertility Rate
UNAMA	-	United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
UNFPA	-	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNHCR	-	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
UNOCHA	-	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Human Affairs
USU	-	Ultimate Sampling Unit
USD	-	United States Dollar
WASH	-	Water, Sanitation And Hygiene
WB	-	World Bank
WFP	-	World Food Programme
WHO	-	World Health Organization
WTIS	-	World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Symposium

MAP OF AFGHANISTAN



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) is an ambitious project and is the longest standing and most comprehensive survey in the Afghan statistical system. It is now almost continuously running for 15 years and has provided the Afghan Government, civil society, researchers and the international community with precious data on the living conditions of the Afghan population since the start of the survey in 2003.

During the course of its implementation, the survey changed in scope and purpose. It had started as the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) following the methodology of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation, focusing on food security and poverty prevalence and supported by the United Nations World Food Programme. Now, the survey is financially supported by the European Union through the Delegation of the European Union to Afghanistan and it has expanded into a full multi-purpose household survey, covering a large number of dimensions of development. In order to reflect this evolution, the survey was renamed from National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA) to Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey, which does more justice to the wealth of statistical information the survey is collecting.

The present report is the end result of the concerted efforts of a large number of people and I wish to take this opportunity to thank all who have contributed to the various stages of the survey. Acknowledging that I will probably miss mentioning a few – for which I sincerely apologise – I would like to specifically thank the following people and entities. First of all, I would like to thank the European Union Delegation to Afghanistan and in particular Mr. Maurizio Cian, Head of Operations, Ms. Barbara Egger, Attaché for Economic Development and Mr. Wali Mohammed Farhodi, Programme Manager for their constant and invaluable support in implementing this project. The EU Delegation is our main donor and this publication would never have been achieved without their commitment. I would also like to thank all the members of the Steering Committee and Technical Advisory Committee of the ALCS for their support. Their contribution has been precious, and we much appreciated their support and valuable comments during the numerous meetings regarding the conduct of the survey.

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Director of Field Operation Department
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

The Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) is the longest-running and most comprehensive source of information about the social and economic situation of people in Afghanistan. With the results of the six successive surveys, the Central Statistics Organization of Afghanistan has provided the Government of Afghanistan, civil society, researchers and the international community with an increasingly wide array of national indicators and statistics that are required to monitor socio-economic development in Afghanistan. The survey produces information at national and provincial level and the 2016-17 round covered 19,838 households and 155,680 persons across the country. The ALCS is unique in the sense that it includes the nomadic Kuchi population of Afghanistan. Another distinguishing feature of the survey is the continuous data collection during a cycle of 12 months, which captures the seasonal variation in a range of indicators.

Afghanistan was one of the 193 countries to endorse the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in September 2015. This fifteen-year agenda (2015-2030) replaces the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) framework and guides the international community to achieve three main objectives: end extreme poverty, fight inequality and injustice, and protect the planet. The ALCS is the main source for monitoring the implementation of the Sustainable Development Agenda in Afghanistan. The ALCS 2016-17 covered 20 indicators for 12 of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Up to the present ALCS 2016-17, the successive surveys have recorded significant improvements in many development indicators (including, education, maternal health, water and sanitation), while other indicators (e.g. employment, poverty and food-security) have fluctuated over time. Alongside a continued improvement on some indicators, the present results indicate stagnation for many others. The most concerning among these are the indicators on education and gender equality. Moreover, the ALCS analysis reveals a continued process of farmland fragmentation, a worrying situation in Afghanistan's labour market and large increases in food insecurity and poverty, compared to previous ALCS assessments.

The picture of stagnation and deterioration should be seen against the recent worsening of the security situation in the country, the large influx of returnees, the reduction of international presence in and aid to Afghanistan and macro-economic conditions. In addition, more structural factors continue to play a role in impeding development in the country, including the very low participation of women in the economy and in society in general, the low levels of education and skills in the country's work force and the poor performance of the labour market.

Moreover, the very high fertility and population growth rates generate unsustainable conditions for development in the country. Analysis of the ALCS shows that these factors offset much of government and donor development efforts, and undermine the capacity of many households and individuals – in particular women and girls – to escape poverty and poor health. More and more people are reaching working age and entering the labour force, while the capacity of the labour market to provide jobs for them cannot keep up. Similarly, the rapid population growth also puts pressure on the education and health systems and on the amount of available arable land.

Survey findings

Population

Afghanistan's population has a very young age structure. Almost half of the population – 48 percent – consists of children under age 15, a figure that would place Afghanistan among the four countries in the world with the highest proportion persons under-15. This confirms national and international estimates of very high fertility and population

growth in the country, which are consistently among the highest in the world. Because of its young population, the dependency ratio¹ is at the very high level of 101, implying that 100 people of the principal income-earning ages 15 to 64 must provide for as many as 101 dependent young (below 15) and older (65 and over) persons. Such a high ratio implies a serious impediment for economic development, as on the one hand scarce resources have to be spent on the young population's education, health care and social development, and on the other hand only a relative small proportion of the population is available for economic productive activities. Similarly, at the household level, relatively few people are available for income activities and the limited resources need to be shared with many household members, reducing investments in education, health and other personal development.

The average household size in Afghanistan is 7.7 persons. Half of the population lives in households with nine or more people. Some 44 percent live in overcrowded dwellings – defined as housing with more than three persons per room – that expose household members to unhealthy and socially undesirable conditions. Marriage is almost universal in Afghanistan. Above age 40, less than one percent of men and women remain unmarried. Some 8 percent of married women in Afghanistan live in a polygamous marriage. Child marriage remains widespread in the country, especially for girls. Child marriage often compromises a girl's development by resulting in early pregnancy and social isolation, interrupting her schooling and limiting her opportunities for career and vocational advancement. It is also considered a direct manifestation of gender inequality and for that reason it is included in the set of SDG indicators for gender equality. According to ALCS 2016-17, 28 percent of women currently aged 20-24 were married before age 18 and 4 percent even before age 15 (SDG indicator 5.3.1).

Kabul province – and more specifically, the capital – stands out as the main gravitational centre for migrants in the country, both for those who move internally and for those returning from abroad. More than one third of Kabul residents were born abroad or elsewhere in Afghanistan. The province hosts more than half of all migrants in the country who moved since birth. Secondary magnets of attraction are Balkh, Herat and Kandahar. Overall, living conditions of migrants tend to be somewhat better than those of non-migrants, as suggested by a lower poverty rate and higher literacy- and labour-force participation rates. This also applies to migrants who return from displacement, but only for those who return from abroad and not for those who were internally displaced.

Labour market

The analysis of the ALCS data suggests that Afghanistan's labour market is under considerable stress. Almost one quarter – 24 percent – of the country's labour force is unemployed (SDG indicator 8.5.2). It would be a serious misunderstanding to think that unemployment is the only, perhaps even the main, problem of the labour market. At least as important is the generally poor quality of work, characterised by vulnerable, low-productivity and low-paid jobs that prevent households from escaping poverty and improving their living conditions. Of the total employed population, 20 percent are under-employed (in need of more work). Moreover, 80 percent of all jobs are classified as vulnerable employment, characterised by job insecurity and poor working conditions, and 67 percent of jobs in non-agricultural employment is informal employment (SDG indicator 8.5.3). Only 13 percent of the working population of Afghanistan can be considered to have decent employment. The low quality of work is also evidenced by the finding that the poverty rate of fully-employed people is hardly lower than that of the unemployed and that poverty among the under-employed is even higher than that of the unemployed. The key message here is that next to the need of jobs for a large number of unemployed, an even far larger number of working people is in need of decent jobs in order to escape poverty.

The proportion of youth 'not in employment, education or training' (NEET) (SDG indicator 8.6.1) captures the share of young people who are not working, but who are also not gaining relevant labour-market skills and may suffer from erosion of competences. This indicator thus provides a measure of youth who are at especially high risk of labour-market and social exclusion. The NEET rate is estimated at 42 percent for both sexes combined, but it is especially high for young women. Job opportunities for young people are particularly scarce, with the youth unemployment rate² standing as high as 31 percent. Again, unemployment levels of young women far surpass that of their male peers. The very high population growth factors-in here, as the ever-increasing cohorts that reach working age also put an unabated pressure on the labour market. An expected 3.9 million young people will reach working

1 The age dependency ratio is the ratio of people in dependent ages (younger than 15 or older than 64) to the population of principal working age, those aged 15-64.

2 The unemployment rate of persons aged 15-24.

age over the next five years, of whom 1.6 million will enter the labour market. Out of these, some 540 thousand will remain unemployed according to the present rates of labour force participation and unemployment.

The overall labour force participation rate is relatively low at 54 percent, as is the national employment-to-population ratio³ of 41 percent. These figures imply that relative to the total population, the volume of human resources available to produce goods and services is small, greatly hampering further economic development. The main factor underlying these low figures is the very low female participation in economic activities.

Employment in agriculture dominates the labour market of Afghanistan: 44 percent of all jobs are in the agriculture sector and 43 percent of all workers are agricultural workers. Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment (SDG indicator 9.2.2) remains at a low 18 percent, indicating that the transition to a more advanced and resilient economy is still in an initial stage. The main capital of farmers is arable land and in Afghanistan particularly irrigated land, as this is far more productive than rain-fed land. Land ownership is under high pressure from population growth, resulting in land fragmentation. Analysis of successive surveys indicate that the average owned irrigated land size decreased from 6.7 jeribs (1.3 ha.) in 2007-08 to 4.9 jeribs (1.0 ha.) in 2016-17, thereby jeopardising the livelihoods of many farming households.

Poverty

The ALCS 2016-17 recorded a sharp deterioration in welfare of the Afghan population. The proportion of population living below the national poverty line (SDG indicator 1.2.1) increased from 34 percent in 2007-08 to 55 percent in 2016-17. The increase in the poverty rate is experienced across the country and is present in urban, as well as in rural areas. Results from ALCS 2013-14 indicated that most of the increase occurred in the interval between the last two surveys. They also showed that not only the share of poor people among the general population increased, but also the depth or intensity of poverty. The measure for the intensity of poverty – the poverty gap ratio⁴ – more than doubled between 2007-08 and 2016-17, increasing from 7 to 15 percent.

The latest poverty figures imply that at the time of the survey, close to 16 million Afghans lived in poverty. The adverse effects of high fertility on household welfare is clearly shown in the much higher poverty rates among large households and households with relatively many children. On the other hand, education and literacy have a favourable effect on household welfare. While unemployment of the head of household is correlated with higher poverty, his (or her) employment is no guarantee against poverty: more than half of the households with a fully-employed household head lives below the poverty line and those with under-employed heads are even more often poor than those with unemployed heads.

The loss of wealth among the most affluent 20 percent of the population has been more pronounced than that at the bottom of the wealth distribution. This implies that, although poverty has increased, inequality in the country has declined. The Gini index is a key indicator for inequality in wealth and measures the extent to which the distribution of wealth among individuals or households differs from a perfectly equal one.⁵ The Gini index for Afghanistan showed a small decrease between the surveys of 2011-12 and 2016-17, from 0.30 to 0.29.

Food security

Food security is measured by the MDG indicator 1.9 (the proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption). Available data for this indicator from previous surveys allows the presentation of the trend in food security. According to this indicator, food insecurity went up from 30 percent in 2011-12 to 45 percent in the current survey. Some 13 percent of the population are even very severely food insecure.⁶

3 The proportion of the working-age population that is employed.

4 The poverty gap measures the intensity of poverty as the average distance between the per-capita expenditure levels of the population and the poverty line – assuming the non-poor have a zero shortfall – and is expressed as a percentage of the poverty line.

5 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 1 represents absolute inequality, where all consumption is concentrated in one person.

6 Very severely food insecure is defined as a deficit of 600 Kcal in the daily food consumption.

Apart from insufficient energy intake, close to one third – 30 percent – of the population do not meet the daily protein requirement of at least 50 grams per person per day. Two out of five people – 39 percent of the population – have food consumption with poor dietary diversity, lacking adequate amounts of nutritious items, proteins and micro-nutrients.

Education

The successive ALCS rounds showed significant progress for many education indicators in the first decade after the Taliban regime was moved from power. However, the ALCS 2013-14 indicated a slowdown in this progress and the current ALCS 2016-17 established that further improvements for most education indicators have completely stalled. The slowdown of net attendance rates⁷ was first observed for the attendance rate in primary education (increasing from 37 percent in 2005 to 57 percent in 2011-12 and now 56 percent)), then in secondary education (increasing from 16 percent in 2005 to 37 percent in 2013-14 and now 36 percent) and last in tertiary education (5 percent in 2011-12, 9 percent in 2013-14 and 10 percent in 2016-17). It is likely that easy progress could be made in reaching more students in the first stage of rebuilding the education system after 2001, when very few children attended school. Progress is harder when attendance levels have increased, especially if it concerns less accessible areas of the country and populations that resist formal education, particularly education for girls. In addition, it is hard to keep the rate of extension of education facilities in line with the high level of population growth, and even harder to increase coverage. For instance, the number of children that will be of primary-school age in six years time, will be 18 percent larger than the number that is of primary-school age now. Were the education system to achieve universal primary education for this next generation, in six years time primary education needs to expand by this additional 18 percent, on top of 38 percent increase that is required to accommodate the share of primary-school age children that is currently not attending any education.

The participation rate of youth (aged 15 to 24) in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months is one of the indicators for SDG 4 on education (SDG indicator 4.3.1). The national youth participation rate in education and training is a low 28 percent. As with all other education indicators, this overall figure conceals large differences by residence and sex.

ALCS-based analysis of entry into education system, transition through stages of education and ending the education career shows that reasons for not starting school are different from those for terminating education. Long distance to school and reluctance to send children to school are by far the most common reasons for not starting school (mentioned for 37 and 25 percent of those who never attended school), whereas the need for child labour and perceived irrelevance of further education were the most important reasons for terminating education. One of the most important findings of the ALCS is that – apart from the quality of education (for which the survey does not provide information), the main problem of Afghanistan's education system is not so much retention and drop out, but first and foremost making a start at school. The cumulative result of the history of education in Afghanistan is that 82 percent of the adult population aged 25 and over has not completed any level of education and only 4 percent completed any level beyond secondary education.

The adult literacy rate – referring to the population aged 15 and over – is another indicator that measures the accumulated achievement of the education system. For 2016-17, the adult literacy rate was found to be 35 percent, up from 24 percent in 2005. The youth literacy rate – the literacy rate in the population aged 15-24 – reflects the outcomes of primary education over roughly the previous 10 years and is a measure of recent educational progress. For Afghanistan, the youth literacy rate was found to be 54 percent, indicating considerable progress since 2005 when it was 31 percent.

⁷ The net attendance rate is calculated as the number of pupils of the theoretical school-age group for a specific level of education, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Health

The set of health care indicators that is produced by the ALCS is one for which continued – and quite impressive – improvement is recorded. Important indicators for maternal and child health include ante-natal examination by a skilled health-care provider and skilled birth attendance. Both timely ante-natal care and skilled birth attendance have shown to be key to bringing down the high levels of maternal and neo-natal mortality. According to ALCS 2016-17, the percentage of pregnant women who had at least one ante-natal check-up increased from 23 percent in 2005 to 70 percent now. However, only 16 percent received four ante-natal check-ups, the number recommended by WHO for normal pregnancies. The percentage of births attended by skilled health personnel increased from 17 percent in 2005 to 53 percent in 2016-17 (SDG indicator 3.1.2).

Persons with a disability occupy a vulnerable position in Afghan society, but very little information about them is available. The ALCS 2016-17 included a module to assess the disability status of surveyed household members. The findings indicate that at least 3 percent of the population can be classified as disabled. The disability prevalence by age follows the typical increasing pattern by age, especially after age 50. Around one quarter of the population of age 65 and over is disabled. The most common type of disability relates to functional limitations for moving around (walking, climbing steps), seeing and remembering or concentrating. One third of all disabled persons have more than one disability. Illness, congenital defects and old age are reported as the main causes of disability.

Housing and amenities

The living conditions of the Afghan population are to a large extent determined by the conditions of housing, including facilities for drinking water and sanitation. Most people – 83 percent – live in dwellings that are constructed with non-durable materials and 44 percent live in conditions of overcrowding, meaning that there are more than three persons per room. The large majority of urban dwellers – 72 percent – live in slums or inadequate housing (SDG indicator 11.1.1).⁸

Access to clean water and adequate sanitation and hygiene are key factors in reducing morbidity and mortality, especially for small children. Successive surveys recorded impressive improvement in terms of access to appropriate services for sanitation and especially drinking water. Time series for the MDG indicator on drinking water show that the proportion of population using an improved drinking water source⁹ increased from 27 percent in 2007-08 to 62 percent in 2016-17. The MDG indicator on sanitation shows that the proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility¹⁰ increased from 39 percent in 2013-14 to 53 percent in 2016-17.¹¹

To measure people's access to appropriate drinking-water and sanitation services, new indicators were developed within the SDG framework. These indicators extend the MDG indicators on water and sanitation by incorporating additional criteria for safe management of services, which could not yet be incorporated in the ALCS 2016-17. Consequently, only 'proxy indicators' can be released. The proxy indicator for drinking water suggests that 36 percent of the population use safely-managed drinking water (SDG indicator 6.1.1).^{12,13} and 41 percent use safely-managed sanitation services.¹⁴

8 The definition of slum- and inadequate housing includes components of durability of housing, overcrowding, access to drinking water and sanitation, and security of tenure.

9 Improved drinking water sources are those that have the potential to deliver safe water by nature of their design and construction. These include piped supplies and non-piped supplies (such as boreholes, protected wells and springs, rainwater and packaged or delivered water, e.g. by tanker trucks).

10 Improved sanitation facilities are defined as ones that hygienically separate human excreta from human contact. These facilities include wet sanitation technologies (flush and pour flush toilets connecting to sewers, septic tanks or pit latrines) and dry sanitation technologies (ventilated improved pit latrines, pit latrines with slabs and composting toilets).

11 Sanitation information from surveys prior to 2013-14 is based on a different definition and is not comparable with more recent information.

12 Indicator 6.1.1 is based on criteria of improved drinking water source (MDG indicator 7.8, footnote 10), accessibility on the premises, availability when needed and absence of contamination. The latter two criteria are not accommodated by the present ALCS.

13 In ten provinces, the ALCS tested a water-quality module in the questionnaire, which allowed the calculation of the SDG indicator for drinking water according to the full definition. Applying the full definition reduced the proxy indicator for the ten provinces from 68 percent (corresponding to the national figure of 36 percent) to 21 percent.

14 SDG indicator 6.2.1 is based on criteria of improved sanitation facilities (footnote 11), shared facilities and management of excreta. The latter criterion is not accommodated by the present ALCS.

The latest ALCS shows that the proportion of population with access to electricity is now almost universal (98 percent; SDG indicator 7.1.1). The very high level of access to electricity is particularly due to a rapid spread of solar panels, from 2 percent in 2007-08, 22 percent in 2011-12, 48 percent in 2013-14 to 59 percent now. Reliance on clean fuels for lighting, cooking and heating is achieved by 98, 25 and 4 percent of the population, respectively (SDG indicator 7.1.2).

Physical living conditions also refer to access to markets, health facilities and other services that may not be available in the community. A reliable physical infrastructure, including all-weather roads, is a condition for people's well-being and economic development. One of the related SDG indicators is the proportion of the rural population who live within two kilometres of an all-season road (SDG indicator 9.1.1). In the ALCS 2016-17, it was found that 63 percent of the rural population (including Kuchi) had access to such roads within two kilometres.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognises that new information and communication technologies are instrumental in advancing the SDGs. The ALCS collects information for two SDG indicators in this respect: the proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone (SDG indicator 5.b.1) and the proportion of individuals using the internet (SDG indicator 17.8.1). Survey results indicate that 43 percent of the total Afghan population aged 15 years and over use mobile phones, but only 4 percent of the population aged 15 and over used internet in the 12 months before the survey.

The ALCS not only collects information about people's living conditions, but also qualitative information about shocks experienced by households (e.g. natural disasters, water shortages, negative price changes, loss of jobs, deaths of household members) and the strategies applied to cope with these shocks. In addition, male and female household representatives, as well as male Shura's were asked about the most urgent needs that the government should address in their community. Consistent with previous surveys, drinking water – and particularly sufficient supply – ranks as the highest concern that needs to be addressed (mentioned by 20 percent of respondents as the first development priority), closely followed by infrastructural improvements (roads and bridges) (the first development priority for 17 percent of respondents) and security (also 17 percent). Male and female respondents had quite similar views on development priorities, but answers strongly differed across types of residence. Drinking water is more often mentioned as development priority in rural areas than in urban areas, and particularly more so among the nomadic Kuchi. On the other hand, infrastructure and employment are particularly urban concerns.

Gender equality

Gender equality and women's empowerment were made a key dimension in Afghanistan's development framework, as well as internationally in the 2030 SDG Agenda. SDG 5 is specifically devoted to this development topic, but it was stressed that every relevant SDG indicator should be differentiated by sex to measure progress toward the elimination of gender inequalities. The one gender-equity SDG indicator that is covered by the ALCS is the proportion of women in managerial positions (SDG indicator 5.5.2). In 2016-17, this proportion was measured at 4 percent, indicating very low women's power in decision making in the economy.

Without exception, the various gender parity indices¹⁵ that are produced by the ALCS show disadvantaged positions and poorer development opportunities for women and girls compared to boys and men. In the field of education, the female adult- and youth literacy rates are, respectively, 0.40 and 0.57 of that of the corresponding male rates. And the female gross attendance rates in primary-, secondary- and tertiary education are, respectively, 0.71, 0.51 and 0.39 of the corresponding male rates. The labour market participation rate of women is 0.33 of that of men and the female unemployment rate, the female youth unemployment rate and the share of female youth not in education, employment or training (NEET) are, respectively 1.55, 1.49 and 1.76 of the levels of the indicators for men.

15 A gender parity index is calculated as the ratio between the values of a specific indicator for girls/women and boys/men. An index value ranges between 0 and 2. A value of 1 indicates exact gender equity and the further from 1 the parity index lies, the greater the gender disparity.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 General survey backgrounds

In order to address the information needs of the Government of Afghanistan, civil society and the international community to monitor development progress and to inform and prioritise policies and programmes, the Central Statistics Organization (CSO) conducts on a regular basis the Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS), previously known as the National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA). Building on two survey rounds in 2003 and 2005, the instrument developed into a full-blown multi-purpose survey in 2007-08. The survey 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 ALCS 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 2007-08 survey – year-round data are collected in order to capture the seasonality of indicators like employment, food security and poverty. The survey is designed to produce representative estimates for the national and provincial levels, and for the Kuchi population.

Each survey round produces a standard set of core indicators that were prioritised by ALCS data users. Data for additional indicators and more in-depth information are collected on a rotating basis in the successive survey rounds. This rotating principle allows progress monitoring of a wide range of development indicators with appropriate time intervals and at the same time preserves the manageability and sustainability of the survey. The specific focus of ALCS 2016-17, for which data were collected from April 2016 to April 2017, was on poverty, food security and disability. In addition, the present ALCS covers 20 indicators that were selected to monitor the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development that Afghanistan, together with 192 other countries, endorsed in 2015.

The present ALCS 2016-17 report is the most comprehensive to date. The main focus in this report is on the national level, but information is frequently disaggregated for residential populations (urban, rural and Kuchi). Provincial-level information is largely outside the scope of the present report, although most chapters include thematic maps, showing the provincial distribution of selected indicators. The information provided in this report is largely descriptive, but includes various cross-sectoral analyses. In addition, the present report introduces regression analysis, which significantly enhances the understanding of a selected number of indicators. More in-depth analyses – especially those aiming at cause-and-effect relationships – will require separate thematic studies.

The ALCS 2016-17 recorded a break in the positive trend of several indicators and a severe deterioration for poverty and food-security. To better understand these negative developments, section 1.2 provides some contextual backgrounds for the narratives on the various topics that are covered in the subsequent chapters. Section 1.3 addresses the contribution of the ALCS in the production of national indicators to monitor progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The last section of this chapter (section 1.4) presents the overall structure of this report.

1.2 The context of development in Afghanistan

After decades of war and political instability, Afghanistan remains one of the poorest countries in the world. In 2016, the year covered by the present ALCS round, Afghanistan ranked 169th out of 188 countries in the UNDP Human Development Index, a summary measure that is based on development dimensions of health, education and living standards (UNDP 2016). This poor ranking represents the challenges faced by large parts of the country's population, but at the same time hides improvements in different sectors since 2001, as recorded by different rounds of the NRVA and ALCS. However, the latest rounds of the survey identified a slowdown or even complete stagnation in improvement of several indicators that previously showed strong positive trends. Moreover, the present survey indicates a sharp deterioration for poverty and food-security.

The picture of stagnation and deterioration that emerges from the results of the ALCS 2016-17 needs to be interpreted in the larger context of development challenges that confront the country, and especially the recent developments of rising insurgent activities and insecurity, decreasing donor support and presence of international security forces, and large-scale return of Afghans from neighbouring Pakistan and Iran. In addition, more structural factors seriously hamper the country's development, including high population growth, poor opportunities for women to

participate in society, low quality of education and the absence of investments. The next section provides some relevant contextual information for the chapters that present the results of the ALCS 2016-17.

1.2.1 The macro-economic and security context

The overall macro-economic and security context in the country since 2007 can be broken into two distinct phases, before and after the 2014 security transition. While the pre-transition phase was characterised by higher economic growth and a relatively stable security situation, since 2014, growth has stagnated and the security situation continues to deteriorate.

Figure 1.1 plots per-capita GDP and annual GDP growth between 2007 and 2016.¹ Between 2007 and 2012, GDP per capita increased from USD 381 to USD 691, with economic growth averaging 11.2 percent per year. In contrast, the Afghan economy has grown at an average of 2.1 percent between 2013 and 2016, and GDP per capita in 2016 remains USD 100 below its 2012 level. This economic slowdown has been accompanied by a deterioration in security since 2014 and economic activity (as measured by new firm registrations, Figure 1.2) has been adversely affected.

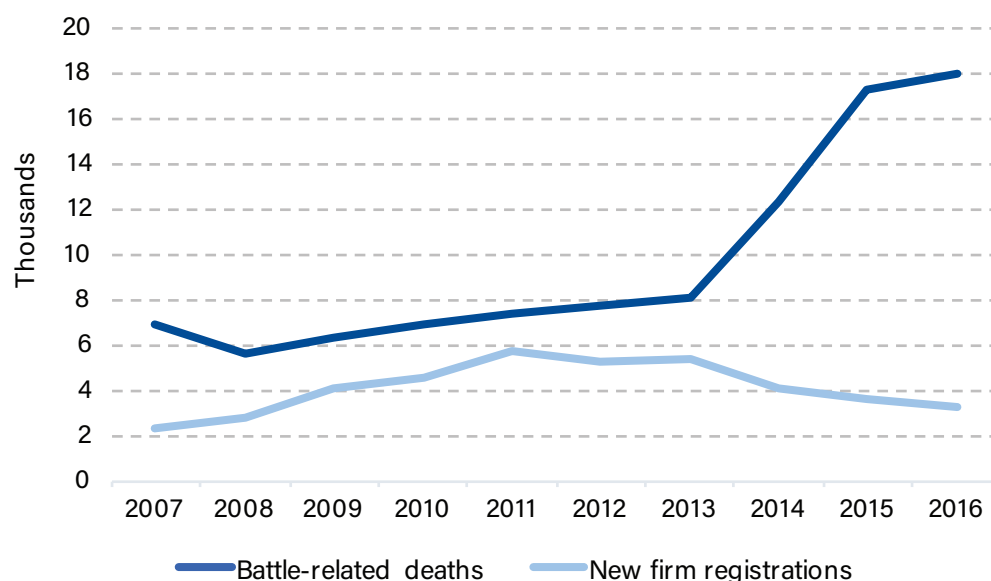
Figure 1.1: Real GDP growth and per-capita GDP, 2007-2016



Source: World Bank 2017b

¹ Afghanistan's economic growth is projected to increase slightly to 2.6 percent in 2017, and assuming no further deterioration in security, to 3.2 percent in 2018 (World Bank 2017b).

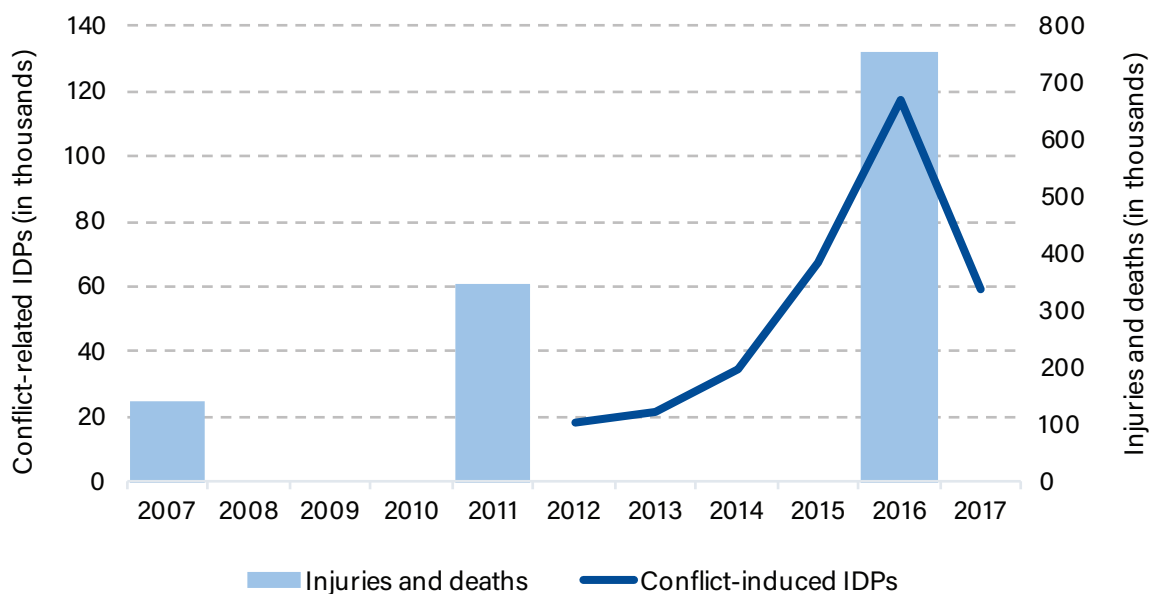
Figure 1.2: Casualties and new firm registrations, 2007-2016 (in thousands)



Source: World Bank 2017b, UNAMA

The deteriorating security situation has led to large-scale population displacements (*Figure 1.3*) and has coincided with the return of more than a million Afghans. Since 2007, the number of injuries and deaths has increased five-fold and in 2016, more than 650 thousand Afghans were internally displaced due to conflict (UNAMA and UNOCHA 2017). At the same time, UNHCR and IOM figures suggest that 2016 witnessed the return of more than a million documented and un-documented Afghans (UNHCR 2017). Internal displacement and large-scale return within a difficult economic and security context pose risks to welfare, not only for the displaced, but also for the population at large, putting pressure on service delivery systems and increasing competition for already scarce economic opportunities.

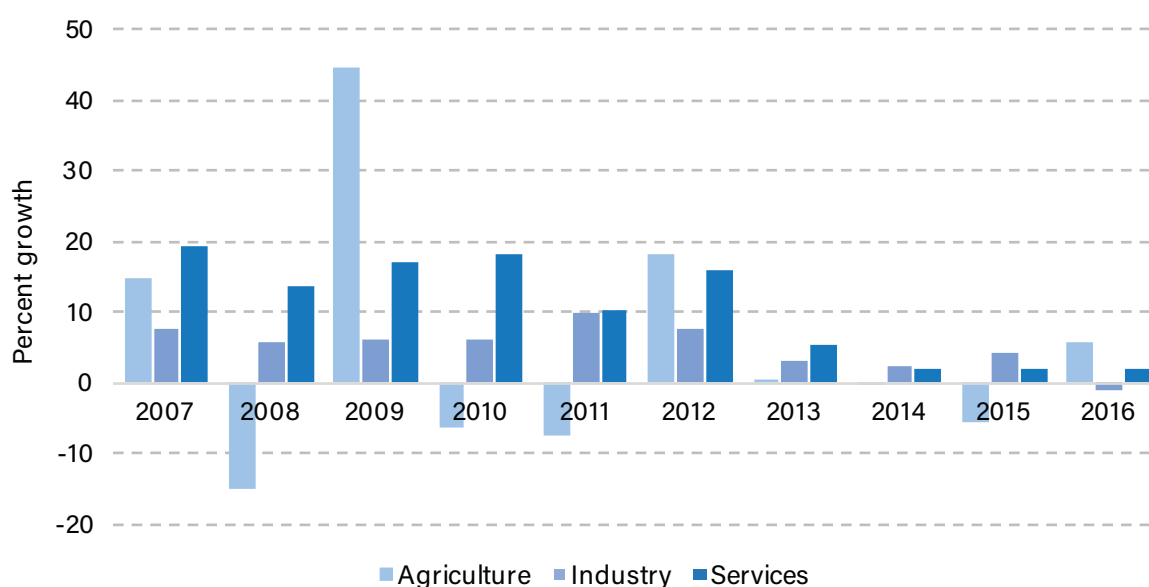
Figure 1.3: Injuries and deaths and conflict-related internally displaced persons, 2007-2016 (in thousands)



Source: UNOCHA, UNAMA

Sector-specific trends in growth suggest further causes for concern. While agriculture's contribution to GDP has declined steadily from around 30 percent in 2007 to 22 percent in 2016, it remains an important sector as a source of livelihoods for the rural poor, in influencing the affordability of basic food items for the population, and because of its significant inputs into the manufacturing sector. Notwithstanding significant annual fluctuations, the agricultural sector grew, on average, 8 percent per year between 2007 and 2012 (*Figure 1.4*). Since then, its annual growth rate has fallen sharply to 0.1 percent on average. Potentially related, the ALCS 2016-17 survey period coincided with an increase in food price inflation, which climbed to 10.7 percent year-on-year in May 2017 (World Bank 2017b).

Figure 1.4: Annual growth rate, 2007-2016, by main economic sector (in percentages)



Source: World Bank 2017b, UNAMA

1.2.2 The demographic context of Afghanistan

High population growth in Afghanistan is a destabilising factor and hampers development progress. This has been acknowledged by the Government of Afghanistan, when it added the fertility rate to the list of development indicators in the Millennium Development Agenda (Government of Afghanistan 2009; *Text box 1.1*).

Text box 1.1: Vision 2020 on high fertility

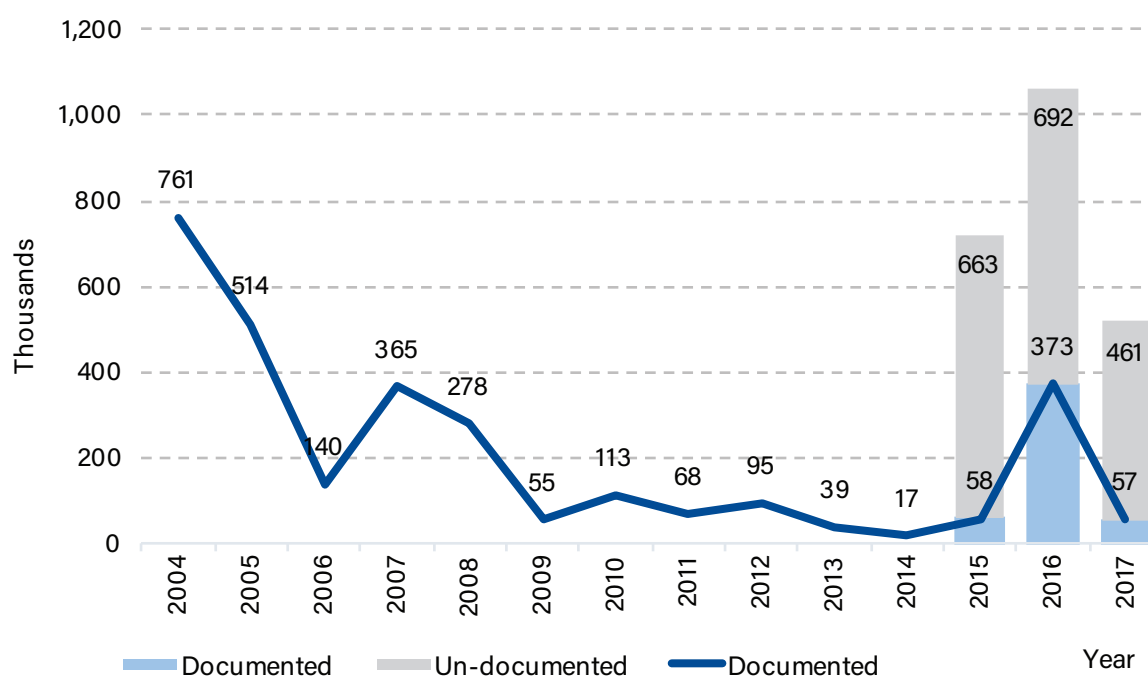
[The fertility rate] was added to the Afghan MDGs because of the particular importance of this issue to Afghanistan. The country's rapid population growth poses a problem for employment and economic growth. It also makes it much harder to extend already lacking public services to an ever-larger number of people. Given the country's scarcity of arable land and water resources, the rapid population growth also poses a food-security issue and potentially a long-term strategic issue for security, as a large, disenfranchised youth population could provide recruits to the insurgency and be politically manipulated by anti-government elements. Finally, Afghanistan's high fertility rate poses an unbearably high burden on women and contributes to the country's unusually low life expectancy for women.

Source: Government of Afghanistan 2009.

The new 2017 population estimates that CSO adopted in 2018 imply an increase of Afghanistan's population of 12.5 million people, from 23.2 million in 2004 to 35.7 million in 2017.² This corresponds to an average annual population growth rate of 3.3 percent over this 18-year period. To a large extent this high growth rate is driven by very high fertility. The Total Fertility Rate (TFR)³ that was reported by the 2015 Afghanistan Demographic and Health Survey amounted to 5.3 children per woman (CSO, MoPH and ICF 2017), which would rank Afghanistan 12th on 198 countries listed.⁴ This is in line with ALCS findings about the proportion of the population aged under 15. Over the years this proportion is consistently around 48 percent, a figure that would place Afghanistan among the four countries in the world with the highest proportion persons under-15. The high TFR also corresponds to the low contraceptive prevalence rate⁵ of 23 percent among currently married women, with 20 percent using a modern method (CSO, MoPH and ICF 2017).

A second cause of population growth is the large-scale immigration by Afghans returning from residence abroad, mainly from Pakistan and Iran. Since 2004, UNHCR recorded 2.9 million documented returnees, half of whom returned in the first three years (UNHCR 2017; *Figure 1.5*). After the period up to 2015 with relatively small numbers of returning Afghans, the year 2016 saw an increase of documented returnees. The number of un-documented returnees might even be considerably larger, as suggested by IOM estimates for the years 2015 to 2017.⁶

Figure 1.5: Afghan immigrants, by year of immigration, and by type of immigration (in thousands)



Source: UNHCR 2017, IOM (up to November 2017).

The very high rates of fertility and population growth generate unsustainable conditions for development in Afghanistan, with adverse effects in a multitude of areas. The annual increment of the number of children that reach schooling age challenges the expansion capacity of the education system and similarly, the absorption capacity of the labour market is insufficient to accommodate the ever-increasing number of young people that look for employment when reaching working age. Size of land holdings, which represent the most important livelihoods for Afghan

2 The estimates include the sedentary population, as well as the nomadic Kuchi population.

3 The total number of children born or likely to be born to a woman in her life time if she were subject to the prevailing rate of age-specific fertility in the population.

4 Source: UNFPA World demographic data (2017).

5 The contraceptive prevalence rate is calculated as the percentage of currently married women aged 15 to 49, who are currently using, or whose sexual partner is currently using, at least one method of contraception, regardless of the method used.

6 It is unclear to what extent un-documented returnees included people who are included more than once in migration flow statistics.

households, diminish under the pressure of population growth. Due to early childbearing and high fertility, Afghan girls and women pay a heavy price in terms of missing out on opportunities for personal development and in terms of ill health and maternal death. The unfavourable household balance between children and people of working age – aggravated by very low female participation in economic activities – implies that on average very little investment can be made in child development and often even child labour is required to reach a minimum standard of living. All in all, the effects of consistent high fertility and high population growth offset much of government and donor development efforts, and undermine the capacity of many households and individuals – in particular women and girls – to escape poverty and poor health.

1.3 The ALCS and the SDGs

In September 2015, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was endorsed by 193 countries, which included Afghanistan as one of the signatories. This fifteen-year agenda (2015-2030) replaces the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) framework and guides the international community to achieve three main objectives: end extreme poverty, fight inequality and injustice, and protect the planet. The ALCS is one of the main instruments to produce the indicators for monitoring the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Afghanistan. Although the ALCS 2016-17 instrument was designed before official SDG indicators were released by the Inter-agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators (IAEG-SDGs), several of these indicators were anticipated and incorporated in the survey questionnaire.

Text box 1.2: Sustainable Development Goals

- Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere
- Goal 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture
- Goal 3: Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages
- Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all
- Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
- Goal 6: Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
- Goal 7: Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all
- Goal 8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all
- Goal 9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation
- Goal 10: Reduce inequality within and among countries
- Goal 11: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
- Goal 12: Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
- Goal 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts
- Goal 14: Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development
- Goal 15: Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss
- Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels
- Goal 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development

While maintaining the attention of the preceding Millennium Development Goals on the eradication of extreme poverty in its various dimensions – including income and employment, hunger, gender, education, health and other dimensions – the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are both more detailed and broader in scope. At the core of the SDGs are the principles of sustainable development – with emphasis on sustainability of economies and the environment – and that of 'leaving no one behind'. The latter refers to an agreed effort to dissolve regional and social inequalities, and accordingly the IAEG-SDGs suggests that SDG indicators should be disaggregated where relevant by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location, or other characteristics.

Whereas monitoring progress towards the Millennium Development Goals – with 8 goals and 18 targets – required 60 indicators, the 17 Sustainable Development Goals are accompanied by 169 targets and 230 indicators. The ALCS 2016-17 covered 20 indicators for 12 of the SDGs. Next rounds of the ALCS may include information for additional indicators and the national consultation process on SDG indicators will play a role in prioritising, adding and re-formulating the specific set of indicators for Afghanistan.

1.4 The structure of the report

Chapter 2 describes the main methodological characteristics of the ALCS 2016-17, including brief descriptions of the sampling design, survey questionnaires, data collection and processing, data limitations, and comparison with the previous survey rounds and the related rotating principle applied to the successive surveys. Several annexes provide further elaborations and technical details of the methodology.

Next chapters cover the subject-matter information extracted from the survey. Afghanistan's population structure and dynamics are addressed in chapter 3, as these factors permeate into every sector analysis of the subsequent report chapters. The population composition by age and sex is analysed, as well as household and marriage patterns, and migration characteristics.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the structure and dynamics of Afghanistan's labour market. Besides indicators on labour force participation, employment, underemployment and unemployment, it presents characteristics of the working population, including working hours, status in employment, industry and occupation, with a special focus on vulnerable employment and decent work. All sections include age- and gender-specific analyses. A separate section is devoted to labour market trends.

Agriculture, covering 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, cultivation problems, farm and garden production, type and number of livestock, and sale of animals, as well as relevant production factors in this sector.

The chapters 6 and 7 present the results of, respectively, poverty and food-security analyses, based on extended questionnaire modules on food consumption and market prices. Both chapters include trend analyses and profiling of, respectively, the poor and the food-insecure population.

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, and elements of education transition rates and school expectancy. The chapter on health includes information about access to health facilities, the use of maternal health care services. A separate section deals with prevalence of disability, disability types and age- and sex profiles of the people with disabilities.

The chapter on housing and household amenities – chapter 10 – describes the housing situation, with a view on access to the community, tenancy arrangements, physical characteristics of the dwelling and housing facilities, like electricity, drinking water and sanitation, as well as fuel used for cooking and heating, and information and communication means. Many of the newly produced SDG indicators are presented in this chapter.

The final chapter 11 on household shocks and development priorities describes the prevalence of sudden events that have negative impact on household wellbeing, as well as the strategies that households apply to cope with these challenges. In addition, the chapter identifies the most urgent priorities for development, as these were phrased by male and female household representatives and by community leaders.

All chapters are preceded by a summary of findings, whereas the Executive summary – before this Introduction chapter – brings together the key results in a more integrated way. Annexes to the report provide technical explanations of estimation methodologies, mobile-phone data collection, sampling design and implementation, quality control and concepts and definitions.

2 SURVEY METHODOLOGY AND OPERATIONS

2.1 Introduction

The Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS, previously known as NRVA - National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment) is the national multi-purpose survey of Afghanistan, conducted by the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO) of Afghanistan. The survey is funded by the European Union with contributions from the World Food Programme, WFP. The present 2016-17 round of data collection is the sixth in a series, the previous surveys were conducted in 2003, 2005, 2007-08, 2011-12 and 2013-14. The survey covers the period April 2016 to March 2017 and comprises individual-, household- and community (Shura) information, as well as – in this round – information on market prices.

The ALCS aims to assist the Government of Afghanistan and other stakeholders in making informed decisions in development planning and policy making, by collecting and analysing data related to poverty, food security, employment, housing, health, education, population, gender and a wide range of other development issues. The sampling design of the survey allows representative results at national and provincial level. Besides presenting a large set of recurrent development indicators and statistics, the present 2016-17 round has a specific focus on poverty, food security and disability.

Over the years the ALCS and NRVA surveys have been the country's most important source of indicators for monitoring the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The ALCS will similarly serve as the main source for producing the set of indicators that were endorsed in March 2016 by the UN Statistical Commission to monitor the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Although this set of Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators was only finalised around the time the ALCS went into the field, required information for many new indicators was anticipated and accommodated in the questionnaire design. As a result, ALCS 2016-17 will be able to report on and set the baseline for 20 SDG indicators.

The ALCS 2016-17 introduced Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) techniques to collect data at community level for the male Shura questionnaire and for the market price questionnaire (see section 2.3.2). It was the first time that mobile and wireless technologies were applied to statistical surveys in Afghanistan, and their use in the ALCS 2016-17 was considered as a pilot for subsequent ALCS rounds and other surveys managed by CSO.

The present report provides final results of the survey, based on the twelve months of data collection. The dataset includes information about close to 20 thousand households and more than 155 thousand persons, including the nomadic Kuchi population, who are not covered by other national surveys. This chapter provides brief descriptions of methodological and operational issues, following the survey stages of preparation, data collection, data processing and analysis and reporting.

2.2 Survey preparation

2.2.1 Stakeholder involvement

As the primary aim of ALCS is to serve the information needs of data users, consultation with stakeholders has been carried out in several crucial stages of the survey to identify these needs. The stakeholders that participated in the meetings organised by CSO included line ministries and government agencies,¹ UN and other international organisations,² bilateral donors,³ and academic and research bodies. These meetings also dealt with the sustainability and long-term perspective of the ALCS as Afghanistan's most important instrument for producing socio-economic information.

1 Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development, Ministry of Agriculture, Irrigation and Livestock, Ministry of Public Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled, Ministry of Women Affairs, Ministry of Energy and Water, Ministry of Economy, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Urban Development Affairs.

2 WFP, WB, UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP, ILO, UNHCR, WHO

3 EU and undisclosed others.

In addition to these meetings, a number of key stakeholders were present in the ALCS 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. Members of the Steering Committee and TAC are mentioned in Annex I.

2.2.2 Questionnaire design

Since 2003, the successive survey rounds incorporated an increasing number of questions. This continued even to the extent that interview burden and workloads in data processing and analysis overreached the capacity of field-workers, respondents and CSO staff. The need to compress all information requirements 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 – now ALCS – as the national multi-purpose survey of Afghanistan on an annual basis. Rather than including all questions and topics every year, the principle of producing information on a rotating basis was introduced. While each survey round provides a core set of key indicators, successive rounds add or expand different modules to provide more detailed information on specific subjects. In the series of consultations with stakeholders in 2010, agreement was reached to re-design the ALCS data collection and questionnaires according to this rotation principle. This implied that information needs and survey implementation could be achieved in a more sustainable and efficient way. Annex II provides a summary of contents of successive survey rounds.

The core of ALCS 2016-17 consist of a household questionnaire with 16 subject matter sections, 11 administered by male interviewers and answered by the male household representative (usually the head of household), and five asked by female interviewers from female respondents. In addition, the questionnaire includes three modules for identification and monitoring purposes (see *Table 2.1*). In the last five months of the fieldwork, one more module was added to test a methodology for water quality assessment.

On average the time required to answer the household questionnaire was one to one-and-a-half hour. In addition to household information, data were collected at community level through a male Shura questionnaire, addressing the topics presented in *Table 2.2*. For the purpose of poverty estimation, a separate market price questionnaire was used to collect information of food market prices at district level. Annex III provides the full set of ALCS 2016-17 questionnaires.

Table 2.1: ALCS 2016-17 household questionnaire modules (subject matter modules in bold)

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

Table 2.2: ALCS 2016-17 Male Shura questionnaire modules (subject matter modules in bold)

Community identification
Process monitoring
Community access and access to facilities
Community projects
Community development priorities
Water testing

2.2.3 Selection and training of field staff

For the ALCS 2016-17, a total number 177 field staff was required in the 34 provinces. In 32 provinces, the team had the standard composition of two couples – each consisting of one male and one female interviewer – and one supervisor. Due to the larger populations, in Herat province three couples and one supervisor were required and in Kabul province, four couples and two supervisors.

Selection of field staff

According to the decision of the ALCS Steering Committee, an evaluation of the performance of previous survey staff was conducted and field staff having satisfactorily performed had the opportunity to continue to work for the 2016-17 ALCS. In some provinces only part of the team remained and thus recruitment for the missing positions was carried out. In 14 provinces, the entire field staff used in the previous ALCS or the ADHS were contracted again without further tests. New recruitments have taken place in 20 provinces.

The recruitment was done in six steps:

1. The criteria for the selection of staff were defined in the CSO Headquarters.⁴
2. The job opening for supervisor- and interviewer positions in the respective provinces were advertised through local media with the assistance of the Provincial Statistical Officers (PSOs).
3. CVs from candidates were collected by PSOs and sent to CSO Headquarters for review.
4. Based on the CVs, a shortlist of three candidates per position was established and shortlisted candidates were invited for tests.
5. Shortlisted candidates took a written and an oral test depending on the position they applied for (tests were different for supervisors and interviewers). For both interviewers and supervisors, the tests covered different areas, such as mathematics (calculation of percentages and conversion of distance, weights and surfaces), knowledge of the areas (local culture, ethnic composition) and a physical assessment as interviewers have to endure sometimes harsh conditions during fieldwork.
6. After completing the tests, the candidates were rated and the person with the best score was selected for the position. The successful candidate was then asked if he/she agreed on the tasks, responsibilities and financial conditions before being contracted.

Training of field staff

A central, three-week training of field staff was conducted in Kabul in March 2016. Every aspect of the work of the interviewers and supervisors was dealt with in detail. At each stage of the training, practical exercises and tests were included to make sure that the interviewers not only gained passive understanding of conducting the ALCS interview, but that – once they went into the field – they were ready with specific, active knowledge and practical experience of doing ALCS fieldwork. To accomplish this, at each stage of the training, next to ex-cathedra teaching, interviewers were doing practical exercises. Also, at each stage of the training, interviewers did tests and exams to measure their understanding and practical knowledge of the questionnaires, interview techniques and survey procedures. These tests and exams were both in written format and through practical tests, by role playing and creating real-life interview situations.

As follow-up to the main training preceding the fieldwork, in seven locations quarterly refresher re-trainings of the field staff were organised. The aim of these re-trainings was to feed back the lessons learned after each quarter of data collection and initial data analysis, discuss relevant issues, provide additional training, transfer new field supplies and strengthen working relations and coordination between provincial offices, regional supervisors, field supervisors and Headquarters staff.

4 These criteria are (a) having Afghanistan nationality, (b) age 20-50, (c) usual residence in the province, (d) not having a second job, (e) having at least graduated from grade 12 (high school), (f) able and willing to travel in all areas of the province assigned.

2.2.4 Sampling design

The sampling design of the ALCS 2016-17 ensured results that are representative at national and provincial level, for the Kuchi population and 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 equal distribution of data collection over 12 months within the provinces. For the Kuchi population, the design only provided sampling in winter and late summer when communities tend to temporarily settle. The distribution of sampling areas per province was based on an optimal trade-off between precision at the national and provincial levels.⁶

For seven provinces, the sampling frame for the resident population consisted of the household listing of the Socio-Demographic and Economic Survey (SDES): Bamyan, Ghor, Daykundi, Kapisa, Parwan, Samangan and Kabul. For all other provinces, the sampling frame depended on the pre-census household listing conducted by CSO in 2003-05 and updated in 2009. Households were selected on the basis of a two-stage cluster design within each province. In the first sampling 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).⁷ The design thus provided data collection in on average 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 divided between the summer and winter periods within the survey period, with 40 and 20 clusters, respectively.

The reality of survey taking in Afghanistan imposed a number of deviations from the sampling design. In the first three months of fieldwork, 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 fourth month of data collection onward, clusters in inaccessible areas were replaced by clusters drawn from a reserve sampling frame that excluded insecure districts.

Sample weights were calculated for up-scaling the surveyed households and persons to the total number of households and population in Afghanistan. The calculation was based on the official CSO population estimate by province for January 2016 and average provincial household sizes derived from the survey. Annex IV gives an account of the backgrounds and technical details of the sampling design and implementation.

2.3 Data collection

2.3.1 Field operations

The ALCS 2016-17 period of data collection coincided with the Shamsi solar year 1395. Fieldwork started in April 2016 (Hamal 1395) and finished in April 2017 (Hamal 1396). An elaborate monitoring system was applied to check the progress and quality of data collection, including field monitoring by regional supervisors and ALCS staff from CSO Headquarters, tracking of GPS coordinates and rapid data-quality assessments based on manual and computerised data checking. Feedback to interviewers and supervisors was done on a daily basis by telephone and through refresher trainings.

In view of recurrent security problems, a security strategy was applied, which includes mapping of insecure areas,

5 The Shamsi year 1395, in which the ALCS 2016-17 was conducted, runs from, respectively 21 March 2016 to 20 March 2017. Season dates are given in Annex X.

6 For an optimal sample allocation, a balance was obtained between proportional allocation and equal-size allocation with a Kish power allocation of $I = 0.25$.

7 Some of the selected EAs in rural areas comprised more than one village. In those cases, only one village has been selected with probability proportional to the village size, thus creating a third sampling stage.

security assessment in the field and consultation of other relevant information sources. Data collection areas that were considered insecure were substituted by other areas from the original sample or by areas from a reserve sample.

The tasks of the Regional Statistical Officers (RSOs) included checking a sample of the completed questionnaires, as a second level of quality control in the field after the checking by supervisors. For this purpose, specific check lists were developed. 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.

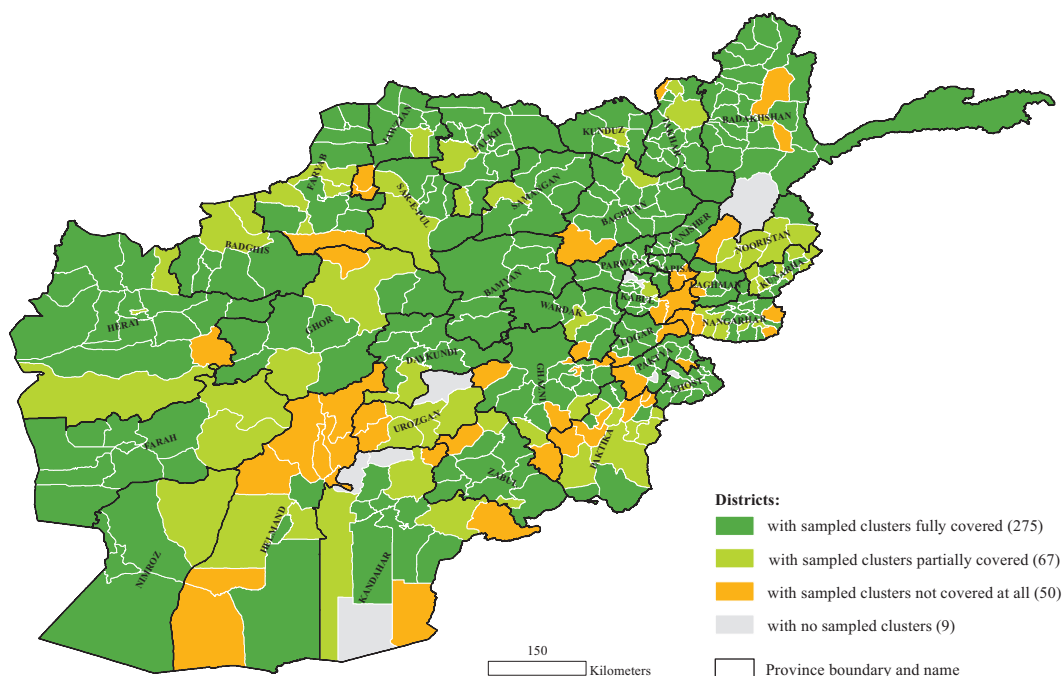
Further quality assurance during data collection was provided by seven members of the ALCS team at CSO Headquarters, who conducted field monitoring missions every survey quarter. These monitors focussed specifically on those provinces from which questionnaires were returning with the most irregularities according to manual checking at Headquarters.

Provinces that faced most security challenges were Kapisa, Nangarhar, Paktya, Paktika, Wardak, Sar-e-Pul, Urozgan, Baghlan, Kunarha, Kunduz and Helmand. As a last resort, insecure areas were replaced by more secure areas. The security situation in Paktika did not allow data collection after month six.

Out of the 391 sampled districts and provincial centres of Afghanistan, in 342 (87 percent) information was collected. In total, information from 1,929 clusters was collected, against 2,042 clusters according to the sampling design (94 percent). Out of these, 1,557 clusters (81 percent) were covered as originally planned, while 176 (9 percent) were replaced with clusters from the reserve sample. Interviews of the remaining 196 clusters (10 percent) were conducted in the planned EAs, but in another month than originally planned. From the 60 Kuchi clusters, 55 were covered according to the sampling design, whereas for the five remaining the targeted Kuchi population could not be found in the field.

Figure 2.1 shows the implementation of the survey in reference to the sampling design. Dark green districts are those in which the number of planned clusters were covered and light green districts are those in which one or more clusters were covered, but fewer than planned. Orange-shaded districts appeared to be inaccessible for the interview teams, mostly because of security reasons, while grey-shaded districts were not sampled to start with.

Figure 2.1: Survey coverage, by district, and by level of coverage



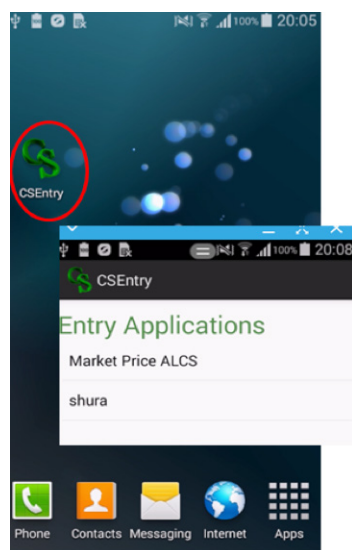
Districts fully or partially covered may include clusters that replaced the originally sampled clusters. This includes the Kuchi sample.

2.3.2 Mobile data collection in field operations

The ALCS 2016-17 used Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI) to collect data at the community level for the male Shura questionnaire and for the market price questionnaire. It was the first time that mobile and wireless technologies were applied to statistical surveys in Afghanistan, and their use in the ALCS 2016-17 was considered as a pilot for subsequent ALCS rounds and for other surveys managed by CSO.

For each of the two questionnaires, the ALCS team developed a CAPI application in Dari, Pashtu and English languages using the Census and Survey Processing System (CSPro) suite, version 6.2 (*Figure 2.2*).

Figure 2.2: CSPro data entry software

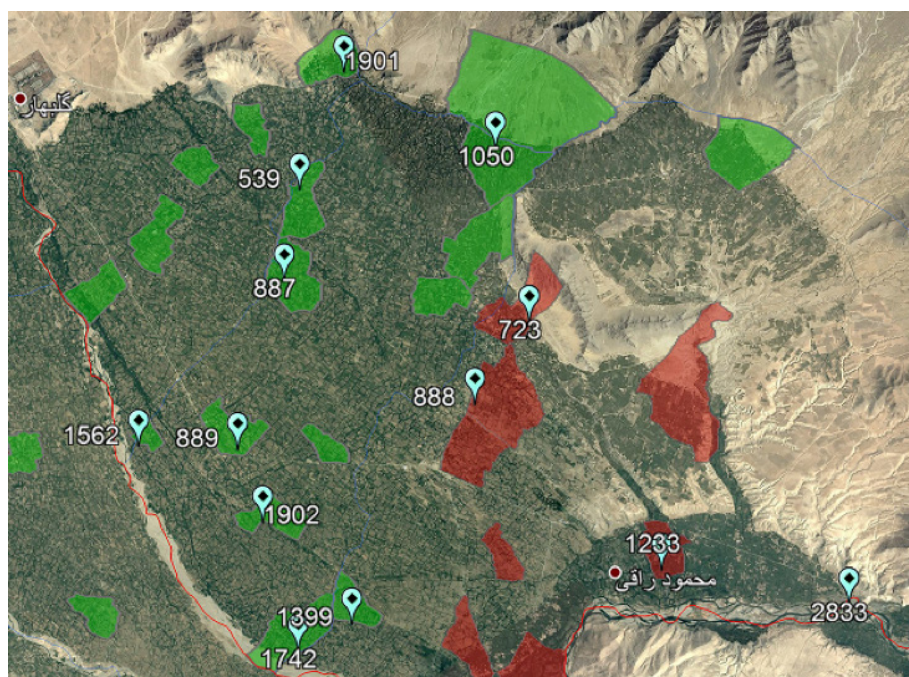


The CAPI applications were first tested and then uploaded to smartphones. ALCS provincial supervisors received set-up smartphones and learned how to enter data in the field and synchronise information with the central database. During fieldwork operations, data-entry errors were minimised by the applications of automatic skip patterns, mechanisms of validation of the response and drop-down menus to select the appropriate options. For different reasons, in a small number of survey clusters, supervisors used paper versions of the male Shura and market prices questionnaires instead of CAPI applications, and reported such deviations to the ALCS team at the CSO Headquarters.

CAPI applications included the collection of geographic coordinates of the locations where ALCS supervisors conducted community interviews and recorded data on prices, using the Global Positioning System (GPS) functionalities included in the smartphones.

ALCS data checkers were responsible for reviewing and tabulating weekly synchronised CAPI data stored in the central database to detect eventual inconsistencies and missing values, and to provide immediate feedback to the supervisors in the field via mobile phones. For assessing coverage errors, data checkers used GPS data that were exported from the central database into a Geographic Information System (GIS) environment to visualise the locations where data were collected (*Figure 2.3*).

Figure 2.3: Kapisa province, GPS data and survey clusters



Note: red areas: urban; green areas: rural.

Using an integrated approach between CAPI, GPS and GIS, the ALCS team was able to monitor data quality, survey coverage and, generally, the performance of supervisors. Overall, the use of new technologies in ALCS data collection and monitoring demonstrated important potential to improve data quality and to reduce data-collection and data-processing time. It also provided the opportunity to experience and find solutions to deal with challenges, such as unreliable electricity supply for mobile devices in some areas, damage of smartphones, reluctance of some supervisors to use mobile devices in unsecure areas and limited capacity of the backstopping team to perform data quality and coverage assessments in real time.

Annex V of this report provides a more detailed assessment on the use of CAPI and GPS data in the ALCS 2016-17.

2.4 Data processing

2.4.1 Manual checking and coding

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 2016. The first two data-processing stages consisted of manual checking and coding by a team of eight questionnaire editors and coders. The tasks of the questionnaire editors consisted of:

- recording and archiving returned questionnaires;
- checking the completeness of the questionnaire batches and questionnaire forms;
- checking questionnaire answers for completeness, consistency, correctness and readability;
- correcting answers or completing missing answers for a limited and prescribed number of questions, including identification fields and some key questions;
- adding codes for missing values;
- completing an evaluation form on the basis of which the questionnaire batch would be dispatched to the questionnaire coders or returned to the field for renewed data collection.

The coders had the responsibility to add codes for textual answers to questions and variables about occupations, industries, provinces and countries, following the guidelines given in the training and in the provided coding manuals. For coding, international standard classifications were used.⁸ Subsequently, the questionnaire batch was submitted for data entry.

2.4.2 Data entry and data editing

A data-entry programme in CPro software has been developed to manually capture the survey data, applying first data entry and dependent verification through double data entry to minimise data-entry errors. In addition, CPro data-editing programmes were applied to identify errors and either perform automatic imputation or manual screen editing, or refer cases to data editors for further questionnaire verification and manual corrections. A final round of monthly data checking was performed by the project Data Processing Expert.

CSO's data-entry section started entering the first month of data in June 2016. Usually, data were entered and verified within two weeks from reception of questionnaires from the manual checking and coding section. Data capture and editing operations were completed in May 2017.

Extensive programmes in Stata software were developed or updated to perform final data verification-, correction-, editing- and imputation procedures. A full dataset was available in August 2017 in STATA and SPSS. A team of 15 national and international⁹ analysts contributed to the present Analysis Report (see Annex I.5).

2.5 Survey outcomes

8 ISIC (International Standard Industrial Classification, Rev.2, ISCO-08 (International Standard Classification of Occupations) and ISCED-2011 (International Standard Classification of Education).

9 From ICON, WFP, World Bank and UNICEF.

2.5.1 Comparability of results

Comparability between ALCS 2016-17 and previous NRVA and ALCS rounds was maintained as much as possible by a largely similar questionnaire design and content for reported indicators, training and data collection procedures. A new and more appropriate sampling design was introduced for ALCS 2013-14, which was duplicated in 2016-17. Whereas this sampling design differed from earlier rounds, all surveys produced representative results at national and provincial level. Comparability with NRVA 2005 is more limited due to major questionnaire revisions since 2007. In addition, data collection in 2005 was limited to three months, which prevented the seasonal analysis that can be done based on the latest four surveys. Any comparison with 2005 results in this report should, therefore, be treated with caution.¹⁰

Over time, specific questions were added, deleted or changed to align with international survey practices, such as those of the DHS and MICS surveys and standardised labour force surveys, and to reflect new information requests. These requests were received from line ministries and UN agencies, but were importantly also derived from the indicators defined in the Millennium and Sustainable Development Agendas. Accordingly, data collection on and analysis of education, water and sanitation supply, labour force, child labour and maternal health care are aligned with international practices. 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 X).

Due to changes in national and international definitions and guidelines, as well as lessons learned in the history of ALCS and specific data limitations, some indicators in the present report are not directly comparable to those in previous reports. These notably include the following:

- Labour-market indicators: the abbreviated labour module of NRVA 2011-12 introduced a specific bias that prohibits a direct comparison with subsequent ALCS rounds. Also, NRVA 2007-08 had specific limitations that hamper straight comparison.
- In order to align with SDG conceptualisation of water and sanitation indicators, ALCS adopted a set of new classifications. Consequently, the indicators presented in this report cannot be compared with those in previous reports. However, the information gap for trend analysis is bridged by producing the indicators according to the new and old definitions.
- The absence of an elaborated questionnaire module on food consumption in ALCS 2013-14, does not allow direct comparison of food-security and poverty indicators between ALCS 2016-17 and the previous round. However, there is full comparability with NRVA 2011-12, as the same methodology was applied then.¹¹

2.5.2 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 304 out of 2,102 clusters (14 percent), originally sampled clusters could not be covered, in most cases due to security reasons. For 176 of these cases, clusters were replaced, bringing the number of visited clusters up to 1,926, 92 percent of the number originally planned. To the extent that the replaced and non-visited areas may have profiles different from visited areas, the final sample may give a bias in the results. This effect will have been larger at the provincial level for provinces with relatively large numbers of missing and replaced clusters, such as, respectively, Paktika, Nooristan, Urozgan, Helmand and Kapisa, Kunhara, Faryab, Paktya.
- Analysis of the population structure by sex and age shows under-enumeration of women and girls, as well as young children in general, especially infants. Coverage of the youngest age group was much better than in previous surveys, 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.
- The quality of age reporting in the Afghan population remains extremely poor, as indicated by large age

¹⁰ 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.

¹¹ Some changes were introduced in the methodology of poverty estimation (see section 6.2.1 and Annex VII). Application of the revised methodology have been taken backwards to NRVA 2007-08 and 2011-12 for trend analysis.

heaping on ages with digits ending on 5 and 0.¹²

2.5.3 Reporting

The source of all information presented in this report is the ALCS 2016-17, unless otherwise specified. Presenting information from other sources than ALCS does not necessarily imply an endorsement by CSO, but should merely be interpreted as a contextualisation of the present findings. The focus of analysis is on the national level and on the main residential sub-populations of rural- and urban residents and the nomadic Kuchi. Analysis at province level is beyond the scope of this report. However, several thematic maps present broadly categorised distributions of selected indicators, which will help the reader to quickly understand demographic and socioeconomic patterns across the country.¹³

Whenever individual-level indicators are reported, gender-specific information is provided. Together with residence, sex is by far the most important factor for social inequalities in the country. In addition – and in line with the SDG recommendations – relevant individual-level indicators are disaggregated by disability status.

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 row headings, then the variable(s) presented in the column headings. In the title the universe and the row variable(s) are separated by a comma (","); the row variable(s) and the column variable(s) are separated by ' , and by '. Titles of line and bar charts first specify the universe of elements presented in the figure, then the variable presented on the main axis, and then the variable presented in the legend (if any). When presenting rounded figures in tables or graphs, the presented total figure may not always correspond to the sum of rounded figures.

In order to allow the reader further insight into the value of the presented data, an annex (Annex IX) is added to the report on quality assurance and quality assessment. For the SDG indicators presented in this report, an overview of standard errors and 95 percent confidence limits are included in this annex.

12 The Whipple's Index is 180.

13 Maps were prepared using Geographic Information System (GIS) software in which selected indicators of ALCS data were associated with their corresponding administrative units of the country, and presented with different colours and gradients on the basis of their values registered at provincial level. The statistical method of data classification was the standard Jenks method called also 'Natural breaks' method. Class breaks were defined in order to maximise differences in data values between classes. A minimal customisation was applied to round class breaks.



3 POPULATION AND HOUSEHOLDS

Summary. Afghanistan remains a predominantly rural society, with 20.7 million people living in rural areas, 6.9 million people living in urban areas and 1.5 million are nomadic Kuchis, totaling 29.1 million people. Estimates based on the ALCS 2016-17 show that the population of Afghanistan continues to grow at a rapid pace which causes a very young population structure with 47.7 percent of the population being younger than 15 years of age, while the percentage of older people remains low (2.7 percent). In Afghanistan, large differences in sex ratios exist between rural, urban and Kuchi populations with the highest sex ratio among the Kuchi population (107.9 males per 100 females). The ALCS 2016-17 estimates that there is a total of 3.8 million households in the country, with an average household size of 7.7 persons. The majority of households (52.3 percent) consist of one family of a married couple with children.

It is well documented that in many countries female-headed households occupy a vulnerable position with higher levels of poverty and deprivation. In Afghanistan, only 0.3 percent, or 45 thousand households are headed by women, with a total of 212 thousand people living in female headed households. Marriage is almost universal in Afghanistan. Above age 40, less than one percent of men and women remains unmarried. The mean age at first marriage is 21.6 years for women and 24.4 years for men. The issue of child marriage in Afghanistan has drawn a lot of attention in recent years. According to the ALCS 2016-17, 4.2 percent of women in the age group 20-24 years were married before age 15 and 28.3 were married before age 18. The mean age difference between the head of household and his wife was found to be 6.2 years. According to the ALCS 2016-17, 8.2 percent of all married women live in a polygamous household.

Until the overturn of the Taliban regime the complex migration situation of Afghanistan has been dominated by displacement flows – either within Afghanistan or across borders. The year 2002 marked the start of a period in which return from displacement was the main motive for migration, according to the ALCS 2016-17 for 38 percent of migrants. Ten percent of Afghans is born outside the province of current residence and another 8 percent resides in the province of birth, but lived part of their lives outside this province. With Kabul city as the country's main magnet of attraction, Kabul province is by far the province with most persons who were born elsewhere, both in terms of absolute numbers and in proportions. Secondary migration gravitation centres are Balkh, Herat and Kandahar. Migrants are far more often urban dwellers than non-migrants and in several respects have better living conditions. The proportion migrants living below the poverty (44 percent) line is significantly lower than the national average and migrants perform better in terms of literacy, labour force participation and full employment.

3.1 Introduction

Afghanistan's only population census took place in 1979 and even at that time only 67 percent of the population was enumerated, due to the poor security situation in the country. Lacking more recent and more comprehensive population census data and an accurate population registry, the ALCS plays a key role in determining the demographic situation in the country.

Since 2004, CSO applies an annual population growth rate of 2.03 percent for population estimates. As a result, the official population size is estimated at 29.1 million persons. On the other hand, international growth estimates were around 3.0 percent during the period 2010-2015. The latter estimates place Afghanistan among the countries with the fastest demographic growth in the world. Rapid population growth in the country is due to consistent high levels of fertility, as reported by the Afghanistan Demographic and Health Survey 2015 (CSO, MoPH and ICF 2017). Between 2010 and 2015, Afghanistan and Timor-Leste were the only two countries outside of Africa with a total fertility rate¹ above 5 children per woman (UNDESA 2017).

¹ The total fertility rate indicates the number of children who would be born to a woman if she were to pass through her childbearing years bearing children according to a current schedule of age-specific fertility rates.

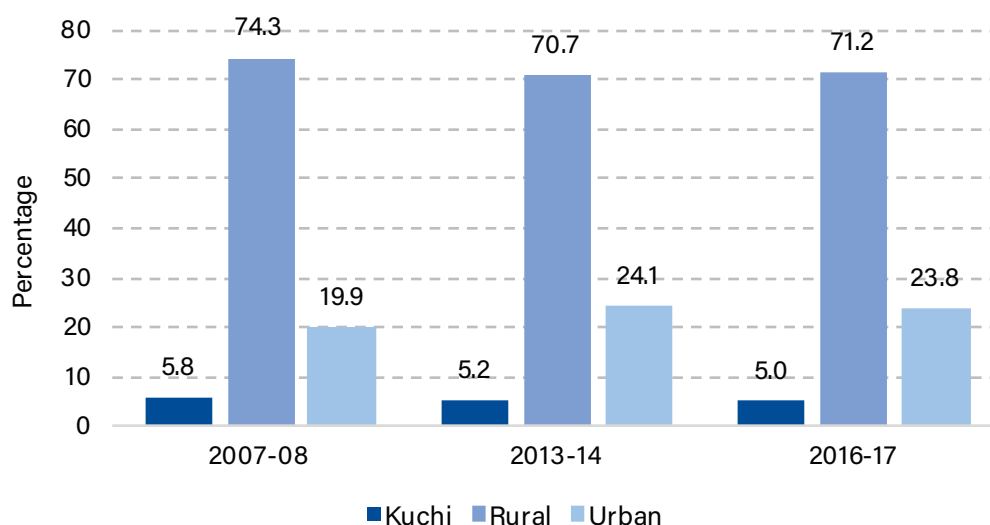
In this chapter, several aspects of Afghanistan's population dynamics will be described. In addition to population dynamics, household composition and structure will be discussed, as well as marriage patterns. A separate section (3.5) is devoted to internal and international migration.

3.2 Population structure and distribution

3.2.1 Distribution by residence

Based on the CSO population estimates, the ALCS 2016-17 finds a total population of 29.1 million persons, of which 14.8 million males and 14.3 million females. Afghanistan remains a predominantly rural society, with 20.7 million people living in rural areas, 6.9 million people living in urban areas² while 1.5 million are Kuchis (Afghan nomads). The three groups constitute 71.2 percent, 23.8 percent and 5.0 percent of the total population, respectively. The percentage of the population living in rural areas has decreased somewhat compared to the 2007-08 National Risk and Vulnerability Assessment (NRVA). At that time, 74.3 percent of the population lived in rural areas. Adversely, the percentage of those living in urban areas increased from 19.9 percent to 23.8 percent in 2016 (see *Figure 3.1*). Note that hardly any changes were observed in the relative distribution of place of residence between the current ALCS and the previous one.

Figure 3.1: Population, by residence, and by survey year (in percentages)



3.2.2 Age distribution

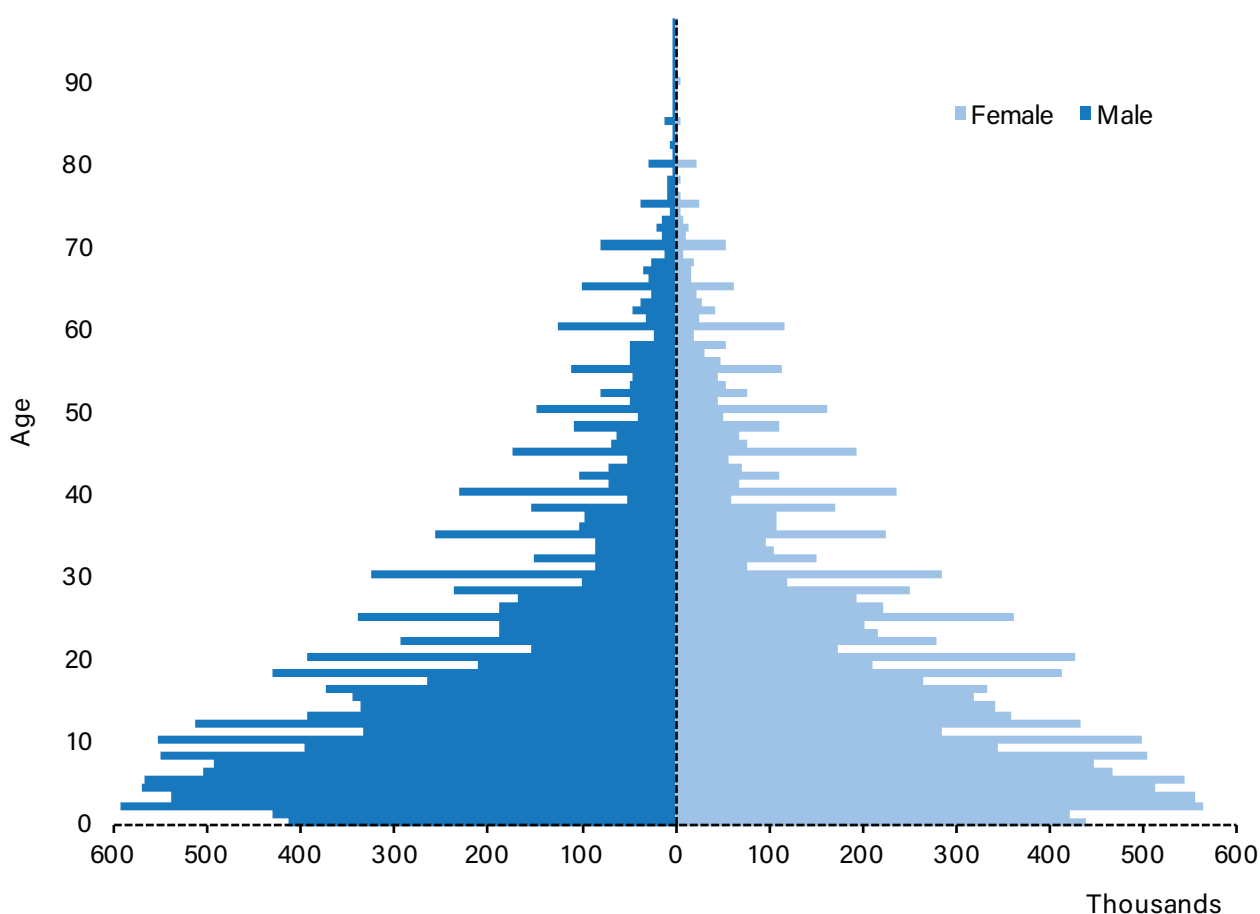
As in many countries with high levels of illiteracy, data from the ALCS suffer from age-misreporting and the omission of small children. In many cases, people who do not know their exact age have the tendency to round their age to numbers ending in 0 or 5. This phenomenon is generally referred to as 'age-heaping.' The single age population pyramid presented in *Figure 3.2* shows that there is clearly age-heaping present in the ALCS 2016-17. The population pyramid also shows an undercount of children aged 0 and 1. According to the ALCS data, the number of 2-year-old children in Afghanistan is 1.16 million, while the number of infants is only 850 thousand.

2 Rural and urban concepts defined by CSO, based on administrative criteria.

Text box 3.1: Quality of age reporting

For many years, demographers have relied on a series of indices to show the preferences or dislikes for ages ending in certain digits. For instance, Whipple's index represents a continuous scale where a value below 105 – that is, a deviation of less than 5 percent from 'perfect' – is a sign that the age reporting is highly accurate, 105-110 that it is relatively accurate, 110-125 that it is of reasonable accuracy, 125-175 that it is inaccurate and above 175 that it is very inaccurate. In the case of the 2016-17 ALCS, Whipple's index is 184 for males, 176 for females and 180 for both sexes. This shows that in Afghanistan age heaping is highly present and that in general age reporting is very inaccurate. However, an improvement in age reporting can be observed, as in the previous survey the Whipple's index stood at 231.

Figure 3.2: Population, by sex, and by single year of age (in thousands)



Because of the very high levels of fertility, Afghanistan has a very young age structure: 47.7 percent of the population is currently younger than 15 years of age (*Table 3.1*).³ This proportion has changed little over the last few years. In 2013-14, 47.5 percent of the population was below 15 versus 48.6 percent in 2007-08. The proportion of those under 15 for all countries in Asia combined is 24 percent (UNDESA 2017). On the other hand, the proportion of older persons in Afghanistan is very low. Only 2.7 percent of the population is currently 65 or older. Because of its young population, the dependency ratio⁴ is very high in Afghanistan and currently stands at 101.5. By comparison, Afgha-

³ Annex VI provides detailed age-distribution tables by sex, residence and province.

⁴ The age dependency ratio is the ratio of dependents – people younger than 15 or older than 64 – to the working-age population – those aged 15-64. Mostly the dependency ratio is presented per 100 persons in the working-age population.

nistan's neighboring countries all have dependency ratios that are significantly lower: Iran (40.2), Turkmenistan (47.9), Tajikistan (60.9) and Pakistan (65.3).⁵ Afghanistan's high dependency ratio is a serious burden for economic development, as scarce resources have to be spent on the young population's education, health care and social development. On the other hand, if Afghanistan would go through a rapid fertility decline, its large proportion of young people could – under the right circumstances and policy umbrella – trigger a phenomenon, that is generally referred to as the 'demographic dividend'. Changes in the age structure of a population, generated by age- and period-specific fertility, mortality and migration interact with the life cycle of production and consumption of individuals and households (Mason and Kinugasa 2005). The positive effect on the economy would be created by the higher number of people entering the productive age groups. All other things being equal, this higher number of active people would result in higher levels of per capita income if appropriate economic measures are taken by the government.

Table 3.1: Population, by residence, sex, and by major age group (in thousands and in percentages)

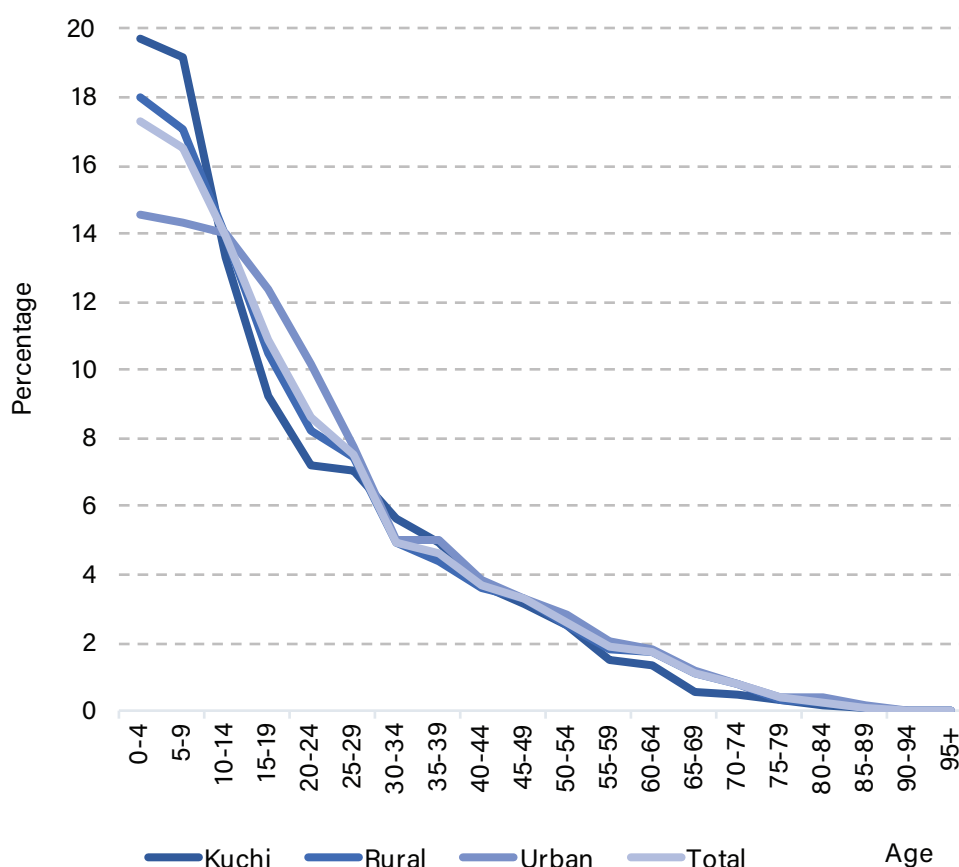
a. In thousands												
Age group	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	3,494	3,423	6,917	10,586	10,152	20,738	756	701	1,457	14,837	14,276	29,113
0-14	1,533	1,434	2,966	5,251	4,911	10,161	401	360	760	7,184	6,704	13,888
15-24	767	787	1,554	1,953	1,932	3,885	127	112	239	2,847	2,831	5,678
25-39	598	631	1,229	1,714	1,758	3,472	120	137	257	2,432	2,526	4,958
40-64	472	485	957	1,333	1,347	2,680	94	83	177	1,899	1,915	3,814
65+	124	87	211	336	204	539	15	9	24	475	299	774

b. In percentages												
Age group	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
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
0-14	43.9	41.9	42.9	49.6	48.4	49.0	53.0	51.3	52.2	48.4	47.0	47.7
15-24	21.9	23.0	22.5	18.4	19.0	18.7	16.8	16.0	16.4	19.2	19.8	19.5
25-39	17.1	18.4	17.8	16.2	17.3	16.7	15.8	19.5	17.6	16.4	17.7	17.0
40-64	13.5	14.2	13.8	12.6	13.3	12.9	12.4	11.9	12.1	12.8	13.4	13.1
65+	3.6	2.5	3.0	3.2	2.0	2.6	2.0	1.3	1.6	3.2	2.1	2.7

It is important to note that some differences exist in the age distribution and dependency indicators between rural-urban areas in the country. *Figure 3.3* shows the relative distribution of the population by five-year age groups and place of residence. Differences in age structure are most profound for persons younger than 25 and between ages 15 and 24. The proportion of person under 15 is highest among the Kuchi population (52.2 percent), slightly lower in rural areas (49.0 percent) and lowest in urban areas (42.9 percent). The group of 15-24 year olds shows a reverse pattern: the proportion is highest in urban areas (22.5) and lowest among the Kuchi population (16.4 percent), while rural areas again occupy the middle position (18.7 percent). The variation in the age distribution between the three groups creates large differences in the dependency ratios: while the Kuchi population has a very high dependency ratio (116.6), the levels are lower in rural areas (106.6) and lowest in urban areas (85.0). However, it is important to note that even the level in urban areas is still far higher than in any of Afghanistan's neighbouring countries.

5 These dependency ratios are from 2015 and are estimates from the World Bank [[http://world-statistics.org/index-res.php?code=SP.POP.DPND?name=Age%20dependency%20ratio%20\(%20of%20working-age%20population\)#top-result](http://world-statistics.org/index-res.php?code=SP.POP.DPND?name=Age%20dependency%20ratio%20(%20of%20working-age%20population)#top-result)].

Figure 3.3: Population, by five-year age group, and by residence (in percentages)



3.2.3 Sex ratio

The sex ratio measures the balance between the sexes in a population and is calculated as the number of men per 100 women. The sex ratio can be calculated for the population as a whole and for specific age categories. Globally, there are currently 68 million more men than women. Asia is the only continent where men substantially outnumber women: 101 million more men than women live on the Asian continent.

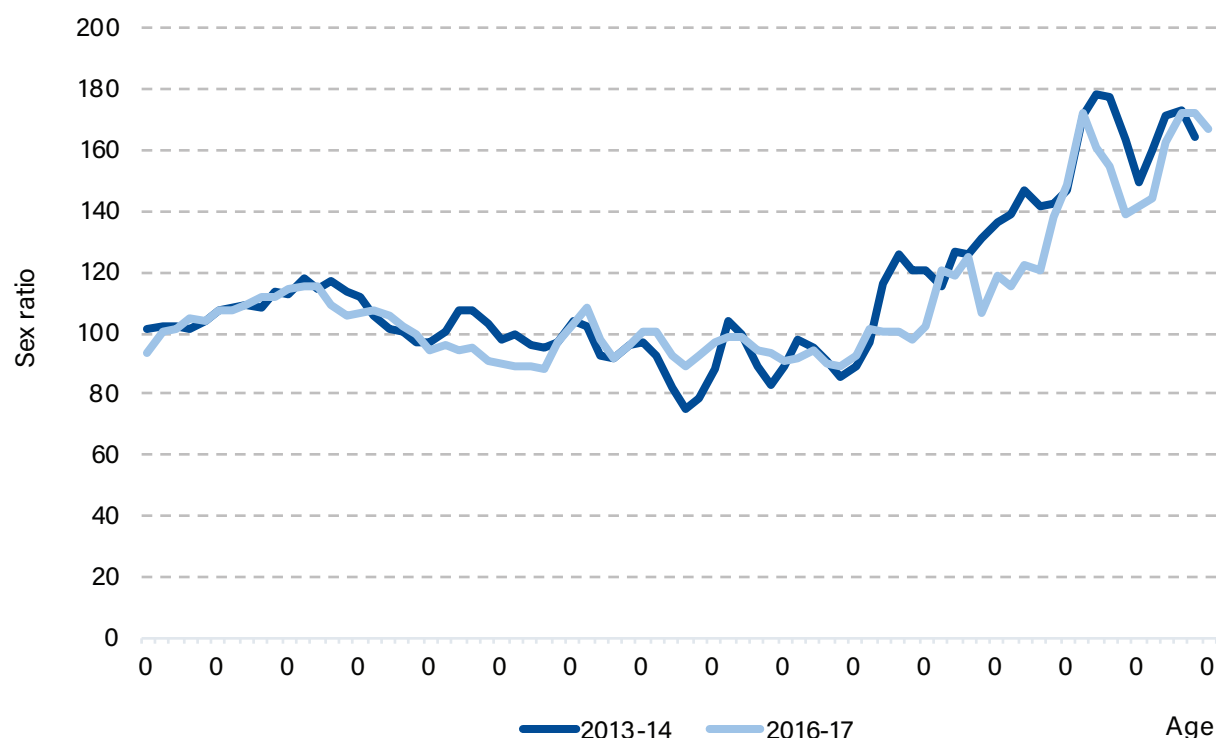
China and India are mainly responsible for the surplus of males in Asia, because of the practice of gender selective abortions and female infanticide. Both countries have very high sex ratios at birth: in 2015 China counted 118 baby boys per 100 baby girls and India saw 112 boys per 100 girls, against 103 worldwide.⁶ In Afghanistan, men also outnumber women. According to the ALCS 2016-17, the sex ratio was 103.9. It seems that over the years the sex ratios are slightly coming down. In the ALCS 2013-14, the sex ratio was 105.3, which may indicate a better coverage of women during the data collection, as well.

In Afghanistan, large differences in sex ratios exist between rural, urban and Kuchi populations. The overall sex ratio is highest among the Kuchi population (107.9 males per 100 females), somewhat lower among people living in rural areas (104.3 males per 100 females) and lowest in urban areas (102.1 males per 100 females).

6 <https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/Sex%20Imbalances%20at%20Birth.%20PDF%20UNFPA%20APRO%20publication%202012.pdf>

Figure 3.4 shows a detailed picture of age-specific sex ratios for the ALCS 2013-14 and 2016-17.⁷ Although distorted by small sample variability and age-misreporting, the general pattern for both surveys shows a somewhat similar pattern. The sex ratios for infants is very low. In the 2016-17 survey, only 93.9 male infants were counted per 100 female infants. This is extremely low and also much lower than the value observed in the ALCS 2013-14, where the sex ratio was 101.8. As discussed before, there is a serious undercount of young children in the survey. There is no doubt that the distorted sex ratio among infants has more to do with a flaw in the data than with a real pattern.

Figure 3.4: Age-specific sex ratios, by survey year



After age 1, the sex ratios increase gradually to reach a maximum at age twelve, when 118.7 boys are present for 100 girls. The high sex ratios among young teenagers are probably linked to the tradition of purdah, in which young females live secluded with limited participation in activities outside the household. This secluded position of young women may easily lead to an omission in the household roster by the head of household. With few exceptions, age-specific sex ratios are well below 100 between age 20 and 50. It is unclear what the exact reason for this pattern of low sex ratios may be, but probably – as stated above – it has to do with the fact that men are not present in the household because of migration or participation in military activities. Although women in the reproductive age groups also live in purdah, the chance of them being omitted in the interview is much smaller than for younger and older women, because specific sections of the ALCS questionnaire were dedicated to women in the reproductive age groups and households were specifically probed to have all eligible women included.

⁷ Values for both surveys were smoothed using running means. This is a simple technique, also called moving averages, in which each value is replaced by the average of the actual value and the one preceding and following this value.

Life expectancy is higher for women than for men in most countries. Consequently, women often comprise a substantial majority of the older population. On a global scale, as mortality rates for older women are generally lower than for men, the proportion of women in the older ages increases considerably with advancing ages. As such, the sex ratios for older people are generally well below 100 and decrease with age. Figure 3.4 shows that this is definitely not the case in Afghanistan. After age 50, there is a steep increase in the sex ratio. Above age 75, 165.7 men are present per 100 women. It is very likely that many older women were excluded from the survey due to cultural reasons (purdah), though another factor also plays an important role. Older women had their children many years ago, when maternal mortality in Afghanistan was extremely high. Bartlett et al. (2005) estimated that in the period 1999-2002 the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) was between 1,600 and 2,200. In other words, during this period between 1,600 and 2,200 maternal deaths occurred per 100,000 live births. Together with very high levels of fertility, this resulted in life time risks of maternal mortality that were probably almost as high as 15 to 20 percent. Another explanation that may be considered while analysing sex ratios in Afghanistan is the incidence of a critical gender issue for women in old ages: a general cultural preference, especially in remote areas, is to treat male illnesses more often than female illnesses. This may especially be the case if the household has limited economic resources. It is, however, very difficult to measure such behaviour.

3.3 Household composition

The ALCS follows the UN definition of households. A household is defined as 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.

3.3.1 Household structure

According to the estimates from the ALCS 2016-17, Afghanistan counted a total of 3.8 million households. Note that during the fieldwork only regular household were visited, as institutional and collective households were not in the sample. *Table 3.2* shows the number of households and household size by place of residence. Most households can be found in rural areas (2.6 million), which is almost four times as much as urban households (942 thousands). About 191 thousand Kuchi households reside in the country. In general, households are large in Afghanistan. With a population of 29.1 million in 3.8 million households, the average household size equals 7.7 persons. This is slightly more than observed in the ALCS 2013-14, where an average household size of 7.4 persons was observed. Households are slightly larger in rural areas where 7.8 persons per household were counted, against 7.6 in Kuchi households and 7.3 in urban households.

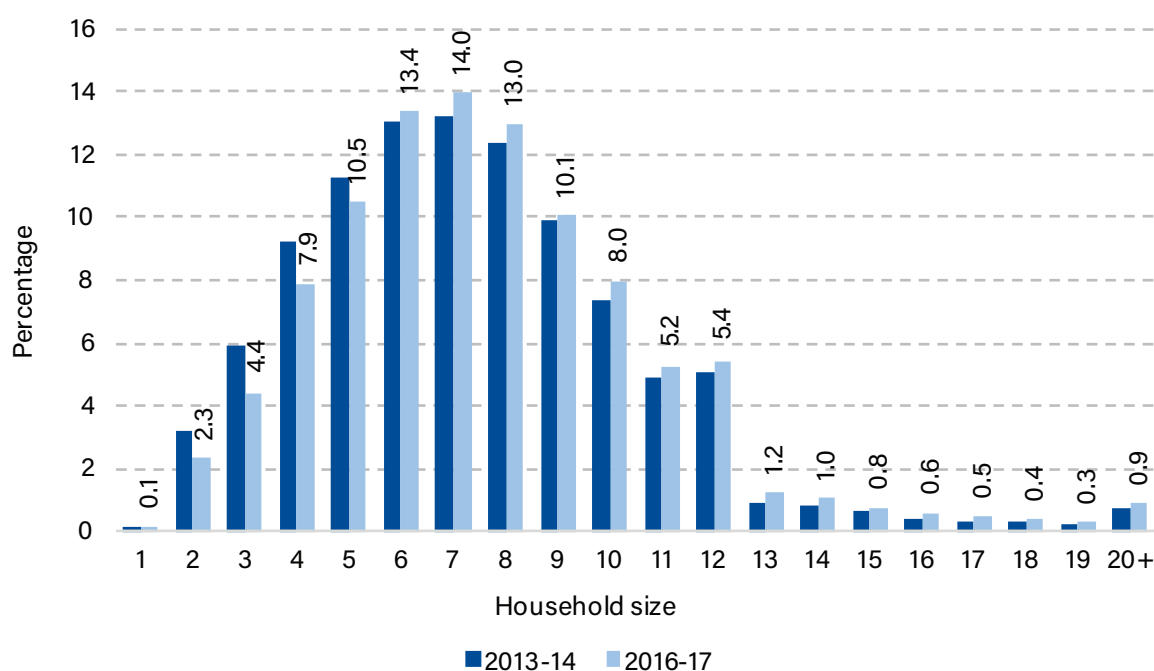
Table 3.2: Households and mean number of members per household, by residence (in thousands and in percentages)

Selected household indicators	Thousands				Percentages			
	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Household size								
Total	942.3	2,647.3	190.8	3,780.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1 - 2 persons	23.8	66.5	2.4	92.7	2.5	2.5	1.3	2.5
3 - 5 persons	258.9	560.8	42.6	862.3	27.5	21.2	22.3	22.8
6 - 8 persons	392.3	1,053.6	81.4	1,527.4	41.6	39.8	42.7	40.4
9 - 10 persons	142.4	501.5	38.3	682.1	15.1	18.9	20.1	18.0
11 - 14 persons	92.2	375.9	21.4	489.4	9.8	14.2	11.2	12.9
15 persons or more	32.7	89.0	4.7	126.4	3.5	3.4	2.5	3.3
Averages								
Household size	7.3	7.8	7.6	7.7				
No. of children 0 - 14	3.1	3.8	4.0	3.7				
No. of elderly 65 and over	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2				
Share of								
Children 0 - 14	42.9	49.0	52.2	47.7				
Elderly 65 and over	3.0	2.6	1.6	2.7				

Figure 3.5 shows the differences in the distribution of household size between the current and previous ALCS. The graph shows that almost nobody in Afghanistan lives on their own (0.1 percent), only 6.9 percent of all households consist of one to three persons, 61.3 percent of households have seven or more people and 24.3 percent have 10 people or more. It is interesting to see that, both in 2013-14 and 2016-17, there is a serious drop between 12 and 13 persons per household, while there is a gradual decrease in all other household sizes after seven persons. Slightly more households with 13 members are present than with 12. The reasoning behind these figures are difficult to ascertain. The fact that the first page of the household rosters on the questionnaire of both surveys contained place for 12 persons may perhaps be an explanation. Perhaps in some cases interviewers simply grew tired of noting down the characteristics of all these people and gave up after filling in the first page.

Another way to look at household size is by looking at the number of persons living in households of a certain size. Afghans are used to having a lot of people around them: only 6.4 percent of the population lives in a household with four or less people, only 2.3 percent in a household with three or less people. The most common household has eight members, with a total of 4.9 million individuals. Fifty percent of the population lives in a household containing nine or more people. This is slightly more than in 2013-14 when 47.3 percent of all Afghans lived in households with nine or more people.

Figure 3.5: Households, by household size, and by survey year (in percentages)



In the ALCS, for each household a head was identified by the interviewer. The head of household is the person commonly regarded by the household members as their head. The head would normally be the main income earner and decision maker for the household and would generally be male, but the interviewer had to accept the decision of the household members as to whom the household considers their head. Then, a question was asked about each person's relationship to the head of household. Based on this information it is possible to determine the type of household. Six different types could be discerned in the survey on the relationship of each household member to the head of household: one-person households, married couples without children, married couples with children, one parent with children, extended household and composite households.⁸

The majority of households (52.3 percent) consist of one family of a married couple with children (*Table 3.3*). Note that households with a polygamous union, with or without children, were coded as extended households. The second, and in fact the only other substantial type of household consists of extended households: 42.7 percent of all households are extended households. As indicated before, very few persons live on their own, away from their family (0.1 percent). Married couples who live on their own, without children, constitute only 2.0 percent of all households, while 2.7 percent of households consists of one parent (male or female) together with children. The Afghan household is a close knit of family members. Non-related members living in the household are very rare. Only 0.3 percent of all households were coded as composite, i.e. less than one in every 300 households.

Small variation exists in the type of households between rural-urban areas and Kuchis (*Table 3.3*). The percentage of households consisting of only one married couple with children is slightly higher in urban areas (56.2 percent) compared to rural areas (50.8 percent) and the Kuchi population (52.6). Consequently, the percentage of extended households is lower in urban areas (37.5 percent), with 44.0 and 44.4 percent respectively among Kuchis and in rural areas.

⁸ The definitions of extended and composite households used in the ALCS are in line with the UN Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses (United Nations 2017, Rev. 3, para. 4.146). An extended household is defined as a household consisting of any of the following: a single-family nucleus and other persons related to the nucleus, two or more family nuclei related to each other without any other persons, two or more family nuclei related to each other plus other persons related to at least one of the nuclei and two or more persons related to each other, none of whom constitute a family nucleus. A composite household contains at least one person not related to the rest of the household.

Table 3.3: Households, by household type, and by residence (in percentages)

Household type	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
One-person household	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1
Married couple, no children	1.7	2.1	1.1	2.0
Married couple with children	56.2	50.8	52.6	52.3
Single parent with children	4.1	2.2	1.6	2.7
Extended household	37.5	44.4	44.0	42.7
Composite household	0.2	0.3	0.7	0.3

Table 3.4 shows the absolute and relative distribution of people according to their relationship to the head of household: 13.0 percent of all persons are head themselves, while 12.8 percent were registered as spouse of head and 54.2 percent as a son or daughter of the head. Other family members are respectively son- or daughter-in-law (3.1 percent), grandchild (6.6 percent), father or mother (3.0 percent), nephew or niece (2.1 percent), brother or sister (3.9 percent), brother- or sister-in-law (0.9 percent) or other relative (0.5 percent). The number of unrelated persons is very small. Out of the total population only 12.5 thousand persons live in a household where they are unrelated to the head.

Table 3.4: Population, by relationship to head of household (in thousands and percentages)

Relationship to head of household	Thousands	Percentage
Total	29,113	100.0
Household head	3,780	13.0
Wife or husband of head	3,721	12.8
Son or daughter	15,774	54.2
Son/daughter in law	899	3.1
Grandchild	1,923	6.6
Father or mother	873	3.0
Nephew or niece	601	2.1
Brother or sister	1,128	3.9
Brother/sister in law	254	0.9
Other relative	147	0.5
Unrelated household member	13	0.0

The position of a person in the household is highly dependent on his/her age and sex. Figures 3.6a and 3.6b depict the relationship to the head of household separately for males and females. The same color codes were used in both figures, but the patterns look quite different. Among males, the category 'spouse of head' is very small, in only 45 thousand households (or just 0.3 percent) a woman is the head. As could be expected, at young ages, few males are the head. For instance, in age group 20-24, 13.1 percent of all males are head of their households. With increasing age, the percentage of males who are head increases to reach a maximum in age group 45-49 years; of all men in this age group 93.0 percent were registered as the head of the household.

Figure 3.6a: Male population, by five-year age group, and by relationship to the head of household (in percentages)

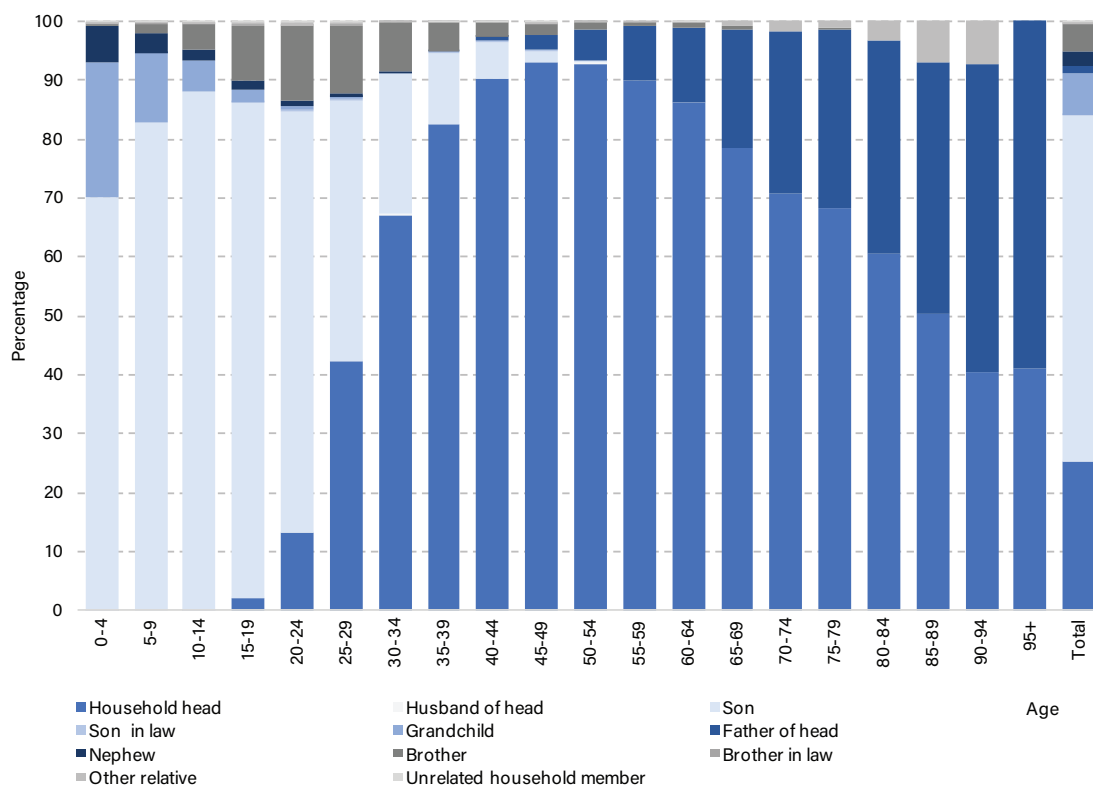
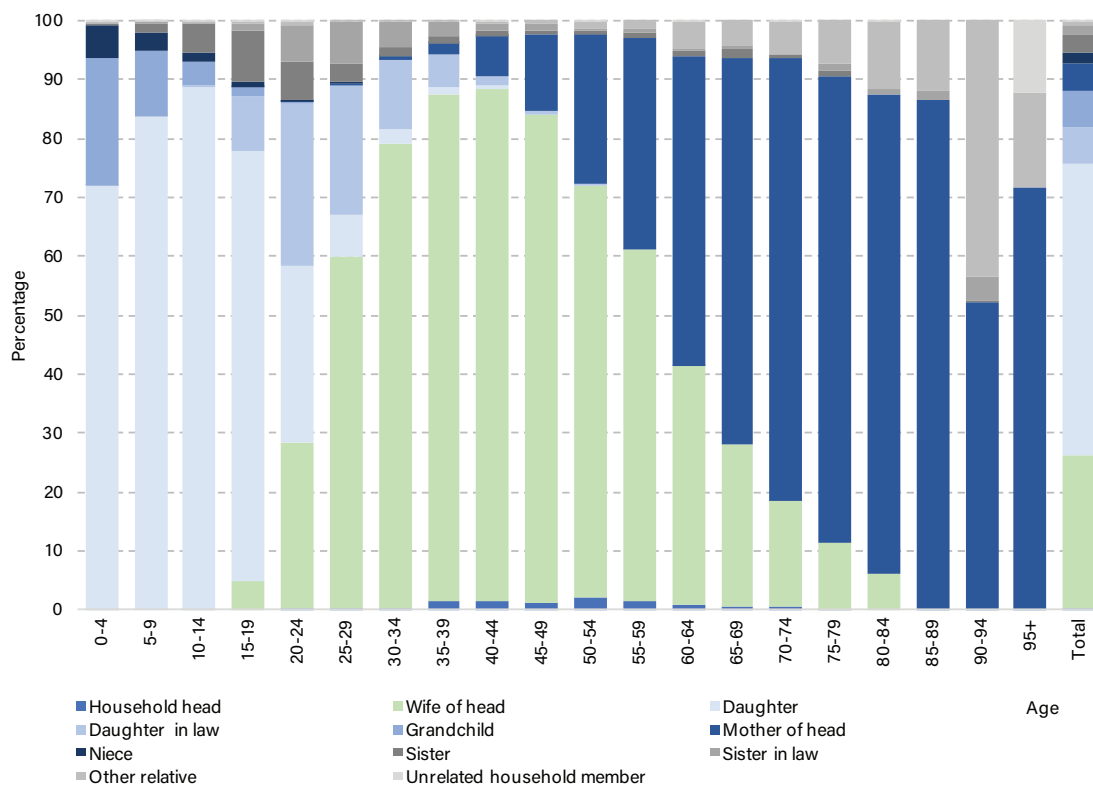


Figure 3.6b: Female population, by five-year age group, and by relationship to the head of household (in percentages)



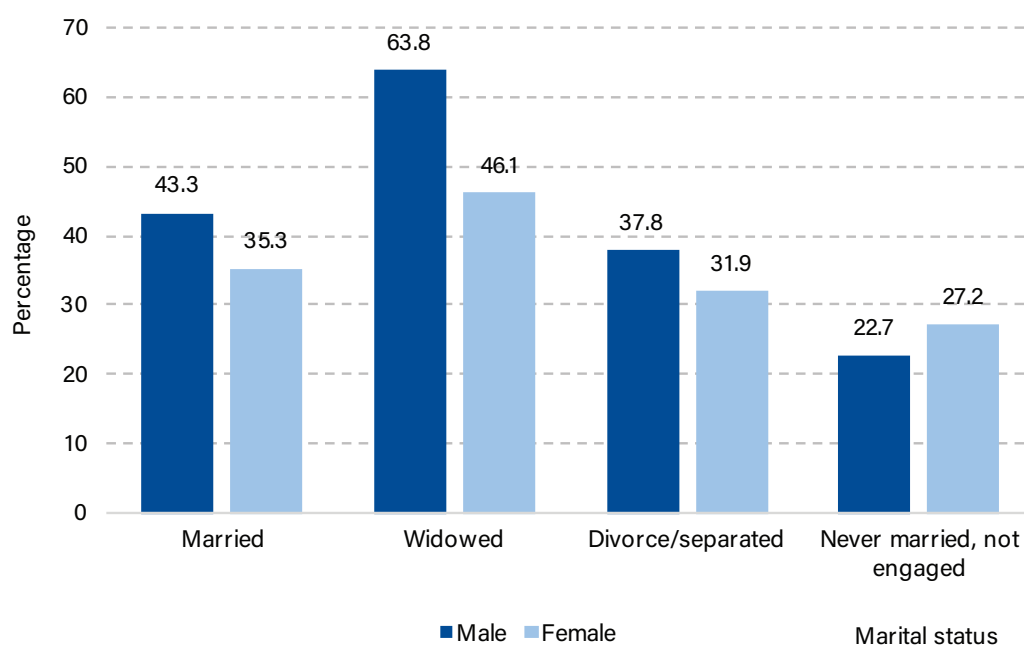
At a certain age, there is a shift from children living with their parents to parents living with their children. After age 50, the number of males who report to be the father of the head increases rapidly. Between ages 70 and 74, 27.4 percent of all males indicate they live with their son. Among females this percentage is much higher, 75.0 percent. This difference is closely related to the marital status of men and women in this age group. In the age group 70-74, 12.6 percent of men are widowed, against 63.5 percent of women. Note that between ages 20 and 39 more than just a few women indicate they are the wife of the son of the head of household; for instance, 27.6 percent of all women between age 20 and 24 live in the household of their husband. By contrast, only 0.1 of men of the same age group live with the parents of their wife. For both sexes, a number of young people live in the household of their brother, but these numbers become very small after age 30. The presence of other family members and non-related persons is very small at all age groups.

3.3.2 Female heads of household

It is well documented that in many countries female-headed households occupy a vulnerable position with higher levels of poverty and deprivation. Difficult access to land, labour, credit and insurance markets, being discriminated against by cultural norms and suffering from high dependency burdens and economic immobility are just a few of the disadvantages female heads of households have to cope with (Klasen, Lechtenfeld and Povel 2011). Therefore, it is important to understand the characteristics of female vis á vis male heads of households. As indicated above, only 0.3 percent, or 45 thousand households are headed by women, with a total of 212 thousand people living in female headed households. In a country as much male dominated as Afghanistan, a household is bound to have special characteristics to be headed by a female. The big difference between male and female headmanship is with marital status. The ALCS 2016-17 shows that only 1.2 percent of male heads are widowed against 78.0 percent of female headed households and that 58.5 percent of female headed households do not have a single male member between 15 and 64 years, which leaves little other option in the choice of a head of household.

The mean age of male and female heads of households is about the same: 43.0 year for male heads and 43.6 year for female heads. However, large differences exist between the ages according to marital status (*Figure 3.7*). Male heads that were widowed are on average 63.8 years old, while female widows are only 46.1 years old. Married and divorced female heads are also significantly younger than their male counterparts: female married and divorced heads are 35.3 and 31.9 years old, against 43.3 and 37.8 years for male heads, respectively. The only marriage category where women are older is among the never-married group, where female heads are 27.2 years old, against 22.7 years for males.

Figure 3.7: Average age of male and female heads of household, by marital status (in percentages)



3.4 Marriage patterns

3.4.1 Marital status distribution

Although marriages should be registered according to Section 61 of the Afghan Civil Code, only a small number of marriages are actually recorded. In general, people are considered married if they are recognized to be so according to their family and social environment (Landinfo 2011). Because of the lack of registration, marriage statistics can only be obtained from survey data.

Table 3.5 shows the percentage of persons by sex, place of residence and marital status. Although marriage is almost universal in Afghanistan, because of the very young age of the population, only 32.9 percent of men and 35.6 percent of women can be found in the married state. By far the largest group of people are unmarried (60.8 percent). The moment families have agreed on marriage, a young couple is engaged. According to the report on marriage in Afghanistan by LandInfo (2011), the duration of engagement may vary. Normally, the couple gets married within a year after the start of the engagement, but exceptions exist. In some cases when marriage is negotiated for very young children, the length of engagement takes several years. In the ACLS, indeed some cases of girls and boys recorded an engagement period of 1, 2 or 3 years. Among the total population, 2.6 percent indicated they were engaged.

Marriage closure and dissolution in Afghanistan is governed by strict and complex legal, religious and traditional rules and practices, that differ along ethnical lines. Marriages have serious economic, political and social consequences for the families involved. Because marriage is more of a contract between two families, rather than an emotional relationship between two individuals, the dissolution of marriage through divorce is rare. In the ALCS, less than 0.1 percent of women indicated they were divorced or separated; among men this was 0.03 percent. Dissolution of marriage through death is much more common: 4 percent of all women interviewed in the survey were widowed, the percentage among men was much lower 0.8 percent.

Table 3.5: Population, by sex, marital status, and by residence (in percentages)

Sex, marital status	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married	33.2	34.5	35.4	34.2
Widowed	2.7	2.2	2.0	2.3
Divorced/separated	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
Engaged	2.3	2.6	3.7	2.6
Never married, not engaged	61.7	60.7	58.8	60.8
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married	32.3	33.0	33.3	32.9
Widowed	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.8
Divorced/separated	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Engaged	2.3	2.6	4.3	2.6
Never married, not engaged	64.7	63.6	61.8	63.7
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married	34.0	36.0	37.6	35.6
Widowed	4.8	3.7	3.6	4.0
Divorced/separated	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Engaged	2.4	2.6	3.1	2.6
Never married, not engaged	58.7	57.6	55.6	57.8

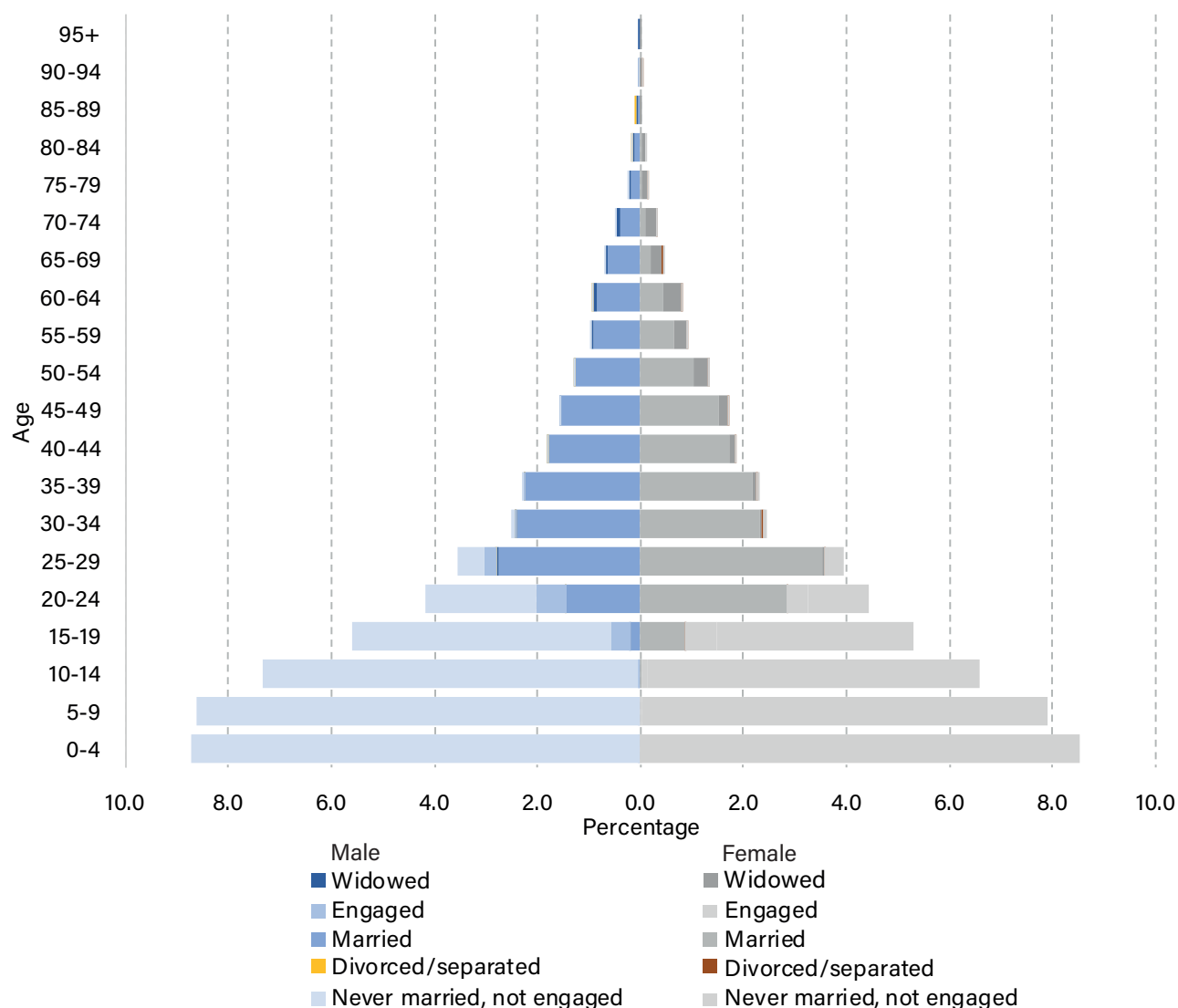
Marriage is almost universal in Afghanistan. Above age 40 less than one percent of men and women remain unmarried (*Table 3.6*). The earlier age at which women marry is reflected in the much higher percentage of married women aged 15-24. In this age group, 37.9 percent of women are married against 16.4 percent of men. For all age groups, the proportion of people divorced or separated is very small. The probability for a woman to be widowed during her lifetime is much higher than for men. Between ages 40 and 64, 17.3 percent of women are widowed, against 2.1 percent for men. Above age 65 the differences are even more apparent, as 64.3 percent of women above this age have lost their husband, against 14.0 percent of men. This large difference between both sexes is caused by large age differences between spouses and by the much higher rate of re-marriage of men compared to women.

Table 3.6: Population by sex, marital status, and by major age group (in percentages)

Sex, age group	Married	Widowed	Divorced or separated	Engaged	Never married, not engaged	Total
Total	34.2	2.3	0.1	2.6	60.8	100.0
0-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	99.5	100.0
15-24	27.1	0.1	0.0	10.1	62.6	100.0
25-39	90.7	1.0	0.1	2.3	5.9	100.0
40-64	89.4	9.7	0.2	0.0	0.7	100.0
65+	65.5	33.4	0.3	0.0	0.7	100.0
Male	32.9	0.8	0.0	2.6	63.7	100.0
0-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	99.7	100.0
15-24	16.4	0.1	0.0	9.9	73.7	100.0
25-39	88.7	0.3	0.1	3.4	7.5	100.0
40-64	97.2	2.1	0.1	0.0	0.7	100.0
65+	85.3	14.0	0.1	0.0	0.6	100.0
Female	35.6	4.0	0.1	2.6	57.8	100.0
0-14	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	99.3	100.0
15-24	37.9	0.2	0.1	10.4	51.5	100.0
25-39	92.7	1.6	0.2	1.02	4.4	100.0
40-64	81.6	17.3	0.2	0.0	0.8	100.0
65+	34.0	64.3	0.7	0.0	1.0	100.0

A more detailed picture of the marriage experience of males and females is provided in the population pyramid in *Figure 3.8*. The pyramid clearly shows the difference in marriage pattern between both sexes and clearly shows the large number of young people who in the coming years will be eligible for marriage.

Figure 3.8: Population, by sex, marital status, and by five-year age group (in percentages)

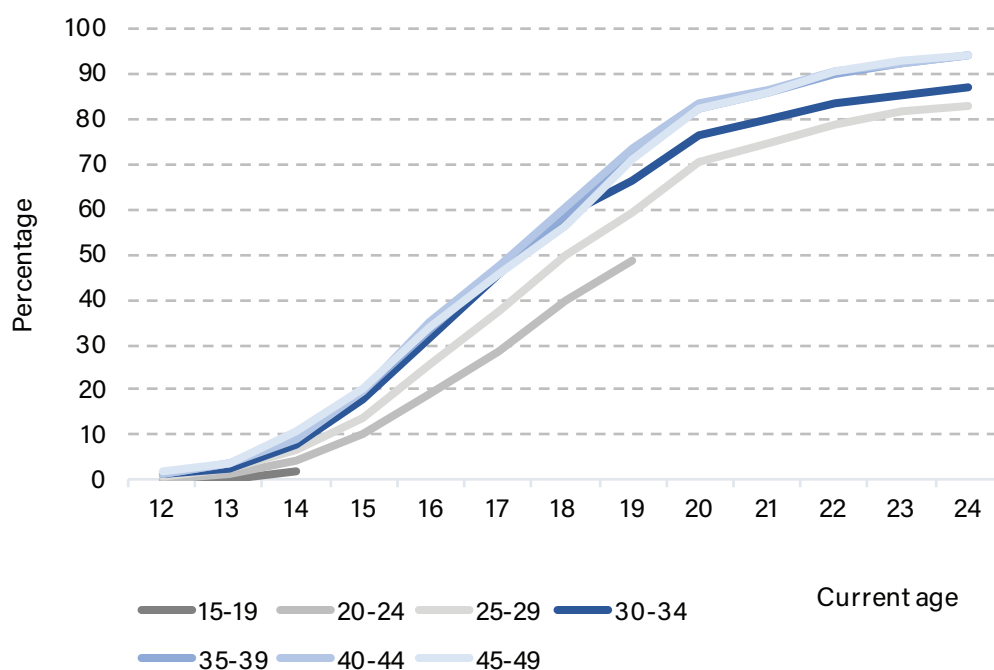


3.4.2 Age at first marriage

The age at first marriage is especially important for women, as it starts the period in their life when they start having children. A robust way of estimating the mean age at first marriage is the 'Singulate Mean Age at Marriage' (SMAM).⁹ The SMAM is calculated as 21.6 years for women and 24.4 years for men. The results from the ALCS 2013-14 showed that the age at first marriage has increased over the years. Data from the current survey show that this trend continues. *Figure 3.9* shows the percentage of females, currently between the ages of 15 and 49 years, by five-year age group and age at first marriage. While the curves for women currently 35 to 49 years old completely overlap, the cumulated first marriage percentages are considerably lower for the younger age-groups. For instance, at age 18, 39.9 percent of those now between 20 and 24 were married, whereas for older age-groups these percentages were 49.5 percent (for those now 25-29 years old) and 58.4 percent (for the 30-34 years old).

⁹ SMAM is a demographic method to calculate the average length of never married life for those who subsequently marry before age 50 and is calculated from the proportions never married in five-year age-groups from a census or survey. The method was proposed by Hajnal (1953).

Figure 3.9: Females aged 15 to 49, by age at first marriage, and by current age group (in percentages)



The issue of child marriage in Afghanistan has drawn a lot of attention in recent years. Child marriage is a human rights violation. It can have a direct impact on the girl's quality of life, her health and limits her prospect for a full and meaningful life. Child brides are at risk of violence, abuse and exploitation and the marriage may result in separation from family and friends and result in lack of freedom to participate in community activities, which can all have major consequences on the young girls' mental and physical well-being. Because child brides often become pregnant at a very young age, it affects their own health and that of their newborn children. Early age at childbirth is closely connected to higher levels of maternal mortality and morbidity and has a negative effect on the survival chances of their newborn children.

The Civil Code (Civil Code 1977, Section 70) stipulates that for girls the minimum age at marriage in Afghanistan is 16, but that an exception can be made if the father or a competent court gives consent (Landinfo 2011). Internationally, two important indicators to measure child marriage are used: (a) the percentage of women 20-24 years old who were married or in union before age 18, and (b) the percentage of women age 20-24 who were married before age 15. These indicators are also part of the SDG indicator framework. *Text box 3.2* presents these SDG indicators. According to the ALCS 2016-17, 4.2 percent of women in the age group 20-24 years were married before age 15 and 28.3 were married before age 18. The figures indicate that still a portion of the population does not comply with the minimum age stated in the Civil Code. Child marriage is more prevalent in rural areas and among the Kuchi population than in urban areas. While 18.4 percent of all women aged 20-24 are married before age 18 in urban areas, 31.9 are married in rural areas and 36.3 among the Kuchi population. According to the United Nations Children's Fund 2016 report on 'The State of the World's Children' (UNICEF 2016), the percentage of Afghan women aged 20-24 years old who were first married or in union before they were 18 years old was 33 percent, which is higher than the ALCS 2016-17 estimate.

Text box 3.2: SDG indicator 5.3.1 – Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18

SDG indicator 5.3.1 (*Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18*) is an indicator to measure progress in SDG Target 5.3: Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child-, early- and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.

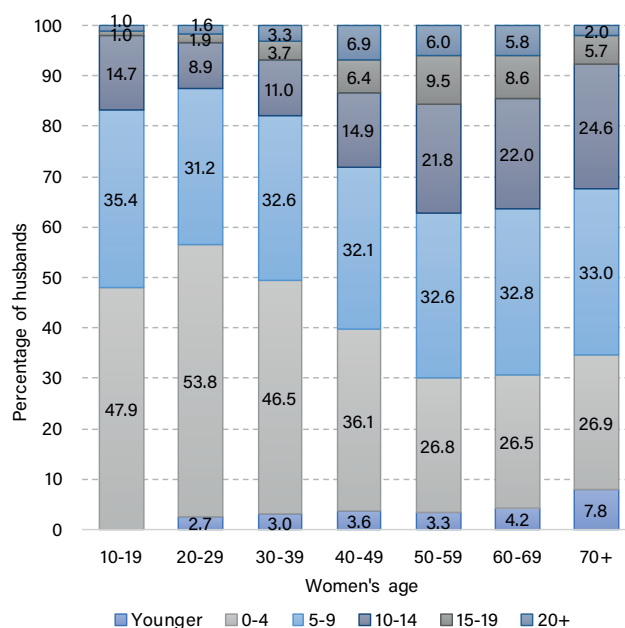
Indicator	Afghanistan	Urban	Rural	Kuchi
Percent married before age 15	4.2	2.1	5.0	4.8
Percent married before age 18	28.3	18.4	31.9	36.3

3.4.3 The marriage age gap

Child marriage is closely connected to large age differences between spouses. As age is a determinant of authority and power within a family, a large age difference often creates a vulnerable position for the young wife in terms of social position and financial and family decision making. In the survey, the mean age-difference between the head of household and his wife was 6.2 years. This result comes very close to the age difference observed in the ALCS 2013-14, when an age-difference of 6.1 year was observed. *Figure 3.10* shows that over time the age difference between spouses has come down. Between ages 20 and 29, 56.5 percent of women, married to the head of household, are either older than the husband (2.7 percent) or less than 5 years younger (53.8 percent). Among women 50-59 years old, this is 30.1 percent. At the higher end of the spectrum also large age differences exist between younger and older women: 12.4 percent of women 20-29 years old are more than 10 years younger than their husband. Among women 50-59 years this is 37.3 percent, including 6.0 percent who were more than 20 years younger than the husband.

Deviating from this general pattern is the finding that in the oldest age group (70 and over), a relatively large share of women – 7.8 percent – has younger husbands. This phenomenon can be explained by the high rate of male remarriage after widowhood and also by the incidence of levirate marriage, a practice especially prevalent in the Pashtun population, whereby a widow is required to marry a – possibly younger – relative of her late husband.

Figure 3.10: Currently married women, by current ten-year age group, and by relative age of the husband (in percentages)



Note that by looking at the age difference there is some selection process operating. Young women who marry much older men have much higher probabilities of being widowed at a young age. This means that they would not be included in this analysis, as no information on the age difference is available. One can observe higher percentages of large age-gaps among women 15-19 years than among 20-24 years old women. This is probably also a selection process: women who are already married at young ages may belong to more traditional households, in which large age differences are much more the norm.

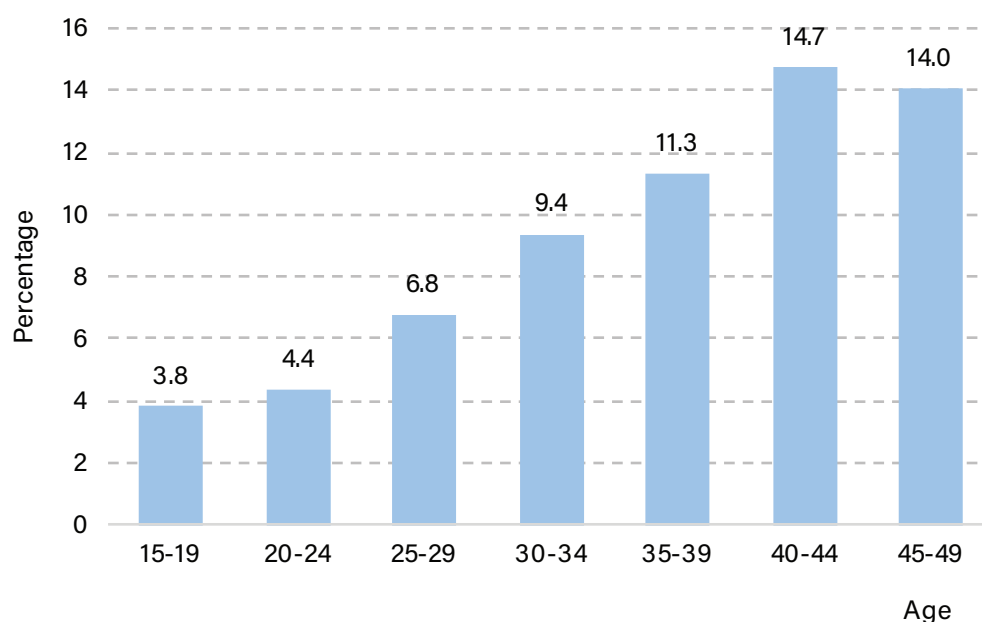
3.4.4 Polygamy

Polygamy involves a marriage with more than two partners. In the case of Afghanistan, only polygamy is present in which a husband has more than one wife. Polygamy creates inequalities among the co-wives and carries several negative risks for the co-wives in the case of widowhood and inheritance. In addition, it creates negative psycho-social consequences such as disempowerment, low sense of self-worth and personal betrayal (UNFPA n.d.). Polygamy is allowed in Afghanistan by Sharia and the Civil Code. To marry an additional wife, the Civil Code (Civil Code 1977, Section 86), specifies some strict rules:

- When there is no fear of injustice between the wives,
- When the person has financial sufficiency to sustain the wives. That is, when he can provide food, clothes, suitable housing, and medical treatment,
- When there is legal expediency, that is when the first wife is childless or when she suffers from diseases which are hard to be treated (LandInfo 2011).

According to the ALCS 2016-17, 8.2 percent of all married women live in a polygamous household. This figure is slightly more than in the ALCS 2013-14, when 7.9 percent of all married women were living in polygamous marriages and in the NRVA 2007-08 when 6 percent of women were living in a polygamous union. *Figure 3.11* shows that with rising age, a woman has a higher chance of being part of a polygamous marriage. In the age-group 15-19 years of age 3.8 percent of women are in a polygamous union. This percentage increases gradually to 14.7 in age group 40-44 and 14.0 in age group 45-49 years. From this graph it cannot be concluded that the incidence of polygamy is on the decline, as part of the trend is caused by the much smaller exposure time of young women. Most of these young women will be in a union with an older first wife, while older women can be the first, second or third wife. Secondly, such incidence may be underreported as well, taking into consideration that wives, or husbands, may tend not to report such circumstances in their households.

Figure 3.11: Percentage of married women in a polygamous marriage, by five-year age group



3.5 Migration

3.5.1 Afghanistan's migration patterns

The migration patterns in Afghanistan are particularly complex. Regular and traditional migration flows feature both internal and cross-border movements, permanent, seasonal and circularly migration – including nomadism of a substantial part of the population. Migration patterns are highly gender-specific and very different for those of short and long distances (CSO 2014, CSO 2016). These flows are mixed with the effects of one of the world's largest and most protracted refugee and displacement situations. The country showed the largest volume of returnees from exile in recent history, combined with large-scale internal displacement and newly emerging destinations for labour migrants and asylum seekers. The number of Afghans involved in international migration – and more particularly the number of refugees and returnees – is so large that it is a critical factor to the population equation in national estimates.

The ALCS 2016-17 included only a small module on migration. In this migration module, questions were asked about the person's place of birth and place of residence two years before the interview (referring to the Shamsi year 1393, Gregorian calendar 2014-2015), and the reason the person moved to the current place of residence. In addition, a small set of household-level questions was included to cover specifically displacement-related migration. Although the survey is not primarily designed as a migration study, the information collected is relevant to add to the limited body of information on migrants and migration flows in Afghanistan. It should also be emphasised that the strength of the ALCS migration information is more geared to describe migration patterns rather than to specify absolute numbers of migrants.

3.5.2 Migration concepts

Migration in the ALCS is defined as the act of crossing a border and going to live elsewhere for at least a year. Crossing the international border between two countries represents *international* migration. Migrants who enter a country (including return migrants and people born abroad) 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 another area within the same country are labelled *in-migrants*; those who move to another area within the country are labelled *out-migrants*. Internal migration can be measured at different levels, such as province-, district- or even municipality level. The ALCS 2016-17 was designed to measure migration between the provinces of Afghanistan.

In this report, the migration analysis distinguishes two different time dimensions, which can apply to both internal and international migration:

- *Life-time migration* indicates a difference between the place of birth and the current place of residence. It gives the net result of all moves a person has made during his or her life, and may conceal possible consecutive migrations during the person's life time. At the aggregate level, it gives an indication of net loss or gain of population numbers in a specific area.
- *Recent migration* is measured as migration in the two-year period preceding the survey and gives the net result of all moves a person has made in these two years. Measuring recent migration allows to detect possible new migration patterns.

Current residence is the place of residence at the time of interview of the ALCS 2016-17.

Refugee: A person who, owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, is outside the country of his or her nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail him- or herself of the protection of that country.

Internally Displaced Person (IDP): A person who has been forced or obliged to flee or to leave his or 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 generalised violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who has not crossed an internationally recognised state border.

Although the absolute number of migrants provides relevant information, an equally relevant indicator is this number in relation to the total population of the migrant-receiving area or to the population of the migrant-sending area. These indicators are expressed as migration ratios. For definitions of these indicators, see *Text box 3.3 Migration ratios* below.

Text box 3.3: Migration ratios

International migration	Internal migration
<p><i>Immigration ratio.</i> The number of people who now live in Afghanistan or in a specific province of Afghanistan, but who were living in another country previously, expressed as a percentage of the total population living in Afghanistan or the specific province of Afghanistan. This ratio is a measure of the pressure of immigration on the region receiving the migrants.</p>	<p><i>In-migration ratio.</i> The number of people who now live in a specific province, but who were living in another province previously, expressed as a percentage of the total population living in the specific province. This ratio is a measure of the pressure of in-migration on the province receiving the migrants.</p>
<p><i>Emigration ratio.</i> The number of people who lived in Afghanistan or a specific province of Afghanistan previously, but are now living in another country, expressed as a percentage of the total population living in Afghanistan or the specific province of Afghanistan. This ratio measures the probability of people moving abroad from a place of origin</p>	<p><i>Out-migration ratio.</i> The number of people who lived in a specific province previously, but are now living in another province, expressed as a percentage of the total population living in the specific province previously. This ratio measures the probability of people moving out from a province</p>
<p><i>Net migration ratio.</i> The difference between the number of people coming into a province and the number of people leaving the province, expressed as a percentage of the population living in the province.</p>	

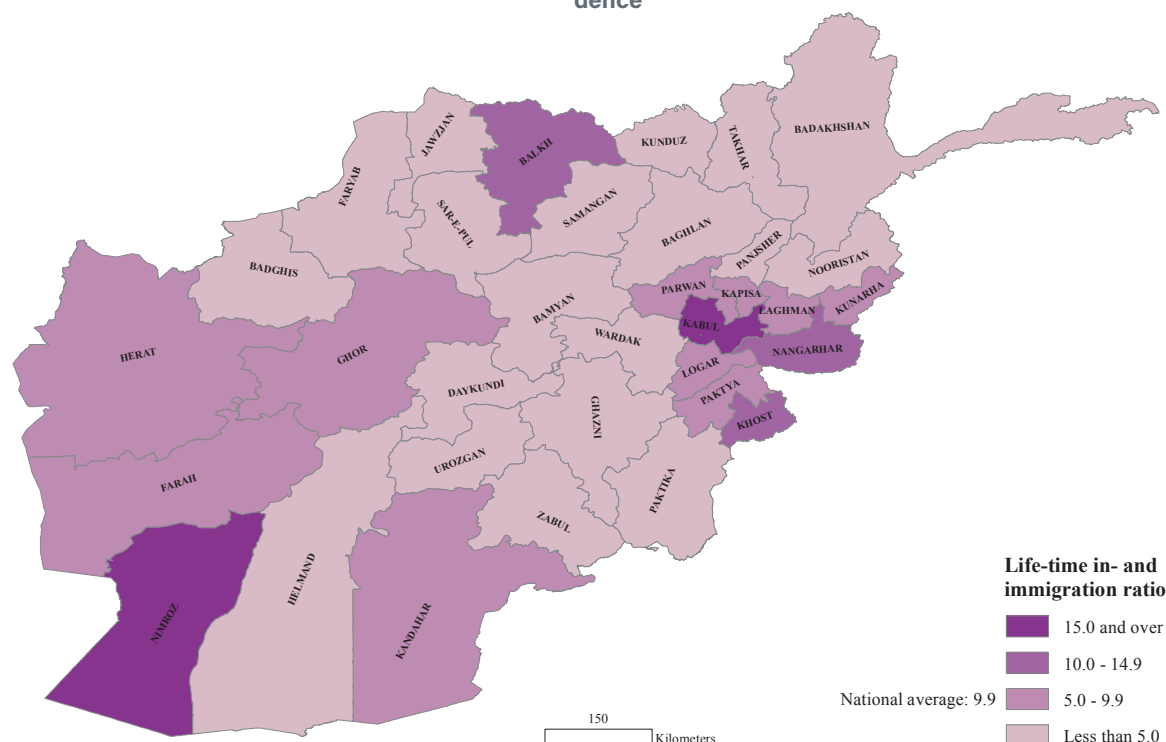
3.5.3 Life-time migrants

Life-time in-migrants and immigrants

At the national level, one in ten persons (9.9 percent of the population) is born outside the province of current residence. In absolute numbers, this corresponds with around 2.9 million people. Another 7.6 percent of the population reside in their province of birth, but lived part of their lives outside this province. This would bring the total share of people with a migration history to 17.5 percent, which corresponds with some 5.1 million people.

Two-thirds of all life-time migrants (6.8 percent of the total population) are internal life-time migrants and one third (3.2 percent of the total population) are life-time immigrants. Differences in the percentage of in-migrants and immigrants across the country are very large (*Figure 3.12*). Kabul stands out as the province with the largest share of its population born elsewhere: more than one third of Kabul residents (1.6 million people) are born abroad or elsewhere in Afghanistan. Nimroz is another province with a large population proportion (more than 15 percent) born elsewhere, but in terms of absolute numbers this represents only few people. On the other hand, many provinces have negligible shares of persons born elsewhere. Of all 34 provinces, 19 have proportions of less than 5 percent.

Figure 3.12: Percentage of population born elsewhere (life-time in- and immigration ratio), by province of current residence



As can be expected, provinces bordering Pakistan and Iran are the ones that have the largest shares of immigrants from abroad in their population. Nangarhar, Paktia, Kunarha, Farah, Nimroz and Khost all have 6 percent or more persons who were born abroad, the latter two even have more than 12 percent. Kabul is the only non-border province that has a similar share of immigrants (7.4 percent). In terms of proportion in-migrants, Kabul takes a special position, with more than a quarter (26.8 percent) of its residents born in other provinces of Afghanistan. Other provinces with large in-migration ratios are Kandahar, Ghor, Nangarhar, Balkh and Nimroz, all with 6 percent or more in-migrants.

In terms of absolute numbers of life-time migrants, differences between provinces are even more pronounced. The volume of life-time in-migrants and immigrants living in Kabul dwarfs the numbers in all other provinces. With 1.6 million persons born elsewhere, the number of migrants in Kabul is more than half (55 percent) of all life-time migrants in the country. Nangarhar, Balkh and Herat have the next largest numbers and are the only other provinces that surpass 100 thousand migrants. It is most likely that the presence of major towns (Jalalabad, Mazar-e-Sharif and Herat) in these provinces attracts migrants who look for employment and education opportunities. Provinces that attract hardly any migrants include Nooristan, Helmand, Urozgan, Zabul, Paktika, Daykundi and Bamyan. Apparently, conditions are unattractive to move to these provinces, either in terms of livelihood opportunities or because of insecurity.

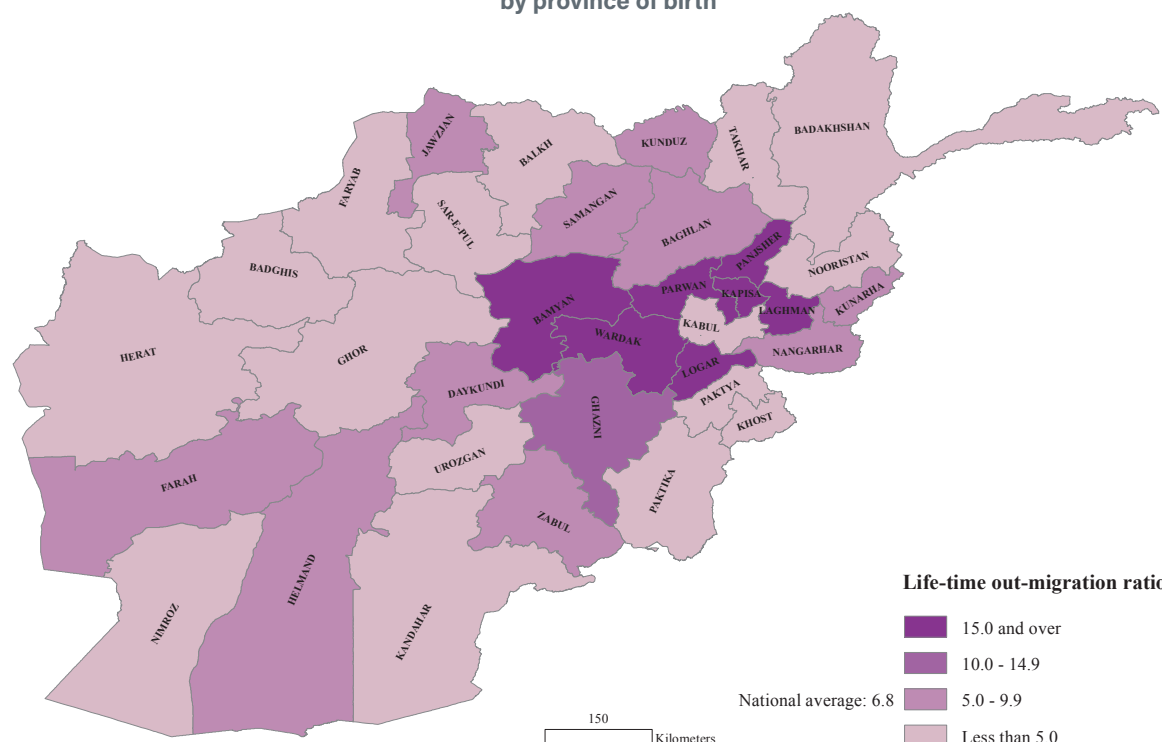
Kabul also has the largest number of life-time immigrants – 37 percent of the total number of life-time immigrants – and is followed at a distance by Pakistan-bordering Nangarhar, with 13 percent. Two other provinces bordering Pakistan – Paktia and Khost – and Herat at the border with Iran host between five and 10 percent of these immigrants, while Parwan, Logar, Laghman and Khost in the east, Kunduz and Balkh in the north and Farah and Nimroz in the west accommodate between one and five percent of all life-time immigrants. All other provinces received less than one percent.

Life-time out-migrants

The life-time out-migration ratio is shown in Figure 3.13. It should be noted that this information is restricted to persons who live somewhere else in Afghanistan and does not include persons who emigrated abroad, as they cannot

be captured by the survey. Inclusion of emigrants would have significantly increased the shares of people living elsewhere. Large shares of the populations born in Laghman, Wardak and Logar – between 20 and 30 percent – live now in other provinces. The out-migration ratio of Panshjer is even around 32 percent, which is almost one-third of the persons born there. On the other hand, relatively few people – less than three percent – left from Kabul, Balkh, Takhar, Paktya, Urozgan, Nooristan and most of the western provinces (Nimroz, Herat, Badghis, and Faryab).

Figure 3.13: Percentage of population living in another province than the province of birth (life-time out-migration ratio), by province of birth



Looking at the absolute numbers of out-migrants shows another picture. The largest suppliers of life-time migrants are Laghman, Nangarhar, Parwan, Logar and Ghazni – each of which produced between 120 thousand and 160 thousand migrants – and Wardak, from where even more than 200 thousand people left. It is noticeable that Kabul – being by far the most numerous province – does not make the top-six of the list.

Life-time net internal migration

The net life-time internal migration ratio is presented in *Figure 3.14*. It shows that a large majority of provinces in Afghanistan lose people due to internal migration. Only six provinces have a positive net migration ratio: Ghor, Herat, Kandahar, Balkh, Nimroz and Kabul. The map clearly shows the migration in Kabul city and its surrounding provinces as, respectively, absorber and suppliers of internal migrants. Panshjer, Kapisa, Parwan, Wardak, Paktya and Bamiyan all have around 90 percent of their out-migrants living in Kabul, Panshjer even 94 percent. Longer distance from Kabul generally decreases the attraction effect of the capital, even though it always remains among the most important destinations. Similar migration systems, although less prominent, are observed around Balkh, Herat and Kandahar,¹⁰ which serve as regional magnets of attraction in the north, west and south of the country, respectively. These three provinces – and most likely the main urban centres of these provinces – are also among the few that receive more migrants from immediately surrounding provinces than the numbers that these provinces sent to Kabul.¹¹

The net migration ratios for the provinces imply that without internal migration, the population of Kabul would have

¹⁰ Relative to its population, Nimroz also has large population gains because of migration. However, absolute numbers are insubstantial.

¹¹ Thus, Balkh received more life-time migrants from Samangan, Sar-e-Pul-Jawzjan and Faryab than Kabul did; Kandahar re-

Recent out-migrants

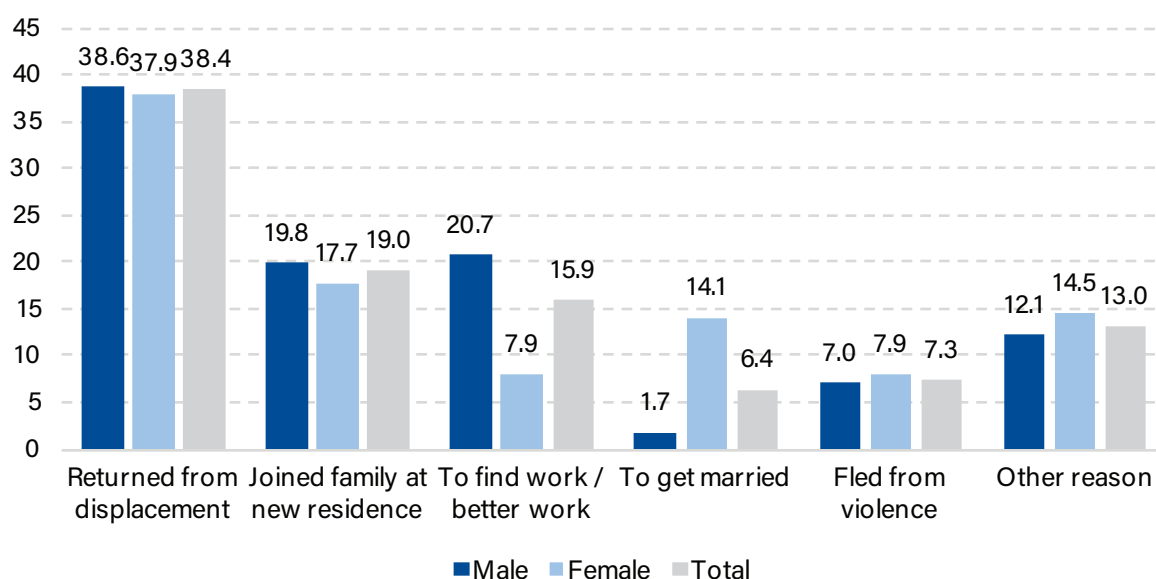
The pattern of recent out-migration – the number of persons living in a province two years before the survey, who currently live in another province, expressed as a percentage of the population of the province of departure – is fairly similar to that of life-time out-migration, although the large out-migration from Panshjer has been strongly subdued. The provinces with the highest out-migration ratios are Logar and Laghman. In terms of absolute numbers, Logar was also the province that lost most people due to out-migration, followed by Kabul, Laghman, Nangarhar and Ghazni.

Compared to the resident population size, for the last two years, Kabul is no longer the province with the largest net gain from internal migration, although in absolute numbers the net gain of Kabul is twice as much as that of the province with the second-highest recent net migration ratio (Nangarhar). The two other provinces that relatively gained most people because of internal migration are Kapisa and Nimroz. Provinces with the highest net losses in absolute terms and relative to the resident population are Laghman and Logar.

3.5.5 Reasons for migration

For all persons who ever migrated, a question was asked about the reason for their most recent migration to the current province of residence. For most children and many other dependent family members the answer 'Moved because parents/family moved' was given. As this conceals the underlying motivation for migration, these answers were pro-rata distributed over the other answer categories. *Figure 3.15*, shows that return from displacement – either internal or cross-border – was the most important reason for migrants in Afghanistan to move to their current place of residence (38.4 percent). Close to one in five migrants (19.0 percent) moved to join family that already lived elsewhere. The importance of these reasons is very similar for male and female migrants. However, large gender differences were reported for finding work and marriage as reasons for the most recent migration, the former being particularly important for men (20.7 percent) and the latter for women (14.1 percent)

Figure 3.15: Migrant population, by reason for moving to current place of residence, and by sex



3.5.6 Migrant characteristics

Globally, the age-sex profile of migrants shows a predominance of men and a strong overrepresentation of the young adult ages, when people tend to finish education, start working, leave the parental home, marry and take other important life-course decisions (UNDESA 2013). The migrant population in Afghanistan – internal migrants

and immigrants combined – largely corresponds to this profile, but some interesting characteristics can be noticed.

In terms of sex composition, male migrants indeed outnumber female migrants, but not by very much: 56.7 against 43.3 percent. Part of the explanation of this relatively small difference is the distribution of reasons for migration in Afghanistan. As shown in the previous section, reasons for migration are dominated by displacement and return from displacement, which are often done with the family as a whole, implying a fairly equal sex-balance. In addition, male-dominated migration for employment is partially compensated by marriage migration which is almost exclusively female migration.

Figure 3.16 shows the difference in age composition between migrants and non-migrants. Whereas non-migrants replicate the pyramid shape of the total population of Afghanistan (compare Figure 3.2), migrants show a concentration in the youth age groups (15 to 29). However, the age concentration among Afghan migrants is not as pronounced as in most other countries, with a relatively large share of children and older adults in the migrant population. The relative importance of family migration against individual migration is the most likely explanation of the subdued age concentration.

Figure 3.16: Population, by five-year age group, sex, and by migrant status (in percentages)

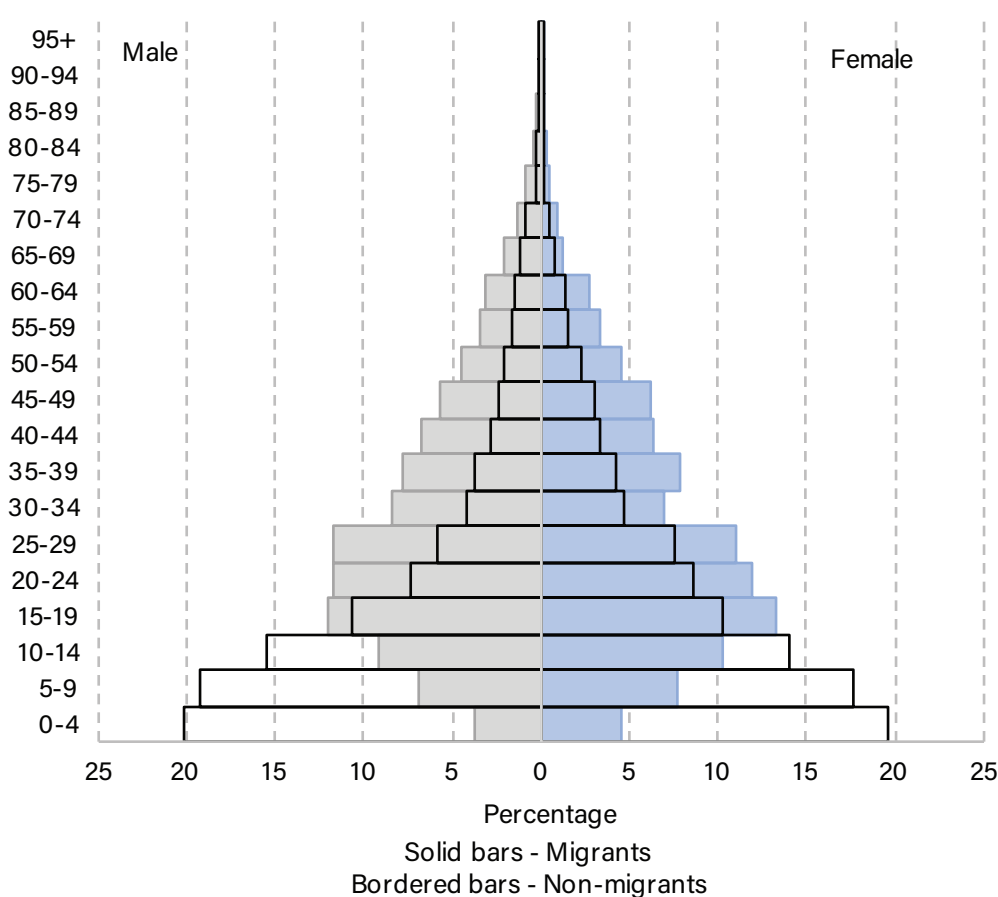
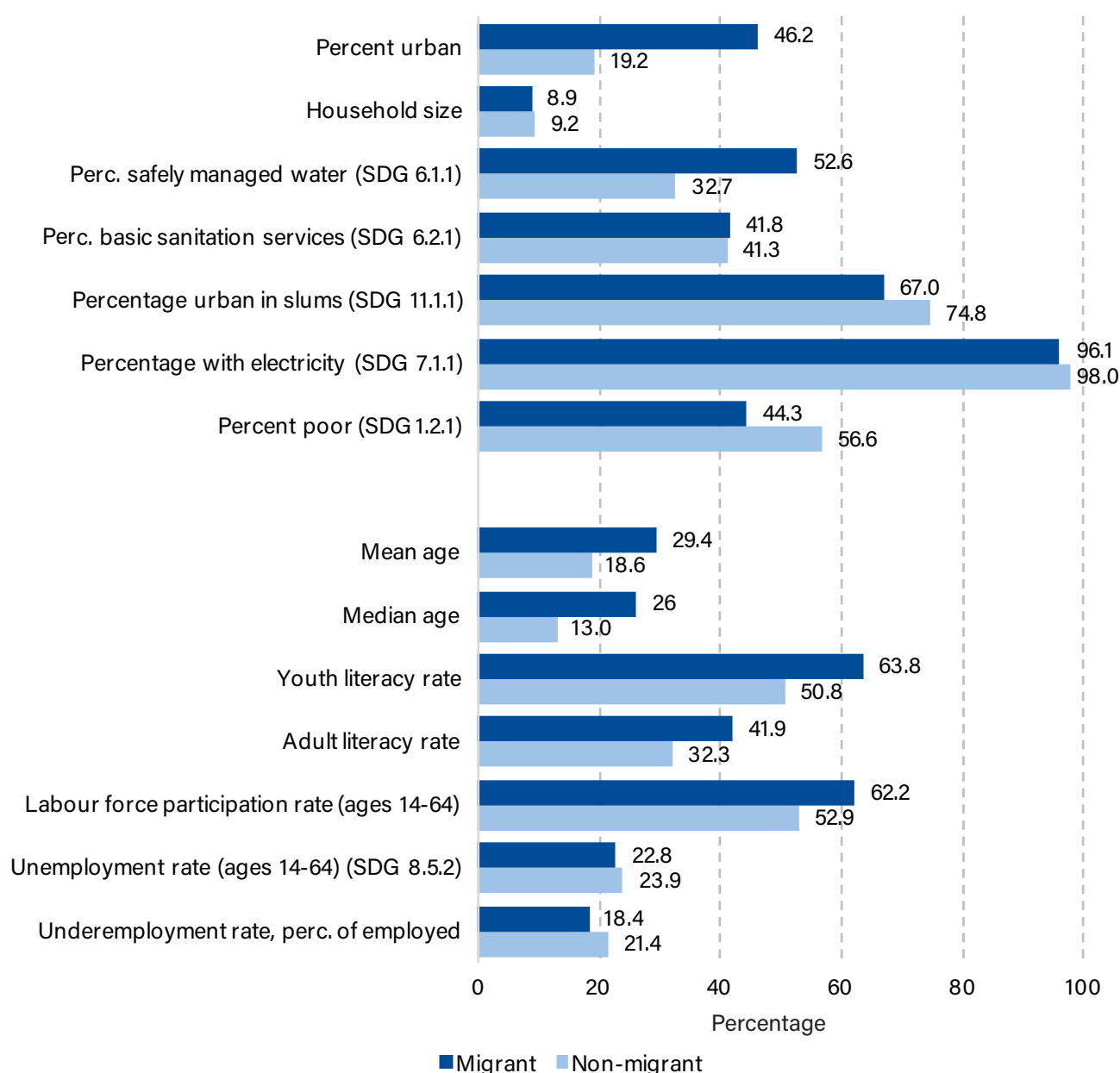


Figure 3.17 provides a comparison of selected characteristics of migrants and non-migrants, including several SDG indicators.¹² One very important distinction between the two groups is the fact that a far greater share of migrants than of non-migrants lives in urban areas (46.2 against 19.2 percent). However, the better access to basic services in urban areas – such as water supply, sanitation, electricity and education (see chapters 8 and 10) – is only partly reflected in the living conditions of migrants. Whereas fewer migrants live in slum conditions and more have access to safely managed drinking water, they do not distinguish themselves from non-migrants in terms of access to elec-

¹² For explanation of the indicators presented in Figure 3.19, refer to the footnote below the Figure.

tricity and basic sanitation services. However, the proportion of people living below the poverty line is significantly smaller among migrants than among non-migrants (44.3 and 56.6 percent, respectively).

Figure 3.17: Selected background characteristics, by migrant status^a



^a Explanation of indicators: for 'safely managed water' and 'basic sanitation services', see section 11.3.1; for 'slums', see section 10.2.2; for 'electricity', see section 10.3.2; for 'poor', see section 6.2; for 'literacy rates', see section 8.5.1; for 'labour force participation rate', see section 4.2.1; for unemployment rate, see section 4.4; for 'underemployment rate', see section 4.5.1.

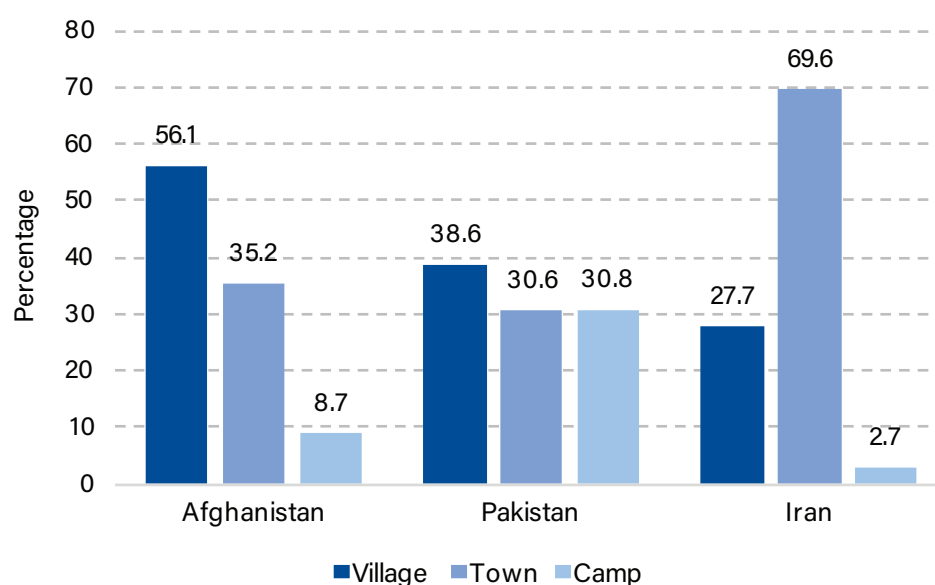
The substantial difference in the poverty rate between migrants and non-migrants is related to the availability and utilisation of human capital in both groups. Migrants score considerably better than non-migrants in youth- and adult literacy and in labour force participation, and slightly better in underemployment, while there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of unemployment.

3.5.7 Households returned from displacement

The ALCS 2016-17 questionnaire included a separate set of questions about households' displacement experience. One in ten households – 10.6 percent – mentioned that the household returned from displacement – either from within Afghanistan or from abroad – since 2002 (Shamsi calendar 1382), the year after the overthrow of the Taliban regime. In Paktya, Nangarhar, Logar, Kabul, Nimroz, Farah and Parwan, this percentage was even above 20 percent. Two-fifths of all these returnee households (39.5 percent) live in Kabul, while Parwan and Nangarhar are the two other provinces where more than 10 percent of households are households that returned from displacement since 2002.

More than half of the now returned households (53.6 percent) had found a place of refuge in Pakistan, one-fifth (21.2 percent) in Iran and a quarter (24.8 percent) in Afghanistan itself. Within Afghanistan, Kabul was the province where the largest share of returned households found refuge (6.0 percent), while for Logar, Nangarhar, Panshjer, and Herat shares of above 2 percent were reported. The type of settlement where displaced households lived during displacement strongly differs by country of refuge (*Figure 3.18*). Whereas the majority of internally displaced households lived in villages, around one third in towns and a small minority in IDP camps, in Pakistan the settlement distribution is fairly even. On the other hand, more than two thirds of households that found refuge in Iran lived in towns, only just over a quarter in villages and hardly any in camps.

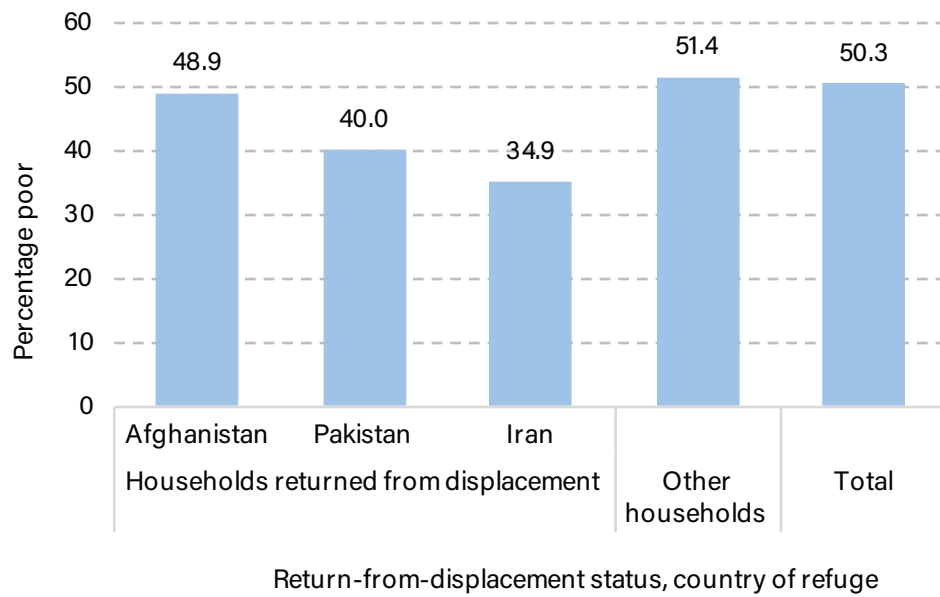
Figure 3.18: Households returned from displacement, by country of refuge, and by type of settlement during displacement (in percentages)



The return of displaced households was concentrated in the first three years after 2001, when around 45 percent returned. For the following years, smaller volumes of around 4 percent were reported, only to pick up in 2016, with around 11 percent. Most households (73 percent) reported to have returned spontaneously. For internally displaced households, almost all households did so, but for households returning from Pakistan and Iran, the proportions spontaneously returning were 67 and 61 percent, respectively. Returns from these countries were for, respectively, 19 and 17 percent assisted by international organisations, while 14 and 22 percent of households were deported.

Characteristics of households that returned from displacement deviate importantly from other households in the country. Whereas nationally the percentage of urban households is 24.9 percent, for returnee households this is 40.4 percent, compared to 23.1 percent for other households. The percentage for households that were internally displaced in Afghanistan is similar to the national average (24.6 percent), but the urban share of households that returned from Pakistan and Iran is 42.9 and as high as 52.6 percent, respectively. In terms of poverty, the percentage poor among households that returned from displacement within Afghanistan (48.9) is close to the national average (50.3 percent) (*Figure 3.19*). Displaced households that returned from abroad are considerably better off. The percentage poor among those returning from Pakistan is 40.0 percent, while that among returnee households from Iran is only 34.9 percent.

Figure 3.19: Percentage poor households, by return-from-displacement status, and by country of refuge



4 LABOUR MARKET

Summary. The analysis in this chapter suggests that Afghanistan's labour market is under considerable stress. Key factors that characterise the labour market include the dominance of the agriculture sector, strong under-representation of women, the disadvantaged position of women and youth, and high prevalence of irregular, low-paid and unproductive employment.

Despite the dire living conditions for many households in the country, the female labour potential is strongly underutilised to brace people's livelihoods, with only 27 percent of working-age women being economically active and only 16 percent actually working. This contributes to the country's low overall labour force participation rate of 54 percent and low overall employment-to-population ratio of 41 percent. These figures imply that relative to the total population, the volume of human resources available to produce goods and services is small, greatly hampering further economic development.

High levels of unemployment as measured by the unemployment rate (SDG indicator 8.5.2) – nationally 24 percent, representing 2.0 million people – indicate the inability of the Afghan economy to adequately absorb the available labour supply in the country. Job opportunities for young people and especially for women are particularly scarce, with the youth and female unemployment rates standing as high as 31 and 41 percent, respectively. The share of youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) (SDG indicator 8.6.1) provides a measure of youth who are at especially high risk of labour-market and social exclusion. This NEET rate stands at 42 percent for both sexes combined, but is especially high for female youth (68 percent). The weak position of women on Afghanistan's labour market is also signified by fact that managerial positions are only for 4 percent occupied by women (SDG indicator 5.5.2).

Problems of Afghanistan's labour market are only partly reflected by unemployment. Equally, if not more, important is the quality of existing jobs. Of the total employed population, 20 percent – 1.3 million people – are underemployed, an indication that their jobs are inadequately providing sufficient and sustainable livelihoods. Moreover, 80 percent of all jobs are classified as vulnerable employment, characterised by job insecurity and poor working conditions. Only 13 percent of the working population of Afghanistan can be considered to have decent employment. Being male and having more than a secondary education are key factors that enhance the likelihood of being economically active, avoiding unemployment and having a decent job.

Analysis of labour market trends shows stagnation in the labour market when compared to the situation in 2013-14. There is no significant change in labour force participation and levels of unemployment and underemployment remain persistently high. However, the proportion of employed people in the working-age population has declined with two percentage points. Moreover, the labour market position of specific sub-populations (women, youth and rural people) has deteriorated in terms of unemployment and employment-to-population ratio.

Employment in agriculture dominates the labour market of Afghanistan: 44 percent of the jobs are in the agriculture sector and 43 percent of workers are agricultural workers. Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment (SDG indicator 9.2.2) remains at a low 18 percent, indicating that the transition to a more advanced and resilient economy is still in an initial stage.

The unabated high levels of fertility and population growth in Afghanistan have a large impact on labour market performance and living conditions. Whereas the poor quality of jobs is one key explanation of poverty, the large number of people in the economically dependent ages – particularly children – is another. The need to share income from employed persons with large numbers of household members often results in dropping below the poverty line, even if jobs provide decent remuneration. Despite high investment in schooling, the increase in the volume of school-age children at every education level is so large that large numbers are not or only inadequately served. In turn, this implies a poor preparation for the labour market for many and diminishes their chances of healthy and poverty-free lives. The ever-increasing cohorts that reach working age also place unabated pressure on the labour market. An expected 3.9 million young people will have reached working age over the next five years, of whom 1.6 million will enter the labour market and some 540 thousand will remain unemployed according to the present rates of labour force participation and unemployment. Finally, the combination of high labour market pressure due to population increase and the inability to provide sufficient quality jobs and adequate education will prohibit the country benefitting from economic growth that a demographic dividend may provide.

4.1 Introduction

The large majority of Afghan livelihoods depend on the labour conducted by one or more household members. Rent, forms of zakat and remittances from household members working abroad may provide additional sources of income or could even constitute the main source of livelihood. Nevertheless, most households still directly rely on productive work of household members, be it subsistence activities or paid labour. Much of the work in the Afghanistan economy is characterised by informal arrangements, low-paid and low-productivity jobs, family work and child labour, and very long or very few working hours. It has been well documented that standard international labour indicators – especially those related to employment and unemployment – are inadequate to capture the performance of the labour market in such economies (ILO 2008, ILO 2011). Therefore, the CSO, the Ministry of Economy (MoEc) and the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled (MoLSAMD) developed and applied definitions that pertain better to the labour market context of Afghanistan. Accordingly, this report presents labour market indicators based on the national definitions as described in *Text box 4.1*, along with the corresponding international definitions.

The first and most fundamental labour-market choice that working-age Afghans face is whether or not to participate in the labour market. Those who do face two possible outcomes: they may find employment that they are willing to accept – in which case they become part of the employed labour force – or they may not find it, in which case they will continue to seek work and remain part of the unemployed labour force. Those who do find work encounter an additional choice: they may be satisfied with the job, in which case they are regarded as being fully employed (unless working less than eight hours in which case they are classified as unemployed). Alternatively, they may be willing and available to work additional hours, in which case they are considered underemployed (unless they work 40 or more hours a week). The unemployed and the underemployed together constitute that part of the labour force that is defined as ‘not gainfully employed’.¹

Text box 4.1: Labour force definitions

	National definitions	International definitions
<i>Employed</i>	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.	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.
<i>Underemployed</i>	All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. working less than 40 hours b. available to work additional hours; and, c. willing to work additional hours. 	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).
<i>Unemployed</i>	All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. without any work and b. seeking work or who worked less than 8 hours. 	All persons aged 15 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. without any work, i.e. those not in paid employment or self-employment; b. currently available for work; and c. seeking work.
<i>Not gainfully employed</i>	All persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were unemployed or underemployed.	

Source: CSO 2014

¹ The Afghanistan national labour force definitions apply the ‘relaxed definition’ of unemployment, including ‘discouraged job seekers, who are those not working and who want to work, but do not seek work because they think they have no chance of finding it. For comprehensive definitions of employment, underemployment and unemployment, see Annex X.

This chapter describes the labour market in Afghanistan according to this basic framework of participation decisions and employment outcomes. Section 4.2 describes the initial choice that Afghans of working age make regarding whether or not to participate in the labour force. Section 4.3 and onwards continue with those who participate in the labour market, addressing the unemployed (section 4.4) and the underemployed (section 4.5). Section 4.6 outlines the challenges of the Afghanistan labour force in terms of the transition to decent employment. In section 4.7 changes in labour market indicators between 2013-14 and 2016-17 are reviewed.

4.2 Labour force participation

4.2.1 Labour participation rate

The labour force includes the part of the working age population that is economically active: those who are currently employed and those who are looking for work (the unemployed). The labour force participation rate (LFPR) is the share of the working-age population that is currently employed or unemployed. It 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 labour market behaviour of different categories of the population.

The very young age structure of Afghanistan's population (see chapter 3) constrains the current productive capacity of the country's economy, as only 54.6 percent of the population is in the working age of 14 years and over. However, given the right conditions and population developments, the large population cohorts that will reach working age in the near future could become the source of significant economic growth, the so-called 'demographic dividend' (see *Text box 4.2*). This demographic dividend can materialise if on the one hand the young population under age 15 – because of fertility decline – decreases relative to the potentially economically productive population aged 15 to 64, and on the other hand the potential of the working-age population is realised by implementing appropriate economic and social policies that ensure sufficient levels of labour force participation, the availability of sufficient and productive jobs, adequate education and good health (e.g. Bloom, Canning and Sevilla 2003). Afghanistan has not yet reached the point where the window of opportunity for a demographic dividend opens, as no substantial fertility decline is observed in the country. Neither are at currently the right conditions present that may translate opportunity into actual economic growth, as evidenced by low levels of education and literacy (chapter 8) and low female labour force participation, high unemployment and low-productivity jobs (this chapter).

Text box 4.2: The demographic dividend

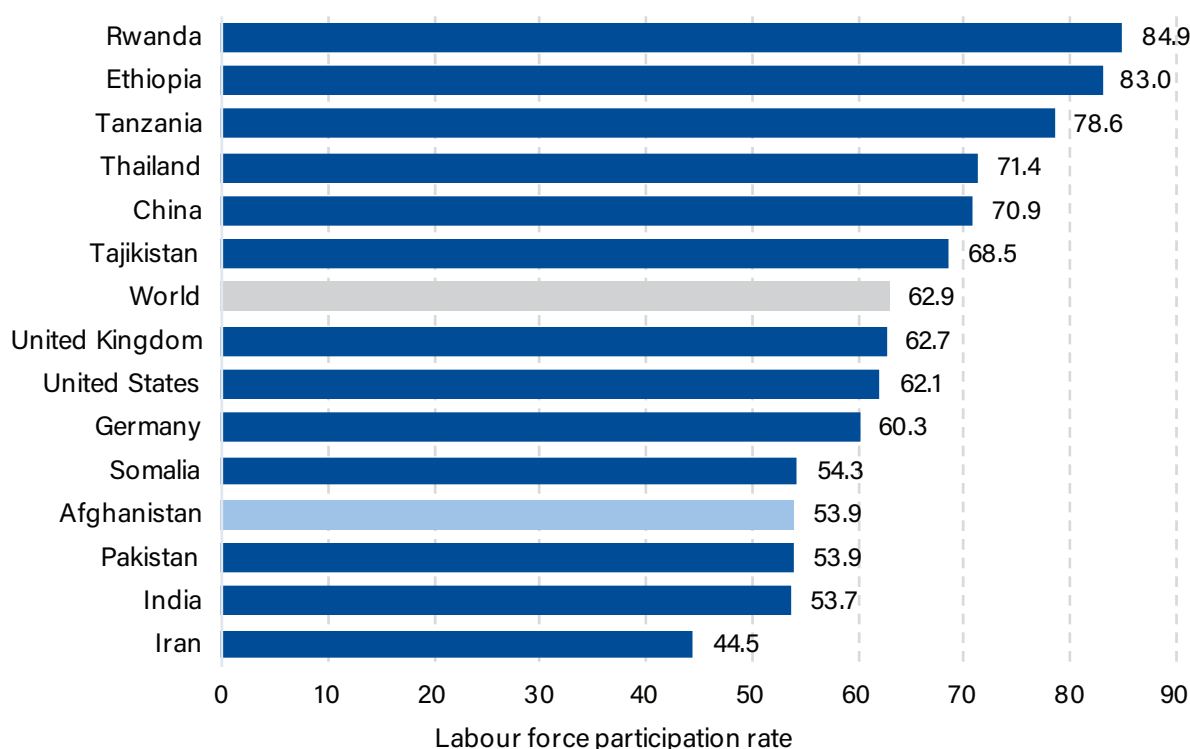
The demographic dividend is the economic growth potential that results from shifts in a population's age structure, mainly when – because of fertility decline – the share of the working-age population (aged 15 to 64) is larger than the non-working-age share of the population (under 15 and 65 and over). With fewer young people to support, a country has a window of opportunity for rapid economic growth and increases the resources for investment in economic development and family welfare. Smaller numbers of children per household generally lead to larger investments per child, generating better educational and health outcomes, to more freedom for women to enter the formal workforce, and to more household savings. All of these can improve families' living conditions, stimulate the economy and increase GDP per capita.

A substantial decline in fertility only provides a window of opportunity for accelerated economic growth. Whether or not a country takes advantage of the demographic dividend, depends on adequate investments and effective policies for good governance, infrastructure, employment, productive work, health care, schooling and training that match the demand of the labour market, female labour market access, health and disability and many more.

The labour potential of the working-age population of 15.9 million people is utilised to a limited extent, with only 53.9 percent of these (8.5 million people) participating in the economy by being employed or by looking for work (classified as unemployed). This is relatively high compared to other countries in the region, but low on a global scale

(see Figure 4.1).² Such a low labour force participation rate indicates that relative to the total population, the human resources available to produce goods and services is small, thus negatively affecting economic development.

Figure 4.1: Labour force participation rate of selected countries



Source: Afghanistan: ALCS 2016-17; other countries: International Labour Organization, ILOSTAT database, reference year 2015

4.2.2 Differentials in labour force participation

Table 4.1 presents the distribution of the economically active and inactive population and the labour force participation rate, by sex and residence. It shows that the overall labour force participation rate in Afghanistan is suppressed by very low levels of female activity on the labour market, indicating that women are still an important untapped economic potential. The female labour force participation rate of 26.8 percent indicates that only around one in four women of working age are economically active. This is in stark contrast to men, who have to a participation rate of 80.6 percent.

² Relatively low labour force participation rates of developed economies are usually due to higher participation in education, legal retirement age, pension arrangements and general affluence.

Table 4.1: Population of working age (14 and over), by residence, sex, and by economic activity status (in thousands) and labour force participation rate

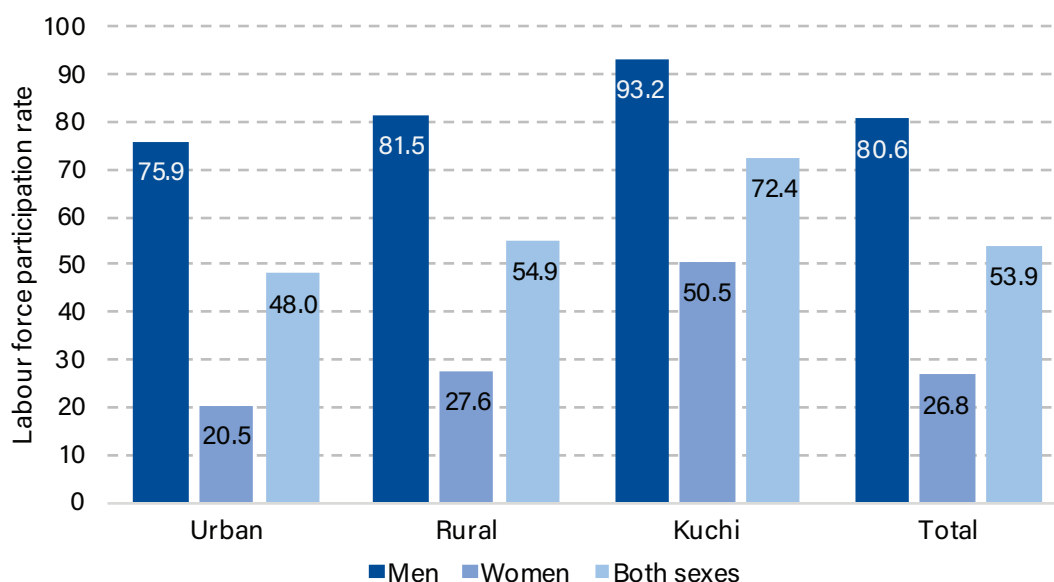
Residence, sex	Economically		Total	Labour force participation rate
	active	inactive		
Total	8,478	7,246	15,724	53.9
Male	6,393	1,540	7,933	80.6
Female	2,086	5,706	7,791	26.8
Urban	1,963	2,126	4,089	48.0
Male	1,542	490	2,033	75.9
Female	421	1,635	2,056	20.5
Rural	5,993	4,921	10,914	54.9
Male	4,505	1,025	5,530	81.5
Female	1,488	3,897	5,385	27.6
Kuchi	522	199	721	72.4
Male	345	25	371	93.2
Female	177	174	350	50.5

The sum of individual cells may not add up to totals due to rounding

Labour force participation is higher in rural areas and particularly so among Kuchi's (54.9 and 72.4 percent, respectively) (see also *Figure 4.2*). This is typical for less developed economies, in which educational opportunities are few and most people are engaged in labour-intensive, low-productive, agricultural activities. Furthermore, wage earning opportunities are scarce in such areas and thus many household members need to work to produce sufficient income. In urban areas the labour force participation is lower, standing at 48.0 percent for both sexes combined. This is due to the presence of opportunities other than employment, such as school attendance, probably less necessity to work in family-based establishments and because of generally lower levels of poverty (see chapter 6).

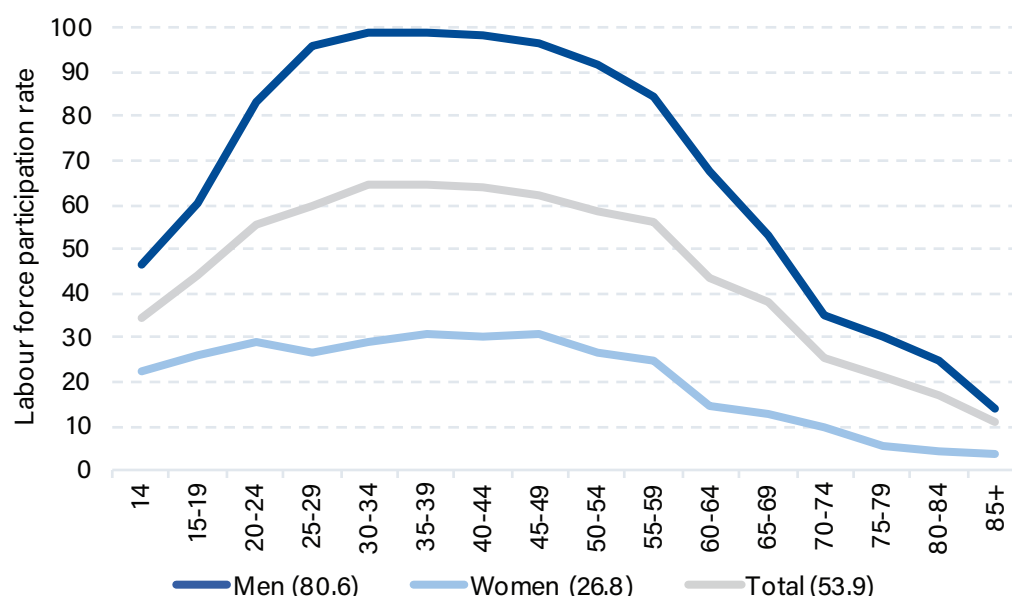
Although the differences in economic participation across residence types follow the same pattern for men and women, the differences for women are much more pronounced. Whereas the rural female labour force participation rate (27.6 percent) is close to the national female average of 26.8 percent, that of Kuchi women is almost twice as high (50.5 percent), whereas the urban rate for women is substantially lower (20.5 percent).

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



Overall, the labour force participation rates follow the age pattern that is commonly found: relatively high participation in middle-aged adults and low to very low participation at young and older ages (*Figure 4.3*). However, the overall picture conceals large gender differences in both the level and the shape of the age pattern. Men's participation rates peak to nearly 100 percent for an extensive age range from 30 to 44 years, and stay above 95 percent from 25 to 49 years old. In contrast, women's participation rates hardly exceed 30 percent and this only counts for the middle adult age range of 30 to 49 years. In addition, adult women's participation shows little variation across age groups until age 60-64 when a marked drop can be observed. Whereas the generally low level of female labour force participation may be attributed to cultural barriers – both at the domestic supply side of labour and at the demand side of the labour market – and to security considerations (e.g. Aturupane et al. 2013), the conspicuous absence of a bulge in the middle adult years is likely caused by the high intensity and long duration of the childbearing period and by related household responsibilities for Afghan women.

Figure 4.3: Labour force participation rate, by 5-year age group, and by sex^a

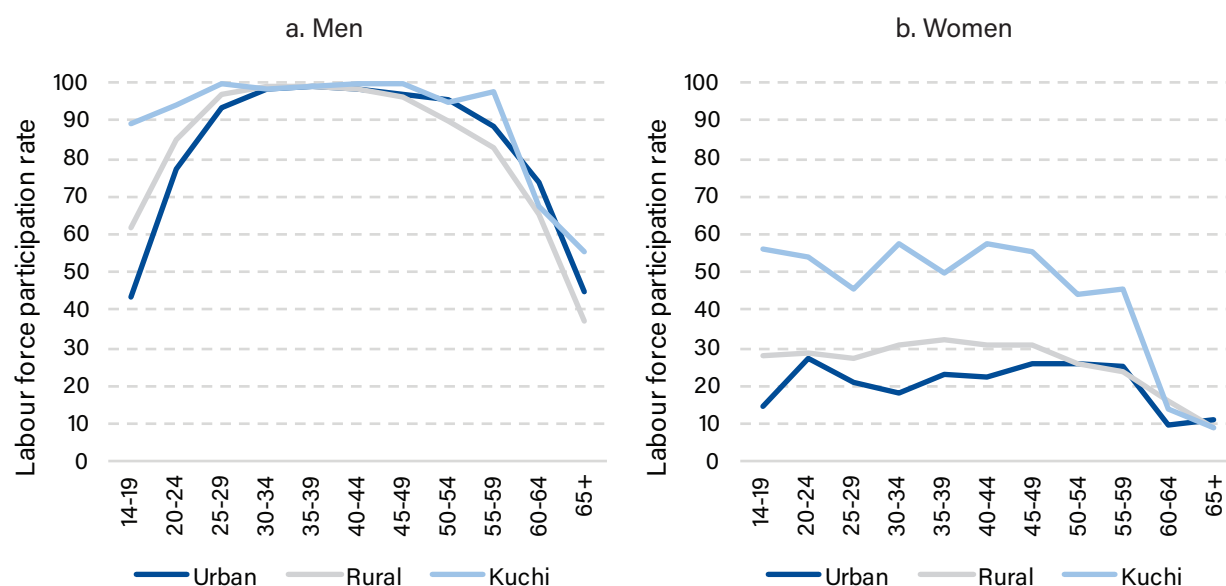


^a Numbers in parentheses denote the average labour force participation rate in each category

A more detailed breakdown of labour force participation by residence, sex and age (*Figure 4.4*) shows that for most age groups participation rates for urban, rural and Kuchi men on the one hand and for urban and rural women on the other are quite similar. However, Kuchi women deviate from their settled peers by having much higher rates throughout their life course, except at older ages. Otherwise, the main reason for the differentiation in participation rates by residence is the difference of economic activity by persons under age 20. In this young age group, the largest differences in participation rates are found and because this age group makes up a large part of the total working age population (24.0 percent), significantly influencing the overall picture. Poorer access to education for children and young adults (see chapter 8) among rural and especially Kuchi populations compared to urban residents, provides one key explanation for these differences in labour participation at younger ages. Stronger demand for child labour is another, as was shown by the analysis of child labour based on ALCS 2013-14 data (CSO 2016). The 2013-14 survey data indicated that of urban, rural and Kuchi children in the working age of 14-17, respectively 24.0, 54.7 and 77.3 percent were engaged in child labour or were otherwise working.³

³ According to the ILO definition of child labour.

Figure 4.4: Labour force participation rate of men and women, by five-year age group, and by residence



A logistic regression analysis is an elegant way to provide further explanation of the variation in the level of economic activity of persons with different characteristics and the interaction between these characteristics. A set of explanatory variables was selected to predict the likelihood for a person to be part of the labour force (either as employed or unemployed). This set of explanatory variables includes individual characteristics (sex, age, marital status, disability status, literacy and highest educational attainment) and characteristics of the household of the person (residence type, household size and highest educational attainment of the head of household). The results of the analysis are presented as the odds ratio of being economically active, compared to persons in the reference category of a specific explanatory variable. For further explanation of logistic regression and the interpretation of odds ratios, see *Text box 4.3*. The results of the logistic regression are presented in *Figure 4.5*.

The logistic regression confirms the differences in levels of economic activity between urban, rural and Kuchi residents. Controlling for the other variables, on average a rural resident of working age is 35 percent more likely to be economically active than an urban resident in the reference population. The likelihood of a Kuchi is even 3.4 times greater than an urban resident.

The household size also has a significant effect on the likelihood of people being economically active. The odds ratio of 0.97 for household size indicates that the likelihood of being in the labour force decreases with 3 percent for each additional household member. Although the incremental difference of 3 percent is small, given the generally large size of Afghan households – on average 7.7 members – the cumulative effect can be important. It illustrates that on average, large households have relatively fewer persons who are economically active and can provide for an adequate livelihood.

The educational attainment of the household head shows various statistical significance levels for different categories. Those households who are headed by persons with low educational qualifications (primary and lower secondary school) are somewhat more likely (8-9 percent) to be economically active compared to those with heads without any completed education. With increasing educational attainment of the household head, the likelihood of being economically active becomes much smaller. Persons with a household head who completed upper-secondary education are 24 percent less likely to be active on the labour market compared to those headed by persons without an education. For persons with college or university educated heads, this likelihood was 37 and 60 percent lower, respectively. It is likely that heads with a more advanced degree have better jobs and higher incomes, which reduces the need for other household members to find employment. In addition, children of higher educated people have a lower probability of being economically active, because in general they postpone entry into the labour market by prolonging their educational career themselves.

All individual-level variables in the regression model produce statistically significant results. By far the most discriminating factor in labour force participation is gender. Men in Afghanistan are more than 18 times more likely to be economically active than women, if the effects of other variables are controlled for. Although the bivariate relation between gender and economic activity already indicates a strong effect, apparently this is suppressed by confounding factors and the net influence of gender becomes even much stronger.

Text box 4.3: Logistic regression

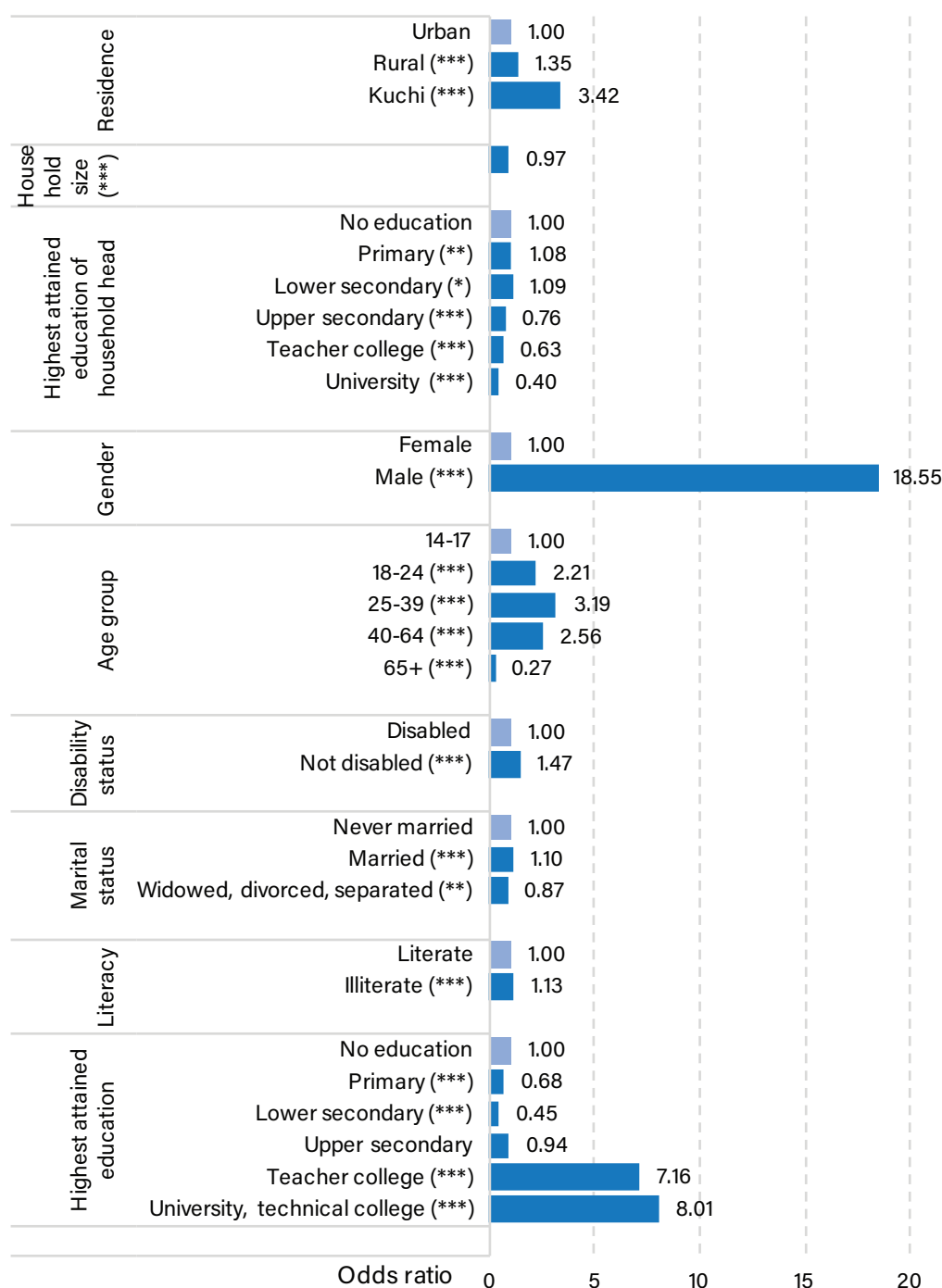
Logistic regression is a statistical procedure to estimate the probability of an outcome of the dependent variable, based on one or more explanatory variables (the independent variables). The main advantage of this analysis is that the estimated effect of each explanatory variable on the dependent variable controls for the effects of all other independent variables included in the model. In the logistic regressions presented in this report, the dependent variable is a binary (0-1) variable, meaning that there are only two outcomes possible, e.g. in the case of labour force participation '0' for not participating and '1' for participating.

The probability that for a specific value of an independent variable the dependent variable is 1, is expressed as an odds ratio, which is the relative effect of the specific value of the independent variable compared to the effect of a specified reference value of that independent variable. Thus, in the case of labour force participation as dependent variable and disability status as independent variable, an odds ratio of 1.47 for 'Not disabled' (Figure 4.5) means that compared to the selected reference category of disabled people, people who are not disabled are 1.47 times (or 47 percent) more likely to be in the labour force, independent of the effect of other variables included in the model. Whereas odds ratios larger than 1 indicate that a person is more likely to be in the labour force than persons in the reference category, odds ratios between 0 and 1 indicate a lower likelihood. For example, an odds ratio of 0.27 for persons aged 65 and over means that people from this category of older persons – while controlling for the effects of other variables in the model – have a probability of being in the labour force that is only 27 percent of the probability of young people aged 14-17, the reference category of the age variable. Since the reference group represents the default effect of an explanatory variable on the dependent variable, its effect value is, by definition, 1.00. In the figures presenting the odds ratios of logistic regressions, the reference groups are shaded light blue.

Most independent variables in the presented regression models in this report are variables that have distinct (discrete) categories or classes. However, a few independent variables are defined as 'continuous' variables, which can take a large number of unspecified values. For these variables (e.g. household size in Figure 4.5), there is no reference group and the presented odds ratio should be interpreted as the effect on the dependent variable that is generated by one unit increase of the continuous independent variable, while controlling for the effects of the other variables. Thus, the odds ratio of 0.97 for household size means that the likelihood of being in the labour force becomes 0.97 if a household would include one person more.

For each odds ratio presented in the graphs, the level of significance is provided. This indicates to what extent the estimated effect is statistically significant or, in other words, what is the likelihood that the result represents a value that is close to the actual effect or is the result of random sampling error. A significance level of 95 percent is generally considered to represent a result in which we can have sufficient confidence that it is close to the true value. A 99-percent confidence level suggests a very high likelihood that the value is near the true value, whereas with a level of 90 percent, we can be somewhat less sure.

Figure 4.5: Odds ratios of logistic regression on labour force participation of working-age persons



Significance level: (***) significant at 99%, (**) significant at 95%, (*) significant at 90%; R² = 0.3032

The net effect of age is in line with the age pattern of labour force participation presented in Figure 4.2. Compared to children under the age of 18, youth (aged 18 to 24) and older middle-aged adults (aged 40 to 64) are more than two times more likely to be economically active, while activity level peaks in the age group 25 to 39 (odds ratio 3.19) and drops to a low level beyond age 65 (odds ratio 0.27). As could be expected, disability is correlated with labour force disadvantage: people without a disability are 47 percent more likely to be active on the labour market than those with a disability.

Compared to sex and age, a person's marital status and literacy have a relatively small – but statistically significant – effect on labour force participation. Compared to people who had never married, those who did are 10 percent more

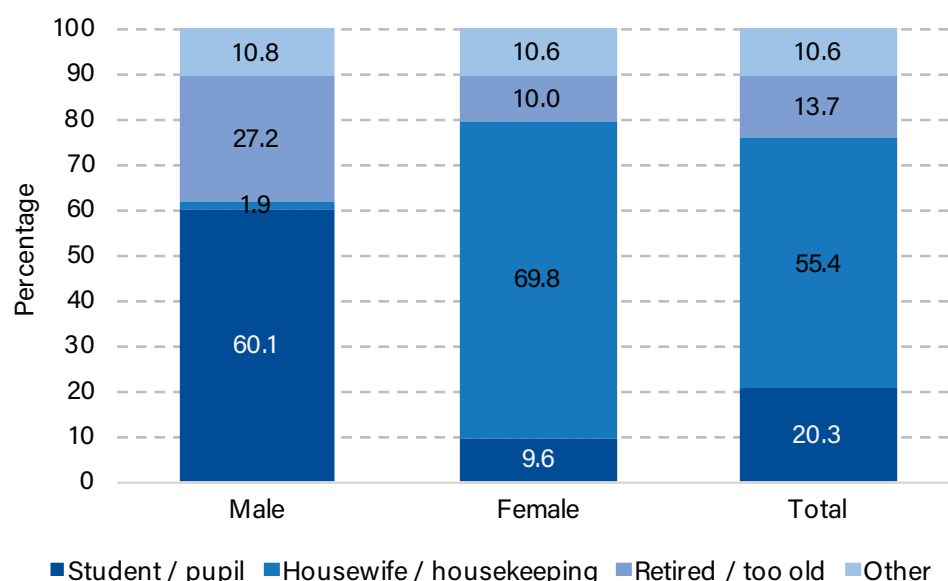
likely to be engaged in the labour market, while widowed, divorced and separated persons are 13 percent less likely to do so. The latter finding is somewhat remarkable, as it could be expected that people with dissolved marriages (the large majority being widowed women), may have lost an income earner and need to find work themselves.

The effect of education on economic activity, if controlling for other factors, is an interesting one. Compared to people without any completed level of education, those with low levels of educational attainment (primary and lower secondary school) have lower probabilities of being economically active (odds ratios 0.68 and 0.45, respectively). However, those with completed teacher college, university or technical college degrees are 7 to 8 times more likely to be active. This pattern implies that especially advanced levels of education create favourable conditions for labour force participation, including a match with labour demand, high income, formal employment arrangements and satisfying work. The finding that illiterate people are 13 percent more likely to be economically active than those who are illiterate may well be plausible, given the strong association between illiteracy and poverty (see chapter 6). Poor people usually cannot afford being unemployed and may always look for a job or accept work, even if it is unrewarding.

4.2.3 Reason for economic inactivity

As labour force participation is highly gender-specific, so are the reasons for not being part of the labour force. For more than two thirds (69.8 percent) of economically inactive women and girls, the main reason of being inactive is their responsibility of housewife and for housekeeping activities, whereas for men this reason is almost non-existent (see Figure 4.6). Inactive males mainly consist of young and old persons, given the very high labour force participation rates in adult ages (Figure 4.4 above). Consequently, the main reasons for economic inactivity for men and boys are being in education (60.1 percent) and being retired or too old (27.2 percent). For women and girls overall, education is only mentioned as a reason for 9.6 percent, and even for girls of school age 14 to 17, this percentage is only 39.1 percent (compared to 88.7 percent for boys of the same age; data not shown) and housekeeping and housewife responsibilities are almost as important (33.1 percent; data not shown).

Figure 4.6: Economically inactive population, by sex, and by reason for inactivity (in percentages)



4.3 Labour force characteristics

4.3.1 Labour force concepts

This section aims to disentangle Afghanistan's labour force into the constituent components of the employed, underemployed and unemployed as set out above in *Text box 4.4* and as first defined in the NRVA/ALCS report of 2011-12 (CSO 2014). These national definitions were developed to better comprehend the reality of the labour market of Afghanistan, which is characterised by low-paid, low-productivity employment and the absence of social safety nets, such as pensions and unemployment benefits. In such informal economies, open unemployment – according to international recommendations defined as being completely without work in the reference period, being currently available for work and seeking work – is usually not an option for the poor. Such full unemployment is often only an option for those who are financially viable themselves or have access to considerable family resources. Consequently, in such economies, it is frequently found that a relatively small part of the labour force is unemployed according to this international definition. More often people must – and actually do – accept any type of work to survive, however poorly paid and for however few hours. Therefore, the paradox is that countries with this type of economy often have relatively low unemployment according to the international definition, which then is not an indication of good labour-market performance, but, to the contrary, of poor performance.

In these economic conditions, the problem is not so much unemployment, but rather the wider lack of decent and productive work. Therefore, an indicator that bears 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. The underemployed are persons who need more or other employment to provide for sufficient and sustainable income or livelihood. In the ALCS, the concept of underemployment is defined in terms of time-related underemployment: persons who work less than 40 hours per week and who are willing to work additional hours and are available to do so, are considered underemployed. This chapter provides an analysis of the unemployed (section 4.4), but also focuses on this larger population of the not-gainfully employed (section 4.5.1) as a target group for employment policies. These sections are preceded by a presentation of the demographic composition of the labour force (section 4.3.2).

Tables 4.2 and 4.3 provide an overview of the distribution of the labour force categories of employed, underemployed and unemployed by residence and sex, and related labour force indicators, respectively.

Table 4.2: Labour force, by residence, sex, and by economic activity status (in thousands)

Residence, sex	Employed			Unemployed	Total labour force	Of whom not gainfully employed
	Fully employed	Underem- ployed	Total employed			
Total	5,132.7	1,320.9	6,453.6	2,024.8	8,478.4	3,345.7
Male	4,195.5	1,027.0	5,222.6	1,170.1	6,392.7	2,197.1
Female	937.2	293.9	1,231.1	854.7	2,085.8	1,148.6
Urban	1,270.6	171.7	1,442.3	520.6	1,962.9	692.4
Male	1,129.4	129.0	1,258.4	283.7	1,542.1	412.7
Female	141.2	42.7	183.9	236.9	420.9	279.6
Rural	3,524.3	1,028.9	4,553.3	1,439.8	5,993.1	2,468.8
Male	2,817.5	830.0	3,647.5	857.7	4,505.2	1,687.7
Female	706.9	198.9	905.8	582.2	1,488.0	781.1
Kuchi	337.8	120.3	458.0	64.3	522.4	184.6
Male	248.7	68.0	316.7	28.7	345.4	96.7
Female	89.1	52.2	141.3	35.6	177.0	87.9

The sum of individual cells may not add up to totals due to rounding

Table 4.3: Labour force indicators, by residence, sex

Residence, sex	Population-to employment ratio	Underemployment rate as percentage of the		Un-employment rate	Not gainfully employment rate
		employed	labour force		
Total	41.0	20.5	15.6	23.9	39.5
Male	65.8	19.7	16.1	18.3	34.4
Female	15.8	23.9	14.1	41.0	55.1
Urban	35.3	11.9	8.7	26.5	35.3
Male	61.9	10.3	8.4	18.4	26.8
Female	8.9	23.2	10.1	56.3	66.4
Rural	41.7	22.6	17.2	24.0	41.2
Male	66.0	22.8	18.4	19.0	37.5
Female	16.8	22.0	13.4	39.1	52.5
Kuchi	63.5	26.3	23.0	12.3	35.3
Male	85.4	21.5	19.7	8.3	28.0
Female	40.3	37.0	29.5	20.1	49.7

4.3.2 Labour force composition

Due to large differences in economic activity levels between men and women, Afghanistan's labour force has a very uneven gender composition, with 6.4 million men (75.4 percent) and 2.1 million women (24.6 percent). Because of the very young age structure of the population, the country has an extremely youthful labour force. Half of the economically active population (50.2 percent) is made up of young people between 14 and 29 years of age. Altogether, 6.0 million persons in the labour force (71.3 percent) are less than 40 years of age (*Table 4.4*).

Table 4.4: Labour force, by ten-year age group, and by sex (in thousands and in percentages)

Age	In thousands			In percentages		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Total	6,392.7	2,085.8	8,478.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
14-19	1,129.8	464.4	1,594.2	17.7	22.3	18.8
20-29	1,989.8	672.0	2,661.8	31.1	32.2	31.4
30-39	1,378.8	411.6	1,790.4	21.6	19.7	21.1
40-49	953.6	313.5	1,267.1	14.9	15.0	14.9
50-59	575.8	164.2	740.0	9.0	7.9	8.7
60-69	284.2	48.1	332.3	4.4	2.3	3.9
70-79	65.6	10.3	76.0	1.0	0.5	0.9
80+	14.9	1.7	16.6	0.2	0.1	0.2

The sum of individual cells may not add up to totals due to rounding

4.4 Unemployment

General unemployment

Nationally, 2.0 million people are classified as unemployed, defined as those who do not work and seek employment or who work less than eight hours per week. As a share of the total labour force, this amounts to 23.9 percent. The level of this unemployment rate signifies the inability of the Afghan economy to adequately absorb the available labour supply in the country, as almost one quarter remains unutilised. With 26.5 percent, the unemployment rate of the urban labour force is slightly higher than that of the rural counterpart (see Table 4.4 above). The level of unemployment among Kuchis is roughly half of the national average (12.3 percent), a difference that is largely explained by their lifestyle of nomadic herdsman.

Text box 4.4: SDG indicator 8.5.2 – Unemployment rate

The 'unemployment rate' is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of SDG 8: *Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*. ALCS 2016-17 recorded a national unemployment rate of 23.9, slightly above the observed figure of ALCS 2013-14 (22.6 percent).

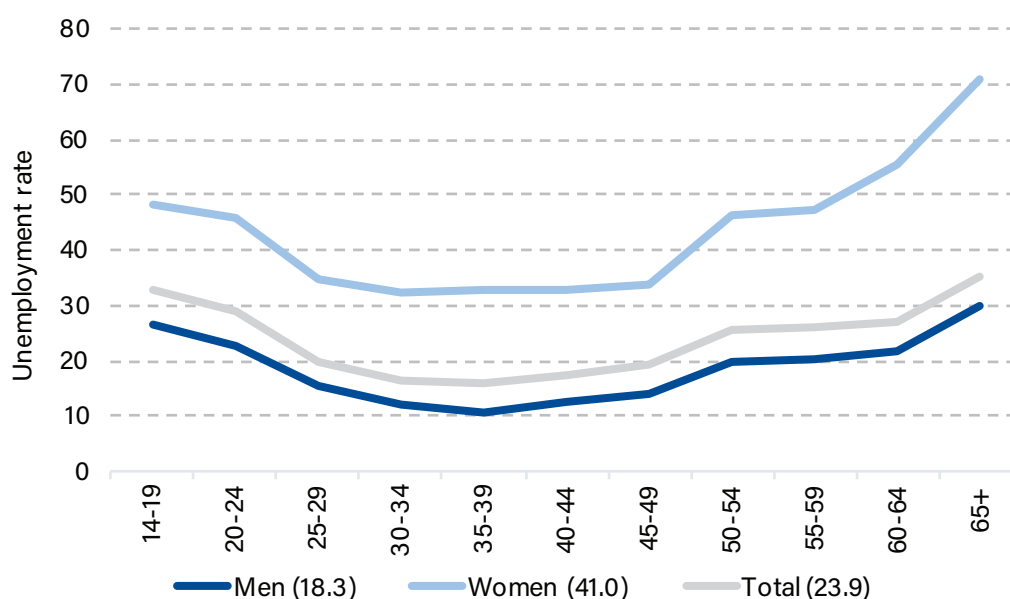
Afghanistan		23.9	
Urban	38.8	Male	24.5
Rural	30.1	Female	47.4
Kuchi	14.4	Disabled persons	37.7
		Non-disabled persons	23.3

It is remarkable that even though the number of women in the labour force is only one third of the number of men (2.1 and 6.4 million, respectively), the numbers of unemployed are of the same order of magnitude: 0.9 and 1.2 million, respectively. This translates into a female unemployment rate that is more than twice as high as that of men: 41.0 percent against 18.3 percent. An important factor in the higher female unemployment rate is that the share of working women who work less than eight hours – and who are therefore considered unemployed – is much higher than the corresponding share of men (18.4 percent against 2.4 percent). However, even when only considering people who do not work at all, the unemployment rate for women would be much higher than that for men: 28.6 and 16.4 percent, respectively.

The unemployment rate shows a U-shaped pattern for age, with very high levels of unemployment among persons under age 25 and over age 50, and with lower levels for the middle-aged population in between (*Figure 4.7*). The female unemployment rate is consistently higher than the male rate for all ages, with the parity index⁴ ranging from 1.8 to 3.1.

4 Calculated as the ratio between the female and male unemployment rates.

Figure 4.7: Unemployment rate, by 5-year age group, and by sex^a



^a Numbers in parentheses denote the average unemployment rate in each category.

Youth unemployment and NEET

The high unemployment rates for young people should be a cause for concern. Worldwide, youth unemployment has been placed increasingly higher on the development agenda due to the acknowledgement that young people are among the most vulnerable groups in the labour market. Unemployment at the start of one's career, particularly if for a sustained duration, can negatively impact future job prospects and the ability to embark on an independent and fulfilling life (ILO 2015). It also contributes to disillusionment and feelings of hopelessness and frustration, which is a main cause of civic unrest if it is widespread in society. Furthermore, literature suggests that youth unemployment and underemployment pose a threat to social, political and economic stability and stirs civil unrest and conflict within a nation (Azeng and Yogo 2013).

The youth unemployment⁵ was 30.7 percent in 2016-17, 39.1 percent for urban youth, 29.6 percent for rural youth and 13.3 percent for Kuchi youth. Especially the situation of young women is disturbing, given the overall female youth unemployment of 47.4 percent and the extremely high urban female youth unemployment rate of 63.7 percent. High as these figures are, they conceal the magnitude of the problem of youth unemployment in Afghanistan. Due to the young age composition of the labour force, the number of young unemployed people and their share in the overall unemployed population is disproportionately large. Unemployed, unutilised youth amount to 842 thousand persons, which is no less than 41.6 percent of the total unemployed population. Given Afghanistan's age distribution and assuming current labour force participation rates and unemployment rates, it can be expected that in the five years following ALCS 2016-17, 3.9 million young people will have reached working age over the next five years, of whom 1.6 million will enter the labour market and some 540 thousand will remain unemployed according to the present rates of labour force participation and unemployment (author's calculations).

An important group for policy attention is young people who are not engaged in employment nor in education and training (NEET), as these youths might fail to gain new skills and suffer from erosion of competences. Therefore, they are at a higher risk of labour market and social exclusion and are more likely to depend on others or on social

5 The youth unemployment rate is calculated as the unemployed persons aged 15-24 as a percentage of the labour force in the corresponding age group. The youth unemployment rate was one of the MDG indicators for the effectuation of decent work for youth (MDG 8: *Develop a global partnership for development*). It was also included in the list of ANDS indicators (17.a) (Government of Afghanistan 2008).

benefits in their further life. The share of youth not in employment, education or training (the NEET rate) provides a measure of youth who are outside the educational system, not in training and not in employment, and thus serves as a broader measure of potential youth labour market entrants than youth unemployment. It includes discouraged worker youth, as well as those who are outside the labour force due to disability and engagement in household chores, among other reasons. NEET is also a better measure of the current universe of potential youth labour market entrants as compared with the youth inactivity rate, as the latter includes those youth who are outside the labour force and are in education, and thus cannot be considered currently available for work.

The NEET is one of the indicators of SDG 8 (*Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*) and more specifically aims at monitoring Target 8.6: *By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training*. This indicator complements SDG indicator 4.3.1, the youth participation rate in education and training (see section 9.2.1). The difference between them is that the SDG 8 indicator also includes employment. *Text box 4.5* provides the overall NEET rate in the country (42.0 percent) and the rates for different sub-populations. The difference in the NEET rate between urban and rural youth is relatively small, but differences by sex and disability status are large. Contributing factors to the high female NEET share are women's low participation in education and training (section 9.2.5), high female unemployment (section 4.4) and especially very low female labour force participation (section 4.2.2). As a consequence, 80.1 percent (1.9 million people) of the NEET population (2.3 million people) consists of women. Of these NEET women, the large majority (83.6 percent) was economically inactive and thus not looking for a job. The opposite is the case for the much smaller male NEET population (468 thousand persons). Here, 77.0 percent is classified as unemployed – and thus looking for a job – and only 23.0 percent is inactive.

Text box 4.5: SDG indicator 8.6.1 – Share of youth not in education, employment or training

The share of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training is the indicator to monitor the achievement of Target 8.6 (8.6: *By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training*) of SDG 8: *Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*.

Afghanistan		42.0	
Urban	37.9	Male	16.6
Rural	44.1	Female	67.9
Kuchi	33.9	Disabled persons	56.6
		Non-disabled persons	41.7

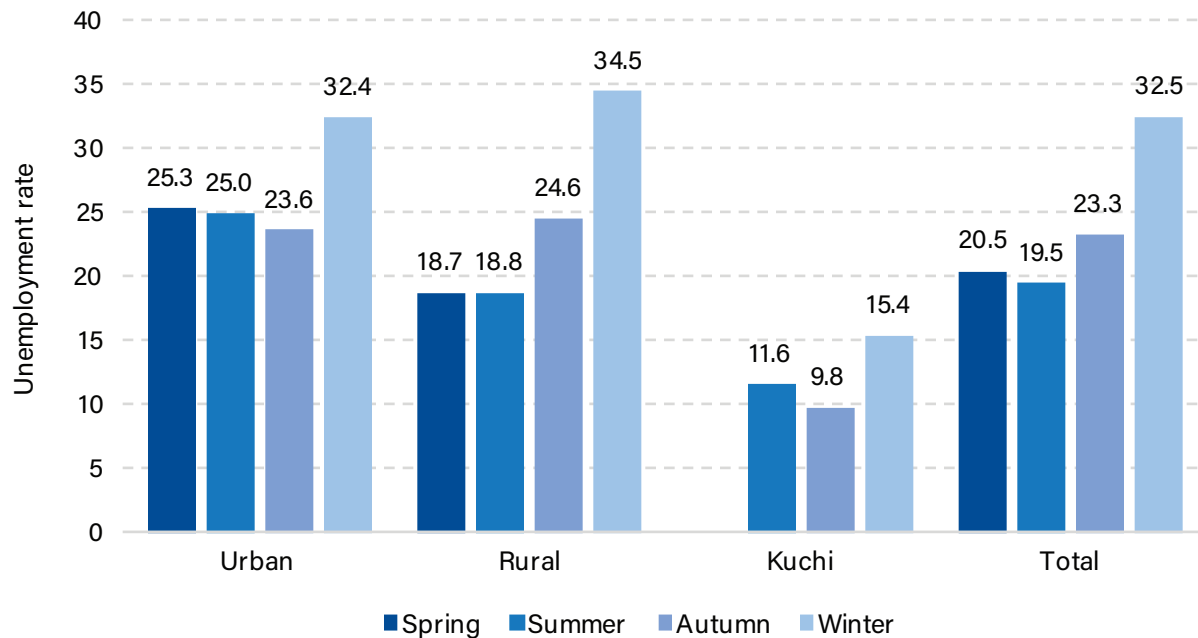
Unemployment differentials

The educational attainment and health status of persons are among the factors that most strongly influence unemployment levels. The unemployment rate of people with a disability is 37.7 percent, compared to 23.3 percent for those without a disability. The variation of unemployment rates by educational attainment is relatively small for men: between 17.1 percent for men with a university degree to 20.8 percent for those with completed upper secondary school. For women on the other hand, the variation is large, ranging from 30.3 percent for women with a teacher college degree to 56.8 percent for those with a completed lower secondary education.

Unemployment also strongly fluctuates by season. Whereas the unemployment rate is relatively low in the spring and summer (around 20 percent), the observed level in winter time is as high as 32.5 (*Figure 4.8*). As can be expected, the seasonal effect is particularly strong in rural areas, due to the agricultural cycle. However, the increase in unemployment in winter is also observed in urban areas. Possibly, there is also seasonality in some sectors of urban employment,⁶ but it is also likely that the increase is the result of spill-over of labour supply from rural areas.

6 This is, for instance the case in the construction sector, which has lower employment in winter time.

Figure 4.8: Unemployment rate, by residence, and by season



4.5 Employment

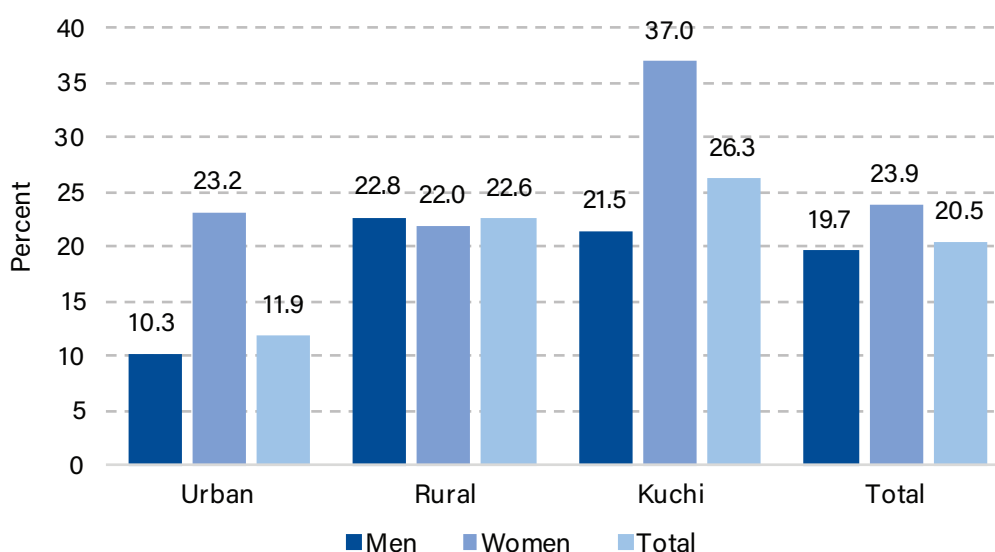
In Afghanistan, some 6.5 million people are employed, of whom the large majority – 5.0 million or 77.7 percent – reside in rural areas (including Kuchi). The gender distribution is heavily skewed towards men (see Table 4.2 above), who make up 80.9 percent of the employed population. An indicator that provides information on the ability of the economy to generate jobs is the employment-to-population ratio, the proportion of the working-age population that is employed. This indicator was also used in the methodology to monitor Target 1.B (*Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*) of the MDG agenda.

On a global and regional scale, and also compared to countries in the region (United Nations 2015), the employment-to-population ratio of 41.0 in Afghanistan is very low. The main factors of this low ratio are the exceptionally low female labour force participation (26.8 percent; see section 4.2) and the high female unemployment (41.0 percent; see section 4.3.3). The female employment-to-population ratio is no less than 50 percentage points below that of men.

4.5.1 Underemployment

Whereas the employment-to-population ratio is highly relevant for labour market policies by providing information about the share of the working-age population that is employed, it does not inform about the quality of jobs and the extent to which these generate sufficient income. One option to fill this information gap is measuring underemployment by identifying persons who work less than 40 hours and who are available and willing to work additional hours (time-related underemployment). As for unemployed people, these underemployed persons need adequate jobs to provide for sufficient and sustainable livelihood. Nationally, 20.5 percent of the working population – representing a total of 1.3 million people – are underemployed according to the criteria of time-related underemployment. Levels of underemployment across residence type and gender are generally close to this national average, except for Kuchi women (37.0 percent) and urban men (10.3 percent) (Figure 4.9). The larger supply of formal jobs in urban areas, providing more secure and relatively high incomes, is the main reason for the lower proportion of underemployed there. However, women tend to benefit less of these conditions, as the share of the underemployed in the urban female working population is 23.2 percent.

Figure 4.9: Percentage underemployed in the employed population, by residence, and by sex



4.5.2 Status in employment

Status in employment is another indicator of quality of employment. The International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93) identifies the following classification of status in employment: employers, own-account workers, employees, unpaid family workers and members of producers' cooperatives. In ALCS, employees are sub-divided into salaried workers in the public and private sector. Furthermore, day labourers are specified as a separate category of own-account workers.

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 be 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 2008).

Basically, status in employment measures 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. The ALCS distinguishes several categories of workers, largely in line with the 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.

Status in employment also helps distinguishing between vulnerable and decent work, which is why it has also been used in the Millennium Development framework for MDG 1 (*Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger*), specifically to monitor the achievement of Target 1.B: *Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people*. The MDG indicator that was applied is the proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment. In the ALCS methodology this proportion of vulnerable employment also includes day labourers.

Table 4.5 shows that only 19.8 percent of all employed persons are in what may be assumed to be 'decent' jobs in salaried public and private employment, and as employers. This means that the large majority of workers in Afghanistan fall within the category of vulnerable employment, standing at 80.2 percent. More than half (55.8 percent) of all employment is as day labourers or own-account workers, while 24.5 percent of all employment is as unpaid family workers. Here again, gender differences are stark: two-thirds (67.4 percent) of women work as unpaid family workers, whereas only one eighth (12.4 percent) of men do so. At the same time, male workers are ten times more likely to work as day labourers than female workers (19.5 percent against 1.9 percent). Likewise, 45.5 percent of men

operate as own-account workers, whereas the share of women engaged in such work is only 20.7 percent.

Since employers constitute only a very small group (2.6 percent), salaried workers – with 17.2 percent of the working population – are the only visible category in the labour market that can be considered to have more or less secure jobs. The occurrence of salaried work is mainly an urban phenomenon, with 37.5 percent against only 11.3 percent among the rural employed. Although urban workers make up less than one quarter (22.3 percent), almost half (48.6 percent) of the salaried work force lives in urban areas. It is notable that of the nonetheless small group of working women residing in urban areas, 41.2 percent is in salaried employment, compared to only 1.9 percent of rural women and only 36.8 percent of urban men.

Table 4.5: Employed population, by status in employment, and by residence, sex (in percentages)

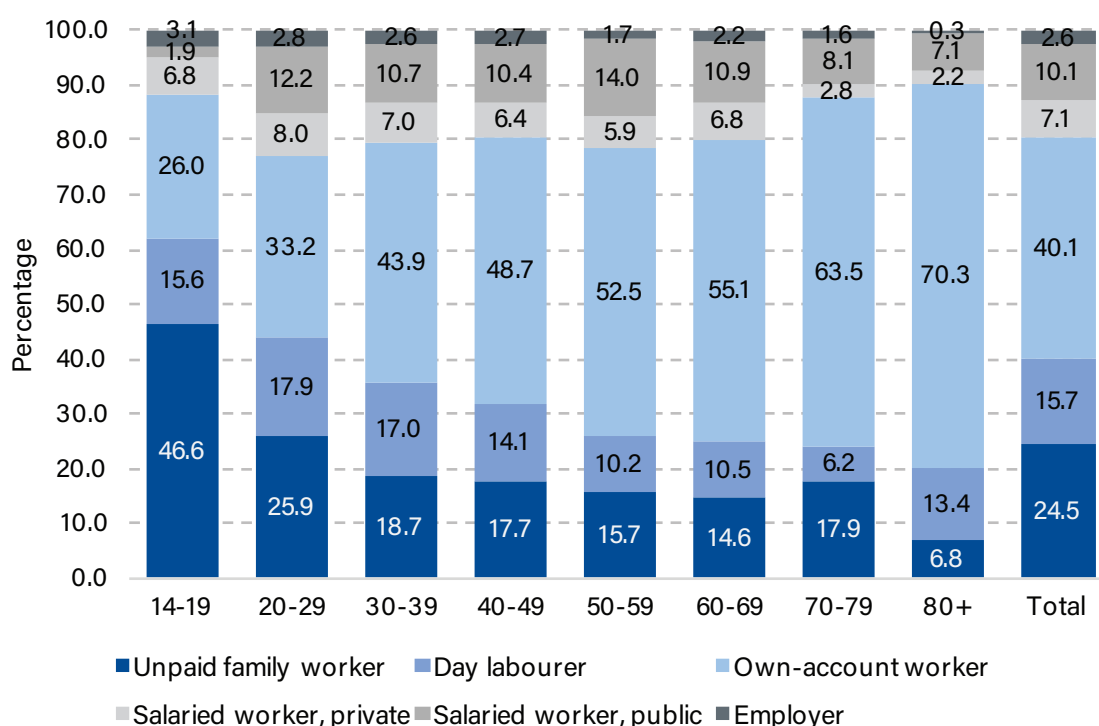
Status in employment	Urban			Rural ^a			Total		
	M	F	BS	M	F	BS	M	F	BS
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employer	1.8	0.7	1.6	3.0	2.6	2.9	2.7	2.3	2.6
Salaried worker, private	18.6	18.1	18.5	4.8	0.5	3.8	8.2	3.1	7.1
Salaried worker, public	18.2	23.1	19.0	9.5	1.4	7.5	11.6	4.7	10.1
Own-account worker	39.1	19.8	36.3	47.6	20.9	41.2	45.5	20.7	40.1
Day labourer	15.3	5.1	13.8	20.9	1.3	16.2	19.5	1.9	15.7
Unpaid family worker	7.0	33.2	10.8	14.2	73.4	28.4	12.4	67.4	24.5
Of which vulnerable employment	61.4	58.1	60.9	82.7	95.5	85.8	77.5	89.9	80.2

^a Rural includes Kuchi.

Overall, the percentage of women in vulnerable employment exceeds the male percentage by 12.4 percentage points, 89.9 against 77.5 percent. These figures imply a gender parity index for vulnerable employment of 1.16, indicating that women are 16 percent more likely to be in vulnerable employment than men. One labour-related indicator that was used to measure progress on achieving MDG 3 (*Promote gender equality and empower women*) was the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. This indicator measures the extent to which women have access to paid employment and their integration into the monetary economy. In ALCS 2016-17, this share amounted to a low 13.2 percent.

There is also a clear age pattern visible in the distribution of status in employment (*Figure 4.10*). Almost half (46.6 percent) of the youngest age group under the age of 20 work as unpaid family members, a share that declines for each successive age group. On the other hand, the share of persons working on their own account substantially increases for each successive age group. The less vulnerable job types of salaried workers and employers are best represented in the broad age group 20 to 69, even if the proportions never exceed 23 percent. On the basis of the cross-sectional survey data, it cannot be established to what extent these patterns signify a typical process through the employment career or whether they indicate individual background characteristics of persons of different age. However, it is very likely that persons in the youngest and in the older age groups do not have the educational qualifications for high-quality jobs; the youngest because they cannot have finished sufficient education yet, the older because in their youth few received education at all.

Figure 4.10: Employed population, by ten-year age group, and by status in employment (in percentages)



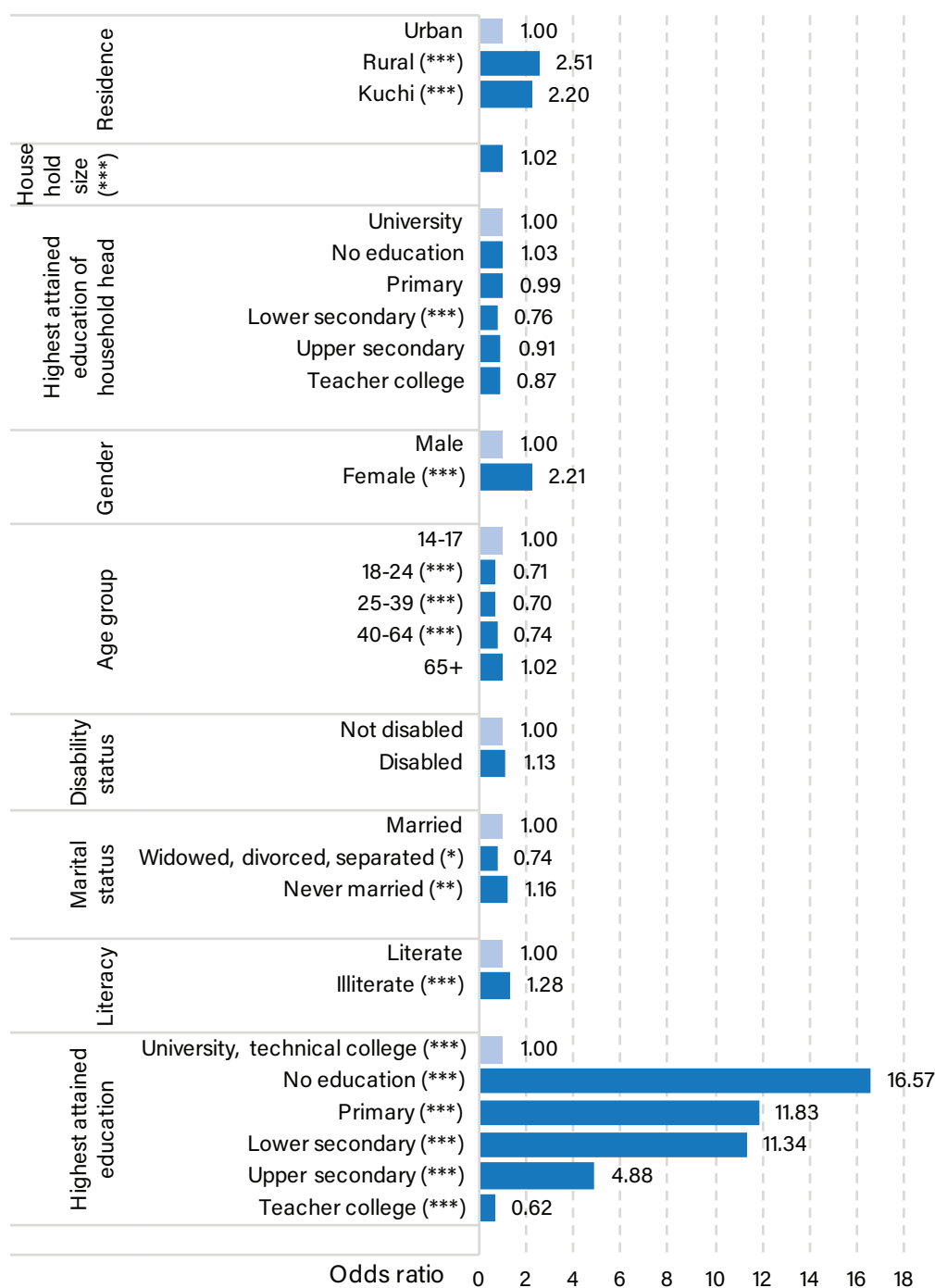
In order to disentangle the effects of various factors on the likelihood of working in vulnerable employment, another logistic regression was performed (*Figure 4.11*). The most noticeable result of this analysis is that education is by far the strongest differentiating factor.⁷ Compared to workers with a university degree and controlling for other factors included in the model, those with primary and lower-secondary education are 11 times more likely to have vulnerable jobs. For those fully uneducated, the likelihood for a vulnerable job is 17 times larger. Also, a worker with upper-secondary education still has an almost five times higher odds of being in vulnerable employment. However, employed persons with teacher education seem to be better positioned for quality employment, as the risk of vulnerable employment is 38 percent lower than university-educated workers. This may seem surprising, as according to the ISCED⁸ hierarchy, persons with completed teacher college degrees are lower classified in terms of educational qualifications than persons with a university degree. However, it is likely that many of these persons get a salaried job in the public sector, whereas university-educated persons may also find employment as professionals in own-account jobs, for which they become – unjustly – classified in the vulnerable employment category.

Other factors that strongly affect the probability of being in vulnerable employment are residence and gender: rural and Kuchi residents are more than two times more likely than urban dwellers, whilst women are more than twice as likely as men. In line with *Figure 4.11*, age categories from age 18 to 64, are less likely to be in vulnerable employment (odds ratios close to 0.7) than persons under age 18. The population aged 65 and over are about as likely to be in vulnerable employment as the reference group, but this result is not statistically significant. Three more factors have a moderate effect on the chance of being in vulnerable employment: household size, marital status and illiteracy. Disability and education of the head of household do not have statistical significant effects on employment.

7 For explanation of logistic regression and the interpretation of results, see the accompanying text to *Figure 4.5*.

8 International Standard Classification of Education

Figure 4.11: Odds ratios of logistic regression on being in vulnerable employment



Significance level: (***) significant at 99%, (**) significant at 95%, (*) significant at 90%; R² = 0.3032

In the SDG framework, another indicator for the quality of employment is included under SDG 8 (*Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*) and Target 8.3.⁹ In this indicator (8.3.1) – *the proportion of informal employment in the non-agriculture sectors* – quality of employment is phrased in terms of formal and informal characteristics of the job.¹⁰ Since ALCS 2016-17 did not yet probe for for-

9 Target 8.3: *Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.*

10 Informal employment comprises persons who were: (a) own-account workers and employers employed in their own infor-

mal employment conditions, the exact indicator cannot be produced. Instead, as a proxy indicator, the proportion of own-account workers, day labourers and unpaid family workers in the non-agriculture sector is used.¹¹ The results for this SDG proxy indicator on quality of employment shows that even in non-agriculture sectors, two-thirds of workers are working in low-quality, vulnerable jobs (*Text box 4.6*; see also section 4.6).

Text box 4.6: SDG indicator 8.5.1 – Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment

The indicator of the proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment measures the progress towards achieving Target 8.3 (*Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalisation and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services*) of SDG 8: *Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*.

Afghanistan 67.3

Male 66.7

Female 71.3

Note: The results are a proxy indicator, as informal employment in ALCS is defined as working as own-account workers, day labourers or unpaid family workers.

4.5.3 Economic sector of employment¹²

The economy of Afghanistan is dominated by the agricultural sector. Almost 45 percent of the employed population – representing 2.8 million people – is engaged in work in the farming or livestock sub-sectors (*Figure 4.12*). Employment within this economic sector is evenly distributed between the sub-sectors of farming (23.2 percent of total employment) and livestock production (21.2 percent). The service sector places second in terms of job numbers, with 19.7 percent (1.3 million persons). Main sub-sectors included in the service sector are security services (army and police; 4.0 percent of total employment), education services (4.0 percent) and other social services (5.2 percent).

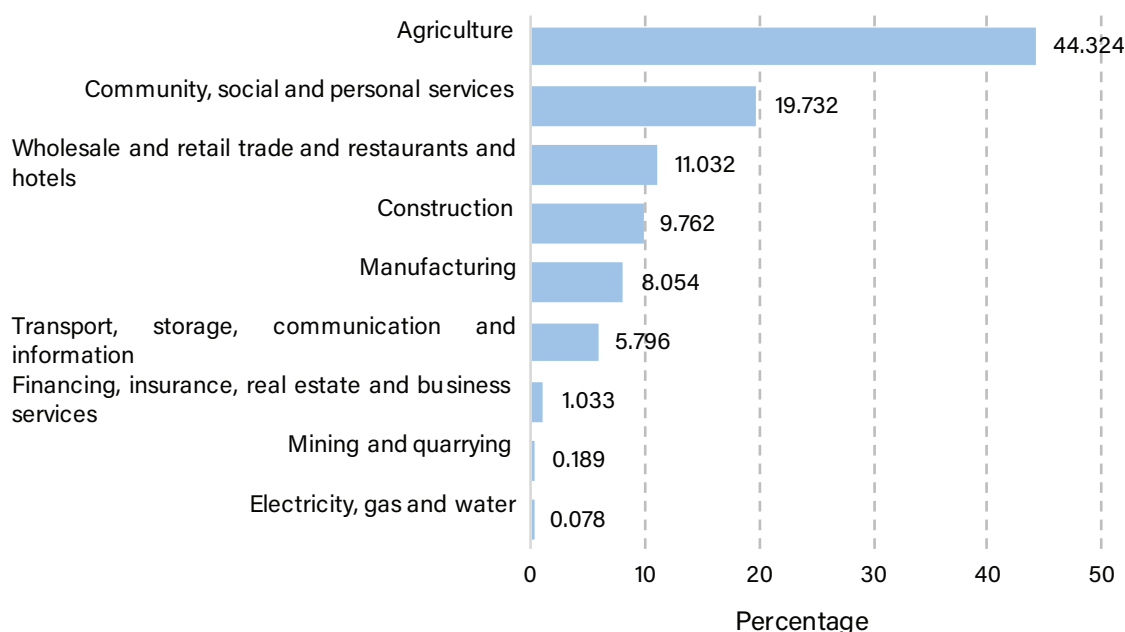
Four other economic sectors are distinguishable in the employment distribution, each covering roughly 6 to 11 percent of the work force: wholesale and retail trade and restaurants and hotels (mostly retail trade; 10.4 percent of total employment), construction (mostly construction of buildings; 9.2 percent), manufacturing (mostly manufacturing of clothes and textiles; 6.5 percent) and transport, storage, communication and information (almost exclusively land transport; 5.7 percent). The remaining main economic sectors are hardly visible in the employment statistics.

mal sector enterprises; (b) own-account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household; (c) contributing family workers, irrespective of whether they work in formal or informal sector enterprises; (d) employees holding informal jobs, whether employed by formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or as paid domestic workers by households.

11 This biases the results upward to the extent that own-account workers work in formal-sector enterprises and biases the results downward to the extent that employers and salaried employees work in informal-sector enterprises.

12 Based on the International Standard Industrial Classification ISIC Rev.2 (UNDESA 1986).

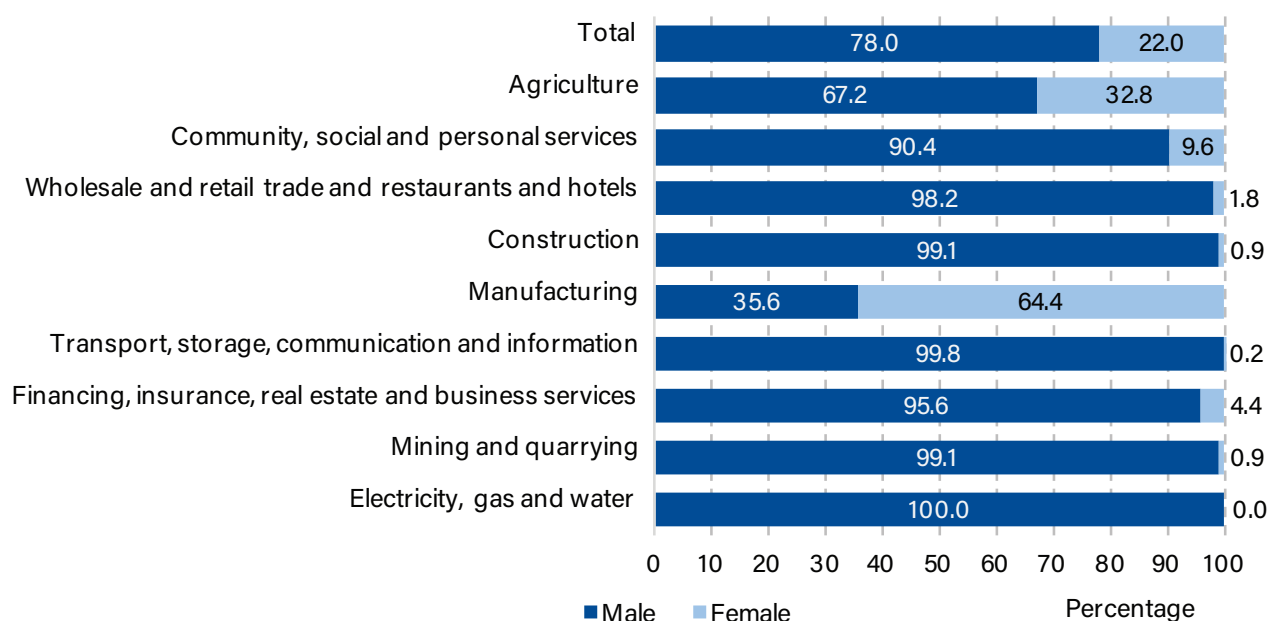
Figure 4.12: Employed population, by economic sector of work (in percentages)



Obviously, the distribution of employment across economic sectors strongly varies by residence. Agriculture is the sector of employment for more than half (52.6 percent) of the rural population and, due to their specific life style, for 80.1 percent of the Kuchi population. On the other hand, urban employment is more diversified, with only 5.5 percent of the working population engaged in agriculture, 12.9 percent in manufacturing, 23.5 percent in trade and restaurant businesses and 36.5 percent in various services.

Gender differences in the employment distribution by economic sector are striking. Whereas overall employment is concentrated in a few sectors, it is evident that employment for women is virtually restricted to only three main sectors of the economy: agriculture, manufacturing and services. *Figure 4.13* presents the gender distribution for each main economic sector. In agriculture, one third (32.8 percent) of workers is female. This agriculture sector is made up of the sub-sectors of farming activities and livestock production. For these sub-sectors, the gender distribution is very different. The percentage women working in farming activities is only 9.5 percent, but it is as high as 58.6 percent in livestock production. This clearly indicates the differentiation of gender roles in agricultural production in Afghanistan. In the service sector, women are relatively well represented in the health and education services, with 16.1 and 24.0 percent women, respectively. Manufacturing is the only main economic sector with a female majority (64.4 percent). This is specifically the case for manufacturing of clothes and textiles – where women make up even 78.7 percent of the workers – and even more so for the lower sub-sector of textile manufacturing (mostly carpet weaving), where women take 90.8 percent of the jobs.

Figure 4.13: Sectors of economic activity, by sex (in percentages)



SDG 9 aims to 'build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation' and more specifically, promotes inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and raising the industry's share of employment and gross domestic product (Target 9.2). The industry sector – comprising the economic sectors of mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction and public utilities (electricity, gas and water) – is for most countries the engine of the economy given its contribution to the national product and job creation. The share of industry in employment reveals a country's position in the transition process from a traditional – agriculture-based – economy to a modern and more diversified economy. SDG indicator 9.2.2 measures employment in the industry sector as a proportion of total employment to monitor the progress in the achievement of SDG Target 9.2. Overall, the indicator shows that 18.1 percent of workers is engaged in industrial activities. It is interesting to note that in this respect, the position of women favourably compares with that of men, mainly because of the strong female presence in clothes and textile manufacturing. The indicator for women is 24.0, while that for men is 16.4.

Text box 4.7: SDG indicator 9.2.2 – Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment

The proportion of employment in mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction and public utilities as percentage of total employment is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of SDG 9: *Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation*.

Afghanistan 18.1

Male 16.4

Female 24.0

A target identified to achieve SDG 8 of promoting economic growth and full and productive employment is the encouragement of tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products (Target 8.9). The economic sub-sectors that are identified as tourist industries include hotels, restaurants mobile food service activities, road passenger transport, and cultural and recreational activities. Although it is technically possible to produce the SDG indicator of the proportion of jobs in these industries in total employment, it is questionable whether for Afghanistan the result indeed covers tourism activities, as most of the activities captured are not related to tourism or recreation. Nationally, the indicator shows that 6.7 percent of jobs are in the sub-sectors that are identified as tourism industries (Text box 4.8).

Text box 4.8: SDG indicator 8.9.2 – Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs (in percentages)

This indicator measures the progress towards achieving Target 8.9 (*By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products*) of SDG 8: *Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*.

Afghanistan 6.7

Male 8.5

Female 0.3

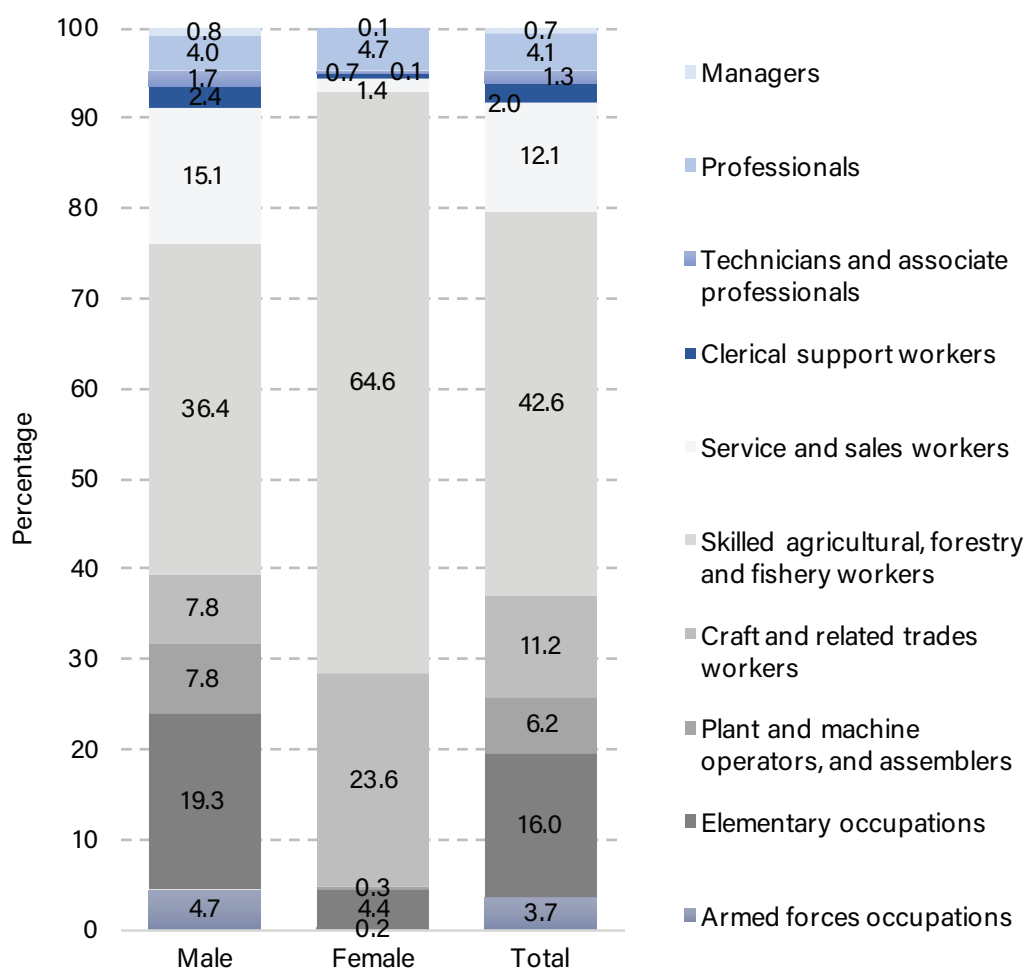
Note: The results are a proxy indicator, as the ISIC Rev.2 categories used in ALCS do not exactly match the ISIC-Rev.4 categories that are used in the definition of SDG indicator 8.9.2. For the ALCS sub-sectors included in the tourist industry, see Annex X - Concepts and definitions.

4.5.4 Occupation¹³

In terms of occupational distribution, the share of agricultural workers mirrors the dominance of the agriculture sector. Some 42.6 percent of employment is in the agricultural sector (*Figure 4.14*). These are again evenly distributed between farmers and crop growers (22.0 percent) and animal producers and keepers (20.6 percent). Among women, the large majority are either agricultural workers (64.6 percent; mostly animal producers) or craft and related trades workers (23.6 percent; mostly handicraft, garment and clothes workers). The share of agricultural occupations is obviously smaller in urban areas (5.0 percent) and larger in the rural and Kuchi communities (53.2 for both combined). Except for agricultural and elementary occupations (16.0 percent), no major occupation exceeds 9 percent in the rural areas. This is very different for urban areas, where service- and sales workers are the largest occupational groups with 25.8 percent (twice as high as the national figure), followed by craft and related trades workers (19.3 percent), elementary occupations (also 16.0 percent) and plant- and machine- operators, and assemblers (10.2 percent). *Figure 4.14* also indicates that low-skilled jobs dominate employment in Afghanistan, with large shares of elementary occupations, plant- and machine- assemblers and operators, craft and related trades workers, and agriculture workers. High-skilled jobs (technicians and associate professionals, professionals and managers) amount to only a very small percentage (6.1) of the occupations in Afghanistan.

13 Based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08).

Figure 4.14: Employed population, by sex, and by major occupation group (in percentages)



The proportion of women in managerial positions is used in the SDG framework as an indicator for SDG 5: *Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls*. The indicator provides information on the proportion of women who are employed in decision-making and management roles in government, large enterprises and institutions, thus providing some insight into women's power in decision making in the economy. The value for Afghanistan according to ALCS 2016-17 is a low 4.3 percent (*Text box 4.9*).

Text box 4.9: SDG indicator 5.5.2 – Proportion of women in managerial positions (in percentages)

The proportion of women in managerial positions is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of SDG Target 5.5: *Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life*.

Afghanistan	4.3
Urban	4.4
Rural	3.8
Kuchi	-

4.5.5 Hours of work

The hours that people work is a good indicator of underemployment in many ways. As mentioned above, underemployment involves working less than the standard 40 hours a week but being available and willing to work longer hours. However, working excessive hours can indicate a different kind of underemployment associated with low levels of marginal productivity of labour, which force individuals to put in very long hours to earn enough just to survive.

Hours of work per week

The overall average work week of 37.8 working hours conceals large differences by residence and sex. Urban workers tend to work significantly longer hours per week (46.3) than rural and Kuchi workers (around 35.5) (*Table 4.6*). Half of the urban work force even works 48 hours or more. The differences by sex are even more pronounced, as generally both the mean and median weekly working hours of women is only half that of men. Women are usually burdened with many other household and family responsibilities that limit their availability for economically productive work, in addition to cultural barriers that reduce employment opportunities for women. Because of this lack of opportunities to undertake more paid work, women's capacity to earn income is very low and results in a greater dependence on other members of the household for sustenance.

Table 4.6: Mean and median weekly working hours of employed population, by residence, and by sex

Residence	a. Mean			b. Median		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	42.5	21.2	37.8	42	18	36
Urban	50.0	24.9	46.3	48	21	48
Rural	39.9	20.3	35.4	42	15	35
Kuchi	42.3	22.1	35.6	42	21	30

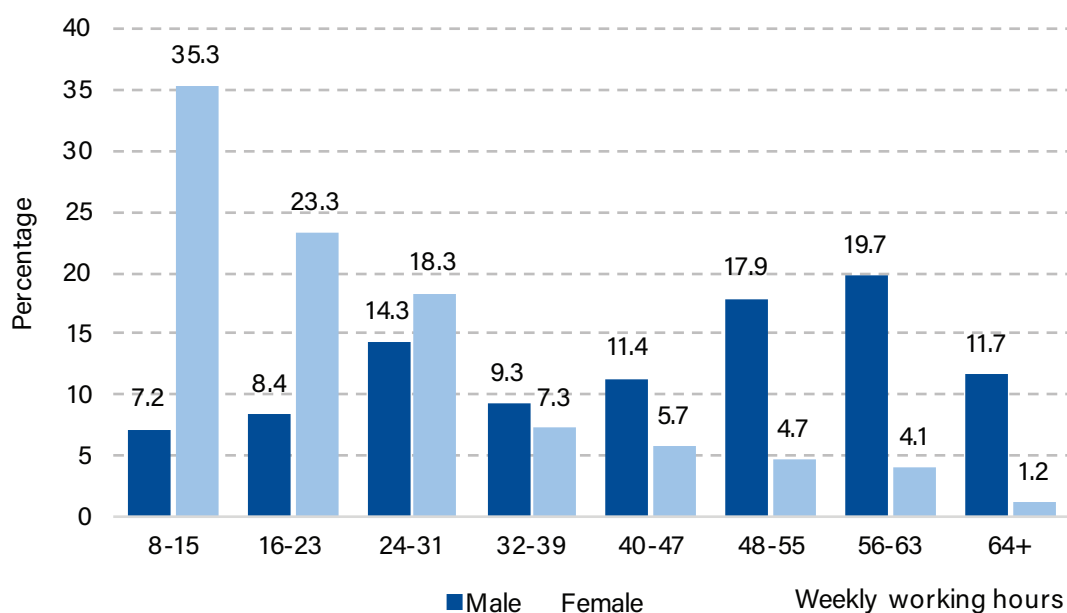
There is also variation in seasonal working hours. Overall, the average number of hours worked is highest in summer (38.9 hours) and lowest in winter (35.8 hours; data not shown). Differences in rural working hours are even more pronounced: 37.5 hours in summer and 32.0 hours in winter.

Figure 4.15 shows remarkable gender differences in the distribution patterns of working hours. The proportion of employed women tapers off as the hours of work increase. More than half (58.6 percent) of employed women work less than 24 hours and only 15.8 percent work 40 or more hours.¹⁴ For men, this distribution is exactly the opposite, with 15.7 percent working less than 24 hours and 60.7 percent working 40 hours or more.¹⁵ The male hour distribution is also remarkable in the sense that it shows a two-peaked distribution concentrated in the 24-31-hour range and in the 48-63-hour range. This distribution suggests that those who do not work full-time, tend to work 24 to 31 hours or around four days per week. This group of workers includes people who choose working only part-time, farmers in specific seasons of low agricultural activity, day labourers and own-account workers who cannot find more employment, many of who are part of the underemployed. Also notable is that 11.7 percent of employed men make very long working weeks of 64 hours or more.

¹⁴ The figure of 15.8 percent mentioned in the text does not correspond to the sum of the relevant categories in *Figure 4.15* due to rounding.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

Figure 4.15: Employed population, by category of weekly working hours, and by sex (in percentages)



As could be expected, the proportion of working men that indicate that they are willing to work more hours and are also available to do so shows a steady decline with increasing hours worked, from 59.8 percent among those working less than 16 hours to 28.6 percent for those working 48 hours or more. These large proportions, and particularly also the observation that more than one in four men who work long hours per week mention a need for more work, show how widespread inadequate employment is in Afghanistan.

The share of working women who indicate that they are willing to work more hours and are also available to do so does not show an inverse relation with working hours. For every category of working hours – except for the category working 64 hours or more – this proportion fluctuates around 30 percent.

4.6 Decent work

As stipulated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, “everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment”¹⁶ The recurrent issues of quality of work and availability of sufficient work in almost any section of this chapter on the Afghanistan labour market shows that fulfilling this right for all Afghan people is a remote objective. This section brings together the different relevant results to provide a more consolidated view on these issues and identify the main labour market challenges in the country.

As in many other countries with underdeveloped and informal economies, the incidence of unemployment in Afghanistan represents only a small part of the employment problems. The issue of those who are employed, but who cannot find sufficient work or work that is sufficiently productive or paid is much more prominent. Consequently, next to the unemployed population in need of jobs, an even larger share of the labour market is in need of decent jobs in order to escape poverty.

Being employed in Afghanistan – even if fully employed and if not in vulnerable employment – is by no means a guarantee for escaping poverty. Figure 4.16 shows the proportions of categories of, respectively, the working-age population and the employed population that live in households with consumption levels below the poverty line (see chapter 6). The most remarkable result of the figure is the absence of any major discrimination in poverty between

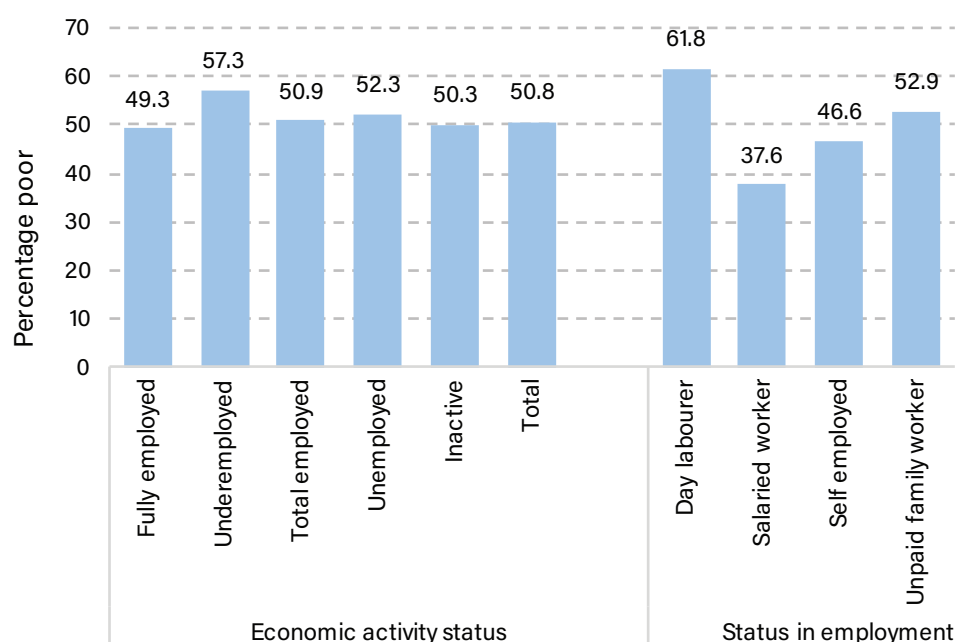
16 United Nations (n.d.). Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Retrieved from http://www.ohchr.org/EN/UDHR/Documents/UDHR_Translations/eng.pdf

people in different economic activity status groups. Except for the proportion poor among the underemployed (57.3 percent), the proportions poor among all other economic activity status groups – including the unemployed – are so close that the differences are statistically insignificant. This indicates that when having an employed person in the household – even if he or she is in full employment – the reward of the job is insufficient to adequately sustain the household.

Figure 4.16 shows larger differences in the proportions poor across categories of status in employment. Day labourers have by far the highest likelihood of living in poor households (61.8 percent), but even among salaried workers the job remuneration is very often (37.6 percent) insufficient to satisfy the basic needs of the household.

Whereas the poor quality of jobs (in terms of payment and productivity) is one key explanation of poverty among the working population (standing at 50.9 percent¹⁷), large family size is another. Income from work often needs to be shared with so many people that the per-capita income in the household drops below the poverty line, even if the worker's remuneration itself is of a decent level.

Figure 4.16: Percentage poor in the working age population, by economic activity status; percentage poor in the employed population, by status in employment



It is possible to classify persons who entered the labour market according to categories that characterise the transition to 'decent work.' According to the ILO, decent work entails "work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men."¹⁸ Although ALCS does not capture all elements to measure decent work, the survey contains sufficient information to produce a general classification of decent work status.

Figure 4.17 distinguishes six categories of decent work status within the Afghanistan labour force.

- The fully unemployed: all persons aged 14 and over who, during the reference period of one week, were (a) without any work and (b) seeking work, or who worked less than 8 hours (see section 4.4).
- The 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 (see section 4.5.1).
- Fully-employed workers in vulnerable employment, measured according to status in employment and inclu-

¹⁷ See chapter 6.

¹⁸ <http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.html>

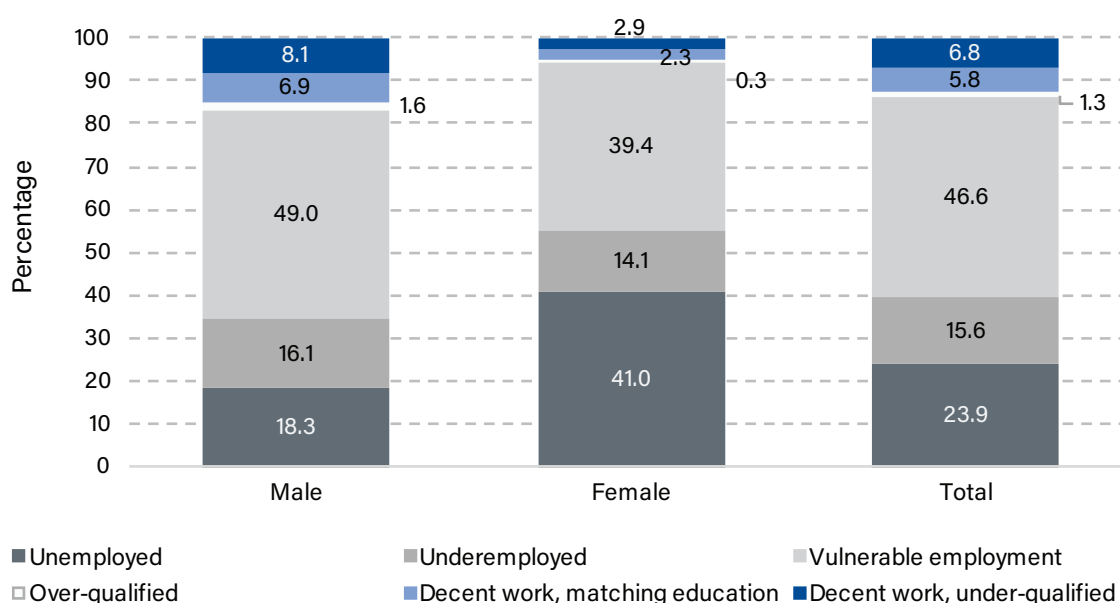
- ding day labourers, own account workers without employees and unpaid family workers (see section 4.5.2).
- Fully-employed workers in non-vulnerable employment (salaried workers and employers) who work in jobs below their educational qualification (over-qualified workers). Whereas underemployment is a measure of an insufficient quantity of work, over-qualified employment is a measure of an insufficient quality of work.
- Fully-employed workers in non-vulnerable employment (salaried workers and employers) whose jobs match their educational qualification.
- Fully-employed workers in non-vulnerable employment whose jobs exceed their educational qualification (under-qualified workers).

Only the last two categories (shaded blue in Figure 4.17) of workers have made the transition to what can be considered decent work; the first four categories (shaded grey) represent persons without work or with inadequate work. As can be seen, the large majority of the Afghan labour force – 87.4 percent – has not been able to secure a decent job. This would imply that labour policies should not be limited to create employment for the 23.9 percent unemployed in the labour force, but to create gainful employment for both the unemployed and underemployed. Together these represent 39.5 percent of the labour force, indicating a shortage of the labour market of some 3.3 million jobs. In addition, more secure employment and jobs matching educational qualifications are required for the remaining persons in the labour force with vulnerable jobs (46.6 percent) and for those who are over-qualified (1.3 percent), representing around 4.1 million workers.

It should be noted that the proportion of women that made the transition to decent work is even smaller than that of men: 5.2 against 15.0 percent of the female and male labour force, respectively. It is also noticeable that of the few workers with decent jobs, more than half (6.8 percent of the total labour force) perform jobs for which they do not have sufficient educational qualifications. This implies that in many better-quality jobs – including many salaried jobs in the private and public sector – workers are not sufficiently equipped to perform their tasks and therefore their output may be below-standard.

The share of the urban labour force that has decent work is much higher than that of the rural labour force: 22.9 and 9.5 percent, respectively (data not shown). Among the persons with decent work in the urban areas, the share of those with a match between job- and education levels is also larger than those who are under-qualified, with 12.8 and 10.1 percent of the total urban labour force.

Figure 4.17: Labour force, by sex, and by decent work status (in percentages)



4.7 Labour market trends

Most labour market indicators that are presented in this chapter show little or no change compared to the situation covered by the ALCS 2013-14.¹⁹ Stagnating labour market development in combination with increased poverty (chapter 6) may point at escape mechanisms, such as emigration and temporary labour migration to neighbouring countries. More in-depth analysis of recent labour market dynamics and their relation to population dynamics and other development indicators will be required to understand the evolving situation.

The labour force participation rate of 53.9 percent in the current ALCS (see section 4.2) is below the 55.4 percent observed in 2013-14. The difference is very close to being statistically significant,²⁰ but not quite. Therefore, there is just too little confidence for the conclusion that activity on the labour market has declined. A breakdown by residence categories shows that there is sufficient evidence for a statistically significant decline in labour force participation in rural areas (from 57.1 to 54.9 percent) and an almost significant decline in female participation rates (from 29.0 to 26.8 percent).

The change in the overall employment-to-population ratio (see section 4.5) is statistically significant, but again relatively small. In 2013-14, 42.9 percent of the working-age population was employed, compared to 41.0 percent in 2016-17. This suggests a – slightly – deteriorating labour market situation. The reduction in the ratio is evident for women (18.3 to 15.8 percent) and for rural areas (44.2 to 41.7 percent), but not significant for men and for urban areas.

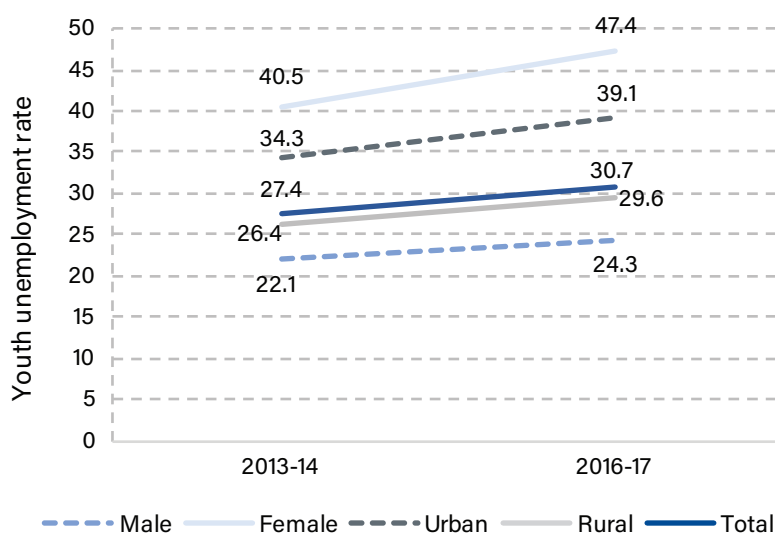
Changes in underemployment indicators – the underemployment rate as a percentage of the labour force and as a percentage of the employed population (see section 4.5.1) – are small and not statistically significant. This is the case for the overall underemployment rates, as well as for the residential and gender sub-categories. The same applies to the proportion of workers in vulnerable employment (section 4.5.2), for which no significant change is observed (79.9 percent in 2013-14 and 80.2 percent in 2016-17). These survey results indicate persistently high levels of insecure, unrewarding and unproductive employment in the country.

The overall unemployment rate (see section 4.4) shows an increase from 22.6 to 23.9 percent between ALCS 2013-14 and 2016-17. However, this difference is within the 95 percent confidence limits and, therefore, the results provide insufficient evidence for an increase in unemployment. The exception is, again, female unemployment, which shows a statistically significant increase from 36.8 to 41.0 percent. In addition, there is sufficient confidence to conclude that youth unemployment has increased. Statistically significant changes were found for overall youth unemployment (from 27.4 percent in 2013-14 to 30.7 percent in 2016-17) and for female and rural youth unemployment (from 40.5 to 47.4 percent and from 26.4 to 29.6 percent, respectively) (*Figure 4.18*). For male and urban youth increased rates were observed as well, but these were not statistically significant.

19 Due to changes in survey methodology, it is not meaningful to compare results of ALCS 2013-14 and 2016-17 with those of NRVA 2007-08 and 2011-12.

20 At the 95 percent confidence level.

Figure 4.18: Youth unemployment rate, by sex and residence, and by survey year^a



^a Solid lines indicate statistically significant change; broken lines indicate no statistically significant change.

Labour market indicators for 2016-17 show no or relatively small overall changes compared to 2013-14, although there is a clear decrease in the proportion of employed persons. However, looking at specific sub-populations, there are groups that evidently lose ground on the labour market. This particularly applies to the rural population and women, for whom deterioration is observed in terms of labour force participation, the proportion working and unemployment. Youth is another group that face increasingly worse chances of finding jobs, and again particularly so for young women and young rural residents. Given the large birth cohorts that will enter the labour market in the coming years, reduction of youth unemployment will be an enormous challenge.

4.8 Account ownership

Over the past decade, financial inclusion has risen as a global priority. Extending affordable, effective, and client-centric financial services, especially to low-income populations and small businesses, creates countless opportunities, allowing individuals to put food on the table, afford better health care, start a business or save for retirement. Access to formal financial services such as savings, insurance, payments, credit and remittances is essential to the ability of people – regardless of income level, gender, age, education or where they live – to manage their lives, build their futures and grow their businesses. For these reasons, the ‘proportion of adult persons aged 15 years and older with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider’ has been included in the list of SDG indicators for Goal 8: *Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*.

ALCS 2016-17 found that among persons aged 15 and over, only 5.4 percent had an account at a bank or another financial institution by him/herself or together with someone else. Large differences are observed by gender and residence. Whereas for 9.5 percent of adult men an account for a bank or financial institution was reported, this was only 1.1 percent for women. For urban, rural and Kuchi populations, the figures were, 9.9, 4.0 and 0.1 percent, respectively.²¹

²¹ The figures reported by the ALCS are significantly lower than those in the World Bank’s Global Findex 2014 database, which suggests an overall percentage of 10.0 percent and 9.2 percent for the rural population (World Bank 2015). The Global Findex 2014 database reports an overall percentage of 46.4 percent with an account for the South Asia region (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka).

Text box 4.10: SDG indicator 8.10.2 – Account ownership

The 'proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider' is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of SDG 8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all. The proportions are presented in percentages.

Afghanistan		5.4	
Urban	9.9	Male	9.5
Rural	4.0	Female	1.1
Kuchi	0.1	Disabled persons	4.7
		Non-disabled persons	5.4

Thanks to the spread of mobile phones, mobile money is playing a crucial role in extending financial services to the underserved. Of all adult persons aged 15 years and older with an account at a bank or other financial institution, 5.0 percent used a mobile phone to pay bills or to send or receive money.

5 FARMING AND LIVESTOCK

Summary. The ALCS 2016-17 confirms that agriculture – encompassing farming and animal husbandry – makes up the backbone of Afghanistan's economy. Agriculture provides a source of income for 44 percent of households, and for 28 percent it is the most important income source in the household. Similarly, it is the sector of employment for 45 percent of the working population. Close to 38 percent of all households in Afghanistan – over 1.4 million households – own any irrigated farm land, while around one in five households – 730 thousand – own the much less productive rain-fed land. Mechanisms of leasing, renting, sharecropping and mortgaging land have the effect of a net transfer of access to farm land from land-owning households to households that cultivate the land. These mechanisms result in slightly larger farm areas being managed by farming households. However, poor soil, farming costs and particularly the lack of water force households to leave fallow much available farm land. Despite the relatively good farming conditions in the period covered by ALCS 2016-17, 21 percent of irrigated land and 36 percent of rain-fed land could not be cultivated. Climate change is likely to further reduce the water supplies available for farming.

A disquieting underlying trend is the decreasing land size of households engaged in irrigation farming. Every successive NRVA/ALCS survey reported smaller average plot sizes – from 6.7 jeribs in NRVA 2007-08 (1.3 ha.), to 4.9 jeribs (1.0 ha.) in ALCS 2016-17 – and larger proportions of small land holdings. The limited availability of arable land in combination with very high population growth inevitably results in increasing pressure on farm land and fragmentation of land holdings and is a likely contributor to the observed increasing poverty in the country.

The large majority of households cultivating irrigated land – 78 percent, corresponding to around one million households – grew wheat on their land in the spring harvesting season. Maize or sorghum, fodder crops and potatoes were the next most frequently grown crops on irrigated land. The concentration on wheat production is even stronger on rain-fed land, as 92 percent of the households involved grow this crop. However, the total volume produced is only one third of the volume produced on irrigated land, even though the total area of rain-fed land is almost 20 percent larger than that of irrigated land. Households owning a garden plot – 13 percent of all households – are usually able to grow high-value and high-nutrition crops. Grapes and apples are the crops grown most often.

Farming households spent on average 13 thousand Afghanis on farming costs, especially on fertiliser, seeds and machinery. Together, farming households spent 21 billion Afghanis (around 365 million USD) on farming inputs. Analysis of fertiliser requirements and use showed a large unmet need for farmers in Afghanistan. Irrigated-land farmers fell short by 36 percent of fertiliser requirements and farmers cultivating rain-fed land reported a deficit of even 61 percent.

Livestock is an important asset of Afghan households, either for own household consumption or for market sale of animals and animal products. ALCS 2016-17 data suggest that the number of cattle (3.4 million) has increased since the previous ALCS, but is still below the volume reported in the 2002-03 livestock census. On the other hand, the number of sheep (21.8 million) did not change since the previous survey, but is 2.5 times larger than at the time of the livestock census. Levels of full vaccination of livestock are low, running from around one quarter for sheep and goats, around one sixth for camels, cattle, oxen and yaks and to very low levels around 7 percent for horses and poultry. Around 34 percent of households with livestock obtained medicines for livestock or sought veterinary help or information, 85 percent of whom referred to private veterinary services. Apart from voluntary reasons, the most important reasons for not using veterinary support were the lack of knowledge of where or how to obtain the services, distance, costs and particularly reluctance to offer services by the provider.

5.1 Introduction

Agriculture – covering both farming and livestock-related activities – is the backbone of Afghanistan's economy. For 44.2 percent of households, agriculture provides any source of income and for 28.0 percent it is even the most important source. Similarly, with almost 45 percent of the employed engaged in agriculture, it is the main sector for employment (see section 5.5.3 of this report). CSO estimates that the sector contributed 23 percent to the country's GDP in the solar year 1395 (2016-17) (CSO 2017). However, the capacity of the agriculture sector is restricted by droughts, a partially destroyed infrastructure and shrinking grazing land.

With a varied geography and topography, out of 652 thousand square kilometres of total land area in Afghanistan, 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 2014).

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 on farming 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

Close to 38 percent of all households in Afghanistan – over 1.4 million – own any irrigated farm land. The majority of these land owners (63.9 percent; 24.2 percent of all households) have a farm size of less than 4 jeribs (0.8 ha.)¹ (Table 5.1, panel a). On average, households owning irrigated farm land own 4.9 jeribs (1.0 ha.) of land and the median land size – the middle point of land areas reported by households – indicates that half of the households own 2.5 jeribs (0.5 ha.) or less and half of them own 2.5 jeribs or more.

1 One jerib is 0.2 hectare (2,000 m²)

Table 5.1: Households (a) owning irrigated land and (b) having access to irrigated land, by ownership of / access to irrigated land, land size (in percentages); mean and median irrigated land (in jeribs)

a. Ownership		b. Access	
Total	100.0	Total	100.0
No ownership	62.1	No access	58.6
Any ownership	37.9	Any access	41.4
Less than 2.0 jeribs	12.7	Less than 2.0 jeribs	11.9
2.0-3.9 jeribs	11.5	2.0-3.9 jeribs	12.7
4.0-5.9 jeribs	5.5	4.0-5.9 jeribs	6.6
6.0-9.9 jeribs	3.6	6.0-9.9 jeribs	4.7
10.0-19.9 jeribs	3.2	10.0-19.9 jeribs	3.9
20 jeribs or more	1.4	20 jeribs or more	1.5
Mean land size	4.9	Mean land size	5.1
Median land size	2.5	Median land size	3.0

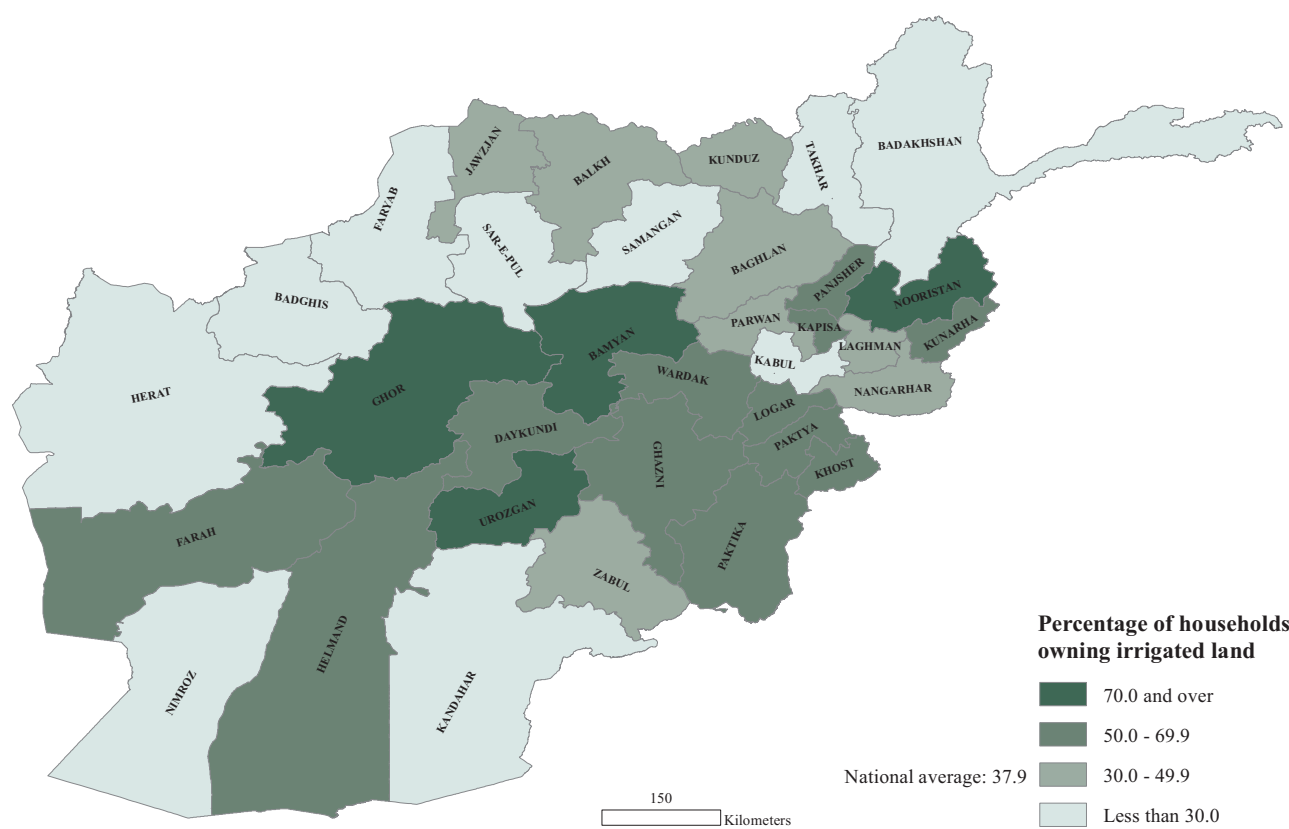
Besides owning land, households can also access (additional) land for cultivation by renting- or leasing-in, sharecropping-in or mortgaging-in. Vice versa, land owners can provide access to land to other households by renting- or leasing-out, sharecropping-out or mortgaging-out. Some land owners transfer access of all their land to others for land cultivation. Around 6 percent of households reported that they had access to (additional) irrigated land without ownership of that land, by renting- or leasing-in, sharecropping-in, mortgaging-in or accessing land from others without compensation. For 3.5 percent (some 130 thousand households) this was the only way of accessing irrigated land, the other 2.5 percent also owned land by themselves. On the other hand, 9.1 percent of households that owned irrigated land themselves provided access for cultivating to their land or part of their land to other households. Most of the land (around three quarters) that was cultivated by a household that did not own land itself was transferred in an arrangement of sharecropping between the owner and cultivator, while another sizeable part (between one quarter and one fifth) was rented and a negligible proportion was mortgaged.

Transfer of access to land is a mechanism that provides more households with farming livelihoods, as the proportion of households that have access to any irrigated land (41.4 percent; Table 5.1, panel b) is somewhat higher than the proportion owning any irrigated land (37.9 percent; panel a). Transfer of access to land also affects the size of land managed by farming households, increasing the mean and median area of irrigated land to 5.1 and 3.0 jeribs, respectively.

The transfer of irrigated land for cultivation occurred particularly from landowners living in urban areas – usually detached from their land – to rural households. Almost two thirds (64.3 percent) of the land owned by urban households is transferred to other households for cultivation. Rural land-owning households transferred 24.9 percent of irrigated land to others.

The percentage of irrigated land ownership by province is given in *Figure 5.1*. The figure shows on average higher proportions of households owning irrigated land in the range that runs east-west through the country, and in river-drained Helmand province. Kabul is an exception, because of the highly urbanised residence and relatively few households remaining with landholdings.

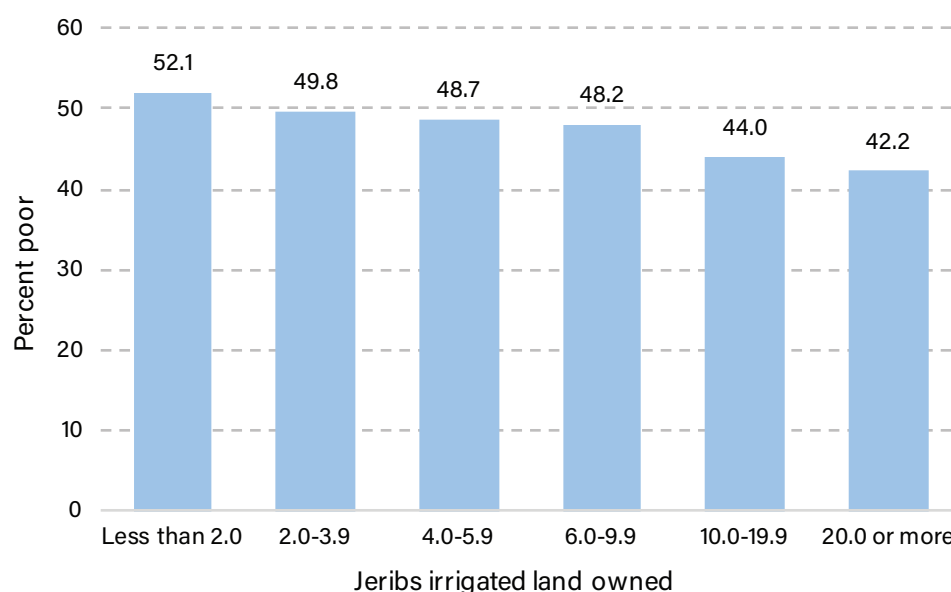
Figure 5.1: Percentage of households owning irrigated farm land, by province



Observations from successive NRVA and ALCS surveys show that the proportion of land owners with small land-holdings – below four jeribs – has continuously increased from 54.0 percent in 2007-08 to the current 63.9 percent. This trend towards smaller land holdings is also reflected in the mean size of owned irrigated land, which decreased from 6.7 jeribs (1.3 ha.) in NRVA 2007-08, to 4.9 jeribs (1.0 ha.) in ALCS 2016-17. The change in the median land size suggests that now half of the households with irrigated land own 2.5 jeribs or less, whereas in NRVA 2007-08 the lower half of land-owning households owned up to 3.0 jeribs. These trends are clear indications that the fast population growth in Afghanistan results in increasing pressure on and fragmentation of the limited area of irrigable farm land in the country.

The fragmentation of land holdings is most likely one of the factors contributing to the increased levels of poverty and food insecurity in the country (see chapters 6 and 7, respectively). *Figure 5.2* shows a clear connection between the size of owned irrigated land and poverty. Although larger land size is no guarantee for escaping poverty, the smaller the size of land owned by households, the higher is the proportion that falls below the poverty line. This proportion increases from 42.2 percent among households owning 20 or more jeribs of irrigated land, to 52.1 percent among households owning less than two jeribs.

Figure 5.2: Percentage of households owning irrigated farm land that are poor, by size of irrigated land owned



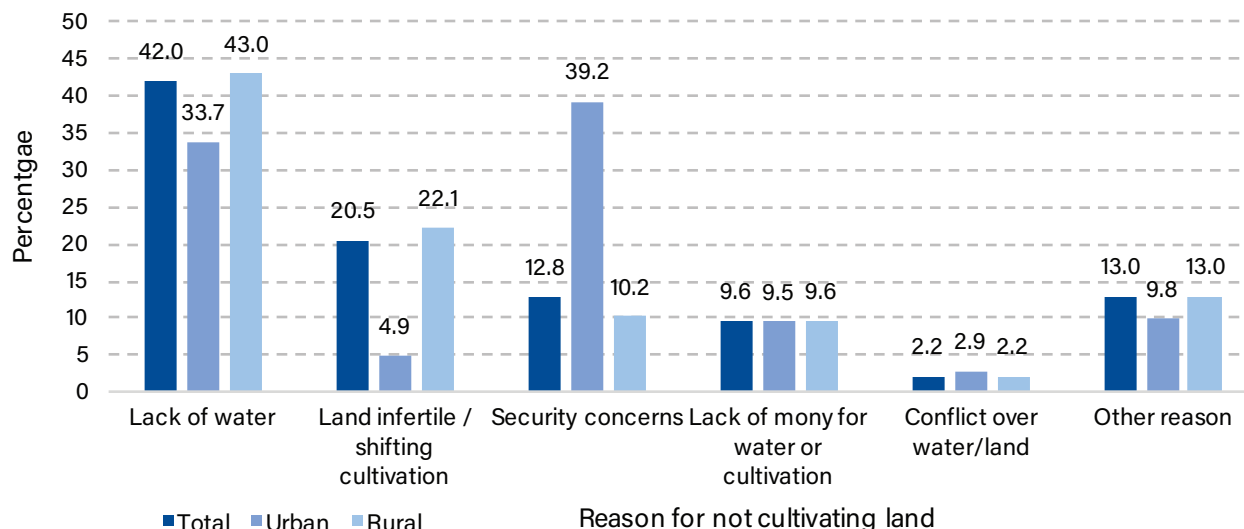
Irrigated land cultivated and not-cultivated

Based on information provided by households, the total land area available for irrigated cultivation is around 141 thousand km², with Balkh, Helmand, Ghazni and Farah accounting for almost one-third of this total area. However, a large part of this area – 21 percent – was not cultivated, particularly in the Balkh, Jawzjan, and Farah and Ghazni provinces. Close to 10 percent of households that cultivated irrigated land indicated to have cultivated a smaller area than in the previous harvesting spring, while nearly 9 percent mentioned to have cultivated more land. The majority of households (82 percent) cultivated about the same area.

The infertility of land and particularly the lack of irrigation water are the main reasons for not cultivating available land (Figure 5.3). Together they account for 62.5 percent of the reasons mentioned why households leave – part of – their land fallow. These two reasons are related to the physical conditions of farming and indicate the fragility of this livelihood in Afghanistan. A remarkable difference between rural and urban is reported for insecurity as a reason for not cultivating land. Whereas security concerns account for a sizable 10.2 percent of reasons among rural households, with 39.2 percent, it is even the most important reason for urban households. It is likely that the latter category includes many land-owning households who have moved to towns and cities for security reasons and who were unable to have other people working the land for them. Financial constraints are a fourth main reason for leaving the land fallow. This applies to 9.6 percent of households who own irrigated land, a figure that covers insufficient funds for obtaining irrigation water and for other cultivation costs.

Provinces that were particularly affected by lack of water included Jawzjan, Balkh, Daykundi, Khost and Wardak. Irrespective of whether households mentioned the lack of water as the main reason for leaving land fallow, a large share (40.7 percent) indicated that irrigation water was insufficient.

Figure 5.3: Households owning land for irrigation that was left fallow, by reason for not cultivating the land, and by residence (in percentages)



The problem of irrigation water supply was least severe for land that depended on water from rivers, canals and dammed water basins. However, for no less than 33.5 percent of households depending on these types water supply the lack of water was the reason for not cultivating land. Other sources of water supply – irrigated deep-well pump, spring, kariz², nawara³, snow melt among others – were even less reliable, posing water supply problems for 45.8 percent of households using spring water to 78.9 percent of households depending on nawara water.

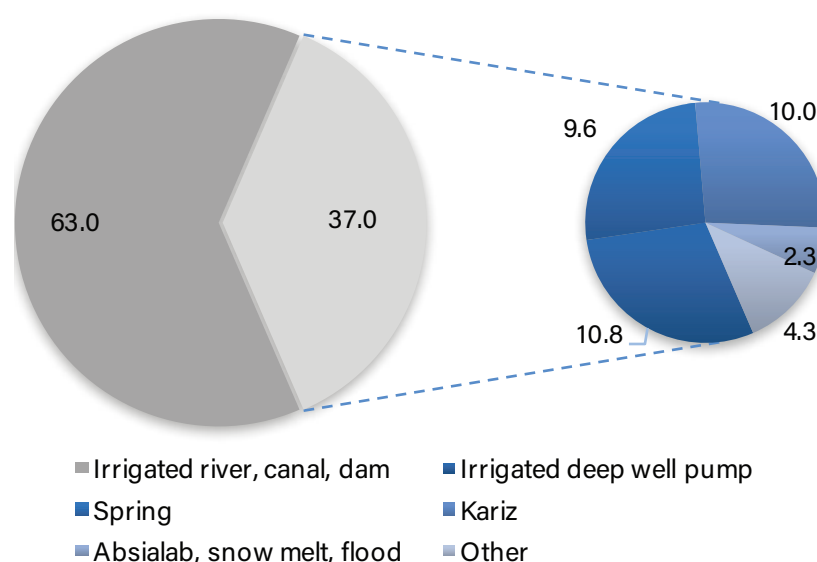
Irrespective of the source of irrigation water, farmers in Afghanistan are bound to face increasing shortages of water supply. Snow and glaciers in the Hindu Kush mountains are important sources of water for the largest part of Afghanistan, including the Amu Darya, Helmand and Kabul river basins. Reportedly, the glaciers in the region have considerably shrunk or even completely disappeared.

Overall, water from rivers, canals and dammed water basins is by far the most important source of irrigation water, with 63.0 of all households with irrigated land using this as the main source (*Figure 5.4*). However, there are large differences across the country. For instance, irrigated deep-well pump is the most important source of irrigation water in Kabul, Paktika, Kandahar and Farah (ranging from 42 to 87 percent of all sources) and springs are particularly important in Wardak, Ghazni, Nooristan and Ghor (between 24 and 36 percent of all sources). Kariz systems often provide irrigation water in Wardak, Ghazni, Paktika, Paktya, Zabul and Herat (between 23 and 46 percent of all sources) and nawara water supply occurs frequently in Bamyan and Daykundi (22 and 38 percent, respectively).

² A kariz is an irrigation system that is made up of a horizontal series of vertically dug wells that are linked by underground water canals to provide water, mostly for farm land.

³ Nawara refers to a water flow in a stream originating from a lake.

Figure 5.4: Households cultivating irrigated land, by main source of irrigation water (in percentages)



Crop production from irrigated land

More than three quarters of households cultivating irrigated land – 77.6 percent, corresponding to 930 thousand households – grew wheat on their land. For 69.0 percent wheat was also the most important crop produced. Other major food crops were maize and sorghum – produced by 23.5 percent of households cultivating irrigated land, particularly for the winter harvest season – and potatoes – produced by 17.7 percent.

Non-food crops are also important products of many irrigated-land farmers. Some 19.2 percent of households cultivating irrigated land produced fodder crops (including alfalfa and clover), partly to feed own livestock, partly to sell to others. One out of every 20 households (5.2 percent) reported to cultivate opium. Most probably this is a gross underestimation, but it is telling that of all crops that were mentioned as the most important crop, opium takes a fourth place, after wheat, potatoes and fodder crops.

Half of the households cultivating irrigated land (49.6 percent) also grew a second crop, and for these the most common second crops were fodder crops and wheat (19.2 and 15.8 percent, respectively), followed by potatoes and maize/sorghum (each 13.7 percent). A substantial minority of 26.1 percent of cultivating households also grew a third crop. For 29.2 percent of these, fodder was the main third crop, followed by potatoes (15.6 percent) and onions (10.7 percent).

The estimated irrigated-land farm production of Afghan households is presented in *Table 5.2*. According to the households reporting in the ALCS 2016-17, 1.3 million tonnes of wheat were harvested in the spring and winter harvesting season combined (but mostly in spring). Maize/sorghum and rice are the second and third crops produced, with 281 and 138 thousand tonnes respectively, most of which are harvested in the winter season. Total cereal production – wheat, maize/sorghum, barley, rice and millet – amounted to 1.8 million tonnes. Potatoes, onions and melons are the other main food crops produced, and fodder crops is another main non-food farm produce.

Table 5.2: Crop production from irrigated land, by crop type, and by harvesting season (in thousand tonnes)

Crop	Spring	Winter	Total
Total cereals	1,470	323	1,793
Wheat	1,304	12	1,316
Maize, sorghum	70	211	281
Rice	46	92	138
Barley	49	3	52
Millet	1	5	6
Potatoes	277	-	277
Onions	150	9	159
Melon/watermelon	204	6	210
Tomatoes	43	61	104
Beans	11	9	20
Okra	6	7	13
Other vegetables	51	-	51
Other fruits and nuts	14	6	20
Fodder	307	1	308
Cotton	13	1	14

5.2.2 Rain-fed land

Rain-fed land tenure

Farming households in Afghanistan use rain-fed land less often than irrigated land. Around one in five households (around 730 thousand) owns any land of this type (*Table 5.3*). In view of the generally marginal productivity of rain-fed land, the proportion of households that own small land areas of less than 6 jeribs (1.2 ha.) is only 7.5 percent (38.6 percent of households owning rain-fed land) and 11.9 percent owns 6 jeribs or more. The average rain-fed landholding is even 12.1 jeribs (2.4 ha.) and the median size is 8.0 jeribs (1.6 ha.). Compared to ALCS 2013-14, the proportion of households owning rain-fed land has increased by 3 percentage points, but the average land holding has dropped from 13.2 jeribs (2.6 ha.) in 2013-14 and 16.4 jeribs in 2011-12. Here too, it is likely that population pressure is a contributing factor to the decrease of average size of rain-fed land.

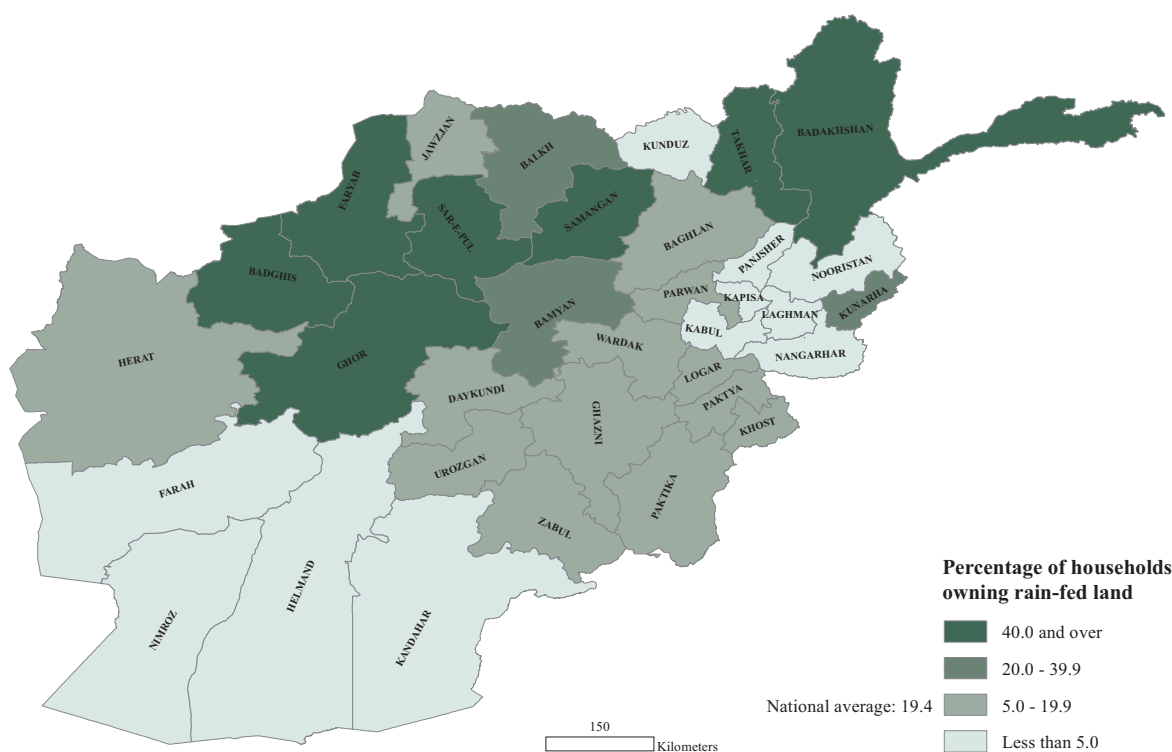
As with irrigated land, there is some difference between land ownership and actual access to rain-fed land, but the effect is smaller than for irrigated land. Leasing, sharecropping and mortgaging of rain-fed land results in a small net transfer of land from landowners to land users, as well as in a small increase of cultivation areas (from 12.1 to 12.4 jeribs, on average).

Figure 5.5 shows the percentage of households owning rain-fed farm land by province. Rain-fed farming is mostly limited to the broad northern belt of Afghanistan, while in the southern provinces very few households own this type of land.

Table 5.3: Households (a) owning rain-fed land and (b) having access to rain-fed land, by ownership of / access to rain-fed land, land size (in percentages); mean and median rain-fed land size (in jeribs)

a. Ownership		b. Access	
Total	100.0	Total	100.0
No ownership	80.7	No access	79.5
Any ownership	19.3	Any access	20.5
Less than 2.0 jeribs	1.6	Less than 2.0 jeribs	1.7
2.0-3.9 jeribs	2.8	2.0-3.9 jeribs	2.9
4.0-5.9 jeribs	3.1	4.0-5.9 jeribs	3.0
6.0-9.9 jeribs	3.8	6.0-9.9 jeribs	4.2
10.0-19.9 jeribs	4.8	10.0-19.9 jeribs	5.2
20 jeribs or more	3.2	20 jeribs or more	3.6
Mean land size	12.1	Mean land size	12.4
Median land size	8.0	Median land size	8.0

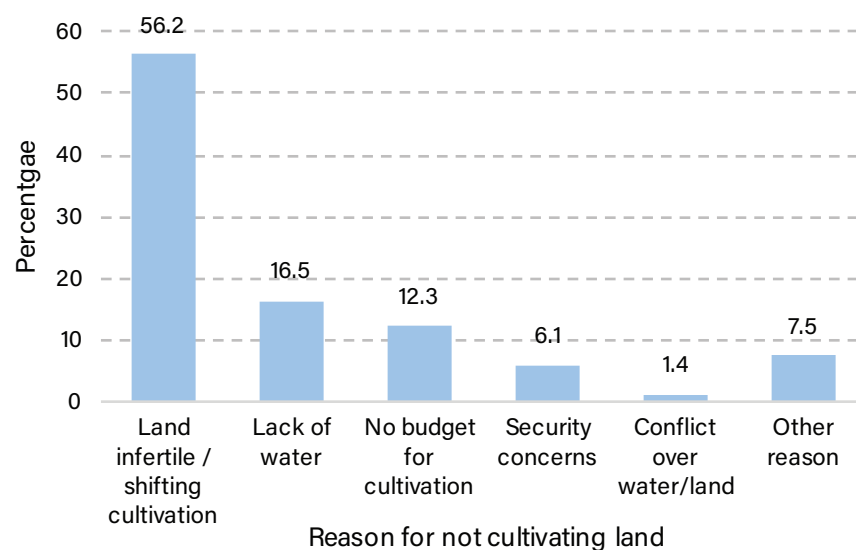
Figure 5.5: Percentage of households owning rain-fed farm land, by province



Rain-fed land cultivated and not-cultivated

ALCS 2016-17 household information suggests that the total land area available for rain-fed land farming is almost 20 percent larger than total land area available for irrigated land area: 177 thousand km², with northern and northeast provinces accounting for two-thirds of all rain-fed land. However, more than one third of this land (36 percent) was left uncultivated. In 17 provinces – half of all provinces – the part of the rain-fed land that is left fallow is even more than half. The poor quality of the soil was the predominant reason for not cultivating rain-fed land (56.2 percent), followed by the lack of water (16.5 percent) and the lack of money for cultivation of the land (12.3 percent) (Figure 5.6).

Figure 5.6: Households owning rain-fed land that is left fallow, by reason for not cultivating the land (in percentages)



Crop production from rain-fed land

Of all households farming rain-fed land, two fifth produce two different crops and around 13 percent households produce even three different crops. Almost all households farming rain-fed land produce wheat. For 91.6 percent, this is the most important crop and an additional 5 percent produce wheat as a second or third crop. Almost one quarter (24.1 percent) of households cultivating rain-fed land produce barley, most as a second or third crop.

Although the total area of rain-fed farm land is larger than the area of irrigated farm land, production from rain-fed land is much smaller. Based on households reporting to the ALCS, 620 thousand tonnes of cereals were produced on rain-fed land, compared to 1,8 million tonnes on irrigated land (*Table 5.4*). Of all cereal production on rain-fed land, 89 percent consists of wheat. The production of melons is relatively more important, adding 110 thousand tonnes to the 210 thousand tonnes produced on irrigated land.

Table 5.4: Crop production from rain-fed land, by type of crop (in thousand tonnes)

Crop	Thousand tonnes
Total cereals	620
Wheat	551
Barley	65
Maize, sorghum	4
Melon/watermelon	110
Other crops	19

5.2.3 Farming input

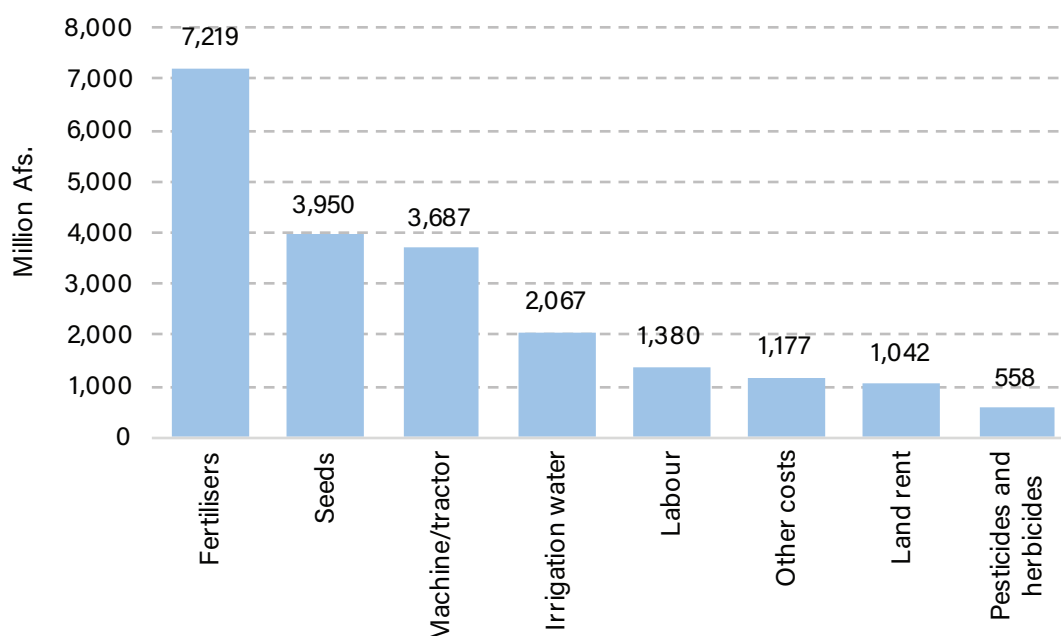
ALCS 2016-17 included a limited battery of questions on expenditures for farming input costs. The costs made most frequently by farmers were costs for obtaining fertilisers (by 66 percent of farmers), seeds (56 percent) and the rent of tractors or other machines (50 percent). On average, farming households spent 12.7 thousand Afghanis on farming costs in the year preceding the survey, but 51 percent of them spent 7 thousand Afghanis or less (*Table 5.5*).

Table 5.5: Farming households, by class of farming costs; also stating mean and median farming costs

Expenditure class (in Afghanis)	Percentage
No expenditure	7.2
Less than 2,000	11.4
2,000-3,999	15.5
4,000-6,999	16.9
7,000-9,999	11.1
10,000-14,999	12.4
15,000-24,999	11.9
25,000 or more	13.6
Mean costs (in thousand Afs.)	12.7
Median costs (in thousand Afs.)	6.6

The highest farming expenses were made for purchasing fertilisers – on average 4.5 thousand Afghanis – followed by costs for seeds and renting machinery – 2.4 and 2.3 thousand Afghanis, respectively. Expenses to obtain irrigation water amounted to 1.3 thousand Afghanis, while on labour and renting land only 900 and 600 Afghanis were spent, on average. Altogether, farming households spent 21.0 billion Afghanis (around 365 million USD) on farming inputs, 7.2 billion on fertilisers, 3.9 and 3.7 billion on seeds and machinery, respectively, and 2.0 billion on irrigation water (*Figure 5.7*).

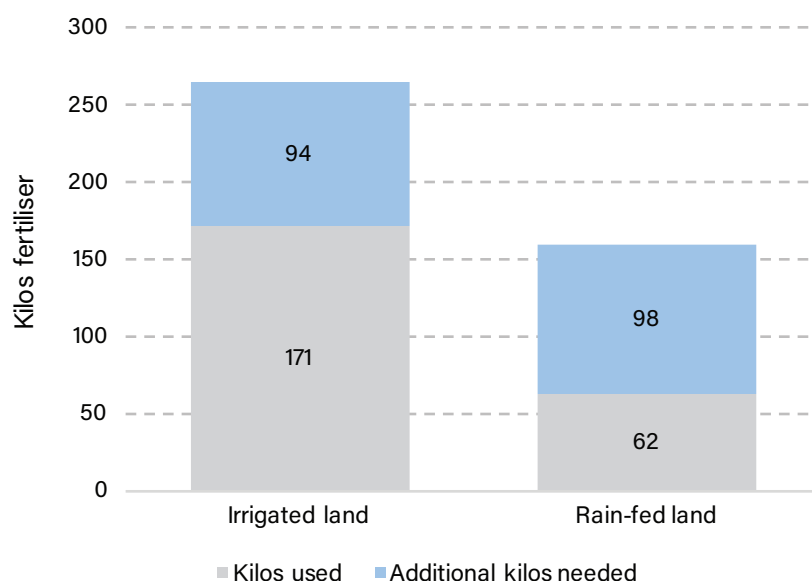
Figure 5.7: National annual farming costs, by type of production input (in million Afghanis)



In view of the poor soil conditions in many parts of the country, fertiliser is an important input for agricultural production if applied by skilled and well-instructed farmers. However, it should be noticed that excessive and improper use of fertiliser may have damaging environmental and public-health impacts. The ALCS 2016-17 included a question about how many kilos fertiliser farming households used in the cultivation cycle and how many kilos were needed. The combination of the two figures showed a large discrepancy between requirements and actual use. Irrigated-land farmers indicated the need for more fertiliser (265 kilo, on average) than farmers cultivating rain-fed land (160 kilo) (*Figure 5.8*). The former group managed to use, on average, 171 kilo fertiliser, which is two thirds (64.4

percent) of the estimated requirement. Farmers on rain-fed land could only use 62 kilos, which is less than two-fifths (39.0 percent) of what they required. In terms of unmet need, both groups required about the same amount more (94 and 98 kilos, respectively). Irrigated-land farmers fell short by 35.6 percent and farmers cultivating rain-fed land reported a deficit of 61.0 percent.

Figure 5.8: Farming households, by type of farm land, and by amount of fertiliser afforded and amount of additional fertiliser needed (in kilos)



Almost half of farming households (48.9 percent) use tractors or other motorised power as traction power for ploughing. Somewhat less – 34.3 percent – use oxen or other animals and 16.8 percent use human power for ploughing.

5.2.4 Horticulture

Produce from garden plots is important for many Afghanistan households, in terms of supplementation of their consumption diet, as well as their household income. Valuable garden products with high-nutrient content – especially fruits and nuts – are harvested from horticulture production. Overall, 13 percent of households own or have access to a garden plot. Access to garden plot is more widespread in rural areas – where 17 percent of households own or have access to a plot – but even in urban areas, 6 percent have one. Especially in the central-eastern provinces of Zabul, Wardak, Parwan, Urozgan and Ghazni many households – between 30 and 50 percent – own or have access to garden plots.

Garden plots are substantially smaller in size than normal farm land, irrigated or rain-fed. The mean plot size is 1.9 jeribs (0.4 ha.) (*Table 5.6*), but 26 percent of the garden-plot owners have one jerib or less.

Table 5.6: Households, by ownership of / access to garden plot, garden plot size (in percentages); also stating mean and median garden plot size (in jeribs)

Ownership or access ^a	
Total	100.0
No ownership	86.9
Any ownership	13.1
Less than 2.0 jeribs	3.4
2.0-3.9 jeribs	4.6
4.0-5.9 jeribs	3.5
6.0-9.9 jeribs	1.0
10.0-19.9 jeribs	0.4
20 jeribs or more	0.2
Mean land size	1.9
Median land size	1.0

^a Unlike in previous rounds, ownership of and access to garden plots are not differentiated.

Horticulture production

The crops that were most commonly grown on garden plots are grapes (on 40 percent of garden plots) and apples (on 25 percent). Grapes were mostly used for fresh consumption or marketing, but more than one quarter was dried before selling or consumption. Apricots and nuts were the third- and fourth-most commonly grown crops, on 16 and 14 percent of garden plots, respectively. Apricots are also mostly used fresh. Pomegranates was the last crop mentioned as the most important crop, grown on only 4 percent of garden plots. *Table 5.7* gives the harvested produce from garden plots.

Table 5.7: Fruit and crop production from garden plots (in thousand tonnes)

Crop	Thousand tonnes
Fresh grapes	175
Dried grapes	70
Apples	207
Fresh apricots	21
Dried apricots	15
Pomegranates	28
Plums	4
Other fruit	4
Nuts	23
Fodder	18
Shakarpara	8
Other crop	8

5.3 Livestock

5.3.1 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 5.8* presents the results of this census and NRVA/ALCS-based estimates on different types of livestock in 2011-12, 2013-14 and 2016-17. The NRVA/ALCS data suggest that the number of cattle is reduced in the years since the livestock census, although there is a significant increase again compared to ALCS 2013-14. However, the numbers of small ruminants, especially sheep, have increased. This suggest that these herds are recovering from previous 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 ALCS 2016-17 data furthermore indicate that 38.6 percent of the households in Afghanistan own one or more cattle. The percentage of households owning any cattle is presented by province in *Figure 5.9*. Goats and sheep are owned by 23.8 and 26.5 percent of the households, respectively. Because of the specific lifestyle of the Kuchi, the corresponding figures for this sub-population are much higher: goats are owned by 71.6 percent of Kuchi households and sheep by 81.6 percent. Camels are almost exclusively owned by Kuchi: 36.7 percent of these households have one or more camels and virtually none of the sedentary households have any.

Chicken-holding households are especially common in the country, with 43.2 percent of households nationally and 53.0, 45.2 and 15.3 percent for rural, Kuchi and urban households, respectively. This is particularly important for women, as they are usually responsible for tending poultry and may also reap direct benefits from poultry products.

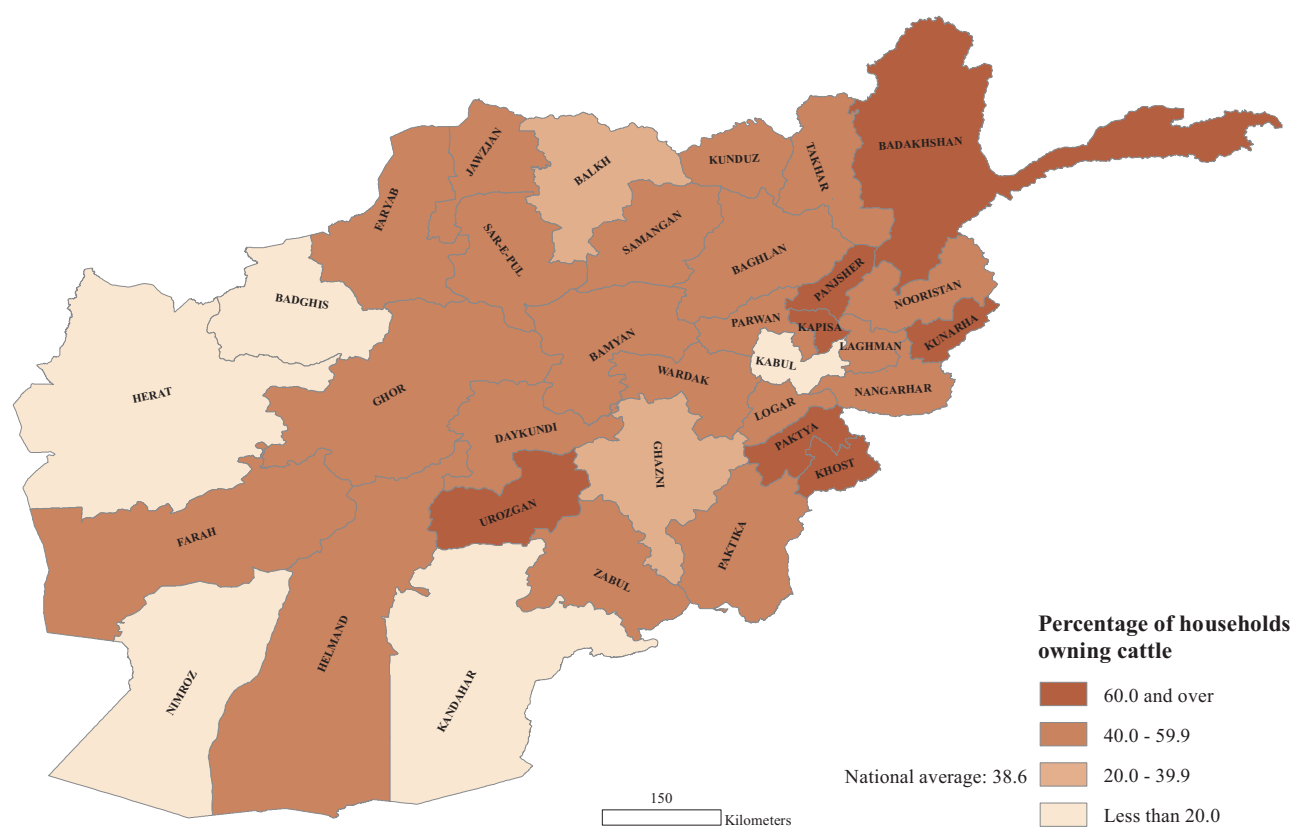
Table 5.8: Livestock, by animal type, and by survey/census (in thousands)

Animal type	Census 2002-03	NRVA 2011-12	ALCS 2013-14	ALCS 2016-17
Cattle	3,715	2,854	2,850	3,371
Oxen, yaks	n.d.	474	463	413
Horses	142	102	93	76
Donkeys	1,588	1,519	1,751	1,650
Camels	175	481	239	284
Goats	7,281	10,445	10,265	9,754
Sheep	8,772	18,018	21,629	21,813
Chickens	12,156	13,176	12,221	10,341
Other poultry	1,022	1,367	942	894

n.d.: No data

^a The Livestock Census only covered the sedentary population, NRVA/ALCS also covers the Kuchi population

Figure 5.9: Percentage of households owning any cattle, by province



5.3.2 Sale of animals and animal products

Table 5.9 provides the number of animals sold in the year preceding the interview of the ALCS 2016-17 survey. Compared to ALCS 2013-14, the number of sold sheep substantially increased by around 1.1 million, while more moderate increases were observed for the number of goats (179 thousand), cattle (161 thousand) and other poultry (174 thousand), although relatively the increase of sold cattle and other poultry was large. On the other hand, the number of sold chickens seem to have declined.

Table 5.9: Livestock sold in the year prior to the survey, by animal type, and by survey year (in thousands)

Animal type	ALCS 2013-14	ALCS 2016-17
Cattle	341	502
Oxen, yaks	70	71
Horses	10	11
Donkeys	83	53
Goats	3,037	3,216
Sheep	5,880	6,979
Chickens	1,143	992
Other poultry	93	267

Table 5.10 provides the volumes of selected animal products sold in the month preceding the interview of the ALCS 2016-17 survey. The results suggest large fluctuations in what producers of animal products sell off. Thus, compared to ALCS 2013-14, the sale of butter increased by around 70 percent, that of animal meat doubled and that of poultry meat increased even three times.

Table 5.10: Animal products sold in the month prior to the survey, by animal product type, and by survey year (in tonnes / thousands)

Animal product	ALCS 2013-14	ALCS 2016-17
Butter (in tonnes)	352	595
Cheese (in tonnes)	1,295	142
Krut (in tonnes)	2,208	1,953
Meat of animals (in tonnes)	1,168	2,105
Meat of poultry (in tonnes)	17	54
Wool, cashmere (in tonnes)	3,993	3,331
Eggs (in thousands)	8,824	7,441

5.3.3 Livestock production factors

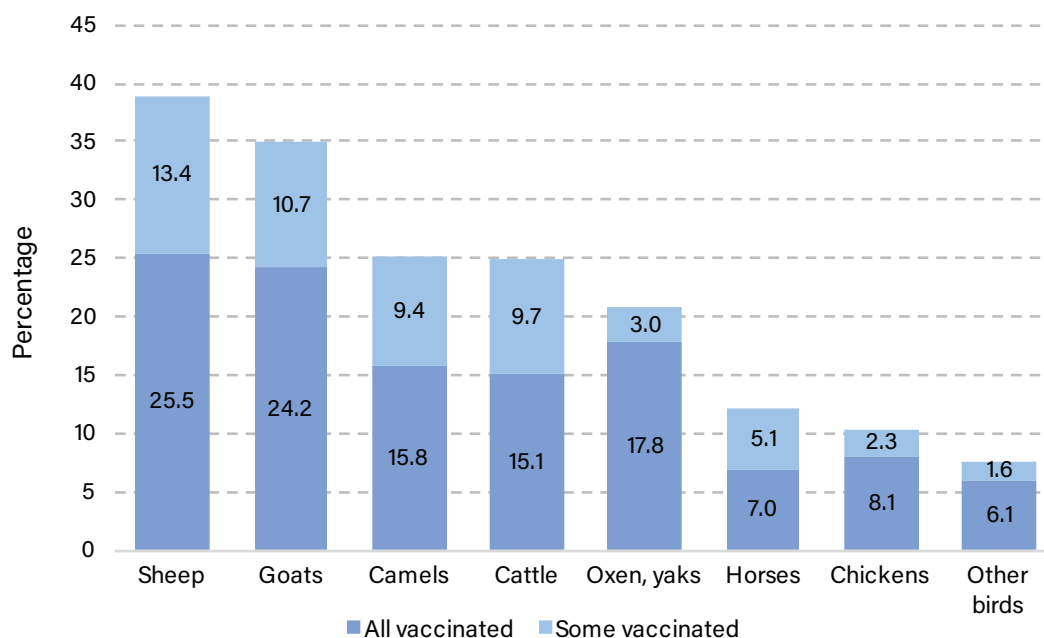
Various services are offered to livestock owners to improve the condition of their animals. These services include access to feed concentrate, vaccination, veterinary services, credit, marketing and advice on feeding, breeding and management of animals. ALCS 2016-17 included information about some of these components.

Almost 90 percent of livestock owners reported that they had access to pasture land a year before the survey, but only 48.3 percent mentioned that they accessed sufficient pasture land. In the provinces of Ghazni, Ghor, Nooristan and Logar, the situation is significantly better than on average in the country with sufficient access ranging from 76 to 91 percent. For Kuchi livestock owners, the difference between access and sufficient access was particularly big: whereas 60 percent did have access to pasture land, for only half of them (32 percent of the total) this was sufficient.

Vaccination of livestock is critical for the health and survival of the animals. Households that do not vaccinate their livestock run the risk of losing much of the return to their investment, if not losing all the animals in their possession. Current levels of full vaccination are low, running from around one quarter for sheep and goats, around one sixth for camels, cattle, oxen and yaks to very low levels around 7 percent for horses and poultry (*Figure 5.10*). Since mostly women are raising and tending chicken and other poultry, in the case of an outbreak of disease, it is particularly their income and contribution to the households' livelihood that is at risk.

Additional proportions of households have some part of their animals vaccinated against diseases, particularly sheep, goats, cattle and camels. There is a large variation in the levels of full vaccination of livestock across provinces. Logar, Pansjher, Faryab, Badghis and Herat provinces are consistently scoring best on full vaccination of cattle, goats and sheep. On the other hand, poor performance is observed in Paktika, Khost, Sar-e-Pul, Zabul, Uruzgan, Kandahar and Helmand. Many districts in these provinces are considered insecure (see also section 2.3.1), which probably hampers implementation of vaccination programmes.

Figure 5.10: Livestock-owning households, by type of livestock, and by livestock vaccination level (in percentages)



Around 34 percent of households with livestock obtained medicines for livestock or sought veterinary help or information in the year before the survey and this is significantly increased compared to ALCS 2013-14 (20 percent). However, this percentage ranged from more than 50 percent in Badghis, Faryab, Khost and Herat to negligible levels in Kandahar, Helmand and Daykundi. The large majority of livestock-owning households that did seek assistance, referred to private veterinary services (85.4 percent), another 10 percent to government veterinary services and small proportions to veterinary field units and NGO services (together 4 percent). Those households that did not seek assistance did not do so because they considered it not necessary (15.7 percent) or had too few animals (19.2 percent). Major obstacles for seeking assistance were reluctance to offer services by the provider (27.0 percent), lack of knowledge of how or where to obtain the services (12.8 percent), distance (11.3 percent) and costs (8.8 percent).



6 POVERTY

Summary. A severe slow-down in Afghanistan's economic growth characterised the period between 2012 and 2016. This sharp deceleration can be attributed to the combined effects of the drawdown of international military forces and a sharp fall in associated international spending, reduction of aid and increasing conflict and political instability. These trends are reflected in the increasing vulnerability of the Afghan population, as widespread deterioration in welfare is evidenced in the sharp increase in poverty rates to 55 percent in 2016-17. Many inequalities persist in Afghanistan, between regions, cities and rural areas, and rich and poor Afghans. Poverty headcount rates increased in every region between 2011-12 and 2016-17 and the deterioration in welfare was experienced across the distribution, among the poorest households, as well as among the most well-off. These distributional changes imply that while the intensity of poverty has increased between 2011-12 and 2016-17, inequality has declined, as the welfare loss among the top of the distribution has been relatively larger than that at the bottom of the distribution.

Demographic characteristics remain strongly correlated with poverty headcount rates. Poverty rates increase steadily with household size and households of larger size are both more prevalent and face a higher poverty rate. Education (or the lack thereof) is another important correlate of poverty in Afghanistan. Low levels of educational attainment are pervasive and households with illiterate heads account for 74 percent of the population, facing poverty rates of 63 percent on average, compared with headcount rates of 40 percent among households with literate heads. While unemployment of the head of household is correlated with higher poverty, employment is no guarantee against poverty. Roughly half the population belonging to households with employed heads lives in poverty. Few have access to productive or remunerative employment. Afghans living in households where the household head is employed in agriculture are likely to face higher poverty rates (63 percent) and account for a third of the poor population. More broadly, almost 60 percent of the population belongs to households where the head of household holds vulnerable employment, or in other words, is self-employed or works on own-account, is a day labourer or is an unpaid worker.

6.1 Introduction

One of the main objectives of the Afghanistan Living Conditions Surveys is to provide information on welfare and living standards, on their evolution over time and their distribution over households. Of particular importance is the measurement and tracking of welfare amongst the poorest segments of the population and ALCS survey data provide the principal means for estimating the extent and severity of poverty in Afghanistan. Section 1.2 provides contextual backgrounds and trends in the economic and security situation of the country. It highlighted the 2014 security transition, which is associated with a marked economic slowdown. In addition, high population growth and large-scale internal displacement and refugee return puts pressure on service delivery systems and increases competition for already scarce economic opportunities.

This chapter is organised as follows. The next section presents a summary of the methodology applied in the ALCS for the poverty estimation. More detailed information on the methodology is provided in the technical Annex VII. Section 6.3 provides a description of the trends in welfare between 2007-08 and 2016-17. These trends are analysed at the national, urban-rural and regional level. The chapter concludes with a profile of Afghanistan's poor, highlighting key correlates of welfare (section 6.4).

In this context, the 2016-17 poverty estimates are the first direct estimates of welfare since the security transition in 2014.

6.2 Poverty estimation methodology

6.2.1 Measuring poverty in Afghanistan: the Cost of Basic Needs approach

The measure of welfare adopted in the ALCS to assess population living standards is based on household expenditures. Individuals are considered as poor if their level of consumption expenditures is not sufficient to satisfy basic needs or, in other words, if their consumption expenditure 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

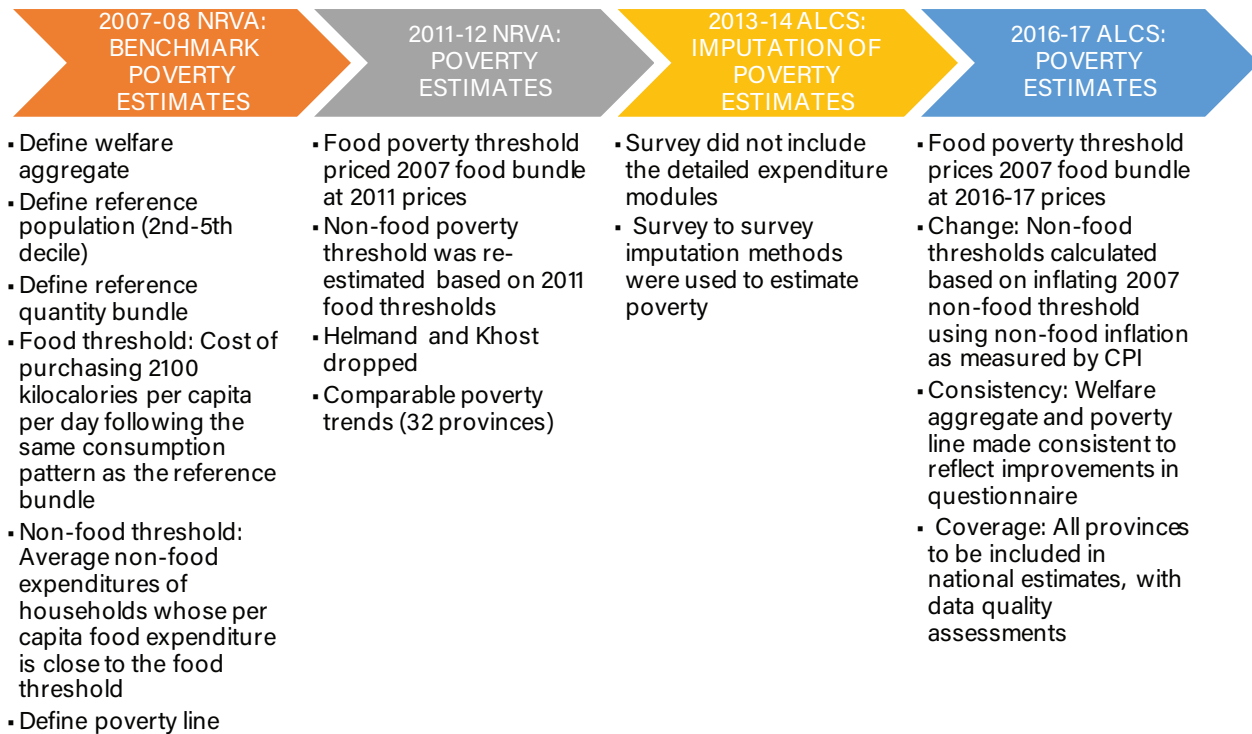
To assess the evolution of wellbeing over time, the 2007-08 poverty line was updated to 2011-12 and 2016-17 prices for each of the survey years to reflect changes in the cost of living. *Figure 6.1* briefly describes the data sources and the estimation methodology, and more details are described in Annex VII. It is important to note that the detailed consumption expenditure module – which allows for direct estimation of poverty – was not included in the ALCS 2013-14. Rather, survey-to-survey imputation techniques were used to predict poverty rates for this survey year.

The 2016-17 estimates introduced improvements in the methodology, which have been consistently taken backwards to 2011-12 and 2007-08 (survey to survey imputation estimates for 2013-14 have not yet been revised). These comprise of three important changes:

- In the interest of increased transparency – and in line with international good practice – non-food thresholds are inflated from their 2007-08 benchmark levels using non-food inflation rates as measured by the official Consumer Price Index (CPI).
- Improvements and changes in the survey questionnaire have required small changes in the definition of the welfare measure, which have been consistently revised for all survey years.
- CSO has made the decision in the interest of transparency to include all provinces in national estimates, while indicating clearly provinces for which estimates are deemed to be of inadequate quality due to the security situation or concerns about data quality. These revisions imply that current estimates may differ from previously released numbers.

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. For more details, see Annex VII.

Figure 6.1: Data sources for poverty measurement and methodology^a



^a For more details, see Annex VII.

6.2.2 Setting the poverty line in Afghanistan

Poverty lines in Afghanistan are estimated at the regional-urban/rural strata level and the national poverty line is the population-weighted average of these regional-strata lines. The classification of provinces into regions for this purpose is shown in *Table 6.1*. These eight regions, when split into urban-rural strata, yield 14 region-strata classifications (some regions do not have urban strata) and therefore 14 poverty lines.

Table 6.1: Regions and provinces in poverty estimation

Central	South	East	Northeast	North	West	Southwest	West Central
Kabul	Ghazni	Kunarha	Badakshan	Balkh	Badghis	Helmand	Bamyan
Kapisa	Khost	Laghman	Baghlan	Faryab	Farah	Kandahar	Daykundi
Logar	Paktika	Nangarhar	Kunduz	Jawzjan	Herat	Nimroz	Ghor
Panjsher	Paktya	Nooristan	Takhar	Samangan		Urozgan	
Parwan				Sar-e-Pul		Zabul	
Wardak							

Figure 6.2 shows the revised poverty lines for Afghanistan after implementing the methodological changes described above. In 2007-08, the national average threshold for the cost of covering basic needs – the poverty line – was 1,261 Afs per person per month. This threshold, consistently defined and valued at 2016-17 survey prices, increases to 2,064 Afs per person per month. Relative to 2007-08, this represents a 64 percent increase in the cost of basic needs, comprised of a 68 percent increase in the cost of the basic food bundle (benchmarked at 2,100 kilocalories per person per day) and a 58 percent increase in the cost of non-food necessities. *Figure 6.3* presents the increases of these costs by survey year, expressed as inflation rates, relative to 2007-08.

Figure 6.2: National poverty lines, by survey, and by main expenditure component (in Afs)

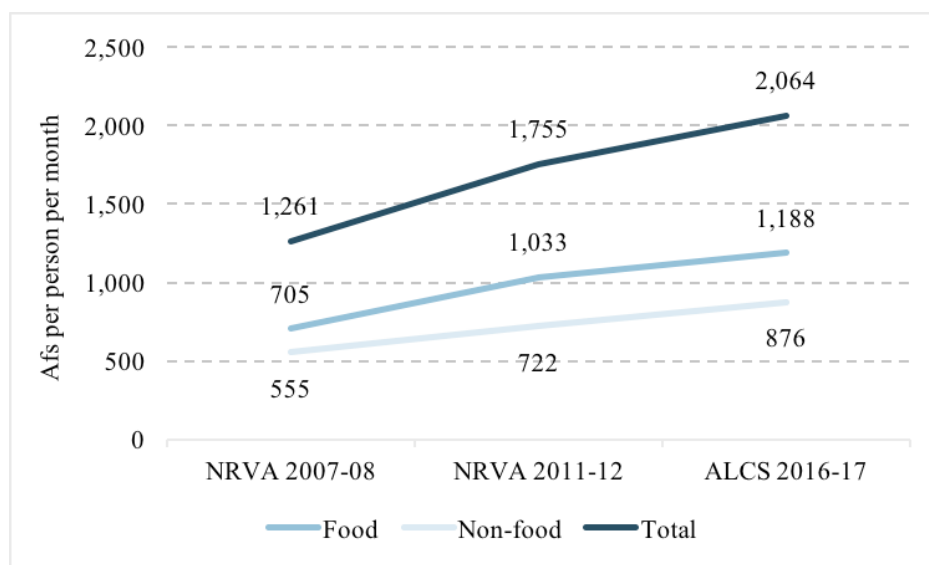
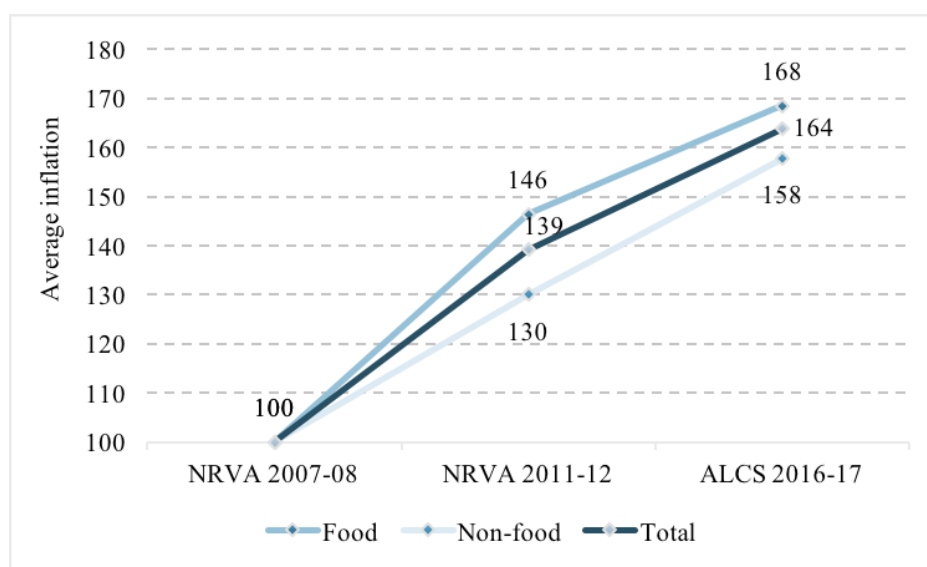


Figure 6.3: Average implied inflation relative to 2007-08, based on poverty lines, by survey, and by main expenditure component

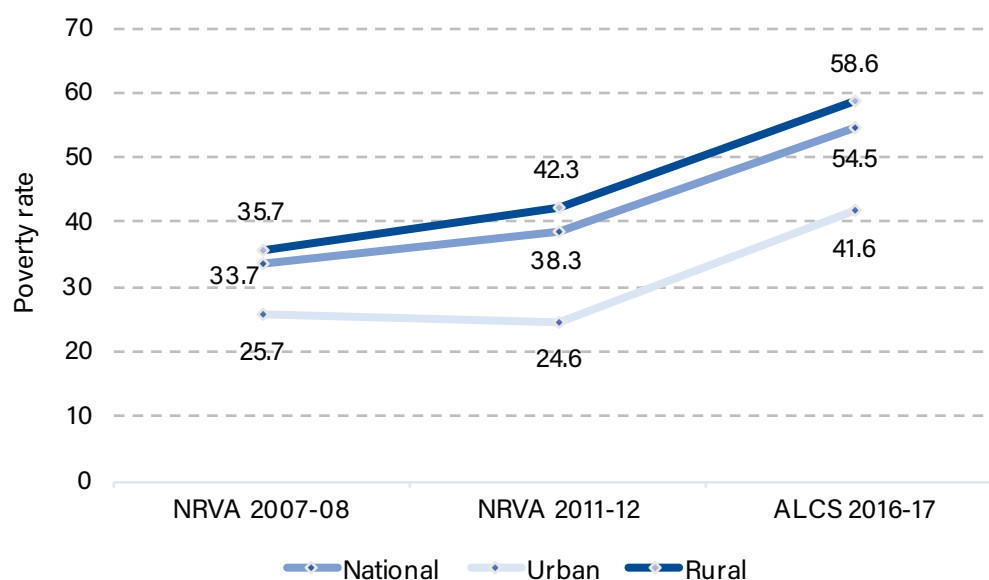


6.3 Poverty estimates

6.3.1 Trends in poverty, 2007-08 to 2016-17

Afghanistan has experienced a sharp increase in poverty since 2011-12. *Figure 6.4* plots the national, urban and rural poverty headcount rates based on the new series and using the three surveys where direct estimation of poverty is possible. *Text box 6.1* provides the series of poverty estimates as presented in previous reports and according to the revised methodology as presented in section 6.2.1. Poverty headcount rates measure the share of the population whose monthly per-capita expenditure falls below the poverty line. At the national level, these headcount rates increased from 33.7 percent in 2007-08 to 38.3 percent in 2011-12, followed by a sharp rise to 54.5 percent in 2016-17.

Figure 6.4: Poverty rate, by survey year, and by residence (in percentages)^a



^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

Text box 6.1: Comparable poverty trend series; old and revised

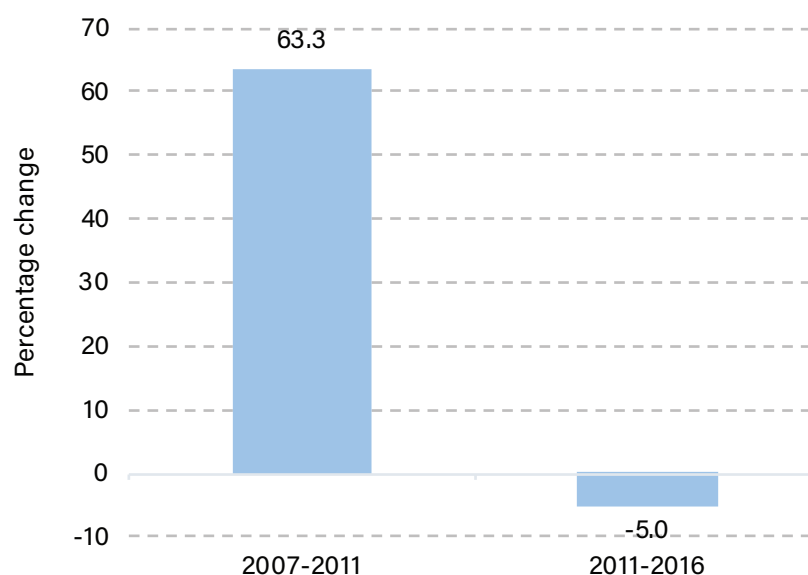
The revision of the poverty-estimation methodology applied to ALCS 2016-17 implies that no direct comparison can be made with poverty estimates as presented in previous reports. In the table below, the series of poverty estimates is presented as reported before and according to the revised methodology. The latter take into account methodological improvements defined consistently over time and therefore differ from previously released estimates.

Poverty trend series	NRVA 2007-08	NRVA 2011-12	ALCS 2013-14 ^a	ALCS 2016-17
Old series, excluding Helmand and Khost	36.3	35.8	39.1	
Revised series, all provinces	33.7	38.3		54.5

^a Imputation estimate

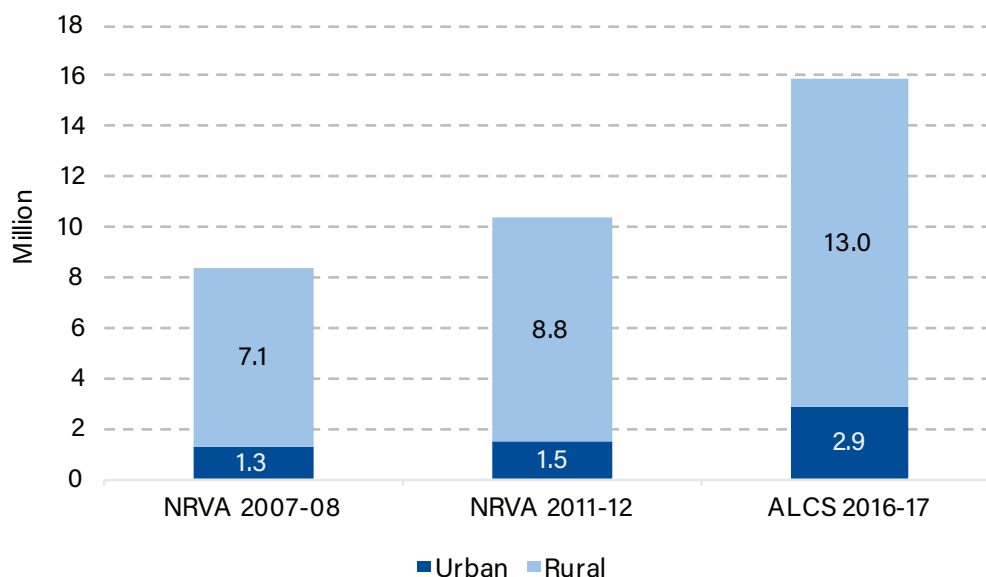
Rural poverty remains consistently higher than urban poverty, although the deterioration in welfare has become more widespread. While the increase in poverty in the first period, 2007-2011, was driven by an increase in rural poverty, in the second period, both urban and rural poverty rates have increased substantially. These trends are consistent with the large economic contraction the country has experienced since 2012. The period 2007 to 2011 was characterised by a large increase in GDP per capita (which grew 63 percent relative to its 2011 value), whereas during the latter period – 2012 to 2016 – GDP per capita actually fell (Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5: Percentage change in GDP per capita, 2007-2011 and 2011-2016



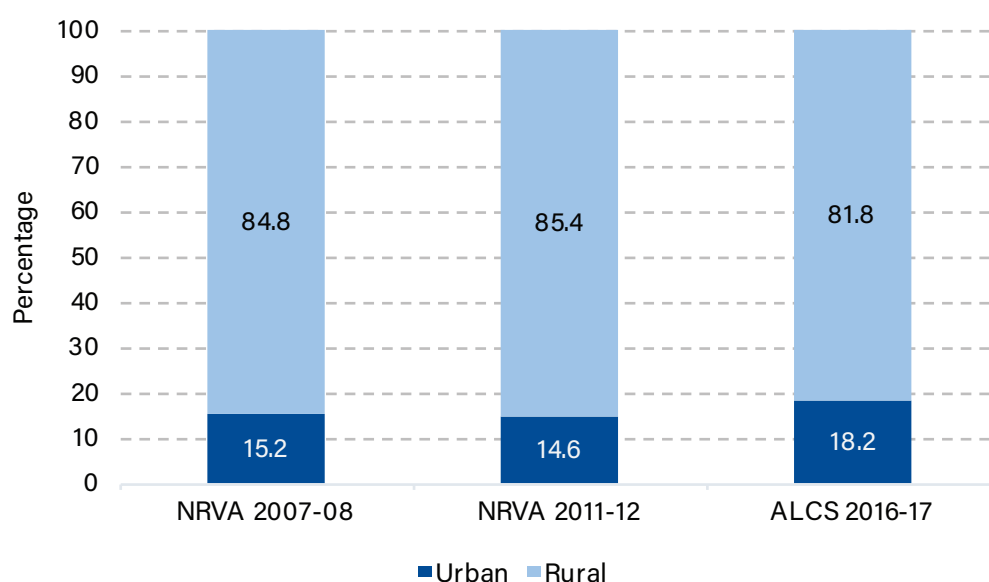
As economic growth has lagged behind population growth, not to mention the additional 2.3 million Afghan returnees since 2015, the country has experienced a large increase in the number of poor people (*Figure 6.6*). In 2016-17, almost 13 million rural Afghans lived below the poverty line. At the same time, urban poverty has become more widespread, with the number of urban poor more than doubling since 2007, and consequently, 18 percent of Afghanistan's poor now live in urban areas (*Figure 6.7*). The increase in urban poverty since 2011 was concentrated in Kandahar, Kabul, Herat, Balkh and Kunduz. In 2016-17, these provinces together accounted for 80 percent of the urban poor, with Kabul alone accounting for about half of all the urban poor. In part, this trend may be driven by IDPs and returnees turning to urban centers in search of security, jobs and services. If this trend continues, the pressure on urban centers will likely increase.

Figure 6.6: Poor population, by survey, and by residence^a (in millions)



^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

Figure 6.7: Poor population, by survey, and by residence^a (in percentages)



^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

The poverty headcount rate is used as one of the indicators of SDG 1: *End poverty in all its forms everywhere* (Text box 6.2). However, a major limitation of the headcount rate 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 rate 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 far below the line. An additional indicator 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*, a 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. Table 6.2 provides the values of the three poverty indicators, according to the revised poverty estimation methodology.

Text box 6.2: SDG indicator 1.2.1 – Proportion of population living below the national poverty line (in percentages)

The ‘poverty headcount rate’ is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of SDG Target 1.2 (*By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living*) of SDG 1 (*End poverty in all its forms everywhere*).

Afghanistan	54.5
Urban	41.6
Rural	58.2
Kuchi	64.1

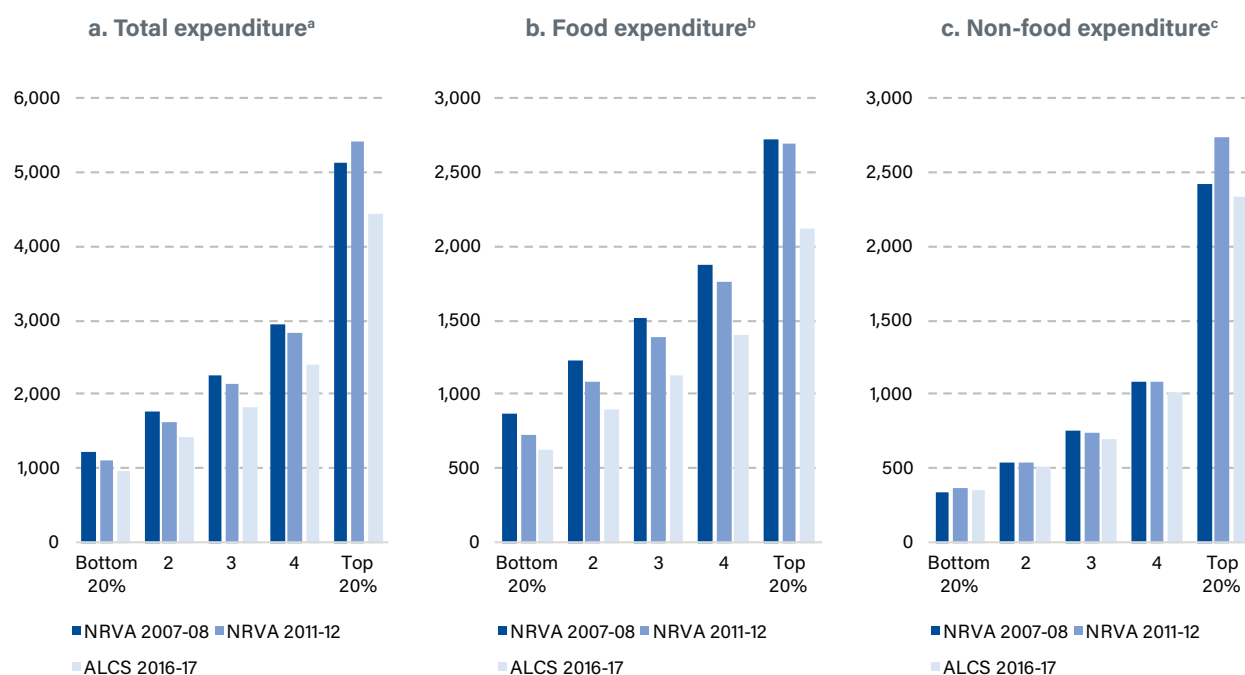
Table 6.2: Poverty indicators, by survey (in percentages)

Poverty indicator	NRVA 2007-08	NRVA 2011-12	ALCS 2016-17
Poverty headcount	33.7	38.3	54.5
Poverty gap	7.2	9.9	15.0
Squared poverty gap	2.3	3.6	5.6

6.3.2 Distributional changes in welfare

This deterioration in welfare was experienced across the distribution, among the poorest households, as well as among the most well-off. *Figure 6.8a* plots the average per-capita expenditures in 2016-17 prices by quintiles (dividing the expenditure distribution into five equally sized groups, sorted in ascending order of per-capita expenditures) and shows that each quintile, even the richest 20 percent, experienced a decline in welfare. On average, per-capita expenditure fell by 18 percent across the distribution between 2011-12 and 2016-17, and fell by 11 percent among the poorest 20 percent. Between 2007-08 and 2011-12, instead, the richest 20 percent was the only group to experience an improvement in welfare. Average per-capita expenditures increased slightly by 3 percent during this period, driven by this welfare improvement among the well-off, but among the poorest 20 percent, expenditures fell by 10 percent. For the 2011-12 to 2016-17 period, these trends were largely explained by trends in per-capita food expenditures, which fell by 21 percent on average, with each quintile experiencing a decline, and with the poorest 20 percent experiencing a 14 percent fall (*Figure 6.8b*). Note that per-capita expenditures fell while food prices were increasing, implying a decline in the quantity of food items consumed (see also chapter 7). The fall in non-food expenditures was more muted, except among the top 20 percent of the distribution.

Figure 6.8: Per-capita expenditure - (a) total, (b) food- and (c) non-food - (2016 prices), by survey, and by expenditure quintile (in Afs)



^a Implicit inflation adjustment based on total poverty line

^b Implicit inflation adjustment based on food threshold

^c Implicit inflation adjustment based on non-food threshold

Table 6.3 displays the cut-off points of each of the expenditure quintiles in 2016 prices, which also shows that expenditure ranges in each of the quintiles narrow substantially between 2011-12 and 2016-17. We observe that almost all Afghans in the 3rd expenditure quintile show monthly expenditures below the poverty line of 2,064 Afs. per month, while in 2007-08 and 2011-12, roughly the bottom two expenditure quintiles are below the poverty line of the respective year.

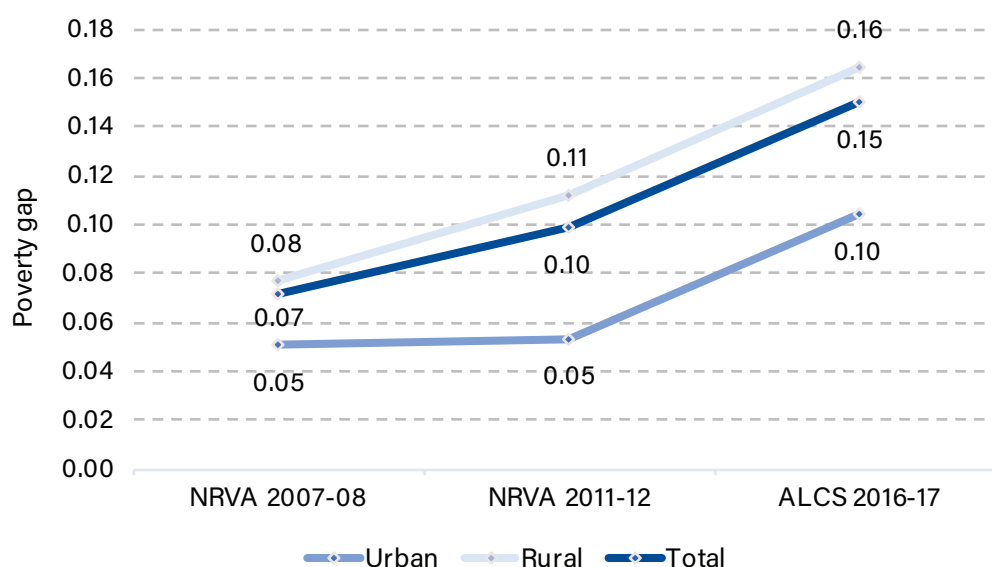
Table 6.3: Expenditure intervals (in 2016 Afs), by expenditure quintile, and by survey (in Afghanis)

Expenditure quintile	NRVA 2007-08	NRVA 2011-12	ALCS 2016-17
Bottom 20 percent	269 - 1,531	330 - 1,394	331 - 1,228
2	1,531 - 1,992	1,394 - 1,866	1,229 - 1,606
3	1,992 - 2,549	1,866 - 2,425	1,606 - 2,078
4	2,549 - 3,486	2,425 - 3,379	2,079 - 2,900
Top 20 percent	3,486 - 49,362	3,379 - 50,164	2,900 - 34,103

These distributional changes imply that while the intensity of poverty has increased between 2011-12 and 2016-17 (*Figure 6.9*), inequality has declined (*Figure 6.10*), as the welfare loss among the top of the distribution has been relatively larger than that at the bottom of the distribution (albeit from very different baseline levels). The poverty gap index measures the extent of poverty as the average distance between the per-capita expenditure levels of the population and the poverty line, assuming the non-poor have a zero shortfall, and is expressed as a proportion of the poverty line. As *Figure 6.9*, shows, the intensity of poverty has doubled at the national, urban and rural level since 2007-08. On average, the gap between per-capita expenditures and the poverty line was 0.15 times the poverty line (calculated across the population).²

Another interpretation of the poverty gap index is that it provides a measure of the aggregate size of the monetary transfer required to bring the poor out of poverty, assuming perfect targeting were possible. Assuming a national population of 29 million in 2016-17 and using the poverty line of 2,064 Afs. per capita per month, a poverty gap index of 0.15 or 15 percent of the poverty line, implies an average transfer of 310 Afs. per person per month would be needed to eliminate poverty (and the total budget needed would be 131 million USD per month, targeted to the poor). The squared poverty gap (Table 6.2; also known as the poverty severity index), on the other hand, puts a higher weight on the poorest households, those that are further away from the poverty line by averaging the squares of the poverty gaps relative to the poverty line. The squared poverty gap increased by 2 percentage points across survey years, indicating that more people are further away from the poverty line in 2016-17 compared to 2007-08.

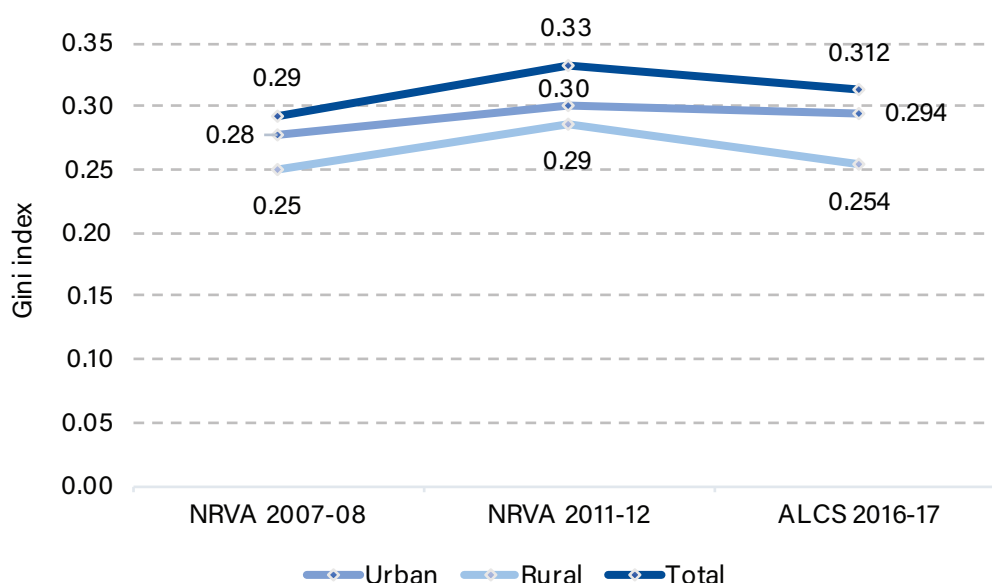
Figure 6.9: Poverty gap index, by survey, and by residence^a



^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

2 Among the poor, this gap is larger, on average 27 percent of the poverty line.

Figure 6.10: Expenditure inequality (Gini coefficient), by survey, and by residence^a



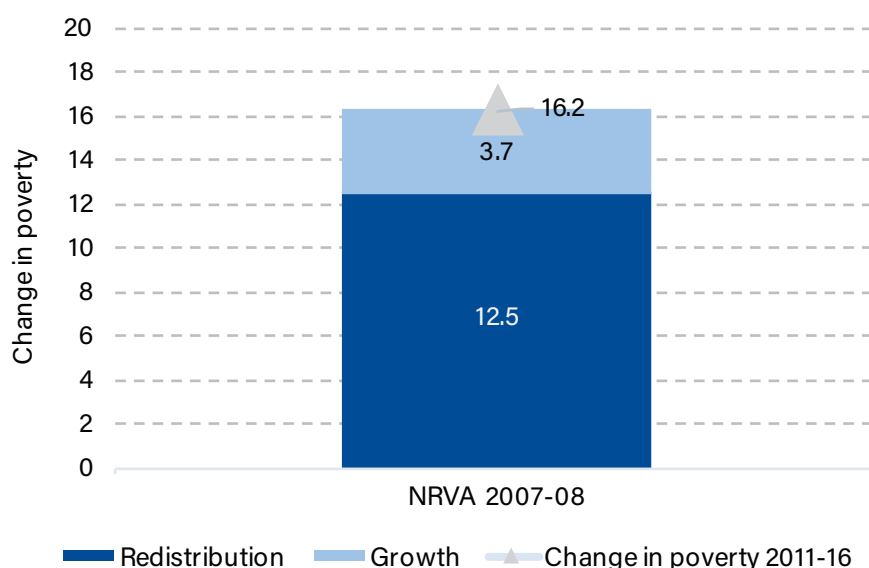
^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

Figure 6.10 plots the trends in expenditure inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient. 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 1 absolute inequality, where all consumption is concentrated in one person. The welfare decline experienced across the distribution (shown in Figures 6.8a-c) is reflected here as a decline in the Gini index in 2016-17 relative to 2011-12, driven by the decline in rural inequality, stemming from a compression of living standards.

To what extent was the increase in poverty between 2011-12 and 2016-17 driven by these distributional changes (which compressed the welfare distribution) relative to the overall decline in per-capita expenditures (or in other words, the negative rate of growth of welfare)? Poverty reduction can take place without growth in average per-capita expenditures if it is accompanied by relatively higher growth in the expenditures of the poor (a solely distributional effect). Alternatively, if the distribution remains unchanged, or everyone's per-capita consumption growth is equal to the average, then the change in poverty stems solely from the growth effect.

Between 2011-12 and 2016-17, the overall increase in poverty was 16.2 percentage points. Of this change, one-fifth was due to the decline in per-capita expenditures across the distribution, whereas 80 percent was due to the changes in the distribution of per-capita expenditures (*Figure 6.11*). In other words, had there been no change in the distribution of expenditures in 2016-17 relative to 2011-12, national poverty rates would have increased by 4 percentage points. Distributional changes exacerbated the increase in poverty.

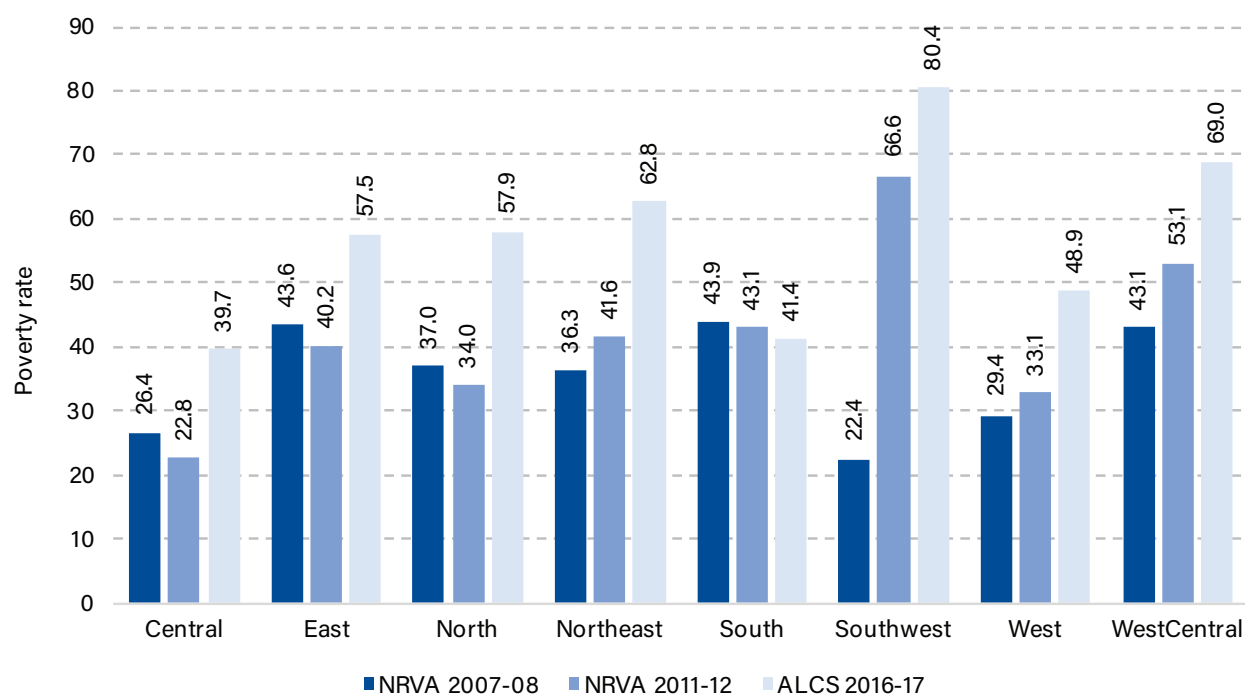
Figure 6.11: Growth-inequality decomposition of change in poverty rates between 2011-12 and 2016-17



6.3.3 Regional trends

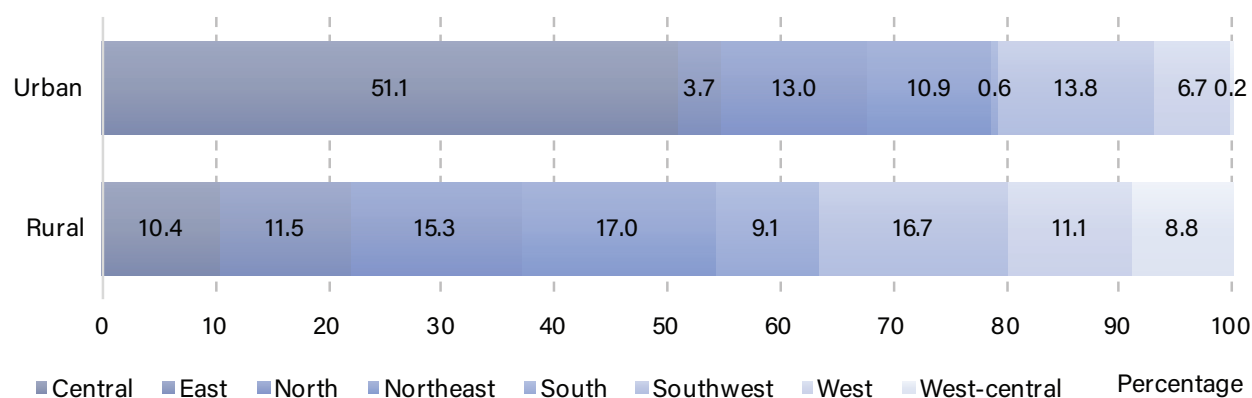
Poverty headcount rates increased in every region between 2011-12 and 2016-17 (*Figure 6.12*). Even in the South, where regional estimates appear to have remained unchanged, the exclusion of a province where field operations were limited to the first two quarters of the survey year results in a regional poverty estimate of 46 percent in 2016-17. Regional disparities in welfare levels have also become more marked over time. The largest increases in poverty between 2011-12 and 2016-17 were in the Central, East, North and North East regions, between 17 and 20 percentage points. The South West region recorded the highest poverty rate in 2016-17, and even if estimates for provinces where fieldwork was affected by security or of inadequate quality are excluded, while the region estimate is lower at 72 percent, it is still the highest in the country.

Figure 6.12: Poverty rate, by region, and by survey (in percentages)



As previously noted, a distinct feature of the increase in poverty between 2011-12 and 2016-17 has been the shift in the distribution of the poor towards urban areas. Nevertheless, four out of every five poor Afghans continues to live in rural areas. *Figure 6.13* further breaks down the distribution of the urban and rural poor across regions in 2016-17. The Central region, including Kabul, alone accounts for a half of all urban poor, while the North, North East and South West regions account for another third. The rural poor are more dispersed throughout the county. The North East and South West regions each account for 17 percent of the rural poor, followed by the North region, with 15 percent.

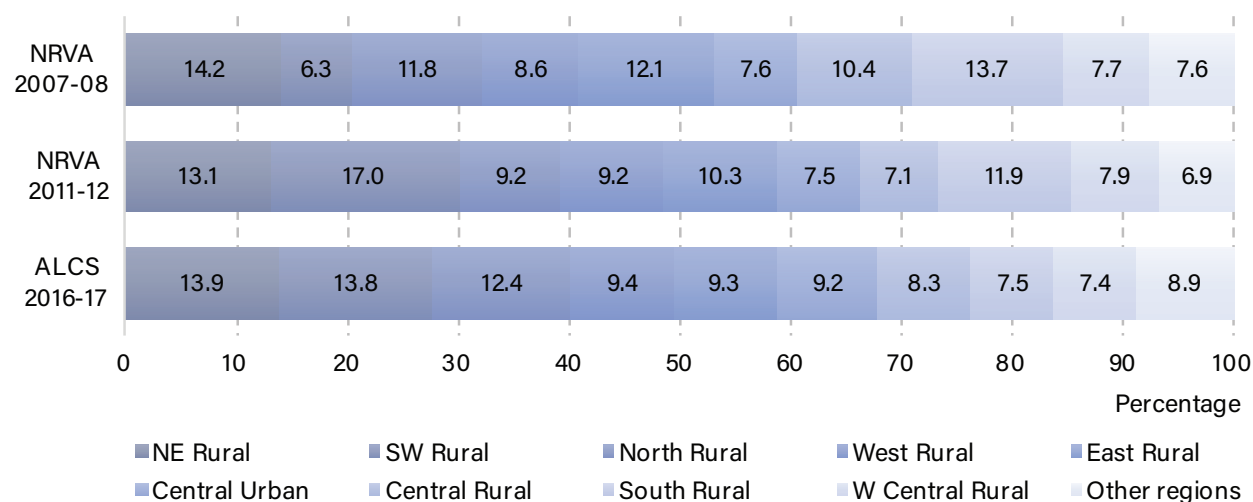
Figure 6.13: Poor population, by residence,^a and by region (in percentages)



^a Rural includes the Kuchi population.

The distribution of the poor across regions has also changed over time (*Figure 6.14*). The South rural and East rural regions have experienced a steady decline in their share of the poor since 2007. The South West rural region's share of the poor also fell from 17 percent in 2011-12 to 14 percent in 2016-17. In contrast, North rural and Central Urban now account for a larger share of the poor relative to 2011.

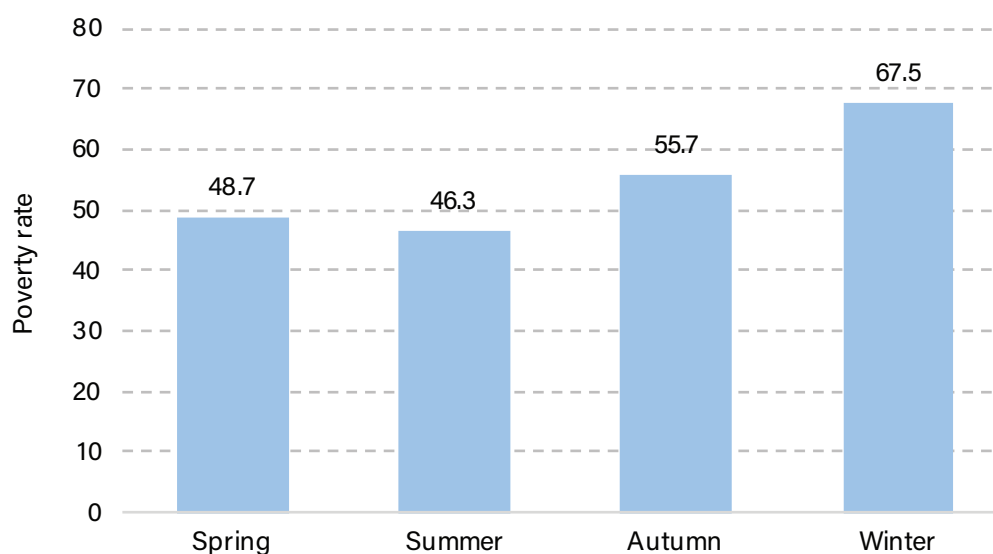
Figure 6.14: Poor population, by survey, and by region (in percentages)



6.3.4 Seasonal variation in welfare

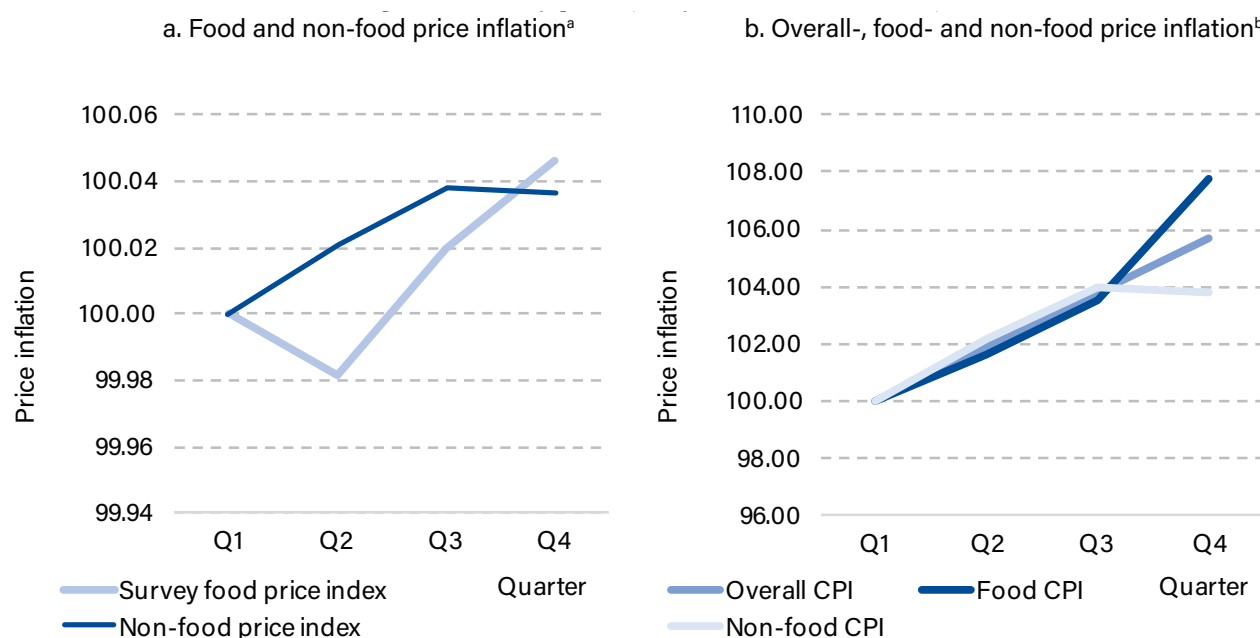
Poverty has always had a seasonal character in Afghanistan, with winter months being characterised by a deterioration in welfare.³ This pattern holds in 2016-17 as well, with a sharp increase in poverty in the autumn and winter (Figure 6.15). In part, this trend is driven by increases in prices, particularly food prices, over the survey period, peaking in quarter 4, which roughly corresponds to winter (Figure 6.16 and 6.16b). They may also be explained by a decline in income-generating opportunities from agriculture and by a decline in the local availability of food items in the market during the winter months.

Figure 6.15: Poverty rate, by season (in percentages)



³ While the methodology for poverty measurement divides the survey period into quarters, these quarters closely track seasons in the country, with quarter 1 roughly coinciding with spring, and quarter 4 with winter. However, seasonal poverty rates should be used with caution as poverty estimates are based on quarters and not seasons.

Figure 6.16: Price inflation of (a) food and non-food and (b) overall-, food- and non-food CPI, by quarter (base Q1=100)



^a Source: survey and non-food CPI, 2016-17

^b Source: CPI, 2016-17

6.4 Who are Afghanistan's poor?

Household and individual demographic and socio-economic characteristics are important correlates of poverty. This section provides some descriptive statistics on the key correlates of poverty in Afghanistan, while describing the prevalence of these characteristics among the poor and the population as a whole.

6.4.1 Demographic characteristics

Consistent with past NRVA surveys, demographic characteristics are strongly correlated with poverty headcount rates. First, poverty rates increase steadily with household size (*Figure 6.17*). While a third of households with one to five members live below the poverty line, roughly 60 percent of households with eight members or more are poor. Furthermore, smaller households with one to five members make up only 13 percent of the total population, whereas households with eight or more members make up more than 60 percent of the population (*Figure 6.18*). Households of larger size therefore, are both more prevalent and face a higher poverty rate.

Figure 6.17: Poverty rate, by household size (in percentages)

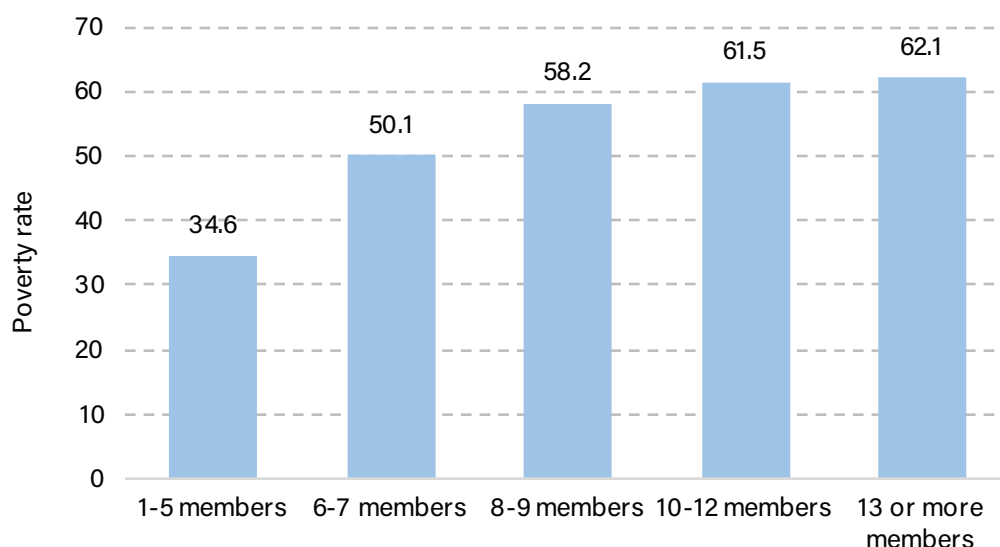
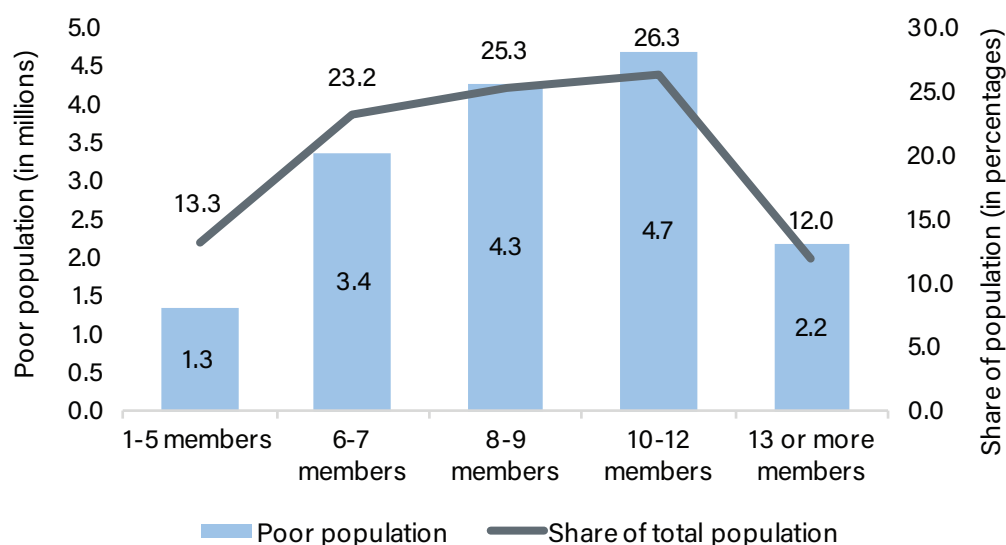


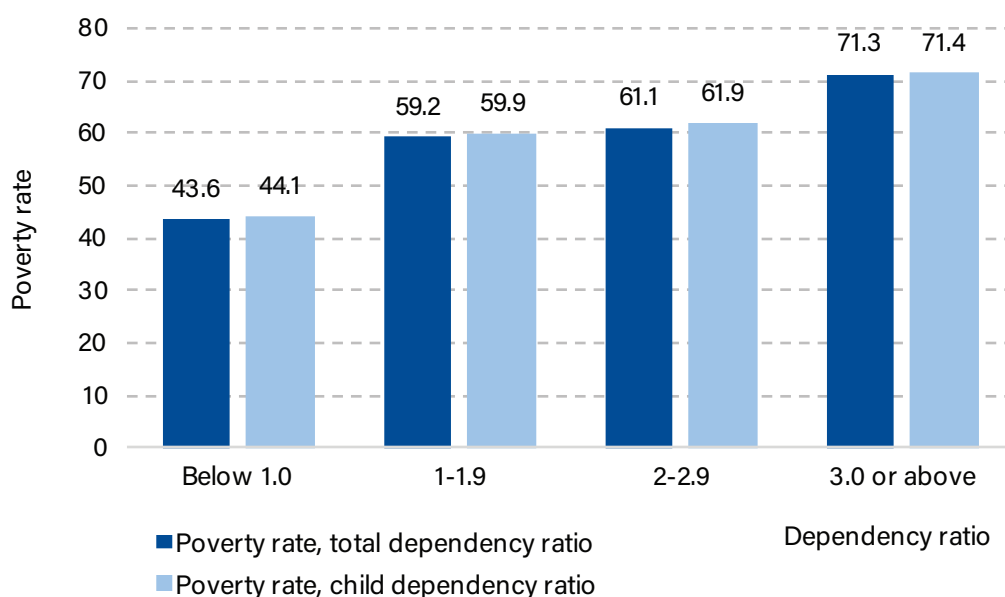
Figure 6.18: Poor population (in millions) and share of total population (in percentages), by household size



Poverty also rises with increasing dependency. *Figure 6.19* plots the share of the population living below the poverty line by child dependency and total dependency ratios.⁴ Given the demographic distribution of the country, with 48 percent of the population below the age of 15, the bulk of de-dependency is accounted for by children and as a result, the prevalence of poverty is very similar when comparing child dependency and total dependency. As with household size, households with very high dependency, for instance, three or more dependents to each working-age household member, face rates of poverty as high as 70 percent.

⁴ The total dependency ratio is the ratio of persons in the dependent ages (younger than 15 years and older than 64) to persons in the most productive ages or working-age (15-64). The child dependency ratio is the ratio of children younger than 15 years to the persons of working-age.

Figure 6.19: Poverty rate according to total- and child-dependency ratio, by dependency ratio (in percentages)

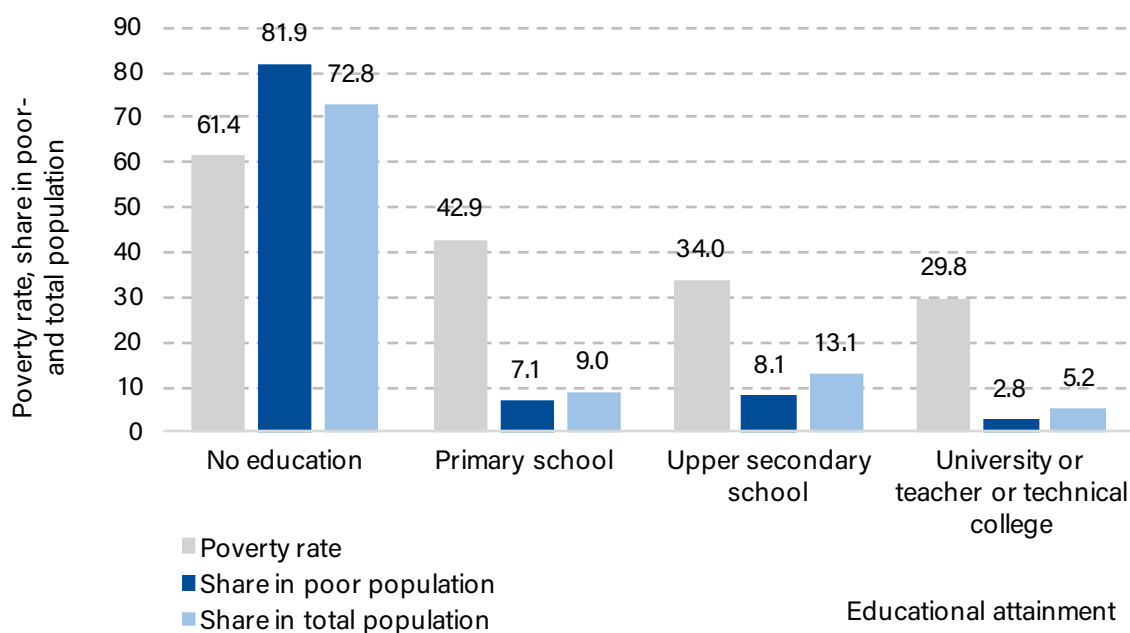


6.4.2 Education and labour market outcomes

Education (or the lack thereof) is another important correlate of poverty in Afghanistan. With only 36 percent of household heads being literate, the low levels of educational attainment are pervasive. Households with illiterate heads account for 74 percent of the population, facing poverty rates of 63 percent on average, compared with headcount rates of 40 percent among households with literate heads.

Breaking it down further, it becomes evident that the lack of education is both highly correlated with poverty, as well as highly prevalent. Approximately 73 percent of the population belongs to households where the head of household has no education (*Figure 6.20*). These households account for 82 percent of the poor, facing a poverty rate of 61 percent on average. While poverty does fall with increasing education of the head of household, households where heads have more than secondary education account for only 5 percent of the population. Finally, having an educated household head does not eliminate the risk of poverty.

Figure 6.20: Poverty rate, share in poor population and share in total population, by educational attainment of the head of household (in percentages)



The lack of a strong link between higher education and lower poverty likely reflects the pervasive lack of productive employment opportunities.⁵ Overall, 38 percent of the population belongs to households whose heads are either unemployed, under-employed or inactive (*Table 6.4*). About 42 percent of the poor population belongs to these types of households. In other words, the employment status of the head of the household does not sharply differentiate poor households from non-poor households. While poverty rates are highest among households with heads who are underemployed (63 percent), they remain high irrespective of the employment status of the head.

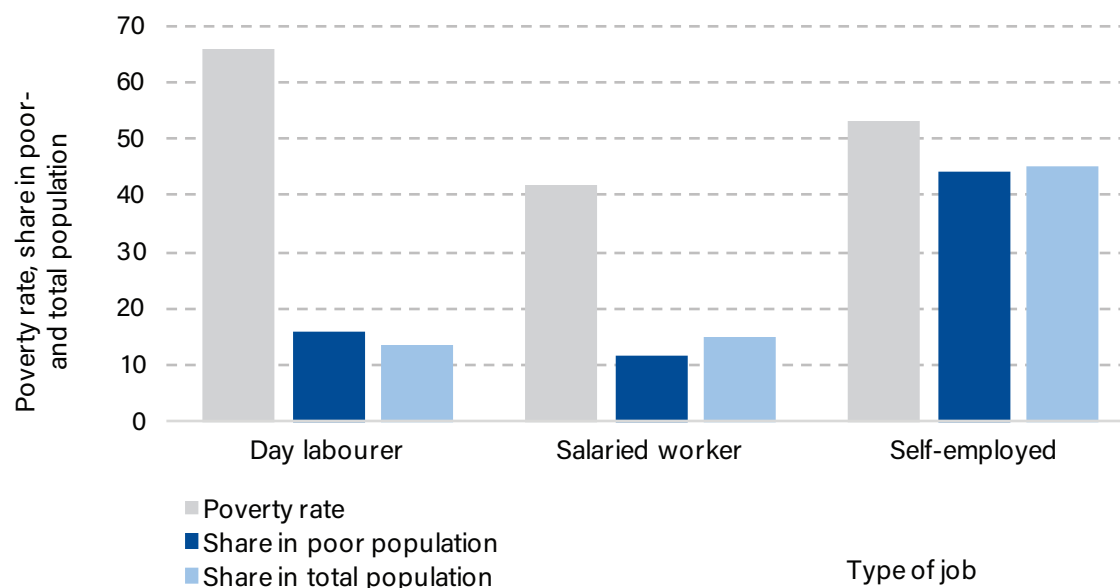
Table 6.4: Poverty rate, share in poor population and share in total population, by economic activity status of the head of household (in percentages)

Economic activity status of head of household	Poverty rate	Share of	
		poor population	total population
Employed	51.1	57.6	61.4
Underemployed	63.0	17.6	15.2
Unemployed	58.8	13.9	12.9
Inactive	57.2	10.8	10.3

To understand why the poverty rate among households with employed heads is more than 50 percent, we must understand the quality of employment. *Figure 6.21* plots poverty rates, share of the poor population and share of the total population by the type of job held by employed household heads. Approximately 59 percent of the population belongs to households where the head of household holds *vulnerable* employment, or in other words, is self-employed or works on own-account, is a day labourer or is an unpaid worker. Only 17 percent of the population belongs to households where heads hold salaried employment or work as employers. As *Figure 6.21* shows, only having a salaried job (15 percent of the population) brings poverty rates below 50 percent. In contrast, 56 percent of the population belongs to households with heads who are self-employed or day labourers, whose poverty rates are as high as 53 and 66 percent respectively.

5 For more details on labour market outcomes, please refer to chapter 4 on labour market.

Figure 6.21: Poverty rate, share in poor population and share in total population, by type of job of the head of household (in percentages)

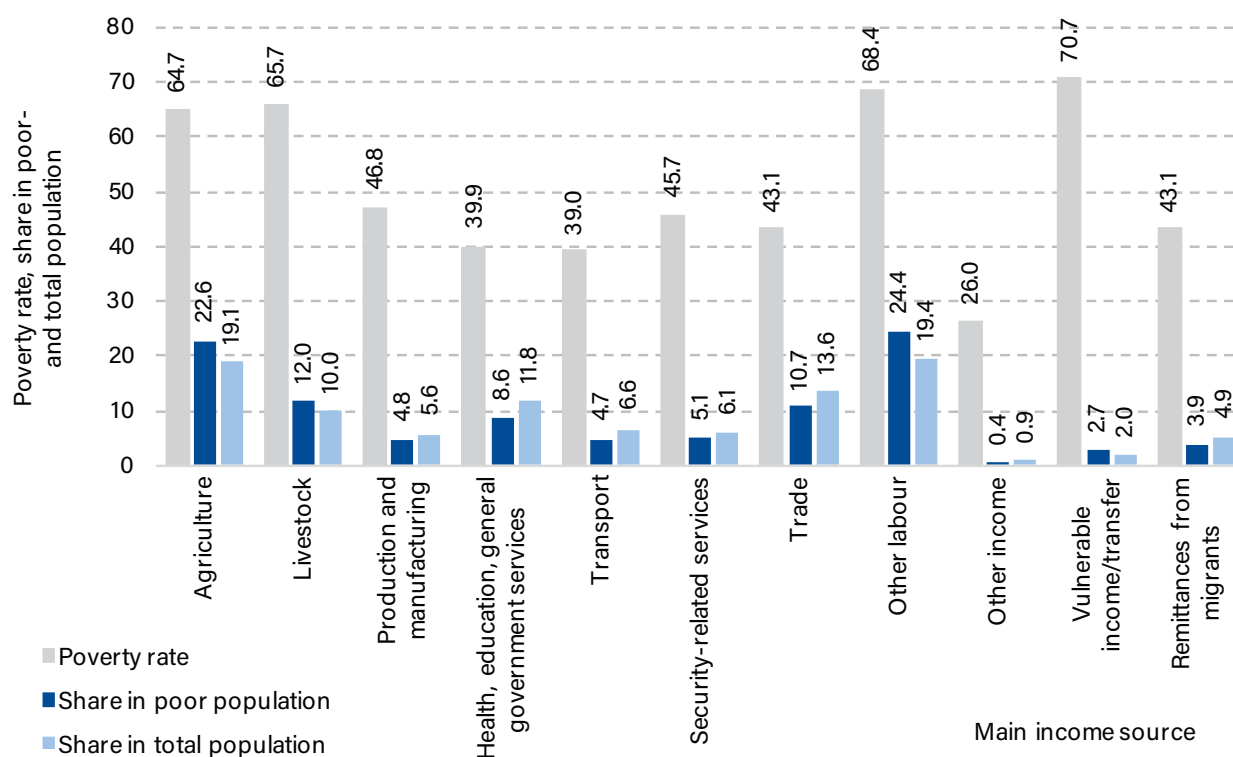


While employment of the household head in agriculture continues to be associated with higher poverty rates (63 percent), and accounts for a third of the poor population (and 29 percent of the total population) with employed heads, other sectors are also characterised by high poverty rates. Industry accounts for 11 percent of the poor (and total) population with employed heads of household, with a poverty rate of 58 percent; and the services sector⁶, with 29 percent of the poor (and 35 percent of the total) population with employed heads, has poverty rates of 45 percent.

Figure 6.22 also highlights the high vulnerability of poverty for households engaged in the agricultural and livestock sector, as well as those in wage or day labour ("other work"). Households who derive their main source of income from agriculture, livestock or non-formal employment (such as wage or day labour) have high poverty rates of 65, 66 and 68 percent respectively; almost 60 percent of poor Afghans live in such households. Afghans living in households with a main income source from health, education or general government services, as well as transport have the lowest poverty rates, yet, only 13 percent of Afghans live in such households. Furthermore, 2 percent of Afghans live in households with a vulnerable main income source (i.e. borrowing, zakat, dowry, begging). Poverty rates for those households are, unsurprisingly, high at 71 percent. On the other hand, remittances provide some monetary relief: Afghans living in households with remittances (about 5 percent of the total population) as a main income source are relatively better-off with poverty rates of 43 percent.

6 The service sector includes the following industries: wholesale and retail trade; transport, storage, communication; financing, insurance, real estate; and community, social and personal services.

Figure 6.22: Poverty rate, share in poor population and share in total population, by main household income source (in percentages)





7 FOOD SECURITY

Summary. A very significant proportion of Afghanistan's population face chronic and transitory food insecurity. Analysis of food insecurity based on calorie consumption in ALCS 2016-17 shows that 45 percent or 13.0 million people are food insecure. Of these, an estimated 3.9 million (or 13 percent) are very severely, 4.1 million (14 percent) severely and 5.0 million (17 percent) moderately food insecure. The proportion of food insecurity is lower among the Kuchi (32 percent) than among the rural and urban populations, of whom, respectively, 46 and 42 percent are food insecure. Still, the level of food insecurity among the Kuchi is very high and their number of food insecure accounts for 471 thousand of the in total 1.5 million Kuchis. The East, North and North-east regions have the highest proportions of food insecure and severe food insecure population. The 2016-17 overall food insecurity level of 45 percent implies an increase of 15 percentage points from 30 percent in 2011-12. The rural population was more affected by the deterioration (with 17 percentage points) than the urban and Kuchi populations (with 8 and 7 percentage points, respectively).

The diet of Afghan population is not only inadequate in quantity, but is also qualitatively poor, as it is mainly composed of staple food, sugar and oil. Overall, half of the population (51 percent) has poor or borderline food consumption, highest in rural residents (55 percent), followed by Kuchis (43 percent) and lowest in urban dwellers (40 percent). Overall, 30 percent of Afghans (8.8 million people) do not have an adequate protein intake (at least 50 grams per person per day) from their food basket. Almost all those who are deficient in protein consumption are also deficient in Kcal consumption. Inadequate protein- and Kcal consumption will particularly affect the nearly 1.4 million under-five children and make them vulnerable to malnutrition.

To cope with shocks, most households and their members mainly adopt short-term viable coping strategies. However, some unviable (distressed) coping strategies that negatively impact future food security are also used. Especially one fifth of Kuchi household's members adopt unviable coping strategies.

Food insecurity rates vary across the provinces, reflecting the different prevailing livelihoods and economic activities. The highest percentage of food-insecure population (over 60 percent) can be found in Jawzajan, Paktya, Takhar, Badakshan, Nangarhar, Uruzgan, Nooristan, Samangan, Balkh and Laghman.

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 and population that meet their minimum age-, sex- and seasonal-adjusted Kilocalorie (Kcal) requirement are considered food secure. In ALCS 2016-17 data are collected at household level on quantity of food consumed, sources of food with a seven-day recall period, which allows calculation of household and population food security, based on Kcal intake adjusted for additional requirement during the winter period. The following categories of Kcal consumption of population within households are used in the analysis in this chapter:

- Very severely food insecure: in shortfall of 600 or more Kcal per person per day
- Severely food insecure: in shortfall of 300-599 Kcal per person per day
- Moderately food insecure: in shortfall of 1-299 Kcal per person per day
- Borderline food secure: consuming the exact requirement or 1-300 Kcal per person per day more
- Adequately food secure: consuming more than 300 Kcal of the requirement per person per day

In addition to Kcal intake, other indicators – the Food Consumption Score (FCS), food-coping strategies (CSI) and the Household Hunger Score (HHS) – are included as food security indicators.

7.2 Current food security situation

7.2.1 Overall food security situation

Food insecurity is widely spread across population groups of Afghanistan. Overall, an estimated 13.0 million people or 44.6 percent of the Afghan population are very severely to moderately food insecure. Of these 3.9 million or 13.4 percent are very severely food insecure, as their food consumption shows a deficit of 600 Kcal or more (*Table 7.1*). The rural population seems to be more food insecure than the urban population, as 46.2 and 42.1 percent, respectively, are food insecure. Compared to the urban and rural populations, the Kuchi seem to be better off, but still the level of their food insecurity is very high at 32.9 percent. In terms of absolute numbers 9.6 million rural, 2.9 million urban and 470 thousand Kuchi are food insecure.

Table 7.1: Population, by residence, and by food-security status (in millions and in percentages)

<i>a. In millions</i>								
Residence	Food insecure				Food secure			Total
	Very severely	Severely	Moderately	Total	Borderline	Adequately	Total	
Total	3.9	4.1	5.0	13.0	4.7	11.4	16.1	29.1
Urban	0.9	0.8	1.2	2.9	1.1	2.9	4.0	6.9
Rural	2.9	3.1	3.6	9.6	3.3	7.8	11.1	20.7
Kuchi	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.7	1.0	1.5

<i>b. In percentages</i>								
Residence	Food insecure				Food secure			Total
	Very severely	Severely	Moderately	Total	Borderline	Adequately	Total	
Total	13.4	14.1	17.1	44.6	16.2	39.3	55.4	100.0
Urban	12.9	12.1	17.1	42.1	15.5	42.4	57.9	100.0
Rural	14.0	15.0	17.3	46.2	16.1	37.7	53.8	100.0
Kuchi	8.1	10.2	14.0	32.3	19.8	47.9	67.7	100.0

Note: The sum of cells may not add up to the total due to rounding.

The large majority of people facing caloric deficiency also face inadequate protein consumption¹ across all population groups. In total, 8.8 million people or 30.1 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, 8.4 million are facing both calorie and protein deficiency. Inadequate calorie and protein consumption will particularly affect children under five years of age, who account for 17 percent of household members in the ALCS survey. This means at least 2.2 million under-five children reside in food-insecure households, of which 1.4 million 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.

Whereas 2.9 million urban people are food-insecure (having a Kcal deficit), 1.9 million urbanites (27.1 percent) are protein-deficient and 1.8 million (25.7 percent) have a deficit in both Kcal and protein consumption. In rural areas, 9.6 million people are Kcal deficient and 6.6 million (31.7 percent) are protein deficient, while 6.4 million (30.7 percent) have a deficit in both Kcal and protein consumption. Of the Kuchi population, 471 thousand are Kcal deficient, 330 thousand (22.7 percent) are protein deficient and 279 thousand (19.1 percent) have a deficit in both Kcal and protein consumption.

¹ The following protein thresholds were applied for calculating protein deficiency: very severe deficit – less than 50 percent of protein requirement (consumption of less than 25 grams per person per day); severe deficit – 25 to 50 percent of protein requirement (consumption of 25 to less than 37.5 grams per person per day); moderate deficit – less than 25 percent of requirement (consumption of 37.5 to less than 50 grams per person per day); acceptable consumption – 50 grams or more per person per day.

7.2.2 Distribution by region and province

Food insecurity varies by region.² The highest proportion of food insecure people is reported in the Eastern region (59.7 percent), followed by the North region (54.9 percent), North-east (50.5 percent) and the Central Highlands region (49.0 percent) (Table 7.2). These regions also have the highest proportion of severely food insecure people. The largest number of food insecure population – 2.2 million people – live in the North, followed by 2.1 million people in Central region and 2.0 million people in North-east region.

Food security also widely varies by province. Ten provinces with very high food insecurity (above 60 percent) are Jawzjan, Paktya, Takhar, Badakshan, Nangarhar, Urozgan, Nooristan, Samangan, Balkh and Laghman (Figure 7.1). A second group of provinces with high food insecurity (40.1 to 60.0 percent) includes Ghazni, Kunduz, Zabul, Herat, Daykundi, Badghis, Kandahar, Faryab, Ghor and Sar-e-Pul. The third category of provinces (30.1-40.0 percent food insecurity) includes Parwan, Nimroz, Kunarha, Bamyān and Wardak. The fourth category provinces with 20.1-30.0 percent food-insecure are Panjsher, Khost, Kabul, Farah, Kapisa, Helmand and Logar. The least food-insecure group, with 10.1-20.0 percent food-insecure is Paktika and Baghlan with less than 10 percent food-insecure population.

Table 7.2: Population, by region, and by food-security status (in thousands and in percentages)

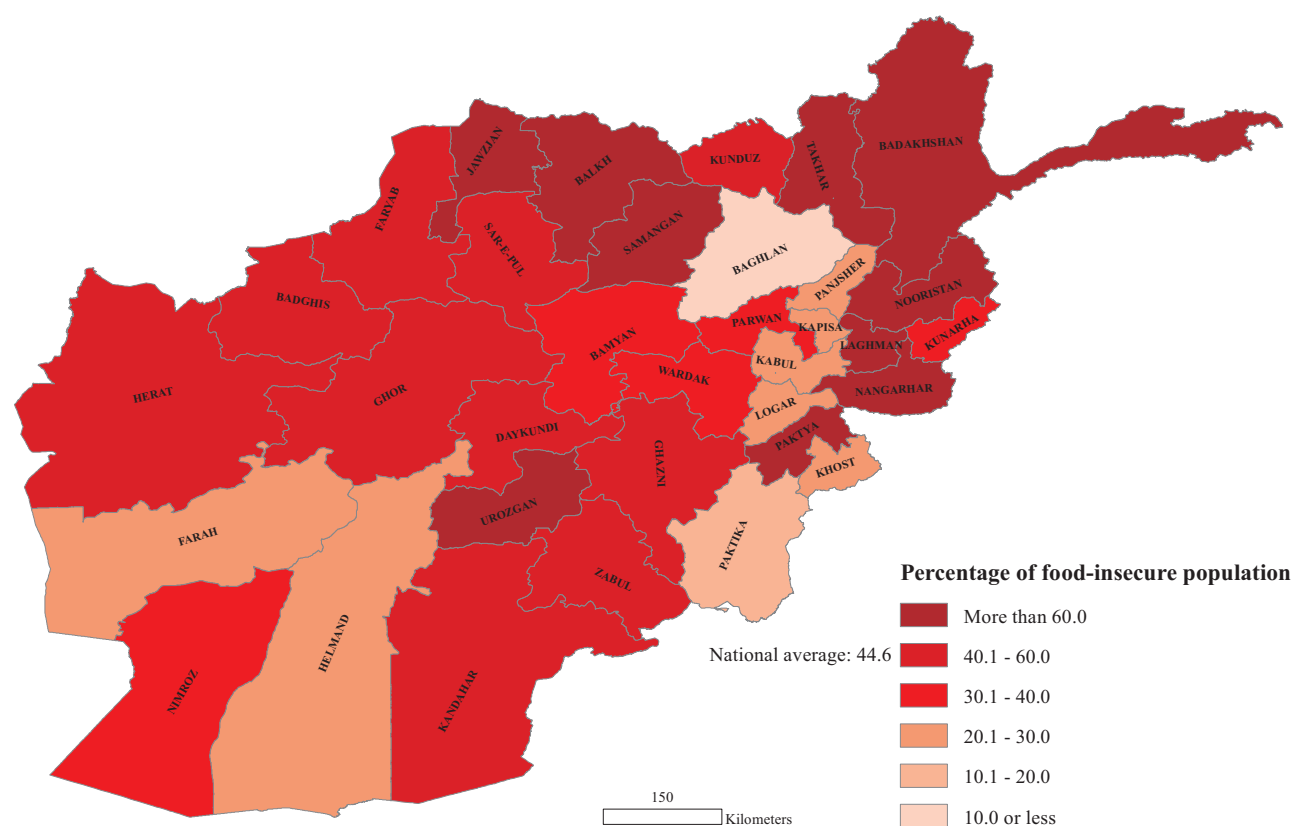
a. In thousands								
Region	Food insecure				Food secure			Total
	Very severely	Severely	Moderately	Total	Border-line	Adequately	Total	
Total	3,899	4,090	4,977	12,967	4,700	11,434	16,134	29,101
Central	415	567	1,100	2,082	1,225	3,796	5,022	7,103
Central Highland	633	388	430	1,451	413	1,096	1,510	2,961
East	385	636	641	1,661	465	656	1,121	2,782
North	865	693	683	2,241	588	1,250	1,838	4,078
North-east	782	668	581	2,030	454	1,536	1,991	4,020
South-east	195	235	214	644	186	791	978	1,621
South-west	211	428	694	1,333	728	1,137	1,865	3,198
West	414	476	636	1,526	640	1,171	1,811	3,337

b. In percentages								
Region	Food insecure				Food secure			Total
	Very severely	Severely	Moderately	Total	Border-line	Adequately	Total	
Total	13.4	14.1	17.1	44.6	16.2	39.3	55.4	100.0
Central	5.8	8.0	15.5	29.3	17.2	53.4	70.7	100.0
Central Highland	21.4	13.1	14.5	49.0	14.0	37.0	51.0	100.0
East	13.8	22.8	23.0	59.7	16.7	23.6	40.3	100.0
North	21.2	17.0	16.7	54.9	14.4	30.6	45.1	100.0
North-east	19.4	16.6	14.4	50.5	11.3	38.2	49.5	100.0
South-east	12.0	14.5	13.2	39.7	11.5	48.8	60.3	100.0
South-west	6.6	13.4	21.7	41.7	22.8	35.6	58.3	100.0
West	12.4	14.3	19.1	45.7	19.2	35.1	54.3	100.0

Note: The sum of cells may not add up to the total due to rounding.

² Provinces classified in each region are as follow: Central: Kabul, Kapisa, Parwan, Panjsher, Wardak and Logar; Central Highlands: Bamyān, Daykundi, Ghor and Ghazni; East: Nangarhar, Laghman, Kunarha and Nooristan; North: Balkh, Samangan, Sar-e-Pul, Jawzjan and Faryab; North-East: Badakshan, Takhar, Kunduz and Baghlan; South-East: Paktya, Paktika and Khost; South-West: Kandahar, Helmand, Zabul, Uruzgan and Nimroz; West: Herat, Badghis and Farah.

Figure 7.1: Percentage food-insecure population, by province



7.2.3 Protein consumption

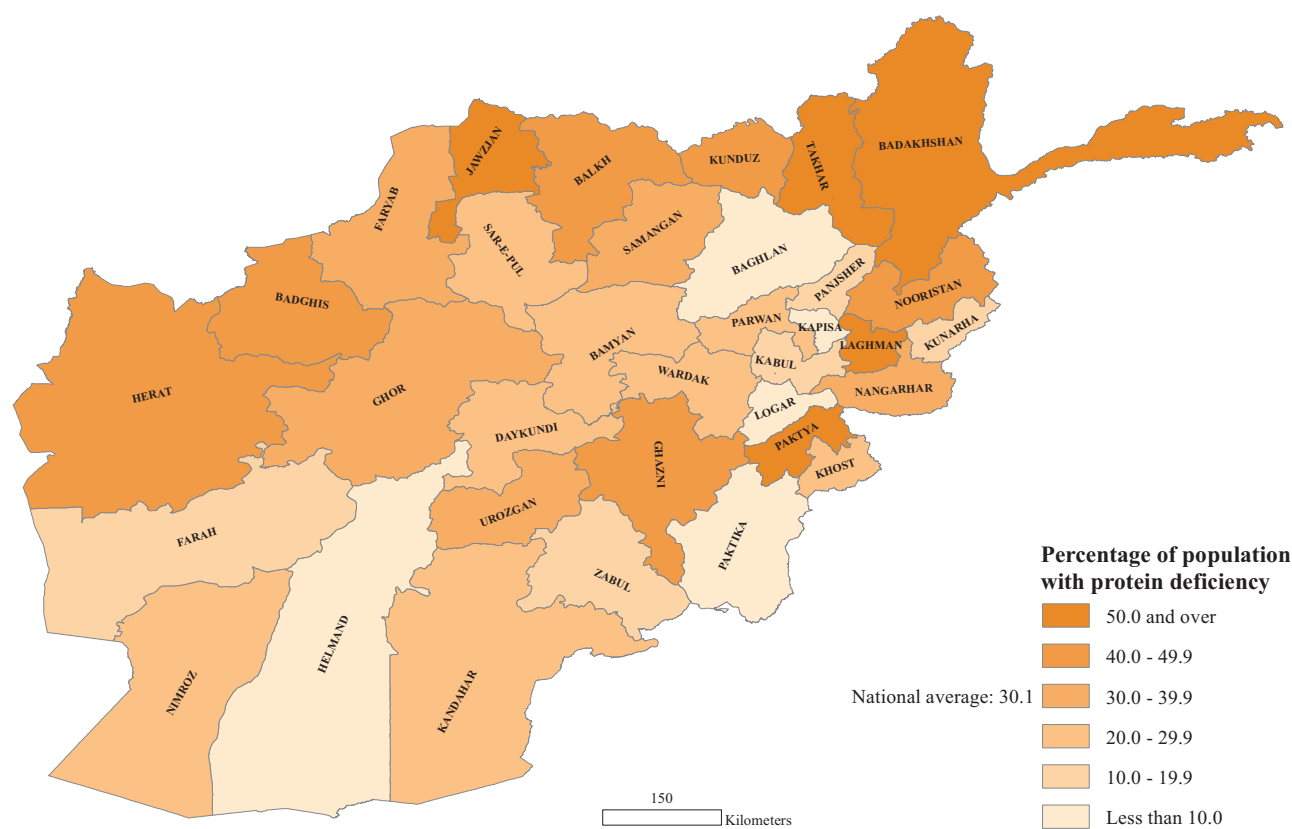
The Afghan diet is not only deficit in calories and poor in diversity, but also poor in protein content. Overall 8.8 million people (30.1 percent) consume a diet leaving them with some level of protein deficiency. Of them 0.4 million (1.4 percent) face a very severe protein deficit (consuming less than 50 percent of the requirement), 2.3 million (8 percent) experience a severe protein deficit (deficit by 25 to 50 percent of the requirement) and 6.0 million (20.8 percent) are moderately protein-deficit (lacking up to quarter of their protein requirements).

The rural population has a higher level of protein deficit (31.7 percent, representing 6.6 million people), followed by the urban population (27.1 percent or 1.9 million people) and – as can be expected due to more access to dairy and other animal products – Kuchis have the lowest proportion of protein deficiency (22.7 percent or 330 thousand people). The Kuchi population also has the lowest percentage of population in very severe and severe protein-deficit categories, while there is not much variation between rural and urban populations in the proportions in these two severity categories.

At the regional level, North and North-east regions have the highest proportion of population with a protein deficit (41.0 and 40.1 percent, respectively), followed by East (36.7 percent), West (35.8 percent), Central highland (35.6 percent) and South-east (30.2 percent). South-west and Central regions have the lowest proportion of protein-deficit population (16.5 percent and 16.7 percent, respectively). In absolute numbers, North and North-east also have the highest protein-deficit people (1.7 and 1.6 million respectively).

At the province level, Jawzjan has the highest proportion of population deficit in protein, followed by Paktia, Takhar, Laghman and Badakhshan (all over 50 percent). Balkh, Kunduz, Ghazni, Nooristan, Herat and Badghis had between 40 and 50 percent protein-deficit population.

Figure 7.2: Percentage of population with protein deficiency, by province

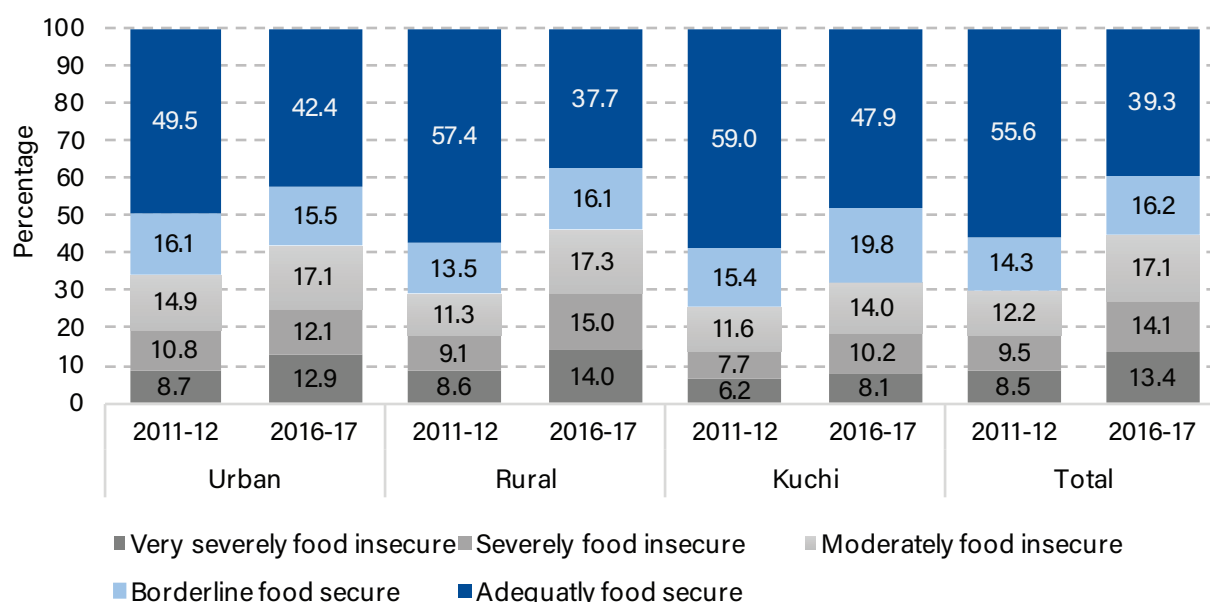


7.3 Trends in food security

Figure 7.3 provides the information about the trend in the food security situation of the population between NRVA 2011-12 and ALCS 2016-17. Overall, food insecurity increased from 30.1 percent in 2011-12 to 44.6 percent in 2016-17, an increase of 14.5 percentage points. Increases of almost 5 percentage points can be observed in each level of food insecurity (very severely, severely and moderately) at national level.

There is increase in food insecurity in all residence population groups, with the highest increase observed in rural areas (17.2 percentage points), followed by urban areas (7.7 percentage points), and the least among the Kuchi (6.7 percentage points). The rural population also experienced the largest increases in food insecurity in every level of food insecurity (5.4, 5.8 and 6.9 percentage points in very severe, severe and moderately food insecure, respectively). In the urban population, the highest increase occurred in the very severely food insecure group (4.1 percentage points), whereas the Kuchis had the highest increase in the severely food insecure category (2.5 percentage points) followed by moderately (2.3 percentage points) and least in very severely food insecure population.

Figure 7.3: Population, by residence, survey year, and by food-security status (in percentages)



Note: The sum of cells may not add up to the total due to rounding.

7.4 Characteristics of the food-insecure population

7.4.1 Economic characteristics

Households' income sources relate to household and population food security. Highly food-insecure populations with proportions food-insecure of more than 50 percent include those which receive their income from borrowing, dowry, begging, carpet weaving and day labour (*Table 7.3*). A second group of people with high food insecurity levels (45 to 50 percent) is residing in households with income from food production and processing, other work, wage labour, zakat, sewing and embroidery, etc., non-opium agricultural wage labour, taxi/transport, production and sale of livestock, other production work, production and sale of non-opium field crops and by products, other service work, teaching and remittances from migrants. The third group of people with 40-44 percent food insecurity is residing in households with income sources from other trade, shop keeping/small business, other handicraft work, police, shepherding wage labour, street/market sales, road/building construction and medical work. Population with the lowest level of food insecurity resides in households with income from retirement/pension, security, other government/NGO/UN work, rental income, opium wage labour, military services, and government and non-government office work.

Table 7.3: Population, by household income source and associated level of food insecurity (in percentages)

Household income source	Percentage with income source	Of whom food-insecure
Total ^a		44.6
Borrowing	2.4	54.2
Dowry	0.5	54.1
Begging	0.2	52.0
Carpet weaving	1.1	51.6
Other work, day labour	9.1	51.0
Production and sale of opium	1.7	50.3
Food production and processing	1.4	49.4
Other work, wage labour	18.9	48.7
Zakat	1.3	48.3
Sewing, embroidery etc.	2.0	47.9
Agricultural wage labour (non-opium)	4.9	46.6
Taxi/transport	9.3	46.6
Production and sale of livestock	18.6	46.2
Other production work	1.1	46.1
Production and sale of field crops and by-products (non-opium)	28.5	45.8
Other service work	3.5	45.6
Teaching	5.4	45.3
Remittances from migrants	7.0	45.1
Production and sale of orchard products	6.7	44.3
Other trade	2.1	43.8
Shop keeping/small business	13.9	43.7
Other handicraft work	0.8	43.4
Police	3.3	43.2
Shepherding wage labour	1.7	43.2
Mechanics work	2.1	42.8
Street/market sales	2.0	42.5
Road/building construction	1.3	42.1
Doctor/nurse/medical worker	1.4	41.3
Office work, non-government	2.5	39.6
Office work, government	4.8	39.4
Military service	3.4	38.3
Opium wage labour	0.5	38.0
Rental income	1.7	37.4
Other government/NGO/UN work	0.6	35.5
Security	0.6	34.8
Retirement/pension	1.3	31.1

^a Multiple response question, so not adding to 100 percent.

Food insecurity also has a clear relation with the employment status of the head of household. The percentage of the population that is food insecure is lowest for people living in households with an employed head (41.5 percent) and is higher for every subsequent type of household with, respectively, heads of household who are underemployed (47.2 percent), unemployed (50.8 percent) and inactive (51.1 percent) (*Table 7.4*). A similar pattern is observed when looking at the severity of food insecurity: the proportion of very severely food insecure population is lowest among people living in households with an employed head (10.8 percent), while it is higher among those with an underemployed head (14.8 percent) and it is highest among people living in households with an unemployed or economically inactive head (20.4 and 18.4 percent, respectively). The opposite pattern is found when looking at the borderline food-secure and adequately food-secure population. Similar patterns in food insecurity exist in all regions of the country.

Table 7.4: Population, by economic activity status of the head of household, and by food-security status (in percentages)

Economic activity status of head of household	Food insecure				Food secure			Total
	Very severely	Severely	Moderately	Total	Border-line	Adequately	Total	
Total	13.4	14.0	17.1	44.6	16.1	39.3	55.4	100.0
Employed	10.8	13.4	17.2	41.5	16.6	41.9	58.5	100.0
Underemployed	14.8	14.7	17.7	47.2	17.2	35.6	52.8	100.0
Unemployed	20.4	15.6	14.9	50.8	14.2	34.9	49.2	100.0
Inactive	18.4	14.6	18.0	51.1	14.3	34.6	48.9	100.0

7.4.2 Demographic and social characteristics

Several demographic and social characteristics show clear correlations with food-security levels. Thus, food insecurity increases as household size increases (*Table 7.5*). Also, the age of the household head seems to be related to food-security status. Overall, households headed by adults under 20 years of age tend to be more food insecure (53.2 percent) than those with young adult household heads aged 20-44 (36.1 percent). Households headed by persons of older working age (45-64) are again significantly more often food insecure (49.6 percent), while the level among households with older heads (65 and over) is again lower. The differences may be related to household size and the ratio between the number of household members and the number of breadwinners in the household.

People living in female-headed household seem to be more often food-insecure than those living in male-headed households, although in urban areas the association seems to be the inverse. However, the differences are not statistically significant, and the data do not justify reporting a difference in food-security status between male- and female-headed households. Overall, household members headed by married heads are less food-insecure than people in other marital status categories, except for those never married and not engaged. However, due to the small categories of persons living in households with non-married household heads, the differences are not statistically significant.

The level of food insecurity is related to the educational attainment of household heads. Overall, there are negligible differences in food insecurity between people living in households with heads who did not complete education or only primary education and – surprisingly – those with teacher education (45-46 percent food insecure). People living in households with heads who completed secondary school or university or technical college were significantly less food-insecure.

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

Household characteristic		Urban	Rural	Total
Total		42.1	46.2	44.6
Household size	1-2 persons	13.6	17.4	18.3
	3-5 persons	28.2	32.4	30.9
	6-8 persons	41.6	45.1	43.2
	9-10 persons	48.4	50.6	48.9
	11-14 persons	48.0	50.6	50.2
	15 persons or more	47.3	49.5	48.1
Age of head of household	Less than 20	50.6	47.1	45.9
	20-44	39.9	41.9	40.9
	45-64	44.9	52.0	49.6
	65 and over	41.6	46.5	44.1
Sex of head of household	Male	42.2	46.2	44.5
	Female	36.8	54.1	48.5
Marital status of head of household	Married	42.1	46.2	44.5
	Widowed	49.4	49.2	48.7
	Divorced or separated	28.7	59.7	48.0
	Engaged	35.8	53.5	49.1
	Never married, not engaged	36.1	42.3	38.4
Educational attainment of head of household	No education	46.7	46.9	45.8
	Primary school	43.0	46.9	45.4
	Secondary school	34.1	38.4	36.5
	Teacher college	38.5	48.4	46.1
	University / technical college	26.0	39.6	31.3

7.5 Seasonality of food insecurity

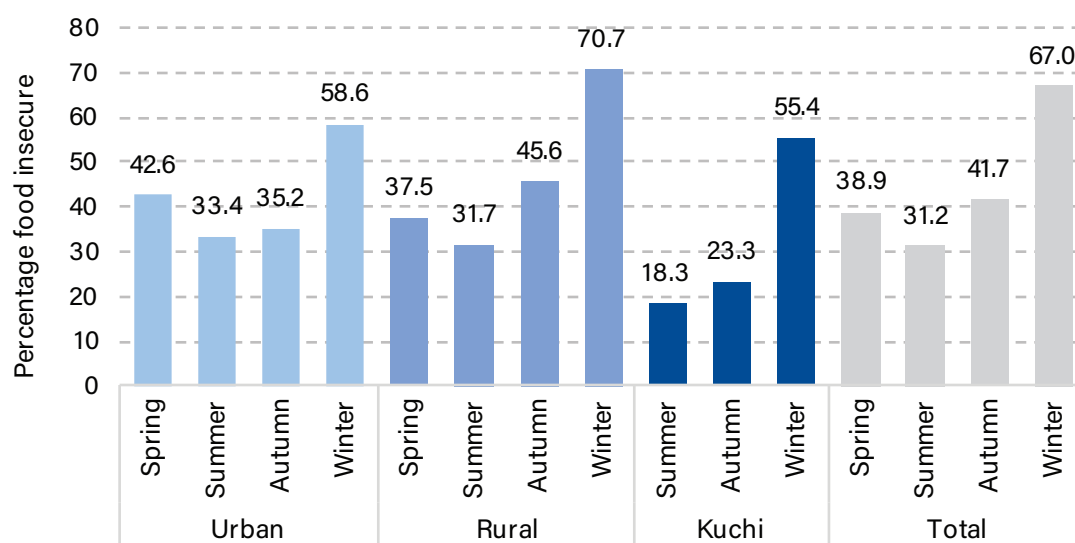
7.5.1 Seasonal variation

There is wide variability in the seasonal agricultural pattern in Afghanistan, particularly in areas where crop production relies heavily on 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 a 12-year average (MAIL 2016). 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 significantly between winter-spring and summer-autumn periods of the year despite the inherent high level of food insecurity across Afghanistan (*Figure 7.4*).

The highest level of overall food insecurity is estimated at 67.0 percent of population in the winter and it declines to 38.9 percent in spring and 31.2 percent in summer at the time when usually the main harvest takes place. This pattern exists in all residence categories of households.³

Figure 7.4: Percentage of food-insecure population, by residence, season



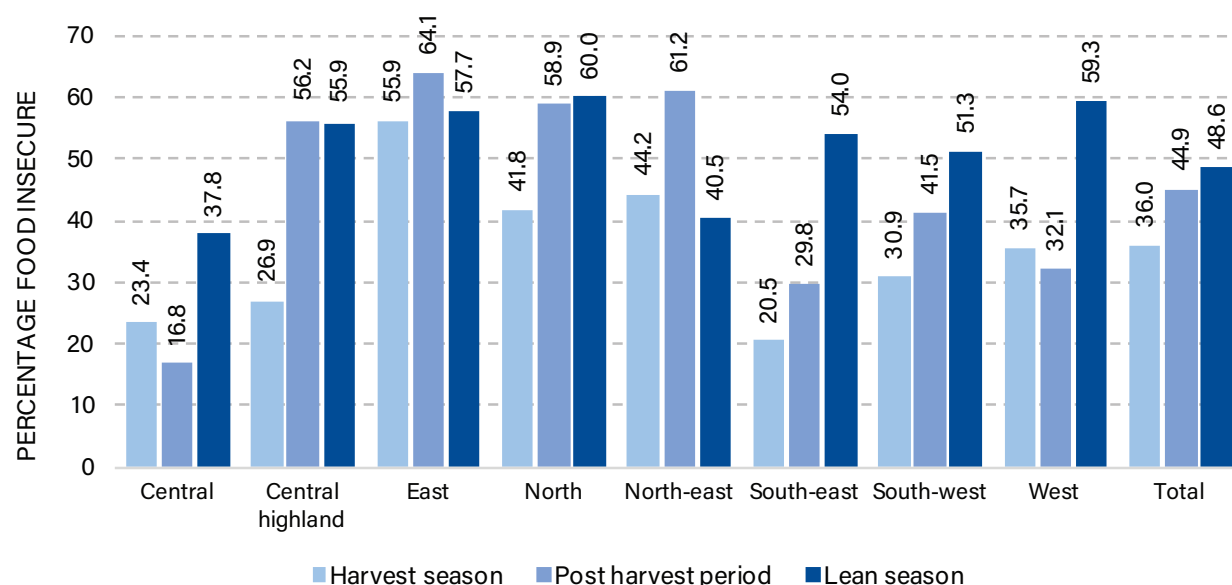
7.5.2 Differences between harvest and lean seasons

There is considerable variation in the harvest- and lean seasons across the country. The main harvest period is generally in the months of June and July for main staples (especially wheat), while some of the provinces also have a second main harvest (rice and maize), and the months where the second harvest is taking place are also marked as harvest period. The post-harvest period is usually from August to mid-December, while the pre-harvest or lean season is generally from mid-December to April. In this analysis the harvest, post-harvest and lean seasons are based on local assessments of harvesting periods, harvest lasts and typical lean seasons of a normal year.

Generally, food insecurity is lowest during the harvest season and gradually increases during the post-harvest season and peaks in the lean season. This typical pattern of food insecurity is observed in the South-west-, South-east- and North, while other regions deviate from this pattern (*Figure 7.5*). The Central region shows the lowest food insecurity in the post-harvest season and the East region has high levels in all seasons with a peak in the post-harvest period, which might be due to the huge influx of returnees in 2016. The North-east region is a surplus region, but also includes Badakhshan which is food-deficit every year and has an agriculture cycle that is different from the other three provinces of this region.

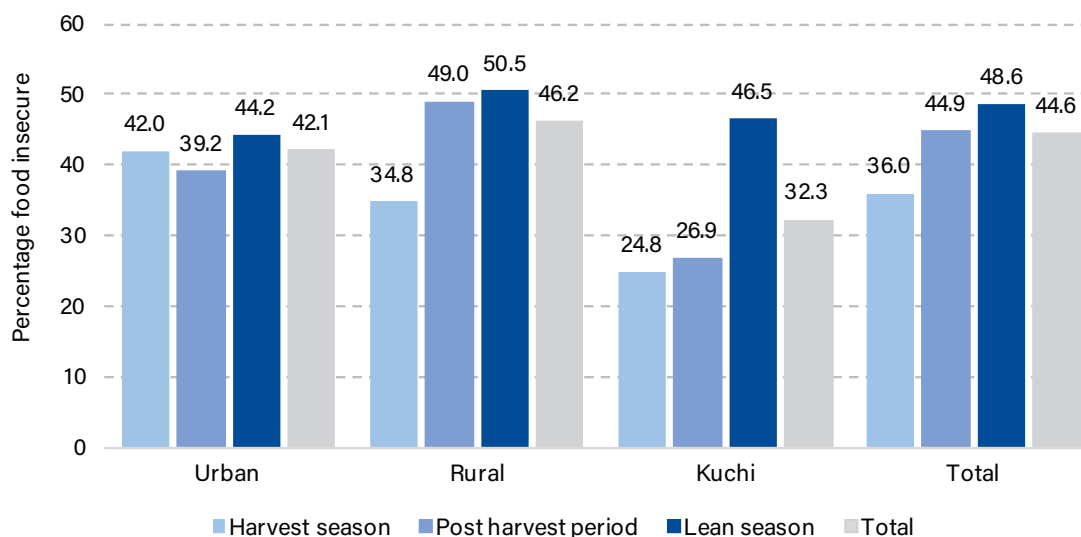
³ Interviews with Kuchi households were mainly conducted in autumn and winter, a relatively small number in summer and none in spring.

Figure 7.5: Percentage of food-insecure population, by region, and by agriculture season



A comparison across residence groups shows a similar pattern for all groups, with the highest proportion of population facing food insecurity during the lean season and the lowest proportion during the harvest period (Figure 7.6). For rural areas, the share of food-insecure population decreased from 50.5 percent in the lean season to 34.8 percent in the harvest period and went up to 49.0 percent in the post-harvest period. The Kuchi population has the highest level of food insecurity in the lean season – 46.5 percent – which drastically decreased to 24.8 percent in the harvest season and then gradually increased in the post-harvest season (26.9 percent). For them, the harvest period coincides with the peak of milk production and food insecurity declines due to increased dairy consumption, as well as to increased income from sale of dairy products. In urban areas, food insecurity also decreased from the lean season to the harvest period and went down further in the post-harvest period, although the differences between these periods are less pronounced than in the rural areas. Since food insecurity in urban areas and among the Kuchi is not only affected by the amount of harvested crop available in the urban markets, but also by other market and economic factors, and factors related to livestock production, the variability of food insecurity seems to go beyond the seasonal cropping pattern.

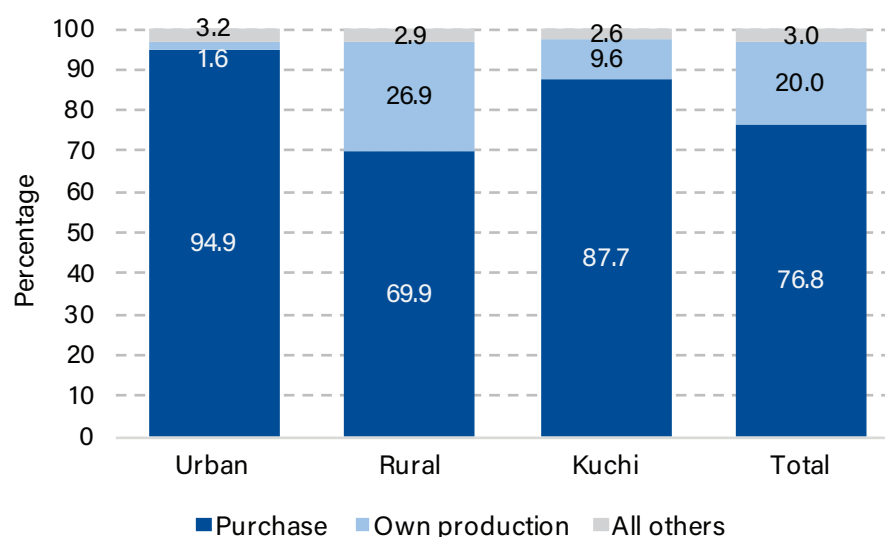
Figure 7.6: Percentage of food-insecure population, by residence, and by agriculture season



7.6 Sources of food items

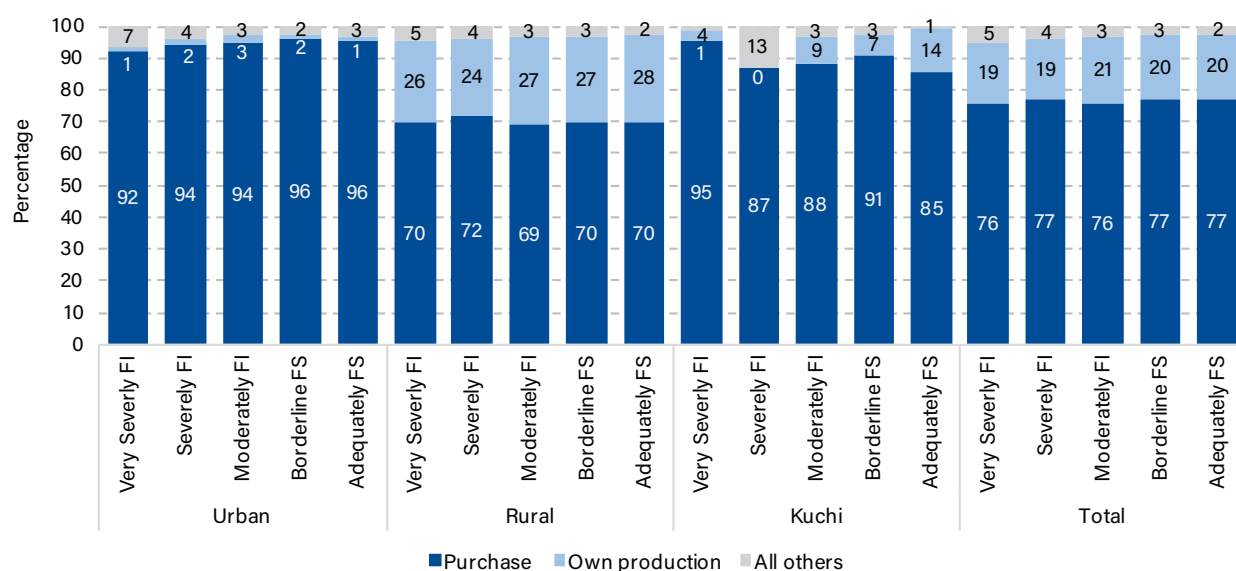
In most parts of the country, cereals are the main staple food and wheat is most important cereal consumed. A large majority of 76.8 percent of the population depends on purchase as their main source of cereals and another 20.0 percent uses their own production (*Figure 7.7*). Other sources – barter, gifts or charity, collecting wild foods and food aid – are of minor importance and only account for 3.0 percent of cereal sources. However, the distribution of cereal sources differs by residence. As can be expected, rural households more often produce cereal for their own consumption (26.9 percent own production and 69.9 percent purchase), whereas for urban and Kuchi populations this source is of very little importance. For the two latter population groups, the proportion that relies on cereal purchase is 94.9 and 87.7, respectively.

Figure 7.7: Population, by residence, and by source of cereal (in percentages)



There is very little variance in the distribution of cereal sources by food-security status, except for Kuchis (*Figure 7.8*). For these, the share that depends on bartering and buying on credit (included in the 'Other' category) increases with increasing food insecurity, from less than one percent for adequately food secure population to 13 percent of severely food insecure population. At regional level, the highest percentage of population relying on own production is found in the Central Highland region (36.2 percent) and West region (35.3 percent), followed by South-west (28.4 percent) and North (24.7 percent), while in the rest of the regions reliance on own production ranges from 7.6 percent up to 16.5 percent.

Figure 7.8: Population, by residence, food security status, and by source of cereal (in percentages)



The urban population reported little seasonal variation in their purchase of cereals, although it was slightly higher in autumn and winter months. The rural population had a somewhat higher percentage of reliance on cereal purchase during spring before the main harvest (72.6 percent) and reliance on own production increased during summer and winter. For Kuchis, the share of purchase is lowest in summer time (79.2 percent, when they have some 21 percent of own production supply) and then gradually increases to a peak during winter (94 percent).

7.7 Food consumption

7.7.1 Dietary diversity

In Afghanistan even among people who satisfy their calorie requirements, those who consume a non-diversified, unbalanced and unhealthy diet, can be classified as food insecure. Hungry people spend a larger share, if not all, of their food budget on staples, such as wheat or wheat flour and rice, which provide cheap and accessible sources of calories. In doing so, they compromise more nutritious items and their diet lacks adequate proteins and micro-nutrients.

Poor diet diversity is a serious problem across much of Afghanistan. Most of the food consumed is made up of staples (wheat in particular). According to the Diet Diversity Score (DDS),⁴ on average population in Afghanistan households consumes food from only 5.1 food groups (*Table 7.6*). The score for urban population is slightly higher than for rural and Kuchi households (5.8, 4.9 and 5.0 food groups, respectively). The regions of the Central Highlands, North-east, South-east and North score below the national average and consume 3.9, 4.1, 4.8 and 4.9 food groups, respectively. Population of female-headed households consume lower food groups (4.6 groups) than those resides in household headed by male (5.1 groups).

4 The Dietary Diversity Score (DDS) indicator measures the number of different food groups consumed over a given period. It provides an estimation of the quality of a diet. Several dietary diversity indicators are used for food security analysis, such as the FAO Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS), and the IFPRI DDS (used by WFP since it is compatible with the FCS data collection tool). In this report the IFPRI DDS is used with the following thresholds:

6+ = good dietary diversity
4.5–6 = medium dietary diversity
<4.5 = low dietary diversity

Table 7.6: Mean Dietary Diversity Score, percentage of population residing in households with low dietary diversity and percentage of population not consuming meat, dairy and vegetables, by selected background variables

Background variables	Dietary Diversity Score		In the past week did not consumed any:		
	Mean	Perc. low score	Meat, fish, eggs	Dairy	Vegetables
Total	5.1	33.7	34.3	39.6	29.2
Residence					
Urban	5.8	17.2	20.6	36.0	9.7
Rural	4.9	39.1	39.2	41.4	35.0
Kuchi	5.0	35.9	29.6	31.6	40.8
Region					
Central	5.8	17.9	24.2	31.5	16.3
Central highland	4.0	66.0	57.6	44.0	74.3
East	5.7	19.2	37.2	26.9	8.1
North	4.9	39.1	26.6	42.7	41.4
North-east	4.1	61.8	53.3	56.0	47.7
South-east	4.9	38.2	54.0	58.8	6.8
South-west	5.5	15.9	24.8	42.1	5.6
West	5.3	25.6	18.9	28.7	31.0
Sex of household head					
Male	5.1	33.6	34.2	39.6	29.2
Female	4.6	51.0	44.8	50.7	38.9

Overall, the proportion of population with low dietary diversity accounts for 33.7 percent of all Afghan population, representing 17.2 and 39.1 percent of urban and rural population, respectively, and 35.9 percent of Kuchi population. Urban population tends to have higher consumption of meat, fish and eggs and vegetables, compared to the rural and Kuchi population. As expected, the Kuchi people consume more dairy products compared to other groups. The wider diversity of foods available in urban areas is likely because most commodities are purchased from the market – an easier access to commodities – and because of higher cash-income levels and, therefore, a better purchasing power. Apart from limited purchasing power to afford protein-rich and micronutrient-rich foods, poor dietary habits likely play a role in the generally low consumption of vegetables among rural and Kuchi population, where vegetables are cultivated and available many months a year.

People in some regions of Afghanistan are particularly prone to poor dietary diversity. The reasons for this probably relate to issues of availability, security and access. In the Central Highlands and North-east regions more than half of the population consumes a diet of minimal diversity and next to them are North and South-east regions, where 39 percent and 38 percent of population are having lower dietary diversity, respectively.

7.7.2 Food Consumption Score (FCS)⁵

The Food Consumption Score (FCS) combines food diversity and food frequency (the number of days each food group is consumed), weighted by the relative nutritional importance of different food groups. Nationally, 49.5 percent of the population were found to have acceptable food consumption, while 19.8 percent have poor food consumption and 30.7 percent have borderline food consumption (*Table 7.7*). Population with borderline food consumption are vulnerable to slipping into the poor food consumption group if their situation were to deteriorate. According to the same principle, there is an opportunity to raise their level to acceptable consumption with the right set of interventions.

Table 7.7: Percentage population, by selected background variables, and by Food Consumption Score group (in percentages)

Background variables	Poor (<=28)	Borderline (28.5-42)	Acceptable (>=42)	Total
Total	19.8	30.7	49.5	100.0
Residence				
Urban	9.3	30.4	60.3	100.0
Rural	23.8	30.8	45.3	100.0
Kuchi	12.3	31.1	56.6	100.0
Region				
Central	7.8	27.6	64.6	100.0
Central highland	40.4	25.8	33.8	100.0
East	6.6	37.8	55.6	100.0
North	25.1	27.7	47.2	100.0
North-east	46.1	22.7	31.2	100.0
South-east	30.2	54.1	15.7	100.0
South-west	6.6	39.6	53.8	100.0
West	7.4	29.4	63.2	100.0
Sex of household head				
Male	19.7	30.7	49.5	100.0
Female	27.3	34.2	38.5	100.0

Urban people have relatively better food consumption than rural people and Kuchis, with a lower proportion of poor-consumption population (9.3 percent) than among the latter two groups (23.8 and 12.3 percent, respectively). There are also substantial differences in the level of food consumption by region. North-east- and Central Highland regions have the highest levels of poor food consumption, with more than 40 percent of the population falling in the lowest category, followed by the South-east and North regions, where almost one third and one fourth of people have poor food consumption, respectively. The other regions have 7 to 8 percent of the population with poor food

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 the 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 seven-day food consumption recall for the household and classified into three categories: poor consumption (FCS = 1.0 to ≤28); borderline (FCS = 28.5 to ≤42); and acceptable consumption (FCS > 42). 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.

consumption. The proportion of poor food consumption population is higher among those living in female-headed households than among male-headed households (27.3 percent and 19.7 percent, respectively).

There is a close relation between food consumption group, protein- and Kcal-deficiency and consumption of protein-rich foods. People with poor food consumption have higher shares of protein- and Kcal deficit and combined Kcal- and protein deficit than people with borderline- and acceptable food consumption levels (*Table 7.8*). The population with poor consumption patterns tend to only occasionally eat meat, fish and eggs, dairy and dairy products, and nutrient-rich foods, such as pulses and nuts. Their diet predominantly consists of wheat, oil and sugar only. Population with borderline consumption – in addition to eating cereals, sugar and oil almost every day – eat vegetables every other day, on average eat one day a week from each of the food groups of fruits, dairy products, pulses and meat, fish or eggs. Population with acceptable food consumption eat from meat, fish or eggs and from pulses approximately two days per week, from dairy products five days a week and from vegetables three to four days a week.

Table 7.8: Percentage of population with protein-, Kcal- and combined protein-Kcal deficit and average number of days of consumption of protein-rich foods, by food consumption group

Food consumption group	Percent with deficiency of			Average number of days household consumed protein-rich foods		
	Proteins	Kcals	Kcals. and proteins	Meat, fish, eggs	Dairy	Vegetables
Total	30.1	44.6	29.0	1.4	2.7	1.4
Poor (<=28)	50.2	64.7	49.0	0.3	0.1	0.4
Borderline (28.5-42)	34.8	50.9	33.5	0.9	0.9	1.3
Acceptable (>=42.5)	19.2	32.6	18.2	2.2	4.9	1.9

7.7.3 Contribution of different food groups to caloric intake

The mean and median Kcal requirement for the Afghan population is 2,055 and 2,040 Kcal per person per day, respectively, if considering the population distribution with 48 percent under age 15. There are small variations in the mean and median daily per-capita Kcal requirements, ranging from 2,086 and 2,072 Kcal per person per day, respectively, for the urban population, to 2,014 and 2,002 Kcal per person per day for the Kuchi population, with the rural population somewhere in-between. The mean and median Kcal supply from food items consumed is 2,333 and 2,136 Kcal per person per day, respectively. Daily per-capita Kcal supply from food consumed in 2016-17 revealed that mean and median per-capita Kcal consumption is highest in urban areas (2,499 and 2,237 Kcal per person per day, respectively), followed by Kuchi consumption (2,405 and 2,269 Kcal per person per day) and is lowest in rural areas (2,273 and 2,096 Kcal per person per day). These results also confirm that food insecurity is lowest in the Kuchi population: their household composition is similar to that of the rural population, but their mean and median daily Kcal intake is higher.

Of the total calorie intake, cereals and tubers contribute 69.1 percent; oils and fats 13.4 percent, meat, fish, pulses and dairy products 8.0 percent; vegetables and fruits 5.2 percent; and sugar 4.2 percent. The contribution of cereals and tubers is slightly higher in rural areas and among Kuchi households, respectively at 79.8 percent and 68.1 percent of total consumed calories, compared to 64.2 percent in urban areas. However, within each population group, the proportion of calories contributed by cereals and tubers is similar across all food-security groups.

Oil and fats contribute 14.6 percent of the total calories in urban areas, 13.0 percent in rural and 12.9 percent among the Kuchi. Dairy and dairy products are consumed at a slightly higher rate by the Kuchi, at 5.3 percent of the total calories, compared to 3.5 percent and 3.6 percent in rural and urban areas, respectively. Sugar consumption is slightly higher among urban residents and the Kuchi, at 4.6 percent and 4.5 percent of total calories, compared to 4.1 percent among rural dwellers.

7.8 Household Hunger Scale (HHS)⁶

The Household Hunger Scale (HHS) provides a comparable measure of food deprivation at the household level.⁷ According to this scale, 10.1 percent of population in the country experience moderate or severe hunger, among them one percent have severe hunger. Deconstructing the scale indicates that 25.0 percent of population had at least one occasion during the past month that there was no food of any kind in the house to eat, due to lack of resources, 9.8 percent went to bed hungry and 3.7 percent went a whole day and night without any food to eat (*Table 7.9*).

There are significant differences in the HHS between residence groups. Members of Kuchi households reported experiencing moderate to severe hunger more often (15.1 percent) than urban and rural population (6.0 and 11.1 percent, respectively). The HHS outcome also varies significantly between Afghanistan's geographic regions. The South-west and West have the highest proportion of population with moderate to severe hunger (17.2 and 15.7 percent, respectively). The Central highland, North-east and North regions constitute a second group with the percentage with moderate to severe hunger between 11.9 and 11.2 percent). The South-west region also has the highest percentage of population with severe hunger among all regions (2.0 percent).

Population in female-headed households experience moderate to severe hunger more than twice as much as those in male-headed households (24.4 and 10.0 percent, respectively). The percentage of population with severe hunger residing in female-headed households is also significantly higher than that of male-headed households (5.0 against 0.7 percent).

6 The Household Hunger Scale (HHS) is an alternative indicator that can be used to measure household hunger in food-insecure areas. The HHS has been specifically developed and validated for cross-cultural use which means that the HHS produces valid and comparable results across cultures and settings. The scale uses three indicators of food deprivation and the frequency of occurrence during the past month prior to the survey: i) No food of any kind in the house to eat, ii) going to sleep hungry because of lack of food, and iii) going a whole day and night without food because of lack of food. The frequency of occurrence is defined as "Never – 0 time" and is coded as '0', "Rarely/sometimes – 1-10 times", coded as '1' and "Often – more than 10 times", coded as '2'. The total HHS score is the sum of scores of the responses to these three questions, ranging from 0 to 6. The total HHS score is the basis for classifying households with respect to household hunger into three groups: HHS score = 0-1, indicating "No to slight hunger in the household"; HHS score = 2-3, indicating "Moderate hunger in the household"; and HHS score = 4-6, indicating "Severe hunger in the household".

7 For details on the HHS, see <http://www.fantaproject.org/monitoring-and-evaluation/household-hunger-scale-hhs>.

Table 7.9: Population, by selected background variables, and by Household Hunger Scale group and Household Hunger Scale components (in percentages)

Background variables	Household Hunger Scale		At least once in past month		
	Moderate or severe hunger	Severe hunger	No food of any kind to eat in the household	Went to bed feeling hungry	Went whole day and night without any food to eat
Total	10.1	0.7	25.0	9.8	3.7
Residence					
Urban	6.0	0.8	21.4	5.9	2.5
Rural	11.1	0.7	25.7	10.8	4.0
Kuchi	15.1	0.9	31.1	14.8	5.1
Region					
Central	6.7	0.4	22.1	7.9	2.5
Central highland	11.9	1.2	16.9	13.6	2.7
East	4.1	0.8	7.1	4.5	3.1
North	9.0	0.4	27.1	8.2	2.9
North-east	11.2	0.2	33.2	11.8	2.2
South-east	6.2	0.2	15.2	6.7	4.0
South-west	17.2	2.0	27.1	17.4	10.6
West	15.7	1.0	43.5	9.0	3.7
Sex of household head					
Male	10.0	0.7	24.8	9.7	3.7
Female	24.4	5.0	49.8	21.5	9.6

7.9 Coping with shocks

7.9.1 Livelihood coping

Households were asked about any coping strategies they applied to mitigate shocks they experienced in the 12 months prior to the survey. Overall, only one quarter of household members did not need any coping strategies to compensate shock effects, while the rest (75.0 percent) used one or more coping strategies (*Table 7.10*). Population residing in rural households had the highest share without coping strategies (26.7 percent), followed by Kuchi (23.5 percent) and urban households (20.5 percent).

Decreasing expenditure (25.0 percent), taking loans (22.0 percent), reducing the quality of diet (11.4 percent) and purchasing food on credit (6.0 percent) were the coping strategies used most frequently overall and for each of the main residential sub-groups. The Kuchi population, in addition, also often used selling of reproductive livestock (18.6 percent), which might be due to less access to loans. Overall, 25.9 percent of population used more than one coping strategies. Due to low prevalence of some coping strategies they are added to one group under other strategies, but worth mentioning that sold child bride as coping strategy is high (2.5 percent) among Kuchi population compared to rural and urban households (0.7 percent and 0.1 percent, respectively).

Table 7.10: Population, by livelihood coping strategy, and by residence (in percentages)

Coping strategy	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Did not need to do anything to compensate	20.5	26.7	23.5	25.0
Decreased expenditures	30.7	23.0	27.1	25.0
Took loans	30.8	19.0	23.3	22.0
Reduced quality of diet	7.1	12.3	18.8	11.4
Purchased food on credit from traders	7.7	5.6	3.5	6.0
Received help from other in the community	3.5	4.7	5.1	4.4
Sold house, land or female reproductive livestock	0.8	4.1	18.6	4.0
Reduced amount of food or skipped meals	2.0	3.4	6.0	3.2
Other strategy	2.9	4.0	5.4	3.8

Households may apply different strategies to cope with shocks that they experience (see chapter 11). Such strategies can be classified according to the damage they incur to livelihoods and to the resilience of people to endure shocks in the future. *Text box 7.1* provides explanations and examples of four categories of coping strategies. When applying this classification of coping strategies, 5.4 percent of the households that applied one or more coping strategies used 'distress coping strategies,' the most damaging form of coping (*Table 7.11*). Fewer households – 3.7 percent – used 'crisis strategies,' a less damaging coping form, and 31.0 percent used 'stress strategies,' the most moderately damaging form of coping. A majority of 59.9 percent apply sustainable coping strategies.

Text box 7.1: Livelihood coping strategies

Distress strategies - such as selling one's land – affect future productivity, but are more difficult to reverse or more dramatic in nature than crisis strategies.

Crisis strategies - such as selling productive assets – directly reduce future productivity, which includes human capital formation.

Stress strategies - such as borrowing money or spending savings – indicate a reduced ability to deal with future shocks as the result of a current reduction in resources or increase in debts.

Sustainable strategies - such as increasing working time or working household members – that do not deplete assets, decrease production, reduce human capital.

The Kuchi population used distress coping strategies and crisis strategies most often (20.6 and 5.4 percent, respectively) and the urban population applied these damaging coping forms the least (1.8 and 2.7 percent, respectively), while the rural population fell between the former two in distress and crisis strategies (5.5 percent and 4.0 percent, respectively). However, it is the rural population that most often applied sustainable coping strategies (62.7 percent). These differences give a good indication of the levels of vulnerability of the respective residential livelihoods.

Table 7.11: Population using coping strategies, by residence, and by type of coping strategy (in percentages)

Residence	Distress strategies	Crisis strategies	Stress strategies	Sustainable strategies	Total
Total	5.4	3.7	31.0	59.9	100.0
Urban	1.8	2.7	41.5	54.0	100.0
Rural	5.5	4.0	27.9	62.7	100.0
Kuchi	20.6	5.4	25.7	48.3	100.0

7.9.2 Reduced or food coping strategies

When faced with a food shortfall or the threat of a food shortfall, households can apply a range of strategies (adjustments from 'normal behavior') to cope. The Coping Strategy Index (CSI) utilises the range of coping strategies enacted by a household to derive a proxy indicator of its relative food insecurity status (see *Text box 7.2*). The main question asked to know the CSI is: 'What do you do when you don't have enough food and don't have enough money to buy food?'. Nationally, the CSI average score is calculated at 2.7. The index is higher for the Kuchi (3.2) than for rural (2.7) and urban (2.6) populations (*Table 7.12*). The CSI for South-West (4.2) is the highest, followed by West (4.0) and Central Highland (3.6).

Text box 7.2: Coping Strategy Index

The Coping Strategy Index (CSI) is often used as a proxy indicator of household food insecurity. Households were asked about how often they used a set of five short-term food-based coping strategies in situations in which they did not have enough food or money to buy food, during the one-week reference period prior to interview. The information is combined into the CSI which is a score assigned to a household that represents the frequency and severity of coping strategies employed. The more severe the coping strategies used by a household and the more frequently they are used, the higher the CSI score and the more food-insecure the household. The CSI score by itself has little meaning: there is no current CSI threshold or cut-off for indicating whether a household is food-insecure or food-secure. The CSI is an indicator of relative food insecurity and can only be understood through comparisons within the livelihood group for which it has been developed.

To calculate the CSI, first, each of the five strategies is assigned a standard weight based on its severity: (i) Relying on less preferred and less expensive foods (weight = 1.0); (ii) Limiting portion size at meal times (1.0); (iii) Reducing the number of meals eaten in a day (1.0); (iv) Borrowing food or rely on help from relatives or friends (2.0); (v) Restricting consumption by adults in order for small children to eat (3.0). Household CSI scores are then determined by multiplying the number of days in the past week each strategy was employed by its corresponding severity weight and then summing up the totals. The total CSI score is the basis to determine and classify the level of coping into three categories: No or low coping (CSI= 0-3), medium (CSI = 4-9), high coping (CSI ≥10).

People with a high level of coping are those having a CSI with score 10 or above. These households employed coping strategies relatively more often or the strategies they employed were relatively more severe, or both. Nationally, 9.8 percent of households have a high level of coping, with the highest value found for Kuchis (11.5 percent), followed by rural (10.1 percent) and urban populations (8.4 percent). Female-headed households are two times more likely than male-headed households to have a high coping score.

Table 7.12: Coping Strategies Index, by selected household background variables, and by level of coping (in percentages)

Background variables	Coping Strategy Index (Mean)	Level of coping				Total
		No	Low	Medium	High	
Total	2.7	64.6	10.0	15.6	9.8	100.0
Residence						
Urban	2.6	63.0	13.3	15.3	8.4	100.0
Rural	2.7	65.5	8.9	15.5	10.1	100.0
Kuchi	3.2	59.1	10.9	18.5	11.5	100.0
Region						
Central	2.1	62.3	16.6	15.6	5.5	100.0
Central highland	3.6	52.7	15.3	22.1	9.9	100.0
East	2.4	75.3	2.7	12.5	9.5	100.0
North	1.8	71.0	10.4	14.1	4.5	100.0
North-east	2.2	72.8	5.7	11.7	9.8	100.0
South-east	2.1	67.5	16.9	7.7	7.9	100.0
South-west	4.2	58.5	3.6	17.9	19.9	100.0
West	4.0	57.7	5.1	20.8	16.5	100.0
Sex of household head						
Male	2.7	64.7	10.1	15.6	9.7	100.0
Female	6.2	46.2	7.5	22.4	23.9	100.0



8 EDUCATION

Summary. The successive NRVA and ALCS surveys showed important progress for many education indicators in the first decade after the Taliban regime was moved from power. However, the ALCS 2013-14 indicated a serious slow-down in these improvements and the current ALCS 2016-17 established that further improvements for most education indicators – net and gross attendance rates/ratios, adult and youth literacy rates, school-life expectancy, gender-equity indicators – have come to a complete halt. Among the reasons for this stalling development is that it is likely that places and population groups for which it was easy to expand education services have become largely facilitated and that places and population groups where resistance against modern education prevails are left. In addition, the very high fertility and fast population growth in Afghanistan produces ever-larger cohorts of new students at every level of education and these increases may well defeat any additional effort to expand the education system in Afghanistan.

The overall net attendance rates for Afghanistan found in the ALCS 2016-17 are 56.1 percent for primary education, 35.7 percent for secondary and 9.7 percent for tertiary. The corresponding gross attendance ratios are 72.7, 48.0 and 14.1 percent, respectively. The information on school attendance suggest that 1.9 million primary-school age children and 1.8 million secondary-school age children miss out on education and on the opportunity to learn basic life skills. The school-life expectancy – the total number of years of schooling that a six-year old child can expect to receive – is only 7.8 years. The adult- and youth literacy rates found in the survey are 34.8 and 53.6 percent, respectively. Additions to the ALCS questionnaire allowed to calculate the SDG Indicator 4.3.1 (the participation rate of youth in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months), which stands at 28.5 percent. International comparison indicates that Afghanistan is globally still among the poorest performers in providing adequate education to its population.

One of the most important findings of the ALCS is that – apart from the quality of education, for which the survey does not provide information – the main problem of Afghanistan's education system is not so much retention and drop out, but first and foremost making a start at school. Residence, gender, disability status and poverty status are factors that invariably differentiate education outcomes, always strongly and often accumulatively impairing the outcomes for girls, rural and Kuchi residents, people with disabilities and the poor.

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. It has been well-established that increasing girls' and women's access to education improves maternal and child health, improves their own children's access to education and promotes economic growth. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development includes a separate goal for education, SDG 4: *Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all*. This goal encompasses 10 targets and 11 indicators for monitoring progress. Compared to the Millennium Agenda, the SDG perspective is much more comprehensive, covering all levels of education, and focusses more on quality aspects and outcomes of education than on participation in education. In the absence of information about most of these 11 global indicators for previous years, an assessment of past progress in educational performance based on these indicators is very limited. In addition, the SDG indicators do not by any means capture the full scope of educational assessment. Therefore, this chapter extends the education analysis beyond the SDG framework and uses the MDG indicators for time series analysis.

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. According to the Ministry of

Education (MoE), only one million children (almost all boys) were enrolled in schools in 2001, but over 8.6 million were enrolled in 2013 of whom 39 percent were girls (Ministry of Education 2014). For 2015, the Ministry recorded 9.2 million enrolled students (Ministry of Education 2016). Improvement in the performance of the education system was also demonstrated by the results of the consecutive NRVA and ALCS surveys (2005, 2007-08, 2011-12 and 2013), which showed significant gains in the areas of literacy, school attendance and educational attainment. However, the latest ALCS also indicated stagnation in the positive trends observed before and there is still a long way to go to achieve the goals set by the Afghan government in terms of literacy and enrolment, particularly for girls. The pupil-teacher ratio of 47 students per teacher is much higher than the Education Ministry's norm (35 students per teacher). Moreover, 58 percent of teachers do not have the minimum required qualification (14th grade degree), which implies that the number of pupils per qualified teacher is even much higher (111 students per qualified teacher). The shortage of teachers is especially acute in rural areas and specific fields, like mathematics and science. In addition, almost half the schools for primary and secondary education do not have adequate buildings and those with buildings often lack sufficient classrooms, proper sanitation, drinking water or surrounding walls, and are frequently in bad condition (Ministry of Education 2014).

The latest National Education Strategic Plan for the period 2017-2021 (NESP III) (Ministry of Education 2016) identified a new series of quantitative indicators to monitor progress in the development of the education system and in education achievements. Unfortunately, very few of these indicators coincide with the internationally agreed indicators for SDG 4. The information that ALCS 2016-17 can provide for education-related SDG indicators is also very limited. Future rounds of ALCS will produce a few more indicators for SDG 4, but the information requirements of most are out of the scope of a multi-purpose survey like ALCS and need to rely on targeted education surveys and administrative data.

The current ALCS covered again components for a situational analysis on education for the period 2016-17. Section 8.2 addresses the present performance of Afghanistan's educational system by reviewing attendance and non-attendance, and some of the relevant 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 regarding literacy, being one of the key effects of education.

Text box 8.1: Afghanistan's education system

The education system in Afghanistan is being rebuilt and restructured. The Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for primary and secondary education levels, while the Ministry of Higher Education (MoHE) supervises tertiary education. In principle, public education is free and primary and lower secondary education is compulsory.

Primary education lasts 6 years, from classes 1 through 6 and is intended for pupils aged 6 to 12. In the first 3 years of primary education, the curriculum comprises subjects such as art, theology, Dari or Pashtu (depending on the region), mathematics, calligraphy and physics. Other subjects, such as sciences, geography and history, are added to the curriculum at a later stage. Community-based education is provided in the less safe regions, such as the southern provinces. Education of this type is often provided in mosques by an imam and the emphasis lies primarily on religious subjects. Pupils complete their primary education with an examination which grants them admission to lower secondary education.

Lower (or intermediate) secondary education has a duration of 3 years, from classes 7 to 9 for pupils aged 12-14 years. The curriculum for lower secondary education comprises subjects such as mathematics, sciences, biology, physics, chemistry and foreign languages (English, German, French and Russian). Lower secondary education is provided in preparation for upper secondary education. Lower secondary education also provides admission to technical and secondary vocational education. Pupils complete their lower secondary education with an examination, which grants admission to upper secondary education.

Upper secondary education consists of 3 years of senior secondary education, from classes 10 to 12 for pupils aged 14-17. In upper secondary education, pupils can choose theoretical subjects, such as history, mathematics or Islamic studies, or vocationally-oriented subjects, such as agriculture, education, art and culture and economics. Both variants conclude with a national examination, on successful completion of which pupils are awarded a 12th Grade Graduation Certificate (NUFFIC 2015).

For various reasons (such as late start, temporary drop out, grade repetition or passing two grades in one year), the actual age at which children attend different education levels often differs considerably from the official school age. For practical reasons this report adopts age 7 to 12 as the primary school age, age 13 to 18 as secondary school age and age 19 to 24 as tertiary school age.

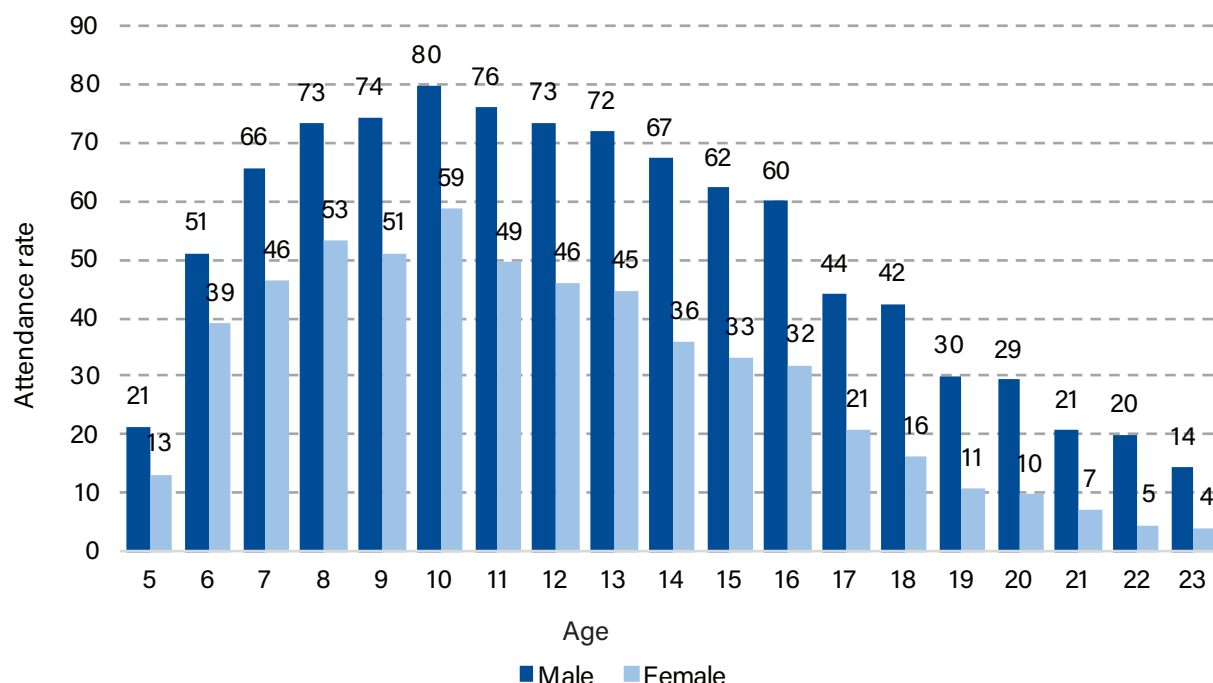
Higher education in Afghanistan is provided by public and private higher education institutions. The higher education curriculum is drawn up by the MoHE. The universities have some autonomy in contributing to the curriculum. Universities generally only offer bachelor's and master's degree programmes, but the number of master's programmes is still small. The bachelor's degree programmes usually have a nominal duration of 4 years, while master's programmes have a nominal duration of 2 years.

8.2 Attendance in education

8.2.1 Introduction

Since 2008, primary education is supposed to start at age six (see *text box Afghanistan's education system* above). Previous NRVA and ALCS results showed that few children actually started schooling at this age. The current 2016-17 survey shows an increase of the proportion six-year olds that attend education, from 39.1 percent in 2013-14 to 45.3 percent in 2016-17. This increase is more prominent for boys (from 43.6 percent in 2013-14 to 51.1 percent in 2016-17) than for girls (from 34.3 to 39.0 percent). *Figure 8.1* presents the age-specific attendance rates in education. It indicates that many children enter primary school even at ages beyond seven and highest attendance rates are achieved only in the late primary and early secondary school ages. On the other hand, there are also a few children that start primary education before the official school-entry age of six.

Figure 8.1: Education attendance rate of population aged 6-24, by age, and by sex (in percentages)



Given the low school attendance at age six, this age is not considered as a realistic indicator of the start of education. Consequently, the analyses in this report use age seven as the primary school-entry age. This also maintains comparability with previous NRVA and ALCS surveys and the 2010 Afghanistan MICS analysis.

8.2.2 Net attendance rates

Attendance rates provide indications for the functioning of the education system to serve the school-age population.¹ The net attendance rate² (NAR) shows the coverage in a given level of education of children and youths belonging to the specific age group corresponding to that level of education. The net primary attendance rate was used as one of the Afghanistan National Development Strategy (ANDS) and MDG indicators to monitor progress towards the Millennium 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. The target set for Afghanistan was to achieve 100 percent net attendance by 2020 (Islamic Republic of Afghanistan 2010).

Table 8.1 provides the net attendance rates for primary, secondary and tertiary education by residence and sex. It shows that the reported overall rates obscure large differences by residence and sex. Thus, for each of the educational levels, urban attendance is much higher than attendance in rural areas. For instance, around three quarters (74.3 percent) of urban primary-school age children attend primary school, but only just more than half (54.0 percent) of the rural children do so. At the same time, it can be observed that the higher the educational level, the larger is the

1 Education attendance rates and ratios serve the same information purpose as enrolment rates and ratios, which are derived from administrative sources. In a perfect information context and in good education settings, attendance and enrolment figures are also very similar. Otherwise, large discrepancies can be found for several reasons. For instance, measuring attendance rates may entail an age bias. Otherwise, enrolment figures often include students who should have been de-registered, because they were enrolled somewhere else or dropped out of school. According to the Ministry of Education, this was the case for 1.7 million students in 2014 (18.3 percent of the total number of students) (Ministry of Education 2016). Enrolment rates and ratios are also very sensitive to the accuracy of the base population. To the extent that the base population is larger than official estimates suggest, enrolment figures are overstated.

2 The net attendance rate (NAR) 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. 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.

relative difference in attendance rates between urban and rural areas. The attendance levels in the Kuchi population are extremely low, with less than 7 percent net attendance in primary education and around 2 percent in secondary education. For Kuchi also the relative deprivation compared to urban and rural children is larger, the higher the educational level. *Figure 8.2* also indicates large differences in net primary attendance rates across provinces for boys and girls, respectively.

The overall net attendance rates found for Afghanistan (56.1 percent for primary education, 35.7 percent for secondary and 9.7 percent for tertiary) indicate that the country is still among the poorest performers in providing adequate education to its population. The ALCS 2016-17 result for primary education places Afghanistan at the seventh-lowest place of all countries in the world.³

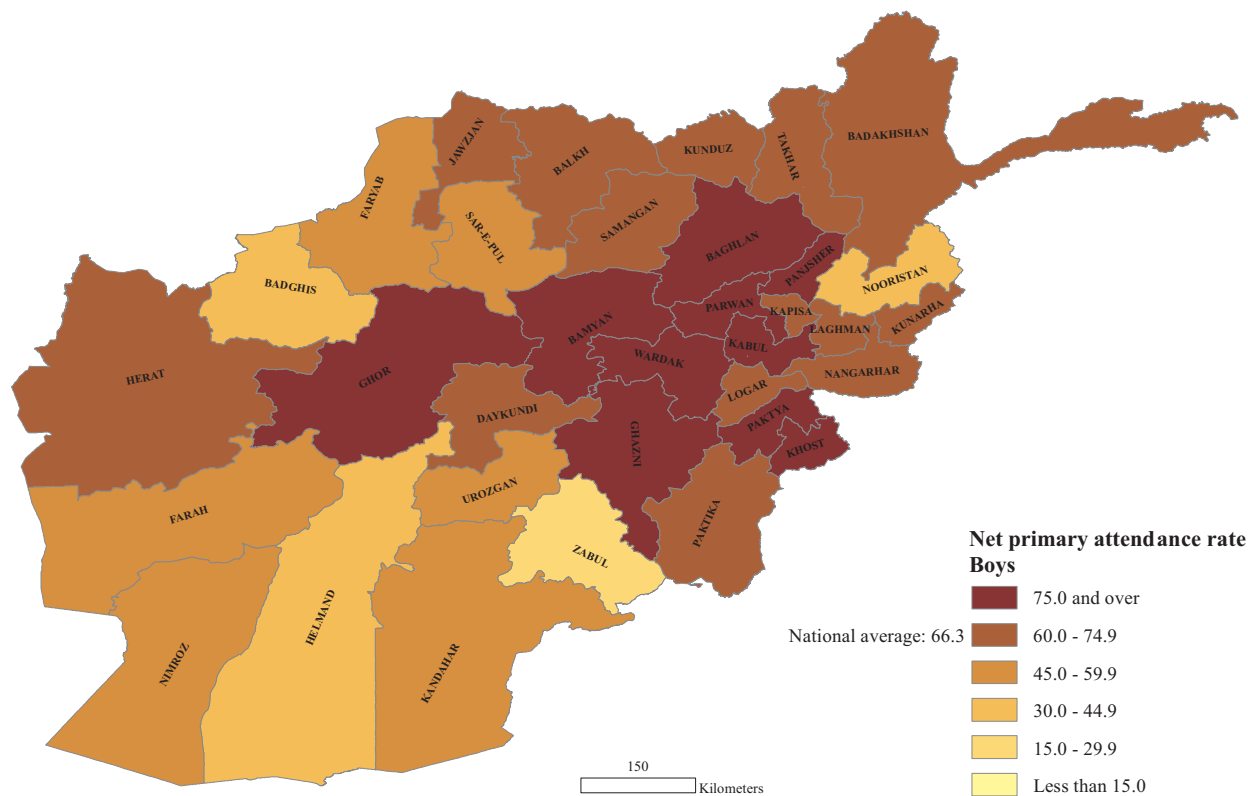
Table 8.1: Net attendance rate and gross attendance ratio, by education level, residence, and by sex (in percentages); Gender parity index, by education level, residence

Educational level, residence	Net attendance rate			Gender parity index	Gross attendance ratio			Gender parity index	Residence parity index
	Male	Female	Total		Male	Female	Total		
Primary									
Total	65.5	45.5	56.1	0.69	84.4	58.9	72.5	0.70	
Urban	77.5	70.8	74.3	0.91	100.3	90.2	95.5	0.90	
Rural	66.0	40.3	54.0	0.61	84.9	52.7	69.9	0.62	0.69
Kuchi	10.0	2.5	6.6	0.25	13.0	3.9	8.9	0.30	0.33
Secondary									
Total	46.8	24.1	35.7	0.51	63.0	32.2	48.0	0.51	
Urban	58.6	44.5	51.6	0.76	79.5	58.8	69.2	0.74	
Rural	45.3	17.3	31.7	0.38	60.7	23.2	42.5	0.38	0.52
Kuchi	3.2	0.0	1.8	0.00	4.6	0.0	2.6	0.00	0.00
Tertiary									
Total	14.9	4.8	9.7	0.32	20.6	8.0	14.1	0.39	
Urban	24.5	12.3	18.1	0.50	34.9	20.4	27.3	0.58	
Rural	12.0	2.0	6.9	0.16	16.1	3.3	9.6	0.21	0.35
Kuchi	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.00	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.00	0.00

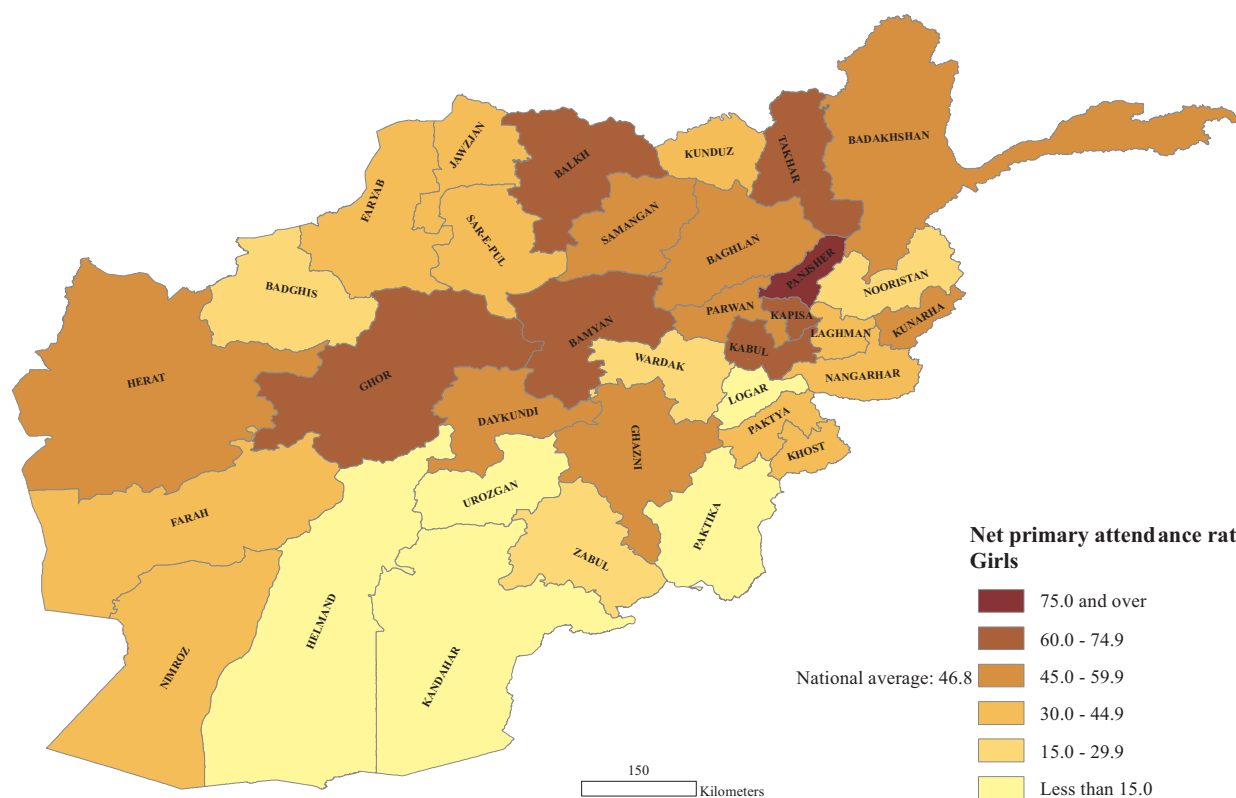
3 UNICEF Global Database, reference years for other countries 2009-2014.

Figure 8.2: Net primary attendance rate of (a) boys and (b) girls, by province (in percentages)

a. Boys



b. Girls



Given the large discrepancy between official and actual school ages, the standard net attendance rate may not be an adequate indicator for the performance of the education system in Afghanistan. An often-used alternative is the adjusted net attendance rate, which also includes pupils attending a higher education level than what would be in accordance with their age. This is felt to be a more 'honest' measure since children who are enrolled in secondary school but are of primary school age should not be considered a failure of the system. Applying this alternative definition, the adjusted net attendance rate for primary education (the percentage of children of primary school age attending primary or secondary school) would be 62.4 percent (73.2 percent for boys and 50.1 percent for girls) and the adjusted net attendance rate for secondary education (the percentage of children of secondary school age attending secondary school or higher) would be 36.9 percent (boys 47.3 percent and girls 25.7 percent).

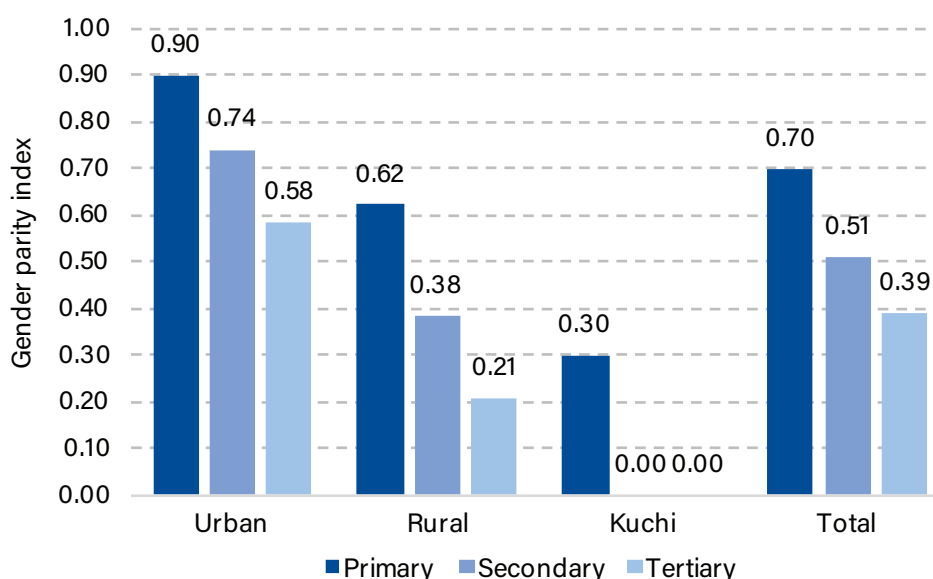
8.2.3 Gross attendance ratios

The gross attendance ratio⁴ is another measure of educational performance. It gives the total number of school places per education level and indicates the capacity of the education system to provide education for all children of a specific school age. Table 8.1 (right panel) presents the gross attendance ratios for the three main education levels. The overall ratio of 70.0 percent for primary education means that for every 100 children of primary-school age, only 70 children – whether of primary-school age or not – attend primary education.

The differentiation of gross attendance ratios by residence and sex mirrors the pattern found for the net attendance rates. Gross attendance ratios for the rural and particularly for the Kuchi school-age population are far below that of their urban peers and the discrepancy by residence increases with the education level. For instance, the value of the gross primary attendance ratio in rural areas (69.9 percent) is 0.69 of that in urban areas (95.5 percent), while for tertiary education the rural attendance ratio (9.6 percent) is only 0.35 of the corresponding urban rate (27.3 percent). Similarly, stark discrepancies are found between attendance ratios for girls and boys.

The gender parity index of gross attendance ratios⁵ was used as one of the MDG indicators to monitor progress towards promoting gender equality and empowerment of women. The ALCS 2016-17 found that gender differences are somewhat less pronounced in urban areas, but very large in rural areas and that gender inequality increases with level of education. Thus, the gender parity index in primary education is 0.90 for urban pupils and as low as 0.38 for rural students in secondary education (*Figure 8.3* and Table 8.1). Education beyond primary school for Kuchi girls is virtually non-existent. These figures indicate very adverse education opportunities for rural and Kuchi girls compared to urban girls and an accumulating disadvantage when progressing in the education system.

Figure 8.3: Gender parity index of gross attendance ratios, by residence, and by level of education



4 The gross attendance ratio is calculated as the number of pupils in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total population corresponding to the same level of education.

5 Calculated as the ratio of girls to boys in, respectively, primary, secondary and tertiary education.

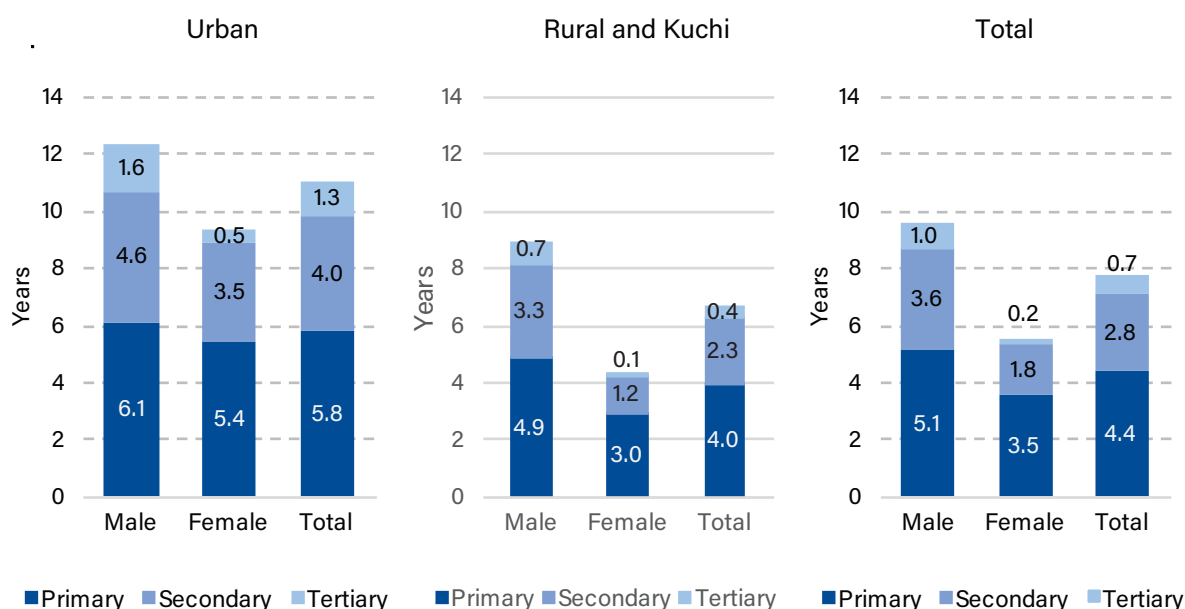
8.2.4 School-life expectancy

The age- and level-specific attendance rates allow estimating the total number of years of schooling that a child of a certain age can expect to receive in the future. This school-life expectancy⁶ shows the overall level of development of an educational system in terms of the average number of years of schooling that the education system offers to the eligible population, including those who never enter school. For Afghanistan, the school-life expectancy is a good proxy for the expected number of grades of education that will be completed, because of the relatively low grade-repetition rates. It should be noted that since school life expectancy is an average based on participation in different levels of education, the expected number of years of schooling is pulled down by the magnitude of children who never go to school. Those children who are in school benefit from many more years of education than the average of the school-life expectancy.

Figure 8.4 shows the school-life expectancy by sex at national level and for urban and rural populations. If current age-specific attendance rates will be maintained, a six-year old child can expect to remain in education for 7.8 years, an average that is built up from an expected 4.4 years in primary education, 2.8 years in secondary and 0.7 years in tertiary education.⁷ Boys can expect to stay in education for 9.7 years, 1.7 times longer than girls, for whom the school-life expectancy is 5.6 years. The national figure of 7.8 years would imply that Afghanistan takes the fourth last place in the international ranking as presented in the UNESCO International Database.⁸

The urban school-life expectancy of 11.1 years is much higher than the rural version (including Kuchi) (6.7 years). Figure 8.4 also indicates that the gender disadvantage for girls is larger in rural areas, both in absolute and in relative terms. On average, a rural girl can expect to be in education for only 4.3 years.

Figure 8.4: School-life expectancy for (a) urban, (b) rural and Kuchi and (c) total populations, by sex (in years)



8.2.5 Participation in education and training

Adolescence and youth mark the period where people often make the transition out of the education system, either to employment, unemployment or economic inactivity. Others continue pursuing higher education or enter into various arrangements for training or combine education, training and/or employment. These strategies are impor-

6 The school-life expectancy is calculated as the sum of the age-specific attendance rates for primary, secondary and tertiary education levels, assuming that prevailing attendance rates will be maintained in the future.

7 The sum of level-specific school-life expectancies do not add up to the total due to rounding.

8 <http://data.uis.unesco.org/index.aspx?queryid=147>

tant for the acquisition of skills for decent work in later life course stages (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.5.2 above). The participation rate of youth (aged 15 to 24) in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months is included in the indicators for SDG 4: *inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all* (SDG indicator 3.4.1).⁹ This rate of participation in education or training is also the complement of a component in SDG indicator 8.6.1 (*the share of youth not in education, employment or training*), which is one of the indicators measuring progress toward achieving *sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all* (SDG 8).

The ALCS 2016-17 added a separate question about participating in technical or vocational training in the past 12 months, which serves to cover the concept of formal and non-formal training specified in the SDG indicator. Overall, the youth participation rate in education and training is 28.5 percent, but this conceals large differences by residence, sex and disability status (see Text box 8.2). The overall gender parity index for this indicator is 0.43 and the gender parity indices for urban, rural and Kuchi youth are 0.66, 0.30 and 0.07, respectively.¹⁰

Text box 8.2: SDG indicator 4.3.1 – Participation rate of youth in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months

The participation rate of youth in education and training is one of the SDG indicators to monitor the achievement of Target 4.3 (*By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university*) of SDG 4: *Inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all*.

Afghanistan		28.5	
Urban	42.2	Male	39.9
Rural	24.6	Female	17.2
Kuchi	1.9	Disabled persons	17.9
		Non-disabled persons	28.7

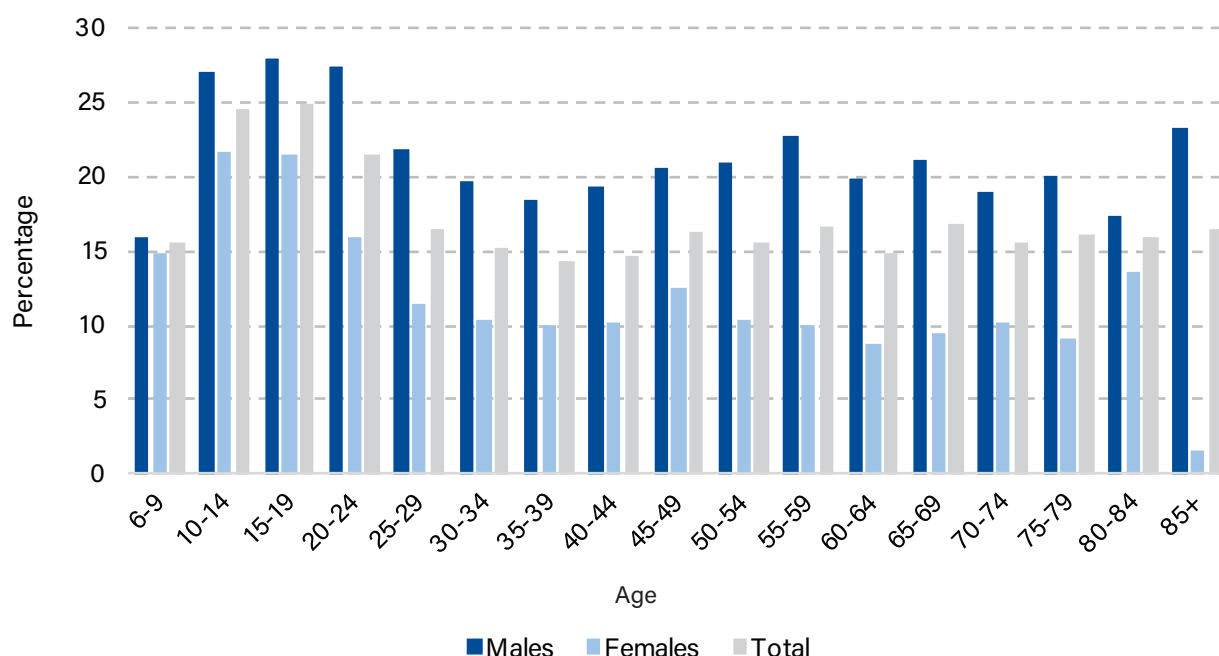
8.2.6 Home schooling

The formal education system does not adequately fulfil the educational needs of the Afghan people. For a variety of reasons – no schools available, not being allowed to go to school by the family or external forces opposed to education, low quality of education, among others (see section 8.3.2) – people may decide to seek alternative education. Home schooling and literacy schools have been very important in this respect. The ALCS 2016-17 showed that 19.0 percent of the population of six years and older have ever participated in these types of education. In view of the practice of female seclusion, it could be expected that this is more popular among girls and women, but the survey results show the opposite. Male participation was 22.7 percent against only 15.3 percent female participation. *Figure 8.5* shows that this male dominance is found for every age group and is stronger from young adult ages onward.

9 In view of the importance of life-long learning to meet the demand for a high-quality and flexible labour force with up-to-date skills, the participation rate in education and training is also required for the adult population aged 25 to 64. The ALCS does not collect information about educational attendance beyond age 24 and this sub indicator cannot be produced

10 The parity indices are calculated as the ratio between the more disadvantaged group(s) and the other group.

Figure 8.5: Percentage of population aged 6 and older who participated in home schooling or literacy school, by five-year age group, and by sex



The information provided in the ALCS 2016-17 indicates that home schooling and literacy schools contribute to persons' learning experience, but also suggests that it often cannot adequately replace formal education. Thus, only 1.1 percent of persons aged 15 and older who had neither formal school nor home schooling or literacy school could read and write, but 27.7 percent of those without formal education who had home schooling or literacy school were literate, a clearly positive contribution. However, the percentage that could read and write among those with formal education was much higher: 88.2 percent.

8.2.7 Transitions in the education career

As ALCS 2013-14, the 2016-17 survey included questions about the education attendance in two successive years, 1394 and 1395 (2014-15 and 2015-16). This allows the calculation of transition rates from one grade to another and from one education level to another. In addition, the data allow measures of grade repetition and school dropout.

The first educational transition is starting school in the first grade of primary education. The gross intake ratio (GIR) in primary education is one of the indicators to measure the effectiveness of this transition into the education system.¹¹ The rate is calculated as the total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of the primary school-entrance age. For pragmatic reasons, age seven is taken as the primary school-entrance age.¹² The gross intake rate indicates the general level of access to primary education and also indicates the capacity of the education system to provide access to the first grade for the official school-entrance age population.

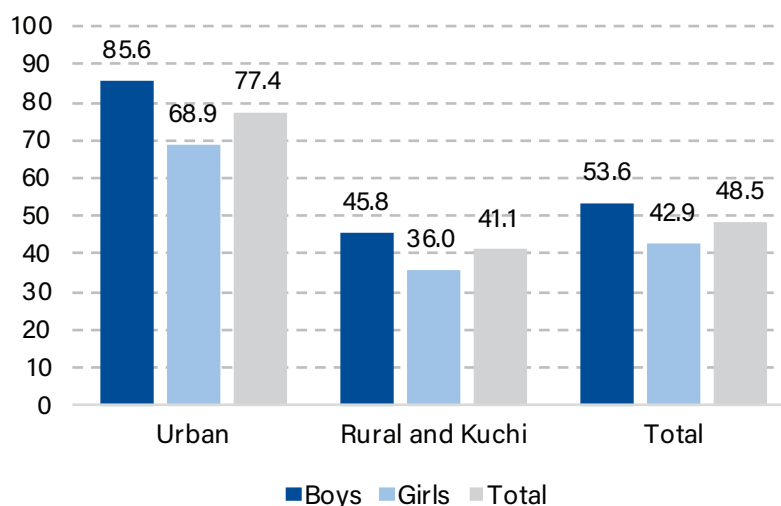
Figure 8.6 presents the gross intake ratio in primary education. The overall gross intake ratio of 48.5 percent indicates that the capacity of the educational system to attract and absorb new pupils is low, around half of what would be required to provide every eligible child with a place at school. The general gender inequality in Afghanistan is

¹¹ Another indicator is the net intake rate (NIR). This is a more restrictive measure of access to primary education and specifies only entrants of primary school-entry age as a percentage of the population of that age. In the case of Afghanistan, with a wide age range of school entry, this indicator is of limited value.

¹² The official age for entering primary school in Afghanistan has been revised to age six. However, most households start sending their children to school only at age seven (see section 8.2.1).

reflected in the marked differences for the indicator between boys and girls (53.6 and 42.9 percent, respectively; resulting in a gender parity index of 0.80), even though the difference is less pronounced than in many other gender indicators. More differentiation is observed between urban and rural intake ratios. Typically, the intake levels for children in rural areas (including Kuchi children) are only about half of that of urban children.

Figure 8.6: Gross intake ratio in primary education, by residence, and by sex (in percentages)



Ideally, an education system assures that all students who start primary school graduate at the end of the last grade of primary education. The system's capacity for retention of pupils and overall efficiency is measured by calculating the percentage of pupils who start primary school and who reach last grade of primary education. This survival rate to grade six of primary education is 85.1 percent and is slightly higher for boys than for girls (86.5 and 82.6, respectively) (*Table 8.2*). Residential differentiation is also present, but again – at least compared to other development indicators – not very strong, with percentages of 88.3 and 83.7 percent for, respectively, urban and rural school starters reaching grade six. For international comparison, also the survival rate to grade five is given. This was an indicator in the MDG and ANDS frameworks for monitoring the goal of achieving the goal of universal primary education (Government of Afghanistan 2008).

The primary completion rate is another measure for the education system's capacity to provide children of primary-school age with a full primary education course. In the absence of graduation statistics, a proxy indicator is used, which calculates the total number of new entrants in the last grade of primary education (grade six), regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the number of children of the theoretical entrance age to the last grade (age 12). This indicator shows that the number of new children reaching grade six is only 56.6 percent of the population with the age belonging to grade six. Here, more gender- and residence differentiation is observed, reflecting the poor education situation for girls (with a completion rate of 42.0 percent) and rural populations (33.7 percent). The large differences with the survival rates to grade six are due to the inclusion in the primary completion rate of the children that never start school. The main policy message implied in these results is that overcoming barriers to enter education are more important than reducing school drop-out.

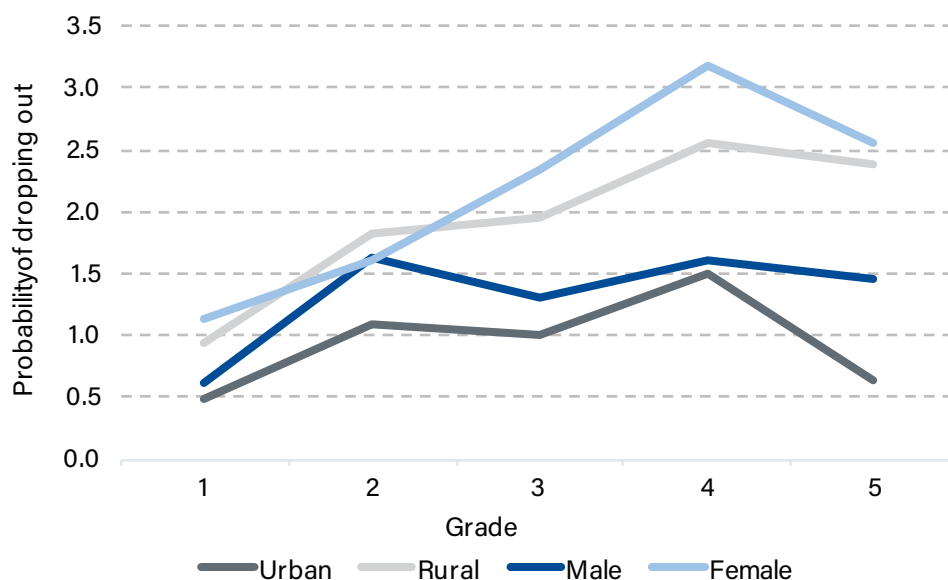
Table 8.2: Education transition indicators, by sex and by residence (in percentages)

Sex and residence	Percentage of pupils starting grade 1 who reach		Percentage dropped out before reaching grade 6	Primary completion rate	Transition rate to	
	grade 5	grade 6			secondary school	tertiary education
Total	87.9	85.1	13.6	56.6	95.2	58.9
Boys	88.9	86.5	12.3	69.0	96.2	61.2
Girls	86.3	82.6	15.7	42.0	93.4	54.8
Urban	90.2	88.3	10.2	77.7	96.6	67.5
Rural and Kuchi	86.9	83.7	15.0	50.1	94.2	51.1

The percentage of school starters who drop out before reaching grade six¹³ largely complements the survival rate.¹⁴ Overall, 13.6 percent of children who started primary school dropped out before the final level (Table 8.2). From this perspective, gender and residence differences are larger, with girls 1.3 times more likely to drop out and rural children even 1.5 times more likely.

Grade-by-grade drop-out rates¹⁵ increase by advancement in primary school, except for drop out in grade five. However, when breaking down the drop-out rates by residence and sex, this effect is only observed for girls and rural pupils (*Figure 8.7*). This implies that these sub-groups encounter increasingly more problems when advancing in school and with age, whereas urban pupils and boys seem to have a similar level of conditions that results in drop-out throughout primary school.

Figure 8.7: Probability of dropping out from primary education, by grade, and by residence and sex (in percentages)



Another failure to advance to a next grade is when a child has to repeat a grade. The repetition rate – calculated as the number of repeaters in a given grade in a specific school year as a percentage of the number of pupils attending the same grade in the previous school year – ideally should approach zero percent. A high repetition rate

¹³ Grade five repeaters making up the rest of the cohort that started primary school.

¹⁴ Calculated by subtracting the sum of promotion rate and repetition rate from 100 in the given school year.

¹⁵ The grade-specific drop-out rates are calculated as the ratio between the number of drop-outs in a specific grade and the number of students in that grade, adjusted for the number of repeaters in that grade.

reveals problems in the internal efficiency of the educational system and possibly reflect a poor level of instruction. The ALCS-based repetition rates in primary education are relatively low – on average below 2 percent across the successive grades (data not shown).

Upon completion of primary school, the transition to (lower) secondary school should be made, given that attendance in the latter is compulsory in Afghanistan. The transition rate to secondary school is calculated as the number of children attending the last grade (grade six) of primary school during the previous school year who were in the first grade of secondary school during the current school year, as a percentage of the total number of children attending the last grade of primary school during the previous school year. The transition rate to secondary school is fairly high – 95.2 percent (Table 8.2) – indicating that almost all children who completed primary school continue with lower secondary school. There is again little difference in transition rates between boys and girls and between urban and rural children.

Grade-to-grade transition rates in secondary education are equally high as in primary education: around 96 percent of children advance to a next grade every year, again slightly – one percentage point – lower for girls than for boys (data not shown). There is also no marked drop in continuation from lower to upper secondary education, but transition rates slightly increase when upper secondary school is entered. Whereas repetition rates in secondary education are lower than in primary education (on average 1 percent per year), grade-to-grade drop-out rates are twice as high, typically 3 percent every year.

A main drop in continuation of education occurs after completion of secondary education. The transition rate to tertiary education is only 58.9 percent (Table 8.2), indicating that of all students who reached grade 12, some 41 percent dropped out from pursuing higher education. Contrary to the transition rate to secondary school, here is a substantial difference between the continuation rates of urban and rural populations (67.5 and 51.1 percent, respectively). Also, the female transition rate (54.8 percent) is lower than the male rate (61.2 percent).

8.2.8 Trends in educational attendance

Successive rounds of NRVA and ALCS collected an increasing amount of information about educational attendance, which allows to produce time series for more and more education indicators. In addition, the 2010 AMICS provides an intermediate observation point for some of the indicators.

The three NRVA surveys from 2005 to 2011-12 observed large increases in the net primary attendance rate, especially in the period up to 2007-08 (*Figure 8.8a*). However, the period between 2011-12 and 2016-17 is characterised by stagnation. All indicator values since 2011-12 – for boys, girls and both sexes combined – are within the limits of statistical significance and therefore no reliable conclusion can be drawn that the situation has changed since then. This is a remarkable finding, given the continuous efforts to expand primary education facilities across the country. Among the possible explanations for this pattern is the likelihood that the initial reconstruction of the education system in the first decade after the overthrow of the Taliban regime could make a large impact. When starting from a very low level, any improvement makes a large difference and a large pool of households exist that can easily be reached and that have a positive attitude towards education for boys and girls alike. With spreading education further improvements make relatively less impact and this pool becomes more and more exhausted. At the same time, it is difficult – if not impossible with available resources – to keep up with the ever-increasing cohorts of new children that enter education age.

For the net secondary attendance rates, a similar pattern is observed (*Figure 8.8b*), but with some delay compared to the development of the primary attendance rates. Here too, a rapid increase in attendance is found until 2011-12, but then a continuous small – but statistically significant – increase to 2013-14. The stagnation of further improvement for the overall net secondary attendance rate is visible for the period between the 2013-14 and 2016-17 surveys. The difference between the developments of the primary and secondary attendance rates is plausible, because secondary attendance largely depends on the inflow of primary school graduates.

If this delay effect is real, it should extend to the development of tertiary attendance rates. This is indeed what *Figure 8.8c* suggests. The overall net tertiary attendance rate continues to increase up to the current survey of 2016-17. However, it should also be noted that for the last survey interval, the increase is solely on the account of male students. The increase in the female attendance level is only statistically significant for the period between NRVA 2011-12 and ALCS 2013-14; no statistically significant evidence can be found for improvement since then.

Figure 8.8a: Net primary attendance rate, by survey, and by sex (in percentages)

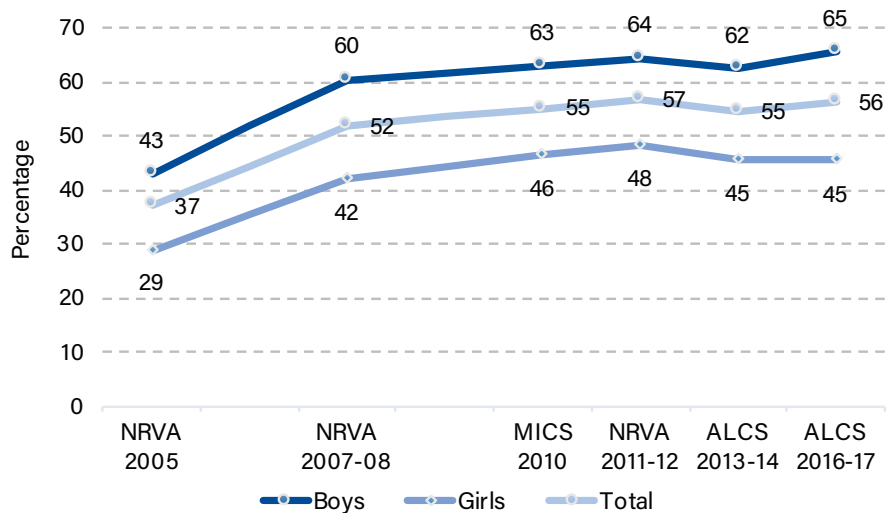


Figure 8.8b: Net secondary attendance rate, by survey, and by sex (in percentages)

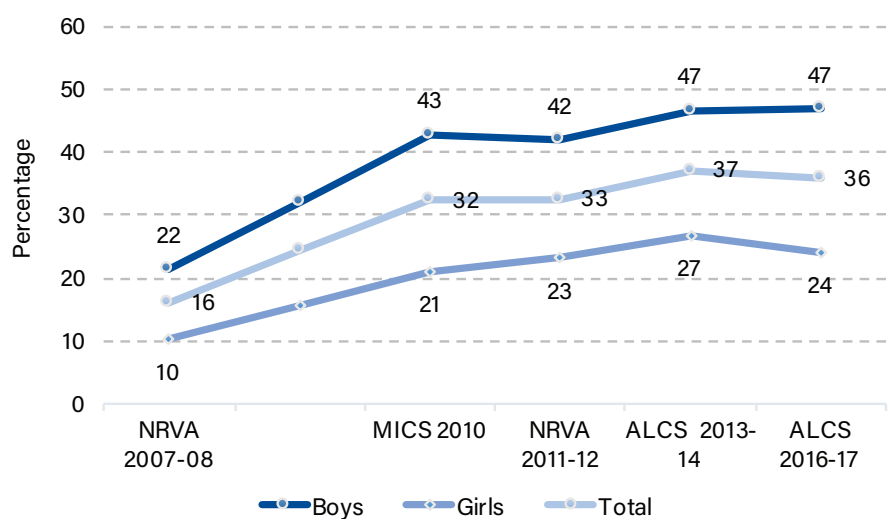
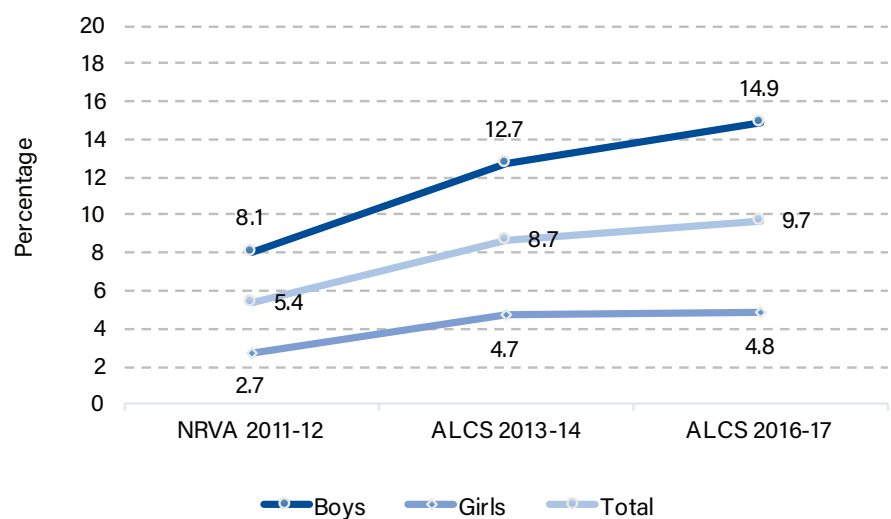


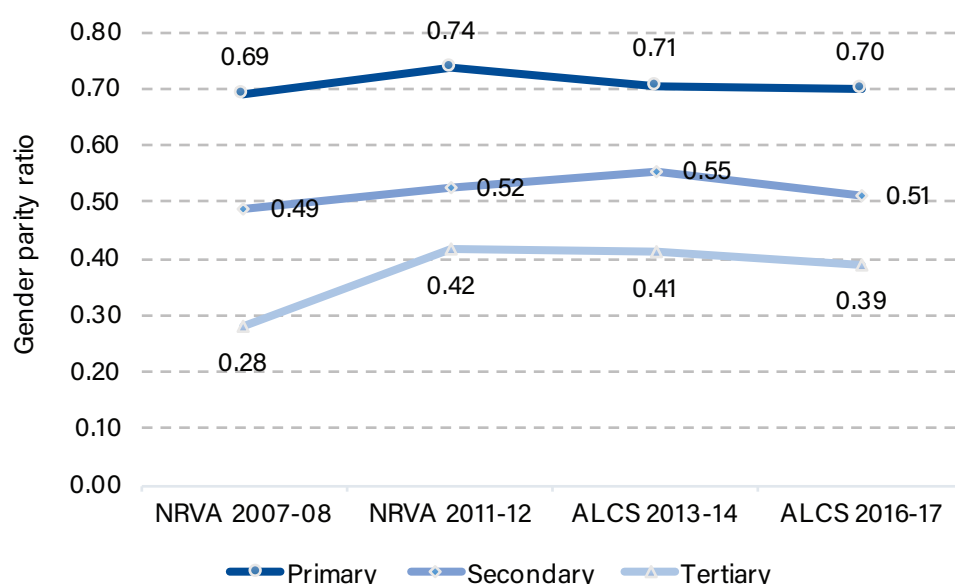
Figure 8.8c: Net tertiary attendance rate, by survey, and by sex (in percentages)



The trends in gross attendance ratios largely follow those of the primary attendance rates (data not shown): a stagnation since NRVA 2011-12 around 72 percent for gross primary ratios, a more recent slow-down in increase for secondary ratios (26.5 percent in 2007-08, 42.3 percent in 2011-12, 46.2 percent in 2013-14 and 48.0 percent in 2016-17) and a continuous and even accelerated increase in tertiary ratios (2.7, 6.5, 10.1 and 14.1 percent in the respective survey years).

The gender parity index of gross attendance rates serves as a key indicator of achieving the goals of gender equity in education. As shown in *Figure 8.9*, at none of the education levels, the education system in Afghanistan has achieved significant progress in this respect, except in tertiary education in the period between 2007-08 and 2011-12. In combination with the trends in attendance rates, this means that since 2007-08 more students attend education, but female students could not narrow the relative gap with their male peers (except in tertiary education between 2007-08 and 2011-12), and in absolute terms the education system added more male than female students. The MDG and ANDS target to eliminate gender disparity in education by achieving a 100 percent parity index is far out of reach given these results.

Figure 8.9: Gender parity ratio of gross attendance ratios, by survey year



The school-life expectancy, which was calculated for the first time from the ALCS 2013-14, showed a minimal increase from 7.7 to 7.8 years. However, the change is not statistically significant and thus the conclusion must be that there has been no improvement for this indicator.

8.3 Educational non-attendance

8.3.1 Out-of-school children

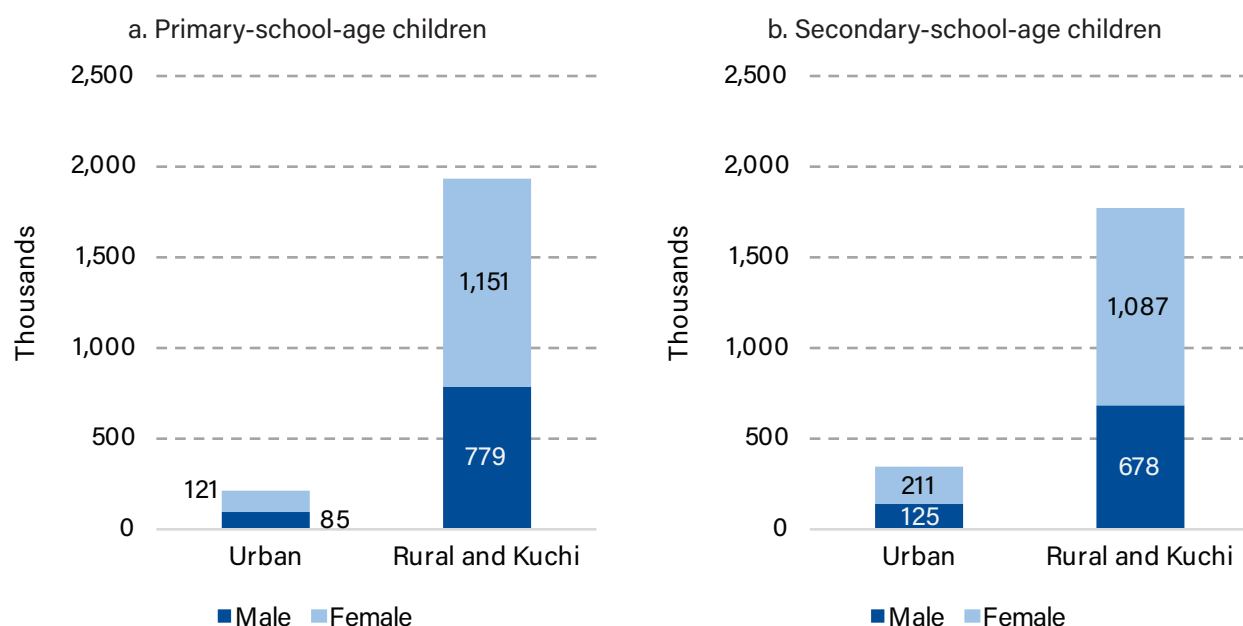
Target 4.1 of SDG 4 (*Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all*) stipulates that all girls and boys complete primary and secondary education. The numbers of children of primary and secondary school age, who are not attending school, are required to identify the size of the populations who should be targeted for policies and efforts in achieving this universal primary and secondary education.

Figure 8.10 shows the numbers of out-of-school (OOS) children of primary and secondary school age. It clearly indicates that the efforts towards achieving universal education should be directed at rural populations (including Kuchi) where most out-of-school children are living: 90.3 percent of primary school age children (1.9 million) and

84.0 percent of secondary school age children (1.8 million). The figure also shows that the largest gains in reducing the number of out-of-school children can be made among girls. Around 1.3 million primary school age girls are not attending education against 864 thousand boys of the same age. For children of secondary school age, the number out of school are 1.3 million girls and 804 thousand boys.

It is noteworthy that the numbers of out-of-school children of primary and secondary school age are similar. Hence, the amount of effort required to make these two groups attending school will also be similar. Again, a similar number (1.8 million) of youth of tertiary education age do not attend education (data not shown).

Figure 8.10: Out-of-school children of (a) primary-school age and (b) secondary school age, by residence, and by sex (in thousands)



8.3.2 Non-attendance: reasons and causes

Non-attendance in education is a multi-faceted problem, which involves – among others – economic, cultural, security, health and distance issues. ALCS 2016-17 collected information about the main reasons for never attending school and main reasons for no longer attending for those who ever attended education, but no longer attended in the year before the survey. Answers to these questions can provide important input in policies and programmes aiming at higher school attendance for different target groups.

The distributions of reasons for non-attendance in *Figure 8.11* and *Figure 8.12* show that reasons for not starting education are often different from reasons for terminating education. The two most important reasons for not starting school are the absence or the large distance to school (36.6 percent) and family disapproval of going to school (25.2 percent) (*Figure 8.11*). Economic reasons include the need for children to work and too high education expenses, which together amount to 12.3¹⁶ percent of all reasons. Being too young (6.9 percent of all reasons) applies almost exclusively to children who were aged five to seven in the year before the survey. It should be born in mind that answers to the question why school was never attended refer to people from all ages up from age 6. Therefore, the reasons provided may refer to the current situation (for young children), but also to a distant past (for older persons) when the education system was in a very different state.

16 The sum of categories in *Figure 8.4* add up to only 12.2 due to rounding.

Figure 8.11: Population aged 6 and over who never attended education, by main reason for never attending (in percentages)

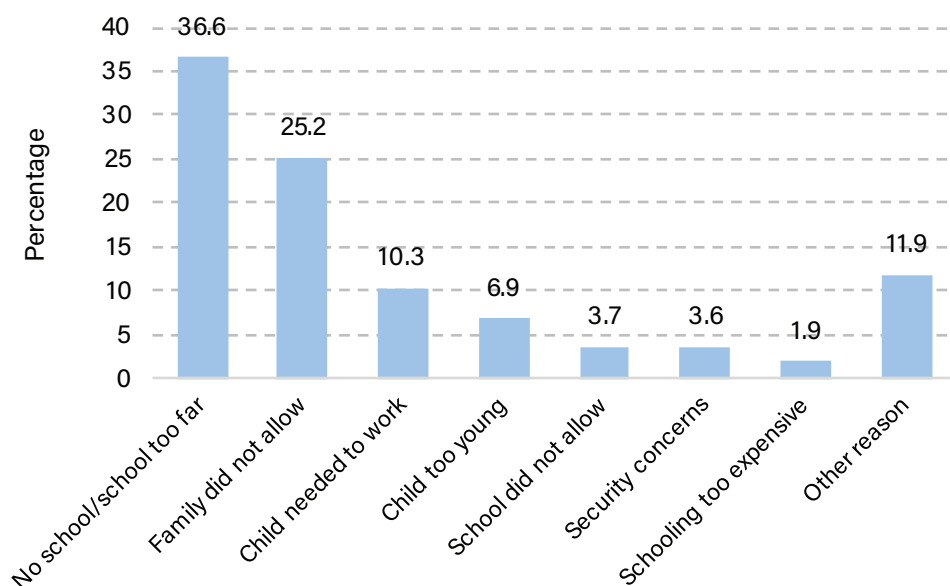
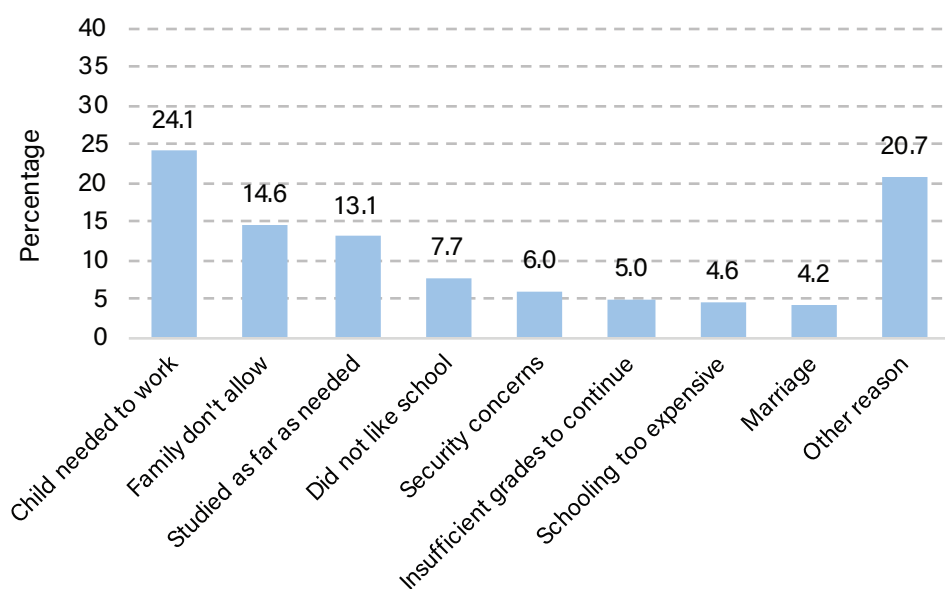


Figure 8.12: Population aged 6-24 who stopped education, by main reason for not attending education last year (in percentages)



The need for children to work (24.1 percent) is more important as a reason to stop education (Figure 8.12). Together with cost considerations (4.6 percent), economic reasons amount even to 28.6 percent.¹⁷ Many reasons for discontinuation of education are related to educational experiences (did not like school or did not learn enough, insufficient grades obtained; together 12.7 percent), to growing to older age and a different stage in the life-course (marriage, family disapproval; 18.8 percent) or a combination of the two (studied as far as needed).

¹⁷ The sum of categories in Figure 8.12 add up to 28.7 due to rounding.

The distributions of reasons for non-attendance presented in Figures 8.11 and 8.12 conceal an enormous differentiation by sex and residence. For instance, absence of or distance to school is a far more important reason not to start education in rural areas (39.6 percent) than in urban areas (17.7 percent). Family disapproval to enter education is almost exclusively a problem for girls (39.6 percent of reasons, compared to 3.2 percent for boys). The same holds for continuation of education, where objections by family members are the main reason for 30.9 percent of girls and only 1.5 percent of boys.

Other conditions also factor in when looking for explanations for non-attendance. Thus, 62.4 percent of the poor population aged 6 and over never started school, compared to 48.8 percent of the non-poor. The percentages never attending school were 75.1 for persons with disabilities, against 55.3 percent for people without. Similar patterns are found for the absence in education in the year before the survey among persons aged 6 to 24.

The multitude of variables affecting entry into and exit from the school system, and the complexity of interaction between these variables, requires more advanced analysis than simple cross tabulations with two or three variables. Although advanced analyses are largely out of scope of this main ALCS report, two logistic regressions are presented here, one for the odds ratios of having never started education among children and youth aged 6 to 24 and one for the odds ratios of education attendance in the year before the survey. For an explanation of logistic regression and the odds ratios, refer to Text box 4.3 in the chapter on labour market.

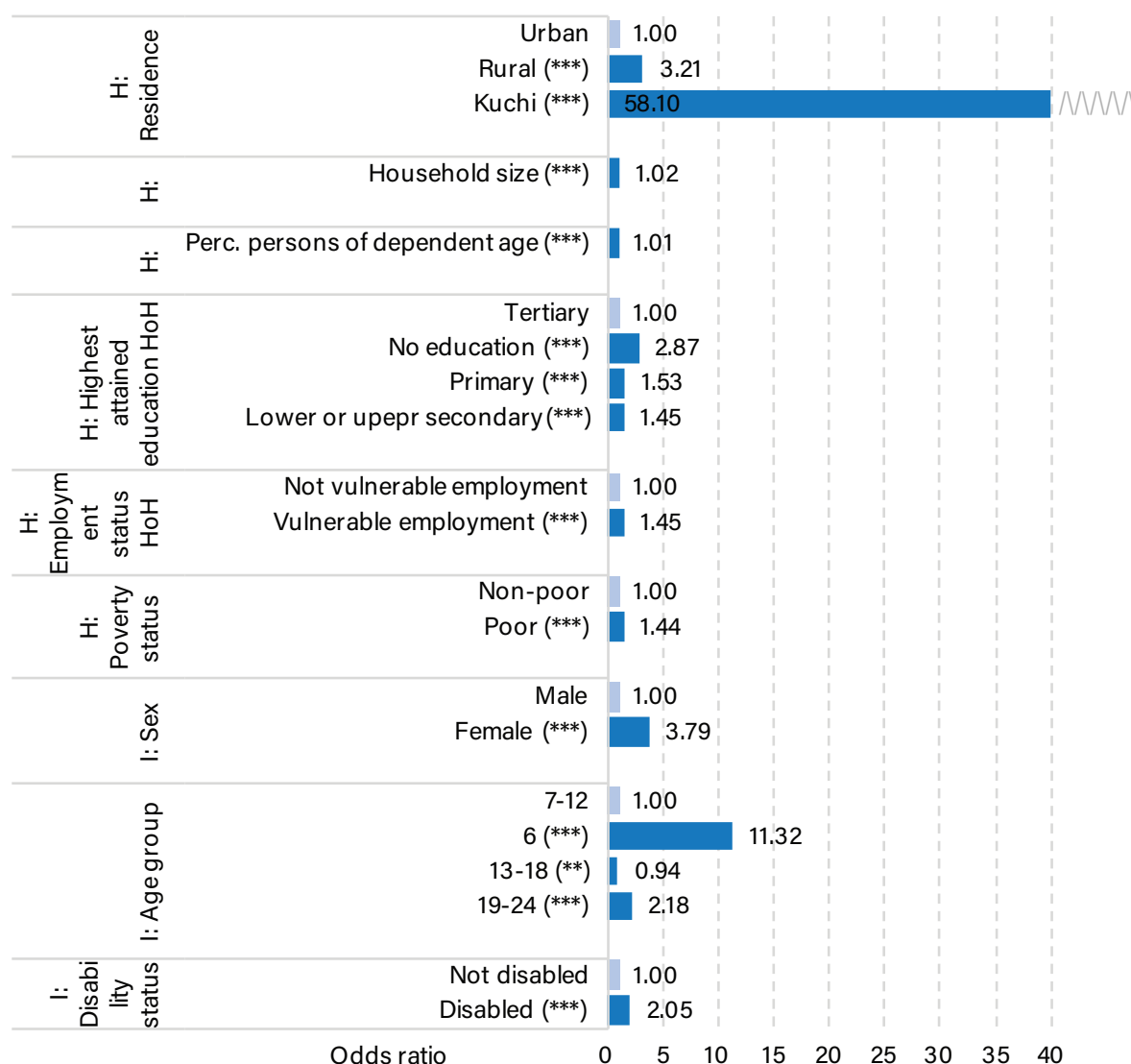
All variables included in the regression model on having never started school (*Figure 8.13*) show statistically significant effects, except household size. Poverty has a clear effect on the likelihood of never having starting school, net of the effects of all other variables in the model. Compared to the non-poor, poor people are 44 percent more likely to never having entered school. However, other household characteristics and contextual variables (indicated with an 'H' in *Figure 8.13*) are more discriminating. The variable that has by far the largest effect is residence: compared to urban people, rural residents are 3.2 times more likely to have never entered school and Kuchi people even 58 times more likely.

The educational attainment of the head of household also shows a distinctive pattern of influence. Compared to people living in households with heads who completed tertiary education, those with heads with secondary or primary education only, have a likelihood of not having started school that is, respectively, 45 and 53 percent higher. Those living in households with a head without any education completed are almost three times more likely to not having started education. This points at the inter-generational transmission of education performance: independently of poverty status, residence and other factors, poor educational achievements of parents replicate in their children.

The effect of the household percentage of persons in dependent ages (those aged 65 and over, but mostly children under age 15), is statistically significant, but appears small. However, the odds ratio of 1.01 (which is a figure rounded from 1.005) should be interpreted in the sense that one point increase in the percentage of persons in the dependent age groups result in an increased likelihood of 0.5 percent of not having entered school. This would imply that persons in the average Afghan household with 50.4 percent persons in dependent ages (47.7 percent under-fives and 2.7 percent persons aged 65 and over; see Table 3.2 above), would have 27 percent more chance of not having started education, compared to a household without dependents.

Individual characteristics (indicated with an 'I' in *Figure 8.13*) show equally important effects on the likelihood of not having started education. For girls and women, this likelihood is 3.8 times larger than that of boys and men, while the odds for people with a disability are 2 times larger than that for non-disabled persons.

Figure 8.13: Odds ratios of logistic regression on never started school of population aged 6 and over



Significance level: (***) significant at 99% (**) significant at 95%; R² = 0.2283

The effect of age shows an interesting pattern. For this variable, a specific age group distribution is established. The first age group consists of children for whom the young age (age six) is a consideration not to send them to school (see the age-specific attendance rates in Figure 8.1). Children of age 7 to 12 are past the age that many families consider too young for schooling. These children were all born after the overthrow of the Taliban regime in 2001 and entered school age in a period when the reconstruction of the education system took effect. Moreover, these children did not yet enter the official working age of 14, which is a proxy for the chance of being set to work. The age groups 13 to 18 and 19 to 24 consist of youth, all of whom were born during the Taliban regime or the preceding Mujahideen strife. In this respect, age represents to some extent the education conditions in the past.

The regression model shows that, compared to the reference group of children in age group 7 to 12, the youngest children (six years old) are 11 times more likely not having entered school. As shown above, age six is often considered too young to start school, even if it is the official age for starting school. The odds ratio just below 1 (0.94) for the group aged 13 to 18 in suggests that these lower secondary-school age children were slightly more likely to have started school than the reference group. There is no ready explanation for this observation and it will be interesting to further investigate into this effect, also in relation to the stagnating improvements in attendance rates (see section 8.2.8). The oldest youth group clearly suffered from adverse education conditions during the time when they were of primary school age, as shown by the odds ratio of 2.2.

It should be noted that the variables included in the regression model refer to the conditions and characteristics of persons at the time of the survey. These conditions and characteristics may have been very different at the time when persons acquired school age, which may have been in a distant past.

The survey information about conditions and characteristics of persons at the time of the survey is a much better approximation for the situation at the time decisions were made to continue or terminate education for persons aged 6 to 24 who ever started school. *Figure 8.14* presents the odds ratios of a logistic regression on whether or not a person in the age group 6 to 24 attended any level of education in 1395 (2015-16), the year before the ALCS 2016-17. Compared to the analysis of starting education in *Figure 8.13*, marital status is added as independent variables. In addition, age is grouped according to school age categories.¹⁸

Among the household- and contextual variables in the regression model, residence is again the most differentiating factor. Compared to their urban peers, the rural school-age population 6 to 24 has a 57 percent higher likelihood of not having attended education in 2015-16, independent of any other variable in the model. For the Kuchi population, this is even 6.6 times higher. Also, the educational attainment of the head of household affects the likelihood of terminating education.¹⁹ Persons in households with a head who completed primary or any secondary education are, respectively 76 and 29 percent more likely to have stopped pursuing education, whereas a percentage of 95 is found for persons in households with uneducated heads.

Poverty and the job type of the head of household also have statistically significant effects on the likelihood of having attended education by school-aged household members in 2015-16. Persons in poor households and with a head in vulnerable employment²⁰ are, respectively, 34 and 14 percent more likely to have not attended education last year. Larger households and households with many persons in the dependent age groups (those under 15 and 65 and over) seem to provide slightly stimulating environments for continuing education once persons have started education, as the odds ratios of these variables are below 1.²¹

Several individual characteristics also importantly affect the chances of school starters to be in education in the year before the survey. Age is by far the most discriminating variable. Irrespective of the level of education attained, marital status, sex and other model variables, the likelihood of not attending education increases with age. This effect is probably related to various considerations, importantly including age-related (gender-specific) valuations, needs and norms about roles and behaviour in Afghan society, such as the need to contribute to household income, purdah, the value assigned to education and the recurring costs of education. Children in the lower-secondary school age group who ever started education were 5.4 times more likely to be out of school in 2015-16 and the corresponding figures for children in the upper-secondary age group and persons of tertiary education age were as high as 16 and 41, respectively.

When controlling for other variables, gender remains a strongly discriminating factor, as girls and young women are 2.3 times more likely not to have attended education in the previous year than boys and young men. Marriage is a strong barrier to continuation of education. Compared to unmarried persons, those that are married are 4.3 times more likely not to have attended education.

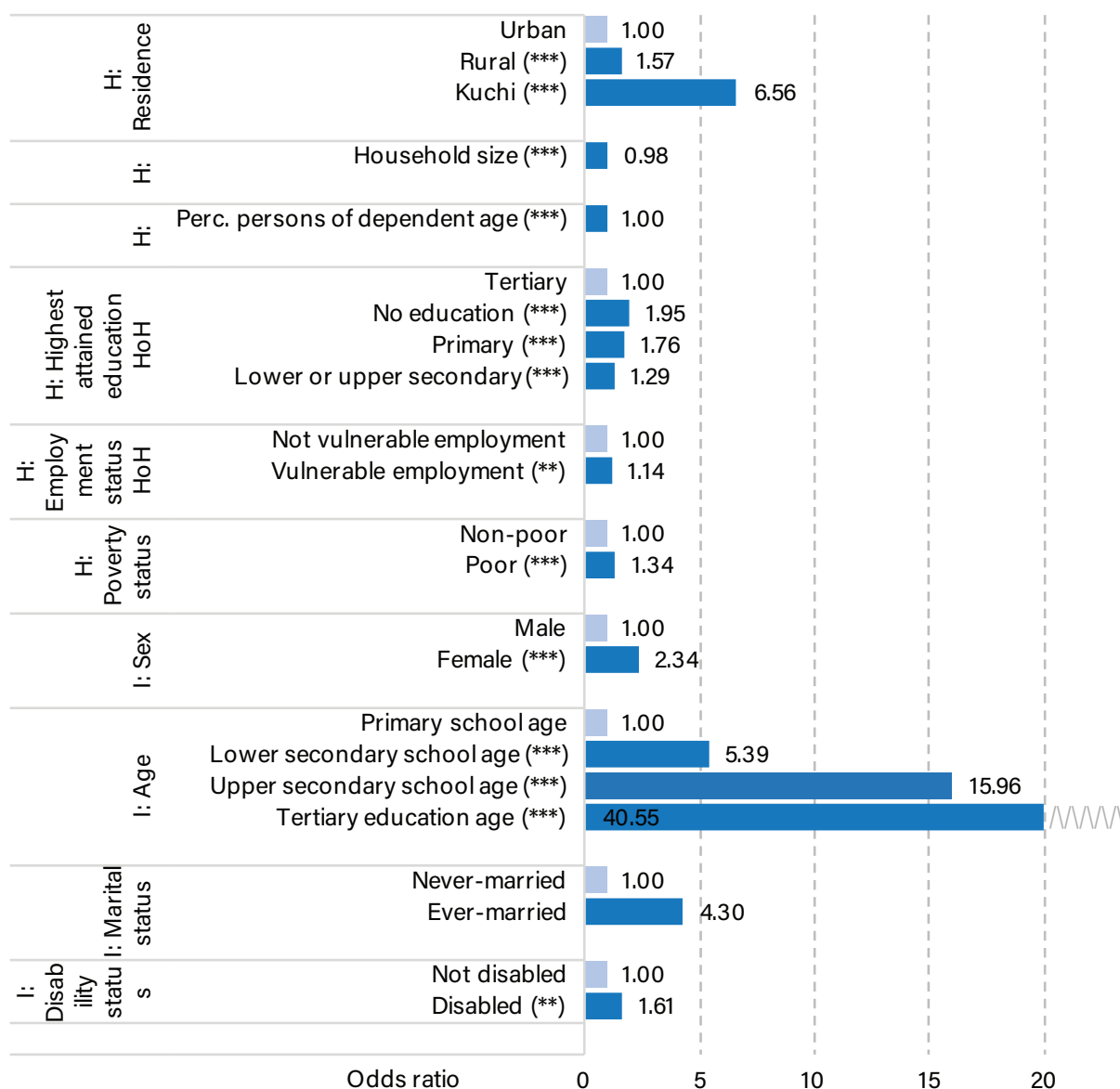
18 Marital status is an irrelevant variable at the time children acquire school age: all children are never-married at that time and by definition, none has completed any education; in the education analysis attendance in the year before the survey, age rather represents progression in the life course and in the education system.

19 The analysis may be compromised if the persons included in the model are household heads themselves. These cases (1.4 percent of the model universe) are deleted from the model.

20 Vulnerable employment includes day labourers, own-account workers and unpaid family workers (see section 4.5.2 above).

21 The figure of 1.00 presented in *Figure 8.9* is rounded from 0.9955.

Figure 8.14: Odds ratios of logistic regression on not attending school in 2015-16 (1395) of population aged 6-24 who ever started school



8.4 Educational attainment

Educational attainment of the population 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 fifth (17.6 percent) of the adult population aged 25 and over in Afghanistan has any formal education. For men this share is 28.8 percent and for women only 6.2 percent. Here, the lack of access to formal education during the Taliban regime, which was particularly affecting girls, is still noticeable. The new generation that started primary school after 2001 during the rebuilding of the education system has not yet aged to the population of 25 years and over. In addition, during the decades of violence the country has lost a significant share

of its higher-educated population, few of whom have returned. Overall, only 12.0 percent of the adult population has more than primary education, with the corresponding figures for males and females being, 19.8 and 4.0 percent, respectively.

In absolute terms, the country's stock of persons aged 25 or more with completed tertiary education (college or academic) is 333 thousand. This is a large increase compared to the number found in the NRVA 2007-08, when the tertiary-educated stock was only 93 thousand persons (CSO 2009). Although the urban population of 25 and over makes up only one quarter of the total population in this age group, two thirds of all people in the country with completed tertiary education live in urban areas.

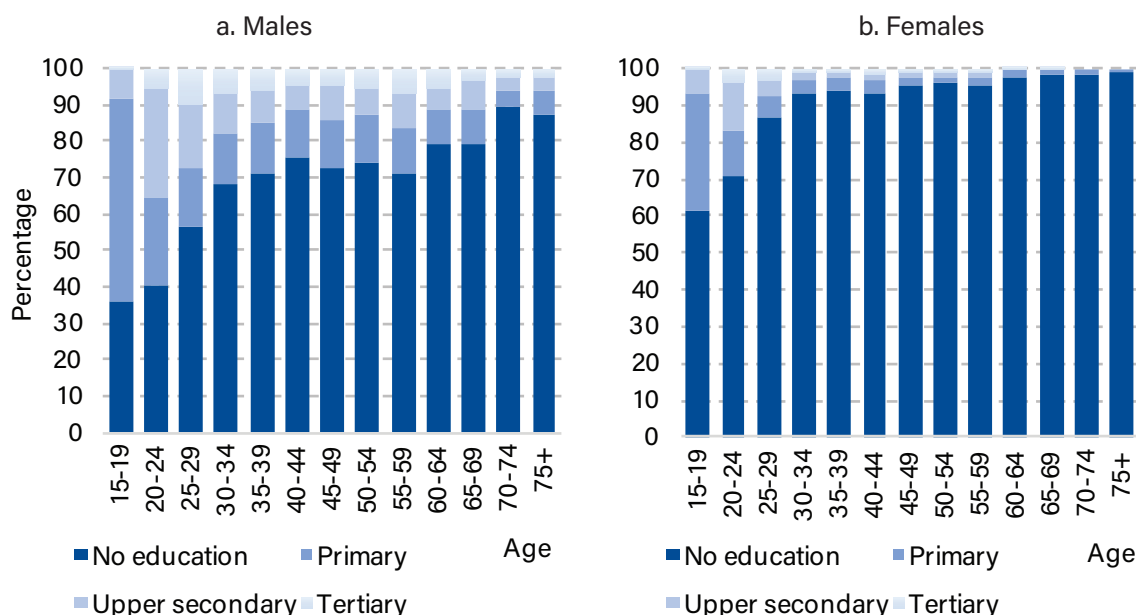
Table 8.3: Population 25 years and over, by educational attainment, and by sex (in thousands and in percentages)

Educational attainment	In thousands			In percentages		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	4,450	4,333	8,783	100.0	100.0	100.0
No education	3,170	4,063	7,233	71.2	93.8	82.4
Primary	400	95	494	9.0	2.2	5.6
Lower secondary	180	41	221	4.1	0.9	2.5
Upper secondary	424	77	501	9.5	1.8	5.7
Teacher college	105	31	136	2.4	0.7	1.5
University / Technical college	171	26	197	3.8	0.6	2.2

Next to the very large share of people without formal education, the most salient finding from Table 8.3 is the large difference in educational attainment between men and women. *Figure 8.15* further visualises the gender differences in educational attainment by age, from age 15 onwards. For both men and women, the cohorts from age group 30-34 and above have very low educational attainment levels, and for women even much lower than for men. The proportion of men with any level of education completed in any of these cohorts is less than 32 percent and the corresponding proportion of women is even less than 7 percent. This indicates, on the one hand, very poor access to education in the periods that these cohorts were of schooling age (the period before 1992), and on the other hand, probably large losses of people with any level of education completed due to emigration, especially more advanced levels of education.

From age group 30-34 onwards, each successively younger cohort has substantially improved educational attainment. For these cohorts the proportion that completed any level of education increases from 31.5 to 64.2 percent for males and from 6.5 to 38.8 for females. This pattern reflects the renewed access to education in the one-and-a-half decade before the ALCS 2016-17. As a consequence, the percentage who completed the full six-year secondary education curriculum is 2.8 times higher for the younger men aged 20-24 than it is for those aged 30-34, and for women of the same age it is even 5.9 times higher. Similarly, the percentage with completed primary education is 3.5 times higher for the men aged 15-19 than it is for those aged 20-24, and for women it is even 5.7 times higher.

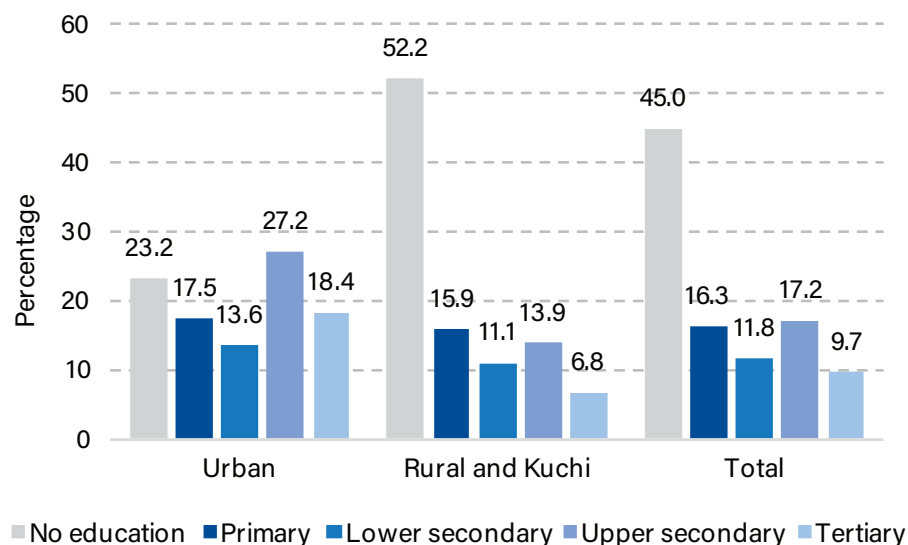
Figure 8.15: Males and females 15 years and over, by age, and by educational attainment (in percentages)^a



^a Note that age groups 15-19 and 20-24 represent cohorts for whom information about educational attainment is truncated: some persons included in these age groups are still attending education and will ultimately attain higher education levels than currently presented.

The presence of a person in the household who has attained any level – and especially a higher level – of education may have an important impact on the livelihood through a better position on the labour market (see chapter 4). *Figure 8.16* presents the distribution of households by the household member with the highest educational attainment and indicates large disparities in human capital present in urban and rural households. More than half (52.2 percent) of the rural and Kuchi households have no one who has completed any level of education and the percentages of households of which the person with the highest educational attainment is primary-, secondary- or tertiary education are low. These range from 15.9 percent for households with primary education as the highest educational attainment in the household to 6.8 percent with tertiary education as the highest educational attainment. In rural households, the distribution is much more even: a relatively low 23.2 percent of households has no one with any completed level of education, while 27.2 and 18.4 percent of households have at least one person with, respectively, completed upper secondary or tertiary education.

Figure 8.16: Households, by residence, and by highest educational attainment in the household (in percentages)



8.5 Literacy

8.5.1 Adult and youth literacy

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 organising adult literacy programmes and quality primary education. The SDG 4 on education includes Target 4.6, which is specifically referring to literacy: *By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy.* The related Indicator 4.6.1 (*the proportion of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills*) should be produced for adults (persons aged 15 years and above) and youth (persons aged 15-24 years). The 'proficiency in functional literacy', that is mentioned in the indicator is unfortunately not yet specified in operational terms and it will probably also not be feasible to cover its measurement in a multi-purpose survey like ALCS, due to the direct assessment of literacy that will be required. This ALCS report – as the previous ones – provides information of adult- and youth literacy rates, based on self-reporting, which will serve as proxy SDG indicators.

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, thereby enabling them to apply such skills in daily life and to continue learning and communicating in writing. *Table 8.4* indicates very low adult literacy rates for Afghanistan, with 34.8 percent overall literacy in the population 15 years and over. The complementary illiteracy rate of 65.2 percent implies that there are around 9.9 million illiterate persons aged 15 and older in Afghanistan, 6.0 million women and 3.9 million men. The absolute gap of 2.1 million people could be interpreted as the number of women who should be made literate to achieve at least equality between the sexes.

The adult literacy rate presented in *Table 8.4* also shows pronounced differences by residence: in the urban population the adult literacy rate (53.6 percent) is almost twice as high as that in the rural population (28.7 percent), whereas among the Kuchi adult literacy is as low as 7.5 percent.

Table 8.4: Adult literacy rate, by sex, and by residence (in percentages); Gender equity indicators, by residence

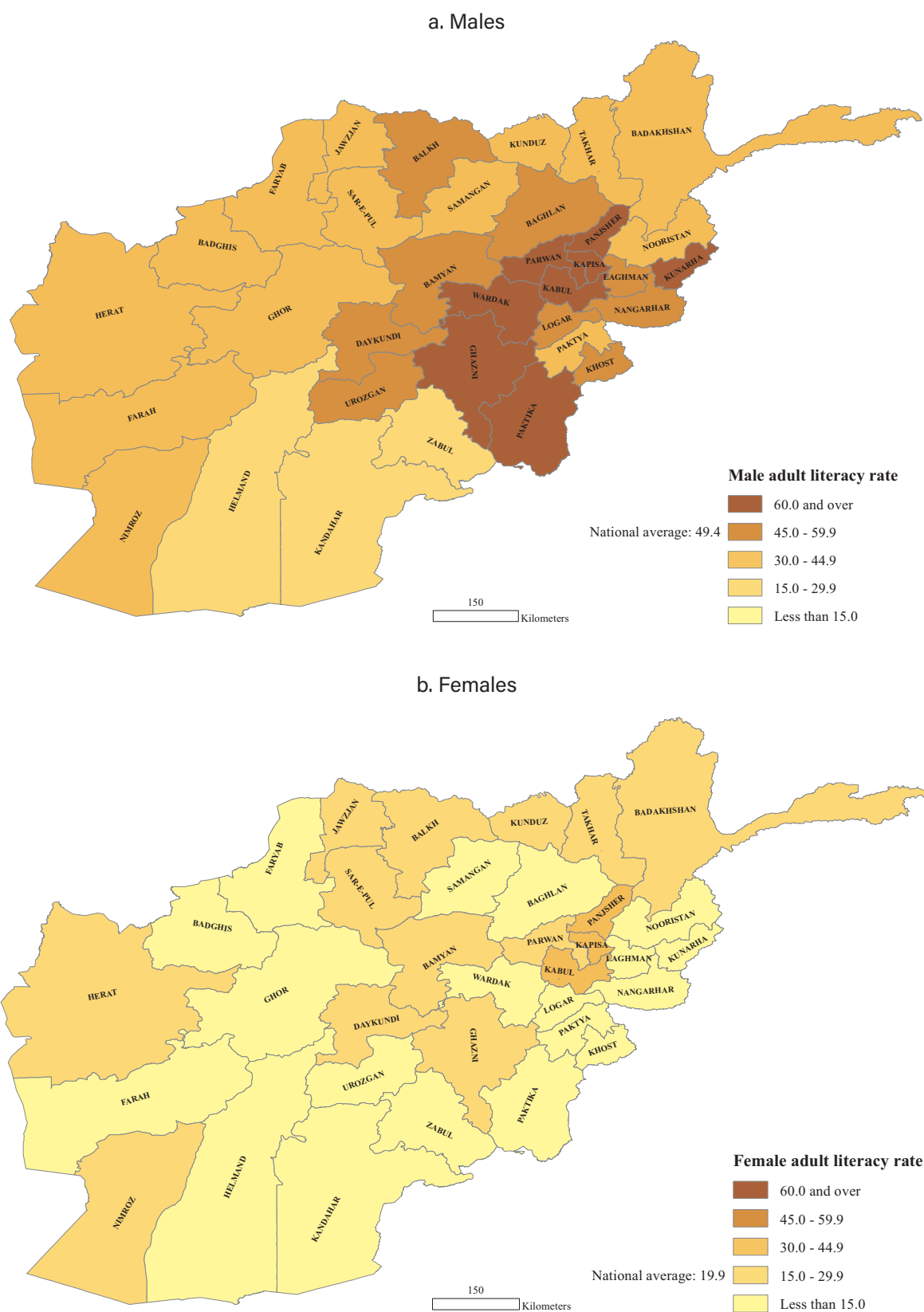
Sex and gender equity indicators	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
a. Sex				
Total	53.7	29.6	5.8	34.8
Male	66.8	45.6	10.6	49.4
Female	40.8	13.1	0.7	19.9
b. Gender equity indicators				
Absolute difference	26.0	32.5	9.9	29.5
Gender parity index	0.61	0.29	0.07	0.40

Nationally, only 19.9 percent of women 15 years and over can read and write, compared to 49.4 percent of men. The corresponding figure for rural women is a low 13.1 percent (against 45.6 percent for rural men) and among Kuchi women, virtually no one can read and write, and only 10.6 percent of men can. As shown in *Table 8.4*, these figures result in 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 (around 30 percentage points), the performance in terms of the ratio indicator is twice as high in urban areas (0.61) as in rural areas (0.29), indicating the disadvantaged position of rural women.

The thematic maps of *Figures 8.17a* and *8.17b* below allow a comparison of literacy rates by province and sex. The regional distribution shows relatively high literacy rates in eastern Afghanistan for men and extremely low literacy

rates for women in the southern – mostly Pashtun – belt. Of the altogether 9.7 million illiterate people 15 years and over in Afghanistan, 5.9 million or 61 percent are women and 3.8 million or 39 percent are men.

Figure 8.17: Adult literacy rate, by province, for (a) males and (b) females (in percentages)



The youth literacy rate – the literacy rate calculated for the sub-population aged 15-24 – was one of the MDG indicators to measure progress towards achieving universal primary education (MDG goal 2). The indicator 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 recent 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. Disability is also often an impediment to literacy, as the percentage literate youth with a disability is only 41.0, compared to 53.8 for youth without disabilities (data not shown).

UNESCO estimates the global youth literacy for 2016 rate at 91.3 percent.²² Afghanistan's overall youth literacy rate of 53.6 percent sharply contrasts with this figure and would imply that Afghanistan takes the ninth-lowest place of all countries for which data are available for any year since 2012.

Table 8.5: Youth literacy rate, by sex, and by residence (in percentages); Gender equity indicators, by residence

Sex and gender equity indicators	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
a. Sex				
Total	75.1	47.9	7.0	53.6
Male	83.0	66.1	12.2	68.2
Female	67.3	29.2	1.2	38.7
b. Gender equity indicators				
Absolute difference	15.7	36.9	11.0	29.5
Gender parity index	0.81	0.44	0.10	0.57

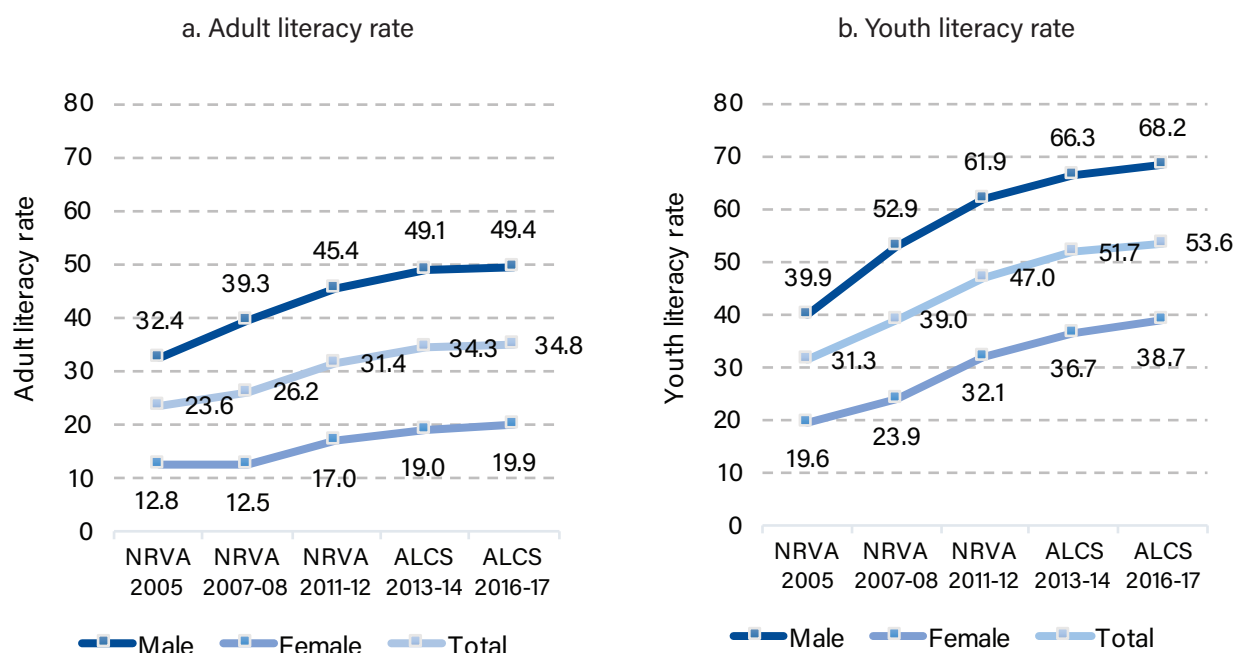
The youth literacy gender parity index is the ratio of the female literacy rate to the male literacy rate for the age group 15-24. The indicator was applied in Afghanistan as an ANDS indicator to measure progress towards gender equity in education and presents a key indicator of empowerment of women in society. At national level, ALCS 2016-17 found a figure of 0.57 for this indicator (see Table 8.5). The corresponding figures for urban and rural populations were, respectively, 0.81 and 0.44.

8.5.2 Trends in literacy levels

Despite large investments in the education system in the one-and-a-half decade before the ALCS 2016-17, their conversion into increased literacy rates is a slow process. The adult literacy rate – referring to the population 15 years of age and older – has increased, from 23.6 percent in NRVA 2005 to 31.4 percent in NRVA 2011-12 and is now recorded at 34.8 percent (*Figure 8.18a*). This implies a 47 percent improvement for this indicator in 11 years time. However, no statistically significant improvement can be reported since ALCS 2013-14. Since the female adult literacy rate improved relatively slightly more than the male rate, the gender parity index for this indicator increased from 0.32 in 2007-08 to 0.40 in 2016-17. In terms of residence, most gains were realised for rural residents, for whom the adult literacy rate increased from a very low 19.6 percent in 2005 to a – still low – 29.6 percent in 2016-17 (a 61 percent improvement).

22 UNESCO International Database (https://www.google.nl/search?source=hp&ei=q1EuWqfUOMzGwALzjKOW-CA&q=unesco+youth+literacy&oq=unesco+youth+literacy&gs_l=psy-ab.3...889.61170.7441.21.21.0.0.0.102.1263.20j1.21.0...0...1c.1.64.psy-ab..0.15.898...0j46j0i46k1j0i22i30k1j0i8i13i30k1.0.K65OJPubh58)

Figure 8.18: Adult- and youth literacy rate, by survey year, and by sex (in percentages)



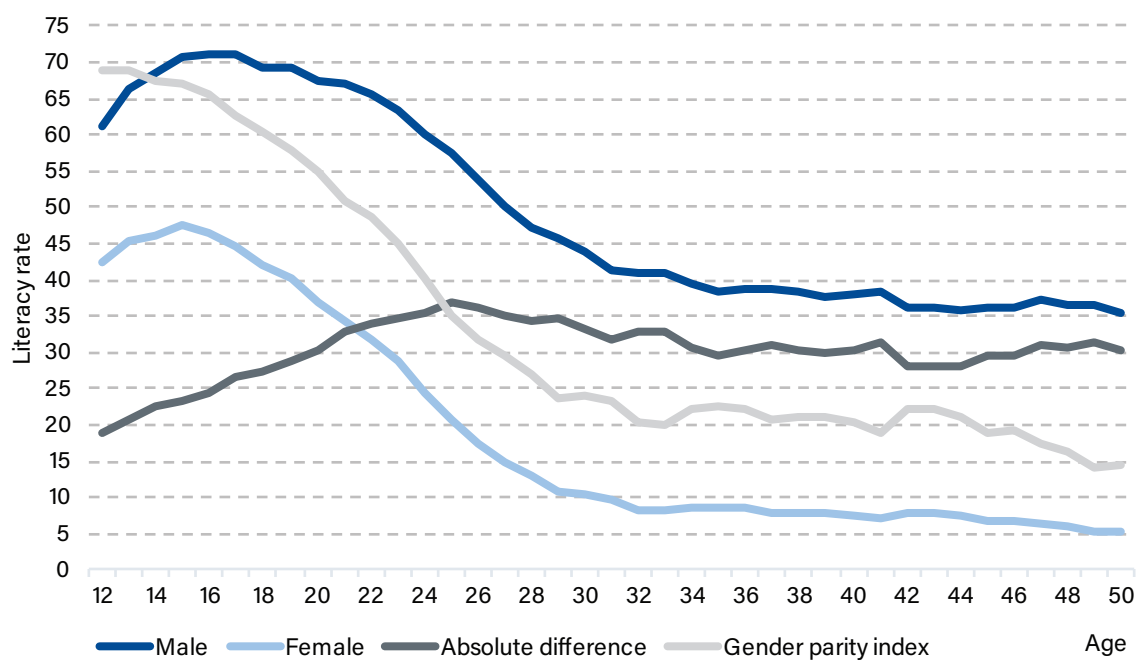
Compared to the adult literacy rate, the youth literacy rate shows a more rapid improvement. The overall indicator increased with 71 percent from NRVA 2005 (31.3 percent) to ALCS 2016-17 (53.6 percent) (Figure 8.18b). As the relative improvement of the female rate was larger than the corresponding male rate, the gender parity index for the youth literacy rate increased from 0.49 in 2005 to 0.57 in 2016-17. Also for this indicator, the largest gains were achieved among rural residents for whom the indicator almost doubled from 19.6 percent in 2005 to 38.7 percent in 2016-17. Again, no statistically significant increase can be reported for the youth literacy rate since ALCS 2013-14, which is in line with the stagnating trends in educational attendance, reported in section 8.2.8 above.

Figure 8.19 presents the change in literacy levels based on age-specific literacy rates. It indicates an improvement in educational performance in the period since 2001. Educational improvement is suggested by the increase of literacy rates in younger age groups at the left of the graph, an effect that is observed for both women and men. For all women aged 31 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 reflects the new opportunities to enter the formal education system after the remove from power of the Taliban regime in 2001.²³ The increase in literacy continues for each successively younger age up to age 15. At this peak, 47.5 percent of girls is able to read and write and 70.9 percent of boys is able to do so. Children of younger ages show somewhat lower literacy because of the effect of later school-starters and using moving averages in the graph.

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 girls was larger. As can be seen in Figure 8.19, the gender parity index – the ratio of female-to-male literacy – sharply increases from just over 20 percent for persons around 32 years old (who were too old to effectively benefit from the change in 2001) to 69 percent for children around age 12. This figure indicates that at this age the share of girls that is able to read and write is 69 percent of the share of boys that is able to do so. In absolute terms, the gap between the male and female literacy rates is fairly stable ranging between 30 and 36 percentage points from older ages up to around age 25. From this age onward also the absolute gap starts to decrease for each successively younger cohort, from 36 to below 18 percentage points around age 12. This age-based assessment confirms that literacy for the younger generations in Afghanistan has improved, and that, relatively, girls benefitted more than boys and started to catch up with them.

23 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 8.19: Literacy rate, by age, and by sex; Gender equity indicators, by age (in percentages)^a



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

9 HEALTH

Summary: Since the beginning of the new century impressive progress has been made in providing health care to the Afghan people. Despite remarkable efforts made by the government, NGO's and the international community, Afghanistan's health system still needs considerable support. In terms of access to health care, it was found that presently 93 percent of the population in Afghanistan is within a range of two hours from a public clinic, 82 percent of the population lives less than two hours from a district or provincial hospital and 8 percent lives more than six hours away. A positive development is that travel costs to health facilities, as reported by Shuras, had decreased considerably.

The analysis estimated the number of persons who obtained in-patient care at 954 thousand. Public hospitals supply most of the in-patient services: 64 percent of all persons who stay in hospitals do so at public hospitals within Afghanistan and 27 percent of in-patients go to private hospitals. Clear differences were observed between men and women and between rural and urban areas and the Kuchi population, in terms of their disease pattern for which they needed in-patient care. ALCS data showed that an estimated 2.5 million persons visited health services as out-patients, which accounts for 9 percent of the total population. Women made considerably more visits to health providers than men.

Timely and high-quality ante-natal care is key to bringing down the high levels of neo-natal and maternal mortality. The ALCS 2016-17 shows that overall the use of ante-natal care (with one or more visits) has improved, but that a somewhat lower percentage of women get four ante-natal check-ups, which are recommended by the World Health Organization. It was found that women who received ante-natal care had a higher prevalence of contraceptive use than women who did not get ante-natal care. The percentage of pregnant women who consulted a skilled health care provider currently stands at 64 percent; 36 percent of women received tetanus injections during pregnancy. In Afghanistan, 10 percent of deliveries are assisted by a doctor and 43 percent by a midwife or nurse, meaning that 53 percent of all birth are assisted by a skilled birth attendant (SDG indicator 3.1.2). Over the years, assistance by skilled birth attendants has increased consistently. However, it is worrying that still 47 percent of all births take place without a skilled health practitioner, especially because almost half of all births still take place at home while 50 percent are institutional deliveries.

About half of all children below age five received a Vitamin A supplement during the period of six months before the survey. Birth registration is important for children's health and social protection. Birth registration certifies a child's age and allows the proper management and monitoring of vaccinations and other health interventions. Among all children younger than 5 years old, 29 percent had a birth registration (SDG indicator 16.9.1). Only 10 percent of Kuchi children were registered at birth, 22 percent of rural children had been registered and 61 percent of children in urban areas.

Little information is available on the prevalence and characteristics of persons with disabilities in Afghanistan. The information of the ALCS suggest that 924 thousand persons are considered to have a disability, which implies a disability prevalence rate of 3 percent. However, there is evidence that this figure underestimates the true number of persons with disabilities. One in three persons with disabilities has more than one disability. As can be expected, prevalence is high at older ages. However, prevalence was also found to be higher among young children compared to the adult population. It was found that walking/climbing steps is the activity for which the disability rate is highest (1.5 percent), followed by seeing (1.0 percent). Communication is the activity with the lowest connected disability rate (0.4 percent). Generally, little difference in prevalence was observed between both sexes. It is interesting that a higher proportion of women are disabled because of illness than men (22 against 34 percent).

9.1 Introduction

After many years of serious neglect of the Afghan health system, due to war and devastation caused by the Taliban regime, in March 2002 the Ministry of Public Health implemented the Basic Package of Health Services (BPHS), later followed by the Essential Package for Hospital Services (EPHS). The BPHS is intended to focus on health issues where most progress can be made. It delivers services through an integrated approach, rather than with projects or vertical activities. Many aspects of the BPHS focuses on rural areas and on specific care for women and children. The EPHS, as an extension of the BPHS, was introduced in 2005. Because of these structural changes in the health system, over the last ten years significant progress has been made in the health conditions of the Afghan people, despite the pervasive internal conflict.

The previous NRVA and ALCS reports demonstrated the positive outcome of the recovering health system. The studies, however, also showed that compared to many countries in the region, health indicators remained poor and that health conditions, especially in rural areas and among the Kuchi populations, continue to be a matter of serious concern. An important barrier to effective and efficient provision of health care is the lack of infrastructure and access to necessary services. In the ALCS 2016-17, the access and use of health services are looked at and compared to past experiences. The use of health services concentrates on in-patient and out-patient care and medicines.

Some of the most impressive progress in the health sector has been made in the field of maternal and child health. Much of these improvements in the past were due to enhanced ante-natal care and increased deliverance in specialised institutions with skilled birth attendants. In this chapter, it will be investigated whether the positive trends in ante-natal care, place of delivery and delivery by skilled birth attendants has further improved.

Persons with a disability occupy a vulnerable position in Afghan society. In contrast to their difficult position stands the fact that recent statistics on the prevalence of persons with a disability are largely missing. In 2005, a National Disability Survey was organised and the NRVA 2007-08 contained some questions on disability, but since then no comprehensive information was gathered about the prevalence of disability. The ALCS 2016-17 contained a special module on disability. The present chapter provides new information about the prevalence of disability in Afghanistan.

9.2 Access to health services

Health services play an important role in health promotion and maintenance, disease management and prevention, diminishing unnecessary disability and premature death, as well as realising health equity for the population as a whole. However, if accessibility to such services is hampered, these matters can simply not be achieved and the negative repercussions for the population's health may be substantial.

In the early 2000s, the lack of functioning health facilities was present across the board in Afghanistan and the system was heavily characterised by a chronic shortage of trained health providers. According to the NRVA 2003, in rural Afghanistan only 7 percent of households had health services in their community and 32 percent had to travel more than a quarter day to seek medical assistance (VAM, WHO & VAU, 2004). Over the years, the collaboration between the Ministry of Health and international organisations and NGOs has resulted in significant progress towards the availability of health services. The NRVA 2007-08 covered both urban and rural areas and found that 57.4 percent of the population was within an hour walking distance from a public health facility. The percentages for urban, rural and Kuchi were 78.5, 53.8 and 37.1 percent, respectively (CSO 2009).

Afghan communities still consider the provision of new health facilities or the improvement of existing ones a high priority. In the survey, the male Shuras were asked what their first, second and third community priorities were that they would like the Afghan government to address. One of the possible answer categories was 'New/improved local health facilities'. Among all 1,928 Shuras interviewed, 183 (9.5 percent) indicated that construction or improvement of health facilities was the first priority; 312 (16.2) saw it as their second most important priority and 210 (9.9 percent) saw it as their third most important priority. The Shuras who were interviewed could choose from 28 possible priorities. It is telling that 705 (36.5 percent) had high-quality and comprehensive health facilities in their top three development priorities (see also CSO 2009, CSO 2014).

In the ALCS 2016-17, two questions were asked about access to the nearest health facility. The first question covered the time it takes to reach the nearest facility on foot or animal in the last month (one-way travel). The second question was identical, though stated a car as the mode of transportation. Both questions were asked for five different health facilities:

- Health post (house of community health worker (CHW))
- Public clinic (basic or comprehensive health centre)
- District or provincial hospital
- Private doctor's office or private hospital; and
- Private pharmacy.

To link the response to the general population, answers provided by each Shura were linked to all households interviewed within the community covered by the Shura. *Table 9.1* presents the percentage of the population that can reach different types of health facilities within a specified time by any means of transport. Questions on transport by foot or animal or by car were compared and the shortest time was taken to calculate the time 'by any transport.'

Unfortunately, about 25 percent of the male Shuras could not provide an answer on the travel time to the nearest health post. Therefore, the results on the health posts/house of CHW cannot really be considered reliable. Presently, 93.2 percent of the population in Afghanistan is within a range of 2 hours from a public clinic. However, 4.5 percent still live 6 or more hours away from a public clinic. For more specialised care, a person may need to go to a district or provincial hospital: 82.4 percent of the population lives less than 2 hours from a district or provincial hospital and 8.2 percent lives more than 6 hours away. Pharmacies are within less than 2 hours reach of 94.8 percent of the population.

Table 9.1: Population, by type of health facility, travel time to health facility by any means of transport, and by residence (in percentages)^a

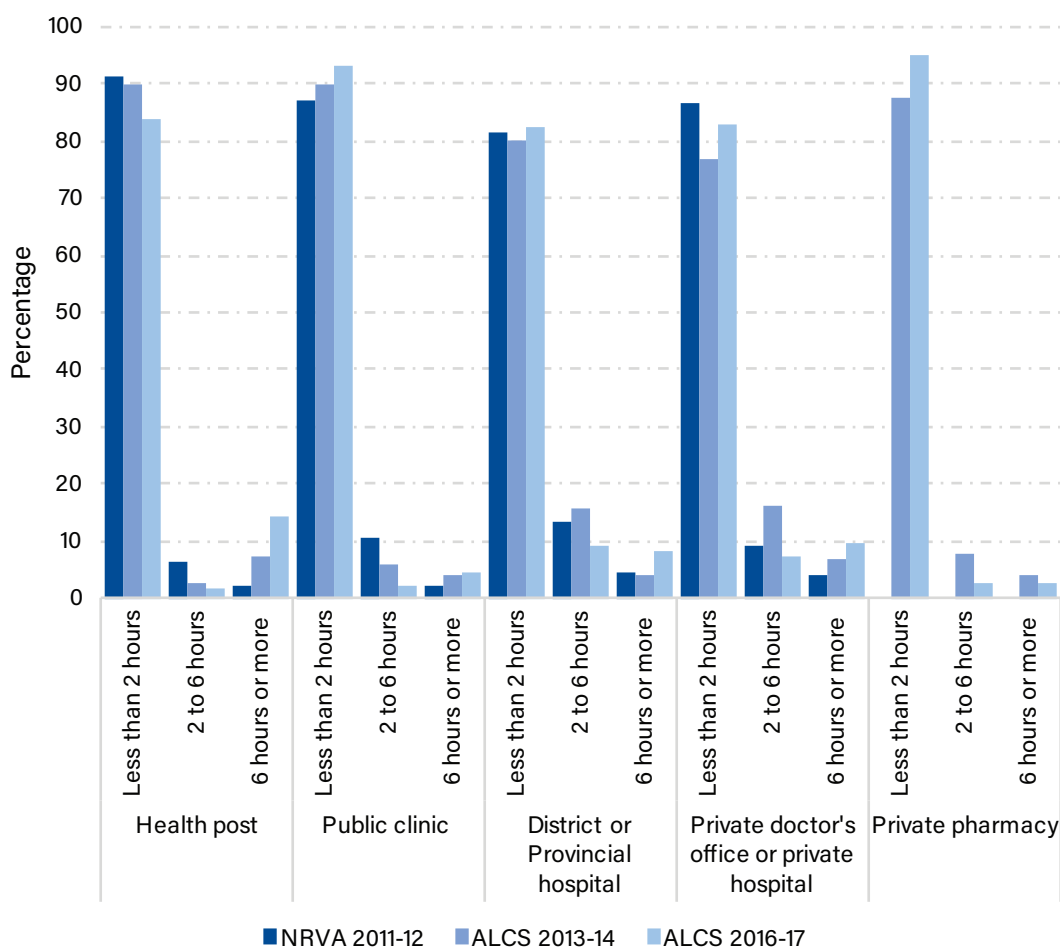
Health facility, travel time	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Health post				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	(100.0)
Less than 2 hours	(100.0)	(84.4)	(75.5)	(83.9)
2 to 6 hours	-	(2.1)	-	(1.9)
6 hours or more (incl. Cannot reach)	-	(13.5)	(24.5)	(14.1)
Public clinic				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 2 hours	95.8	92.5	90.4	93.2
2 to 6 hours	0.0	3.3	-	2.3
6 hours or more (incl. Cannot reach)	4.2	4.2	9.6	4.5
District or Provincial hospital				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 2 hours	80.7	82.6	88.6	82.4
2 to 6 hours	0.0	12.5	10.6	9.4
6 hours or more (incl. Cannot reach)	19.2	4.9	0.8	8.2
Private doctor's office or private hospital				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 2 hours	99.2	77.7	81.9	83.1
2 to 6 hours	0.0	10.0	6.7	7.4
6 hours or more (incl. Cannot reach)	0.8	12.4	11.4	9.5
Private pharmacy				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 2 hours	99.8	93.1	95.4	94.8
2 to 6 hours	0.0	3.8	-	2.7
6 hours or more (incl. Cannot reach)	0.1	3.2	4.6	2.5

^a Figures between brackets are considered less reliable, since these are based on variables with more than 20 percent missing values.

In all instances, except for district and provincial hospitals, rural and Kuchi populations require additional time to reach a health facility. It is rather implausible that almost 20 percent of the urban population would live more than 6 hours away from a district or provincial hospital, especially because these hospitals are usually situated in the urban centres of the province or district. The high number of urbanites who live more than 6 hours away from a district or provincial hospital is solely due to many people who live in districts where the Shura indicated that there is no road to the hospital. It is well possible that this is a flaw in the data.

Over the years, significant progress has been made in getting health facilities within reach of a large portion of the population. In 2006, the Afghanistan Health Survey found that 60 percent of the Afghan population did not have access to any health facility (MoPH 2007). *Figure 9.1* shows a comparison of travel time to each of the five types of health facilities in the NRVA 2011-12 and the ALCs of 2013-14 and 2016-17. In all three surveys the same questions were asked about access to health facilities. The graph shows that little changes are present in terms of the percentage of the population living within a radius of two hours travel from the various health facilities. This means that most important progress in improving the access to health services were made before 2011. Note however, that results for health posts were quite unreliable for 2013-14 and 2016-17, due to a high number of non-responses. For all four of the other health facilities, the percentage of population with less than two hours of travel was slightly higher than observed in the previous ALCS.

Figure 9.1: Population, by type of health facility, travel time to health facility by any means of transport, and by survey (in percentages)



Access to a health facility is not only a matter of distance. Equally important is a household's ability to cover the transportation cost to and from a health facility. For each of the five types of health facilities, a question was asked to the male Shura regarding the transportation cost of a one-way trip from the community to the facility. The mean and median costs for one-way travel to a health facility are presented in *Table 9.2*.

Table 9.2: Mean and median one-way travel costs to health facilities, by residence, and by type of health facility (in Afghanis)^a

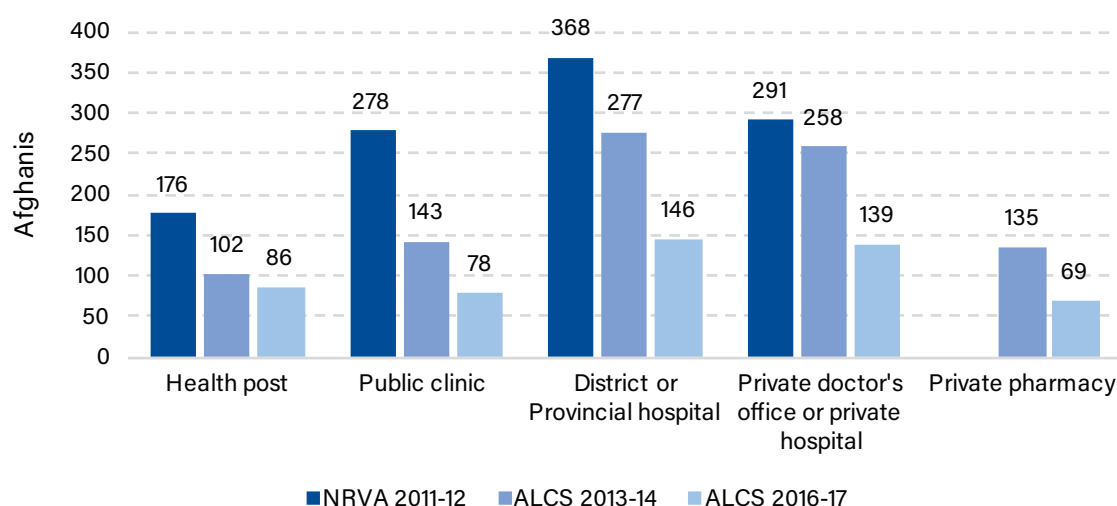
Residence		Health post	Public clinic	District or Provincial hospital	Private doctor's office or private hospital	Private pharmacy
Total	Mean	(86.4)	78.3	145.6	138.7	69.0
	Median	(30)	20	50	40	20
Urban	Mean	(23.9)	11.8	20.0	11.8	4.9
	Median	(10)	10	10	10	0
Rural	Mean	(88.1)	103.1	184.6	188.1	93.1
	Median	(30)	40	65	50	40
Kuchi	Mean	(65.6)	52.6	103.8	116.3	48.2
	Median	(20)	20	60	50	20

^a Figures between brackets are considered less reliable, since these are based on variables with more than 20 percent missing values.

Generally, travel costs are highest to go to a district or provincial hospital. On average, transport would cost 146 Afghani to get an individual there. The median value for travel costs to a district or provincial hospital is 50 Afghani, which means that half of the people pay 50 Afghani or more for the ride to the hospital. People living in rural areas pay more for transport to a health facility than people living in urban areas or the Kuchi population. To pay for transport to public clinic, rural dwellers pay on average 103 Afghani against only 12 Afghani for an urban dweller, Kuchis pay on average 53 Afghani.

Figure 9.2 shows the population by average costs for transport to the nearest health facility as reported in different surveys between 2011 and 2017. Over time, the costs for transport to obtain health services has come down. For instance, while in 2011-12 the average one-way trip to a district or provincial hospital was 368 Afghani, it was 277 Afghani in the 2013-14 survey and only 146 Afghani in the ALCS 2016-17. The reductions in costs were in the same order of magnitude for the other types of health services. Note that no figure for travel costs to go to a pharmacy are available for 2011, because it was not asked in the NRVA at that time. It is difficult to explain why transport costs have come down so significantly. The ALCS data do not give an explanation, but the most likely reason is that with the expansion of the health system, distances to the nearest health facility have come down which consequently reduced cost.

Figure 9.2: Average cost for one-way travel to health facilities, by type of health facility, and by survey (in Afghanis)



To be able to reach female patients more effectively, it was necessary to increase the number of female health professionals at all levels of the referral system. The ALCS allows to make a comparison for the last few years, as similar questions were asked in the last three survey rounds. For each of the five service levels, the presence of health staff by type of health staff (*Table 9.3*) and the gender parity indices (GPIs) were calculated for health staff. The GPI was calculated by dividing the percentage of female staff by the percentage of male staff (x 100). It indicates the number of female staff working at a certain service level per 100 males. *Figure 9.3* shows the GPI for the three consecutive living conditions surveys since 2011. The results show a mixed picture. For some health facilities progress was made: for instance, in public clinics the GPI for doctors increased from 67.4 in 2011-12 to 76.6 in 2016-17 and for nurses from 80.5 to 86.3. For other facilities the GPI decreased considerably. The GPI for nurses at private doctors' offices or private clinics decreased from 112.8 in 2011-12 to 86.1 in 2016-17. Similar changes took place for nurses in district or provincial hospitals and among CHWs in health posts. However, one must take into account that next to sample variations and sometimes rather high non-response, the data are based on the perceived presence of staff by the Shura respondents and not on actual observations in the health facilities. The results should therefore be seen as purely indicative and need further investigation.

Figure 9.3: Gender parity index for medical personnel, by type of health facility, type of medical occupation, and by survey

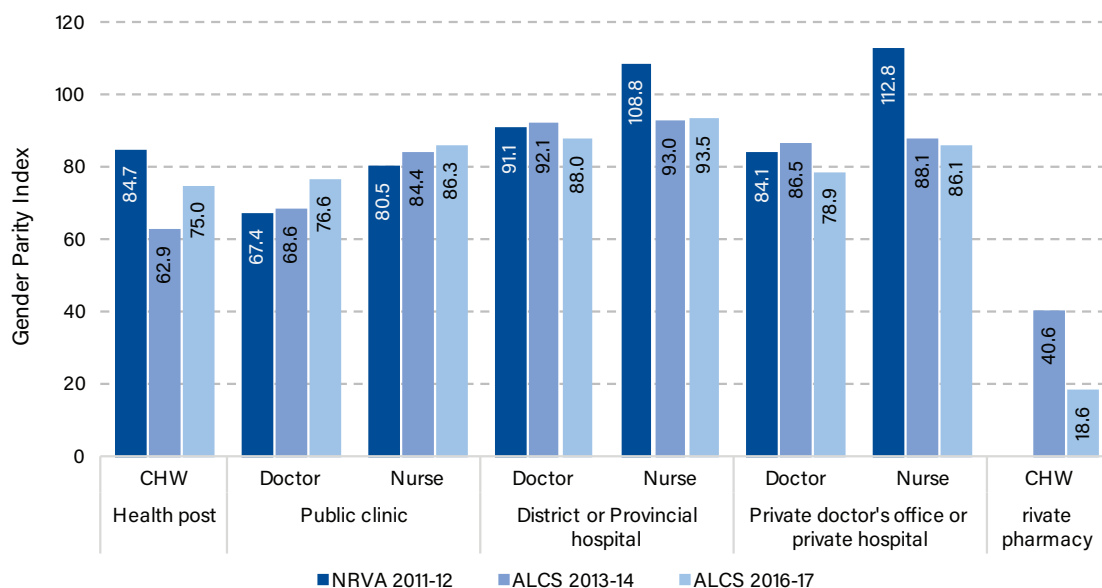


Table 9.3: Presence of health staff, by type of health facility, staff type, and by residence (in percentages)

Health facility, staff type	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Health post				
Female CHW	85.8	49.0	43.9	48.9
Male CHW	94.9	65.4	60.4	65.2
Public clinic				
Female doctor	92.4	53.8	65.5	63.7
Female nurse	88.9	63.6	67.2	69.9
Female midwife	77.4	80.3	75.1	79.4
Male doctor	85.8	82.3	84.2	83.2
Male nurse	71.9	84.1	80.0	81.0
District or Provincial hospital				
Female doctor	79.9	80.7	90.4	81.0
Female nurse	80.2	84.7	90.0	83.9
Female midwife	79.8	92.9	93.1	89.7
Male doctor	81.0	95.5	97.9	92.1
Male nurse	78.5	93.4	91.3	89.7
Private doctor's office or private hospital				
Female doctor	96.0	61.2	70.7	70.0
Female nurse	93.3	61.8	67.8	69.7
Female midwife	92.8	68.3	70.4	74.4
Male doctor	98.4	85.5	89.2	88.8
Male nurse	89.6	78.5	75.0	81.0
Private pharmacy				
Female CHW	25.0	15.1	8.9	17.2
Male CHW	98.7	90.5	90.9	92.5

9.3 Use of health services

9.3.1 In-patient care

According to the ALCS 2016-17, out of an estimated total of 3.8 million households, 843 thousand had a household member in the hospital during the 12 months before the survey. This accounts for 22.3 percent of all households. The estimated total number of people that were admitted to the hospital was 954 thousand persons, which is 3.3 percent of the total population. The percentage of people having been admitted to the hospital is about the same for all three types of residence: Kuchi (3.7 percent), rural (3.1 percent) and urban (3.7 percent). More women than men have gone to hospital during the 12 months before the survey: 377 thousand men against 577 thousand women. This means that out of 100 hospitalisations, 60.5 percent are among women.

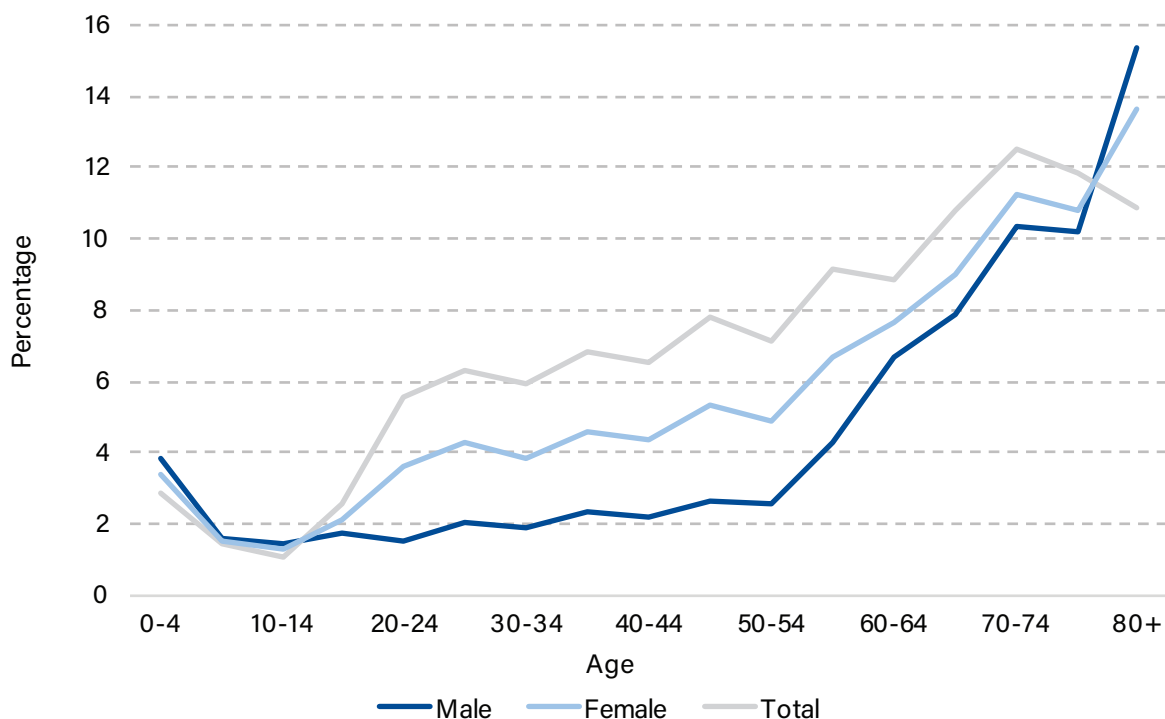
A proportion of persons has been admitted more than once to the hospital during the 12 months before the survey. *Table 9.4* shows the number of admittances by sex. Among all people admitted, 78.4 were admitted once and 14.0 were admitted twice. A small percentage of 2.0 percent were admitted to the hospital five times or more. Men and women exhibit more or less the same pattern of hospital admittance. On average, men and women, who sought in-patient care at least once, were admitted to a hospital about 1.4 times.

Table 9.4: Number of time persons were admitted to hospital, by sex (in percentages)

Hospital admissions	Male	Female	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
1	78.3	78.5	78.4
2	14.8	13.5	14.0
3	4.2	4.8	4.5
4	0.7	1.3	1.1
5+	2.0	2.0	2.0

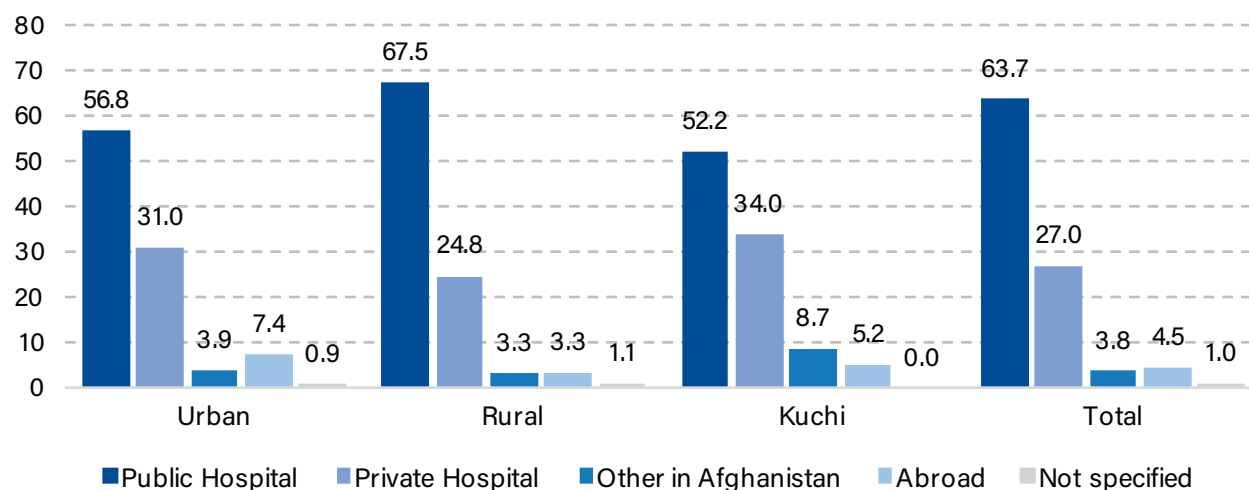
The percentage of the population that is admitted to hospitals is dependent on age and sex. *Figure 9.4* shows that children in the age-group 0 to 4 have a somewhat higher percentage (3.4 percent) than children aged 5 to 9 (1.5 percent) and 10 to 14 (1.3 percent). The percentage of in-patient men increases only slightly between 5 and 54, hovering mainly around 2 percent. For women, however, there is a sharp increase in admittance rates between ages 15 and 29. Between age 10 and 14, 1.1 percent of women stayed in the hospital, against 6.3 percent between 25 and 29. Many of these admittances are related to pregnancy and childbirth. After age 30, the age-specific admittance rates for women continue to increase. Between 65 and 69, 9.8 percent of women were admitted to the hospital at least once. With advancing age, men's admittance rates also rise, but the increase only starts after age 50 and stays well below the rates for women. For the oldest age-group (80+) the admittance suddenly becomes higher for men than for women (15.4 against 9.8 percent). It is unclear what exactly caused this reverse trend. The trends described above are similar to those in the NRVA 2011-12 report (CSO, 2014), including the higher male admittance rates above age 80.

Figure 9.4: Percentage of persons admitted to the hospital in the year before the survey, by five-year age group, and by sex



Public hospitals cater for the majority of patients: 63.7 percent of all persons who stay in hospitals do so at public hospitals in Afghanistan; 27.0 percent of in-patients go to private hospitals for care, 1.6 percent go to other types of hospitals in Afghanistan and 2.1 percent are admitted in military hospitals. A group of 4.5 percent sought treatment in hospitals outside of the country. The analysis showed that little difference exists between both sexes in terms of the type of hospitals used. *Figure 9.5* shows that some difference exists between in-patients belonging to the urban, rural and Kuchi residents. In rural areas, 67.5 percent of all people use public hospitals, against 52.2 percent among Kuchi in-patients and 56.8 percent among urban in-patients. A somewhat higher percentage of Kuchis seek treatment in private hospitals: 34.0 percent against 24.8 in rural and 31.0 percent in urban areas. People living in urban areas have a higher tendency to visit hospitals abroad (7.4 percent).

Figure 9.5: In-patient hospital visits, by residence, and by type of hospital (in percentages)



The ALCS collected information about the disease for which treatment was sought in a hospital. This gives information about the most serious health problems, for which hospitalisation is necessary. A set of possible answers was presented to the respondents. For men, 'other diseases' was the biggest category (29.6 percent). Intestinal infectious disease and diarrhoea, and acute respiratory infections are important causes for hospitalisation for men, 13.5 percent and 7.7 percent, respectively. Almost a quarter (24.3 percent) of all hospitalisations for women are related to pregnancy, delivery and post-natal complications (*Table 9.5*). Also for women, the 'other disease' category is quite large (18.3 percent). Intestinal infections/diarrhoea (9.7 percent) and acute respiratory infections are frequent for women (5.8 percent). These percentages are smaller for women than men, but one must take into account that percentages for women are brought down because of the high percentage of pregnancy and childbirth related hospitalisations. Actually, many more women than men are hospitalised for respiratory infections and intestinal infections/diarrhoea. In the year before the survey 33.6 thousand women had to be hospitalised for respiratory infections against 29.1 thousand men. Furthermore, 56.2 thousand women were in hospital for intestinal infections/diarrhoea against 50.9 thousand men. It is interesting that the number of men hospitalised for injury, poisoning and other external influences is much higher for men than for women: 29.5 thousand men against 17.2 thousand women, accounting for 7.8 and 3.0 percent.

Table 9.5: In-patient hospital visits, by type of disease for which treatment was sought, and by sex (in percentages)

Type of disease	Male	Female	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Acute respiratory infection	7.7	5.8	6.6
Asthma	4.5	4.8	4.7
Diabetes	2.4	2.7	2.6
Disease of the digestive system	6.8	6.2	6.5
Disease of the genitourinary system	4.5	2.8	3.5
Heart disease	5.9	5.0	5.4
Hypertensive disease	4.7	5.8	5.3
Injury poisoning, other external influences	7.8	3.0	4.9
Intestinal infectious disease, diarrhea	13.5	9.7	11.2
Malaria	3.8	2.6	3.1
Mental/behavioural disease	3.4	3.7	3.5
Neoplasms (tumor), endocrine, nutritional & metabolic disease	1.6	2.0	1.9
Nutrition	1.1	0.5	0.7
Tuberculosis	2.7	2.8	2.7
Pregnancy, delivery post-natal	0.0	24.3	15.0
Other disease	29.6	18.3	22.4

Typical diseases for urban and rural areas are shown in the number of hospitalisations by residence (*Table 9.6*). Hospitalisations for intestinal infections and diarrhoea are more common in rural areas (12.8 percent) and among the Kuchi population (12.0 percent) than among urban dwellers (7.2 percent). On the other hand, injuries and poisoning are more a reason for hospital stay in urban than in rural areas: 7.2 against 3.9 percent; which can be related to more intense traffic in urban areas. Malaria is much more a reason for hospitalisation among the Kuchi population (5.5 percent) and rural areas (3.7 percent) than in urban areas (0.9 percent).

Table 9.6: In-patient hospital visits, by reason of admittance to hospital, and by residence (in percentages)

Type of disease	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Acute respiratory infection	7.2	6.6	3.6	6.6
Asthma	3.2	5.4	3.2	4.7
Diabetes	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.6
Disease of the digestive system	7.4	5.8	9.5	6.5
Disease of the genitourinary system	2.6	4.0	2.2	3.5
Heart disease	5.5	5.3	4.9	5.4
Hypertensive disease	4.6	5.7	4.5	5.3
Injury poisoning, other external influences	7.2	3.9	6.2	4.9
Intestinal infectious disease, diarrhea	7.2	12.8	12.0	11.2
Malaria	0.9	3.7	5.5	3.1
Mental/behavioural disease	5.3	2.8	3.6	3.5
Neoplasms (tumor). endocrine, nutritional & metabolic disease	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.9
Nutrition	0.1	0.8	1.9	0.7
Pregnancy, delivery post-natal	14.9	15.3	12.4	15.0
Tuberculosis	2.0	2.8	5.3	2.7
Other disease	26.9	20.8	21.5	22.4

9.3.2 Out-patient care

Out of all households, 49.2 percent had at least one member who consulted a health care provider, a pharmacy or a traditional healer without staying overnight. This accounts to an estimated 1.9 million households in the country. An estimated 2.5 million persons visited health services as out-patients, which accounts for 8.7 percent of the total population. Women made considerably more visits to health providers than men: 1.5 million women against 1.0 million men. In other words, 59.8 of all out-patients are women and 40.2 percent are men. Among all women, 9.6 percent made an out-patient visit to a health provider during the year before the survey, for men the percentage was 6.9. People living in urban areas have a higher percentage of out-patient visits (11.1 percent) than those living in rural areas (7.8 percent) and Kuchis (9.2 percent).

The pattern of diseases for which out-patient treatment is sought, is quite similar to that of in-patient care. There is a high percentage for acute respiratory infection (13.0 of all visits) and intestinal infectious diseases and diarrhoea (15.7 percent of all visits). The category of 'other disease' accounts for more than a quarter of all cases (27.2 percent) (*Table 9.7*). Intestinal infectious diseases take up a larger proportion of out-patient visits in rural areas and among the Kuchis (18.5 and 16.6 percent) than in urban areas (9.7 percent) (*Table 9.8*). Also, diseases of the digestive system need more treatment in rural areas and among the Kuchis than in urban areas. On the other hand, acute respiratory infections require more assistance in urban areas (16.8 percent of all cases) than in rural areas (11.8 percent) and among the Kuchi population (7.6). The fact that malaria is more treated in rural areas and among Kuchis than in urban areas shows that the disease is much more prevalent in these populations.

Table 9.7: Out-patient hospital visits, by type of disease for which people sought treatment, and by sex (in percentages)

Type of disease	Male	Female	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Acute respiratory infection	16.0	11.1	13.0
Asthma	3.9	4.0	4.0
Diabetes	1.8	1.8	1.8
Disease of the digestive system	5.9	6.9	6.5
Disease of the genitourinary system	1.7	1.5	1.6
Heart disease	2.4	3.0	2.7
Hypertensive disease	4.2	7.0	5.9
Injury poisoning, other external influences	4.3	3.3	3.7
Intestinal infectious disease, diarrhea	17.4	14.6	15.7
Malaria	5.4	3.6	4.3
Mental/behavioral disease	3.1	3.5	3.3
Neoplasms (tumor), endocrine, nutritional & metabolic disease	1.2	1.3	1.2
Nutrition	1.5	1.1	1.3
Other disease	29.9	25.4	27.2
Pregnancy, delivery post-natal	0.2	10.5	6.3
Tuberculosis	1.3	1.4	1.3

Table 9.8: Out-patient hospital visits, by type of disease for which people sought treatment, and by residence (in percentages)

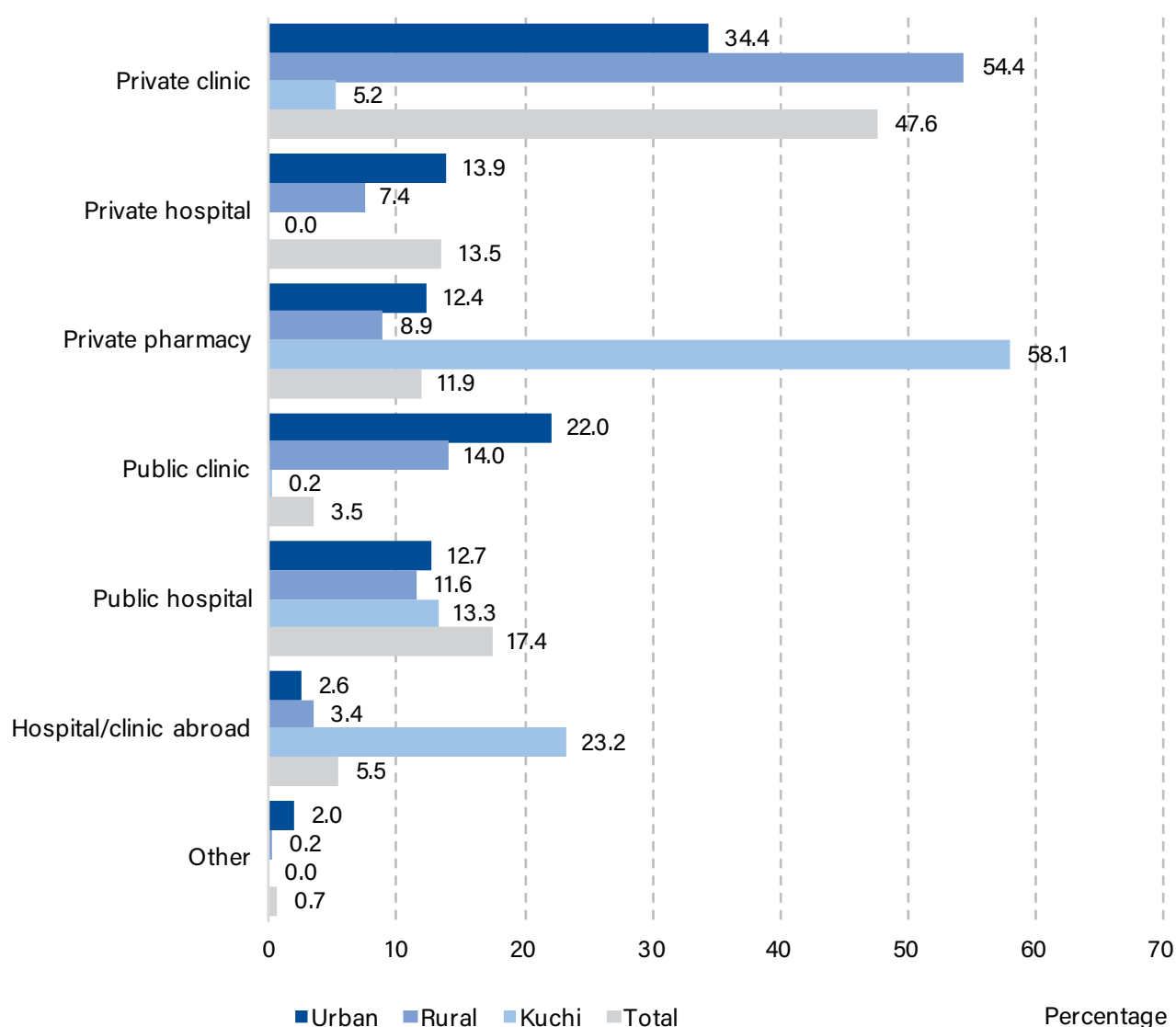
Type of disease	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Acute respiratory infection	16.8	11.8	7.6	13.0
Asthma	2.5	4.6	4.8	4.0
Diabetes	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.8
Disease of the digestive system	5.5	6.6	11.6	6.5
Disease of the genitourinary system	1.5	1.8	0.9	1.6
Heart disease	2.7	2.8	2.0	2.7
Hypertensive disease	5.8	5.8	6.6	5.9
Injury poisoning, other external influences	7.1	2.1	2.9	3.7
Intestinal infectious disease, diarrhea	9.7	18.5	16.6	15.7
Malaria	1.4	5.6	5.1	4.3
Mental/behavioural disease	3.2	3.4	2.7	3.3
Neoplasms (tumor), endocrine, nutritional & metabolic disease	0.9	1.2	2.4	1.2
Nutrition	0.6	1.5	2.4	1.3
Pregnancy, delivery post-natal	6.9	6.1	6.5	6.3
Tuberculosis	0.6	1.6	2.1	1.3
Other disease	32.5	24.9	24.5	27.2

Large differences exist between the rural and urban areas and the Kuchi population in terms of how out-patient care is sought. Out-patient care in urban areas is mainly sought at private clinics (34.4 percent of all cases) (*Figure 9.6*). People in rural areas even make more use of private clinics than in urban areas (54.4 percent), while private clinics

– as a service point for out-patient care – is very limited for the Kuchi population (5.2 percent). Kuchis mainly go to private pharmacy if they need out-patient health services (58.1 percent) or go to public hospitals (13.3 percent). It is interesting that 23.2 percent of the Kuchi patients sought help in a hospital or clinic abroad.

Little difference exists between men and women in terms of the type of out-patient service they use. The only difference is that slightly more men use private pharmacies (14.2 percent against 10.6 percent for women) and that women use somewhat more private clinics (41.1 percent against 37.3 percent for men).

Figure 9.6: Out-patient hospital visits, by type of health facility, and by residence (in percentages)



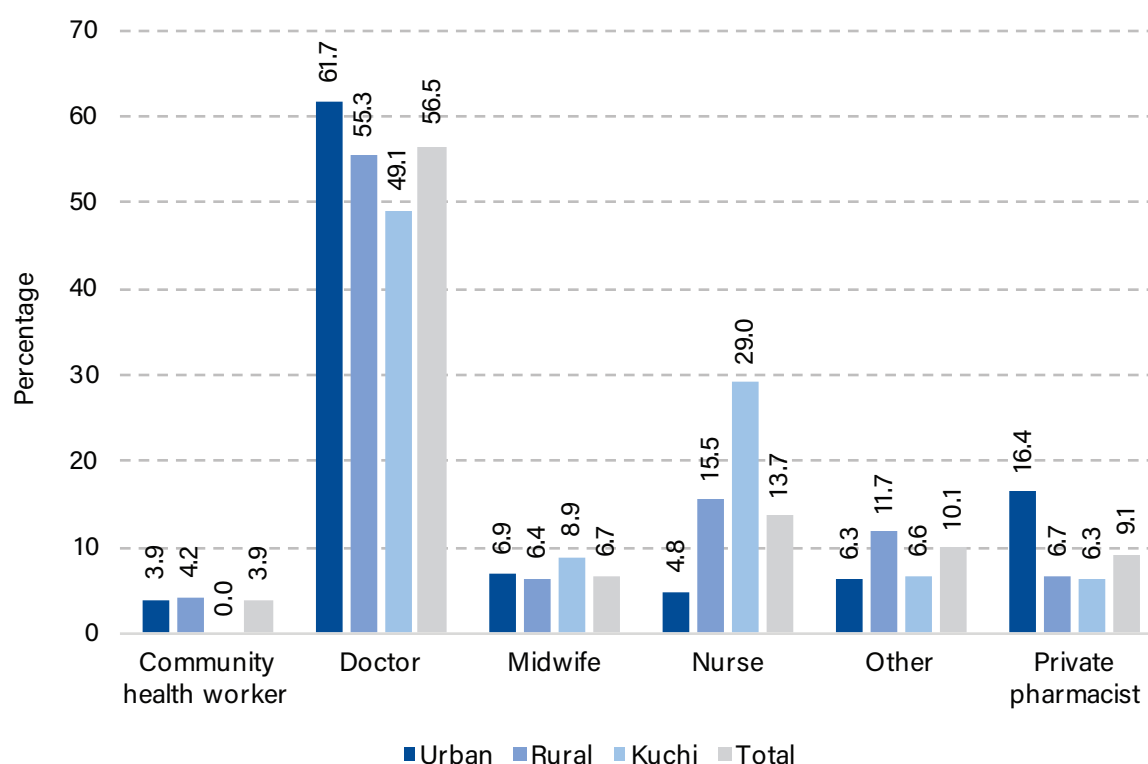
9.3.3 Medicines

For all persons who made use of out-patient services, it was asked whether the patient had obtained any medicine. Out of the 2.5 million persons who received out-patient care, 537 thousand had obtained medicine, which accounts for 21.3 percent of all out-patients. The percentage is slightly higher for men (22.5 percent) than for women (20.6 percent). This percentage seems very low, given the type of diseases for which out-patient care was sought. The disease for which the highest percentage of medicine was given is malaria, where 56.6 percent of out-patients received medications, followed by tuberculosis (31.5 percent). Only 9.4 percent of respondents indicated they re-

ceived medicine for acute respiratory infections and 17.7 percent for intestinal infectious disease and diarrhoea. It is not clear why these percentages are so low. It is well possible that respondents only indicated medicines for which they had to pay. Only 1.8 percent of respondents indicated they did not pay for their medicines, but it is well known that a large part of medicines in the country are subsidised. The Afghanistan Pharmaceutical Country Profile (MoPH and WHO 2011) indicates that arrangements exist for certain groups to receive medicines free of charge. These groups are: people who cannot afford medicines, children under the age of five, pregnant women and older persons. The public health system also provides medicines free of charge to patients for the following conditions: all diseases in the Essential Medicines List (EML), any non-communicable diseases, malaria, tuberculosis, sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/AIDS and vaccines for children as part of the Expanded Program on Immunisation (EPI).

Some differences exist between urban and rural dwellers and the Kuchi out-patients in terms of who prescribed the medicine (*Figure 9.7*). Among urbanites, 61.7 percent have their medicines prescribed by a doctor, while this is 55.3 percent for persons in rural areas and 49.1 percent for the Kuchi population. Kuchis also rely on nurses to prescribe medicines (29.0 percent). This is considerably higher than among rural and urban out-patients (15.5 and 4.8 percent, respectively). This shows that it is more difficult for Kuchis to get specialised treatment than for rural and urban people. Very little difference was found between male and female patients in the way their medicines were prescribed, and both come very close to the distribution for the total population shown in *Figure 9.7*.

Figure 9.7: Medicine prescriptions for out-patients, by person who prescribed medicine, and by residence (in percentages)



About two thirds of all medicines are reported to be distributed by private pharmacies (*see Table 9.9*). Note, however, that respondents indicated that no medicines were obtained from public hospitals, while 17.4 percent of all out-patient treatments take place in public hospitals (*see Figure 9.6*). Obviously, it is very unlikely that no medicines are provided in public hospitals. This further supports the notion that during the interview respondents only indicated that they 'obtained' medicines only when they bought them. Public and private clinics and 'other places' each count for 7 to 8 percent of places where medicines are obtained. In urban areas, 84.0 percent of persons get their medicines from private pharmacies. This is much higher than in rural areas (60.4 percent) and for Kuchis (61.0 percent).

Table 9.9: Medicines obtained by out-patients, by place where medicines were obtained, and by residence (in percent-ages)

Health facility	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Public hospital	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Public clinic	3.9	8.7	1.0	7.0
Private clinic	3.0	9.8	1.4	7.5
Private hospital	2.3	5.1	8.7	4.6
Private pharmacy	84.0	60.4	61.0	66.4
Other	3.1	11.5	12.5	9.4
Not reported	3.7	4.6	15.5	5.0

9.4 Maternal and child health

9.4.1 Ante-natal care

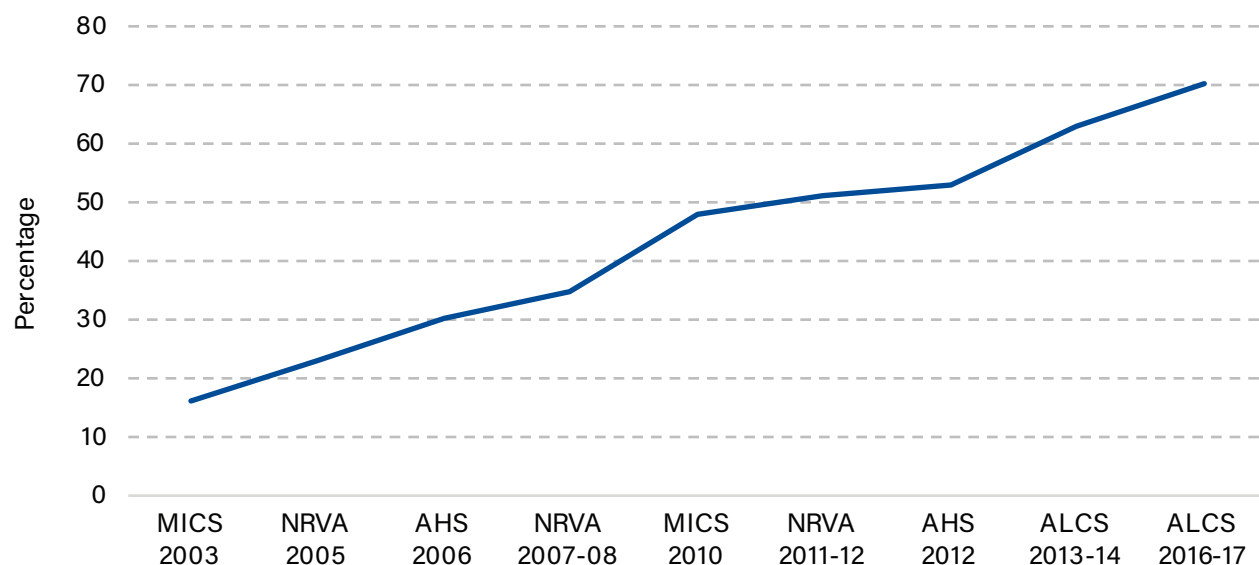
Ante-natal care visits

According to international recommendations by the WHO, timely and high-quality ante-natal care (ANC) is key to bringing down the high levels of neo-natal and maternal mortality. According to the WHO's recommendations, essential ante-natal care should be given to pregnant women with a normal pregnancy during four visits, at specified intervals during pregnancy (Villar and Bergsjø 2002). For each visit specific controls must be carried out, following a basic ante-natal care component checklist. As reported in the ALCS 2013-14, important progress has been made in securing adequate ante-natal care for pregnant mothers, but considerable efforts still need to be made to reach universal care. The ALCS 2016-17 enables monitoring whether additional progress has been made.

Figure 9.8 shows the percentage of women with at least one live birth, who reported at least one ante-natal examination by a skilled provider for their last pregnancy in the ALCS 2016-17 together with information from various past surveys. Note that the results for the past surveys are not mutually exclusive as some of the pregnancies referred to in particular surveys overlap with the reference periods in earlier surveys. Currently, 70.2 percent of all women who had a baby during the last five years had at least one ante-natal check-up. This is 7.0 percentage points higher than in the previous survey (2013-14) and 19.2 percentage points higher than in 2011-12. The graph clearly shows the impressive progress that has been made over the years to provide ante-natal care to pregnant women.

Large differences still exist between rural and urban areas. In urban areas, 87.7 percent of women seek ante-natal care against 66.8 percent in rural areas. Less than half of Kuchi women have an ante-natal visit during pregnancy (46.3 percent), but this is still almost twice as much as in 2011-12 (23.4 percent). All three categories saw a significant, almost linear rise, although the increase is somewhat less among Kuchi women.

Figure 9.8: Women with a live birth preceding the survey who reported at least one ante-natal examination by a skilled provider for their last pregnancy, by residence, and by survey (in percentages)



The number of women who conduct the recommended four visits is small. Only 16.3 percent of women get four ante-natal check-ups (*Table 9.10*). This is actually less than in 2013-14 when 22.7 percent did so. The decrease is observed for each of the three types of residences. Urban women score highest with 33.5 percent making four visits or more, while only 5.4 percent of Kuchi women and 12.1 percent of rural women make the recommended number of visits for ante-natal care. It is interesting that overall the use of ante-natal care (with one or more visits) has improved (see *Figure 9.8*), but that apparently the country takes a step back to reach the WHO recommended number of visits.

On average, women (including those who did not have any ante-natal care) make two visits for ante-natal care. The average number of ANC visits in urban centres (3.6 times) comes close to the WHO recommendations. Rural women have less than half this number of visits (1.7 times). Furthermore, Kuchi women on average only have 1.0 ante-natal check-up. The national average of 2.0 visits is similar to that in 2013-14 (2.1 times). While in rural and urban areas the average number of visits remained almost the same, the average dropped slightly among Kuchi women from 1.3 times to 1.0 times.

Table 9.10: Mean number of ante-natal care visits by women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, by survey, and by residence; percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received four ante-natal care visits, by residence

ANC indicator, survey	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Mean number of visits				
ALCS 2013-14	3.5	1.8	1.3	2.1
ALCS 2016-17	3.6	1.7	1.0	2.0
Four visits or more				
ALCS 2013-14	43.9	17.4	11.7	22.7
ALCS 2016-17	33.5	12.1	5.4	16.3

The use of ante-natal care is closely related to the age of the pregnant woman. *Figure 9.9* shows that younger women make more use of ante-natal check-ups than older women. Up to age 35, more than 70 percent of women visit health care providers at least once to receive an ante-natal check-up. Among women aged 45-49, 62.4 percent

obtain ante-natal care. Age is also an important determinant in the number of visits to an ante-natal health care provider (see *Figure 9.10*). Younger women receive, on average, more ante-natal check-ups than older women. Young expectant mothers between 15 and 19 years have on average 2.5 times ante-natal care visits. The number of times care is received drops within every five-year age-group to 2.0 in the age-group 30 to 34 years of age and to 1.6 times for women 45 to 49 years of age.

Figure 9.9: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received any ante-natal care (skilled or unskilled) during the last pregnancy, by five-year age group

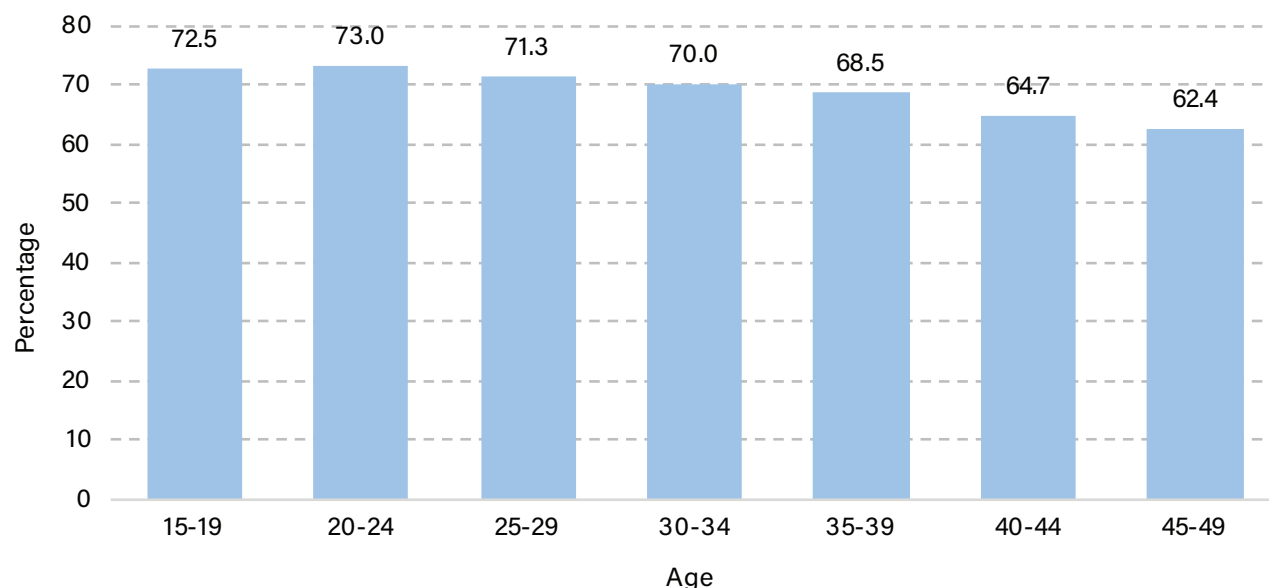
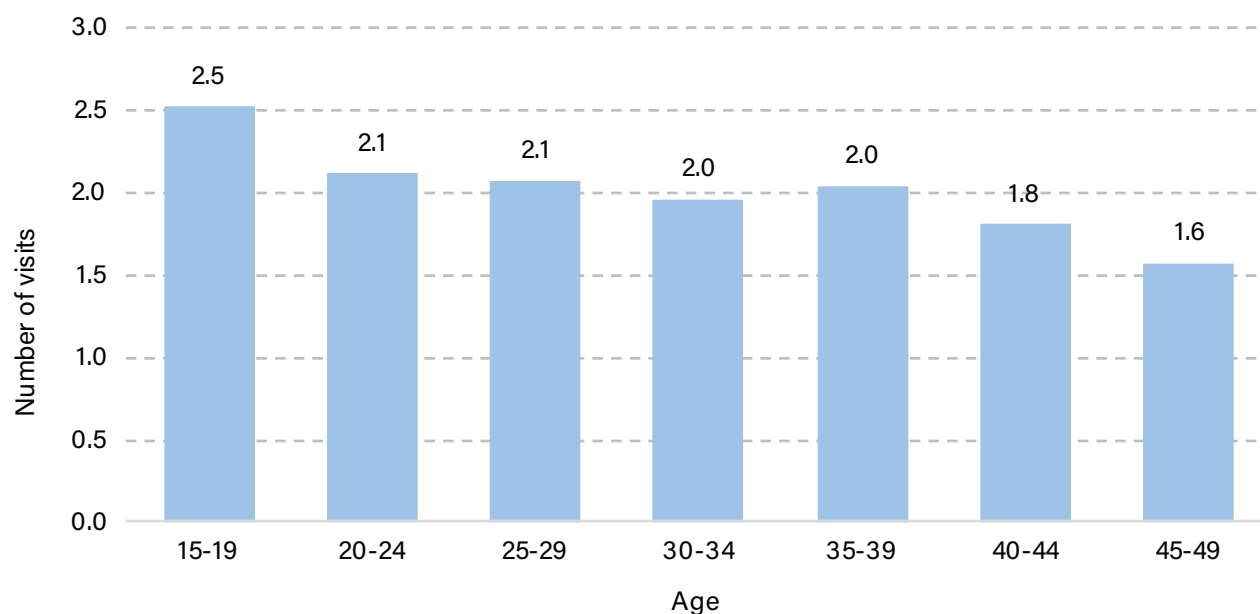
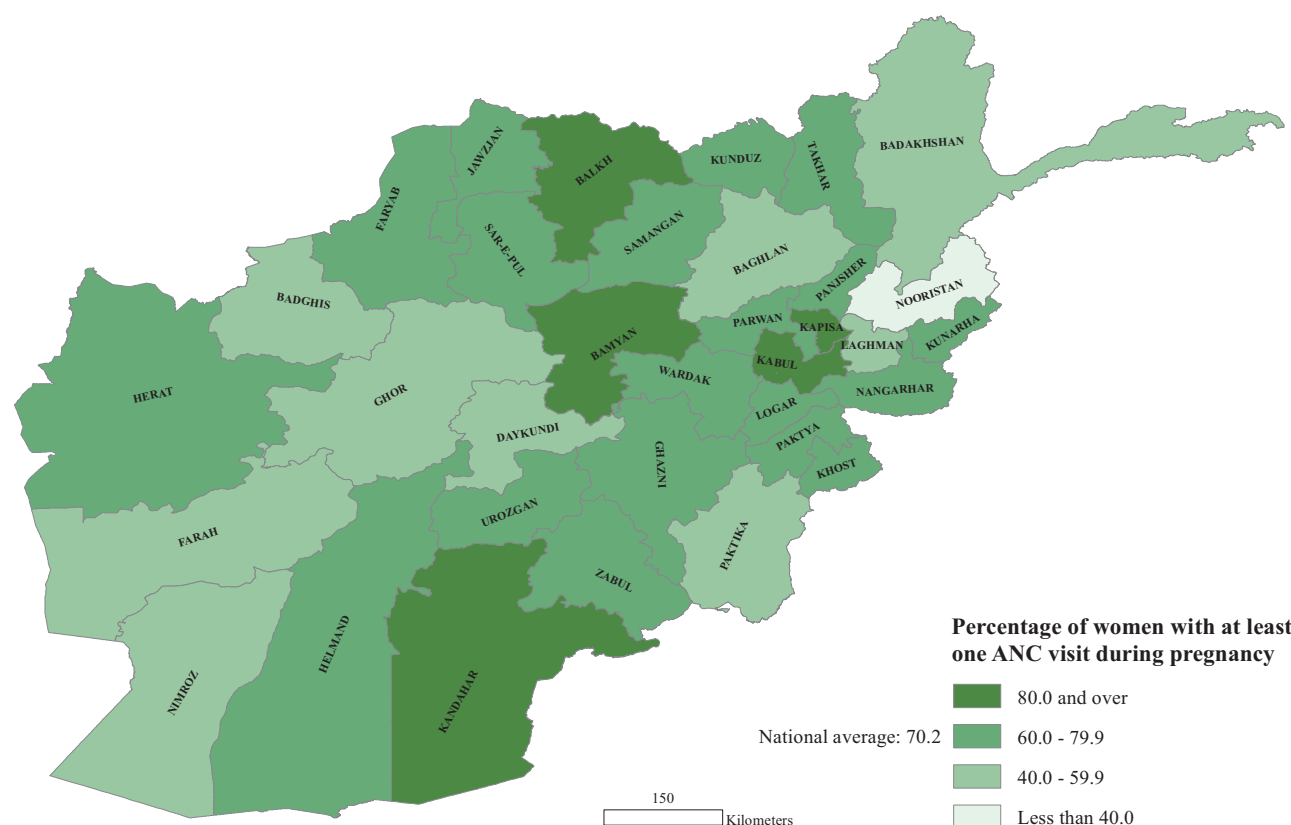


Figure 9.10: Mean number of ante-natal care (skilled or unskilled) visits by women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, by five-year age group



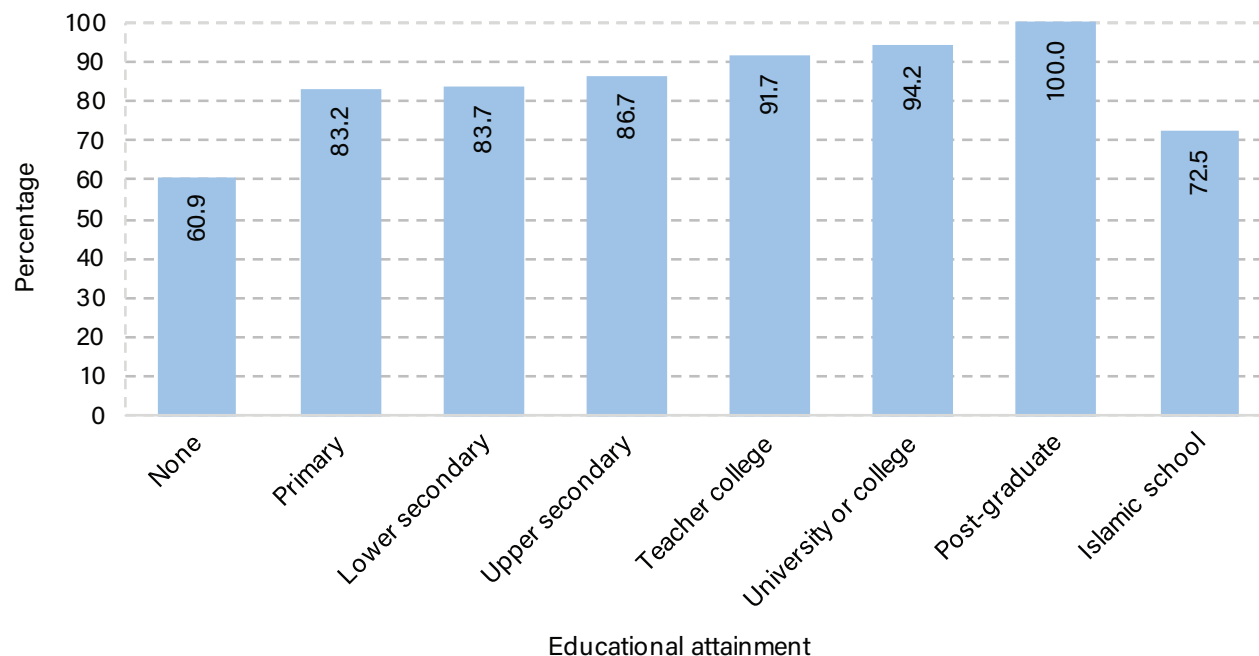
The province of residence is an important determining factor whether a pregnant woman receives ante-natal care at least once or not at all (see Figure 9.11). Five provinces have more than 50 percent of women without any ANC: Nooristan, Paktika, Badakhshan, Nimroz and Daykundi. At the higher end of the scale are five provinces where more than 80 percent of women had check-ups during pregnancy: Kandahar, Kabul, Bamyan, Balkh and Kapisa.

Figure 9.11: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, who reported at least one ante-natal care visit during their last pregnancy, by province



Having an ante-natal visit is closely linked to the level of education of the mother. Among women with no formal education, 60.9 percent received ante-natal care. The higher a women's educational attainment, the higher the percentage of women who received ante-natal care. The biggest gap is between women with no schooling at all (60.9 percent) and women with primary education (83.2 percent). Only small differences exist between women with primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education. Women with a degree from teacher college, university or technical college or with a postgraduate diploma all have high levels of ante-natal care, well above 90 percent. None of the small group of women with a postgraduate diploma missed out on ante-natal care. The very small group of women 15-49 years old who finished Islamic school score higher (72.5 percent) than women without education, but lower than women with primary education.

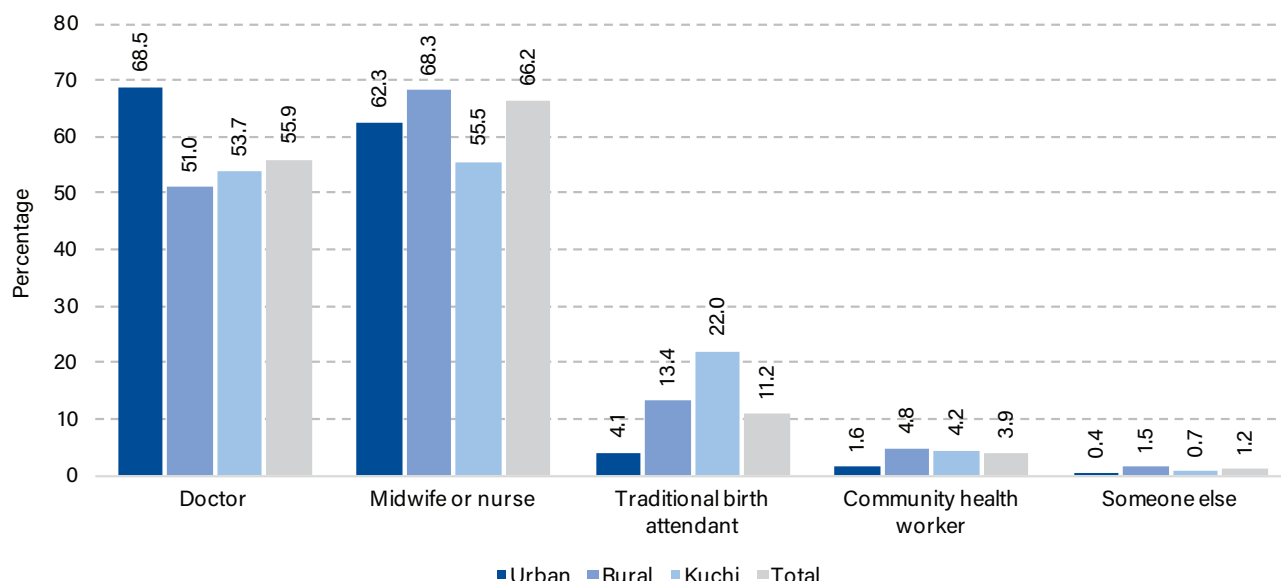
Figure 9.12: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who had any skilled ante-natal care, by educational attainment



Ante-natal care provider

Not only the frequency of ante-natal care visits is important, but also the level of expertise of the provider who does the examination and provides care. *Figure 9.13* shows the health care provider who gave the ante-natal care by type of residence. In the ALCS interview, it was asked whether during the last pregnancy the expectant mother saw any of the named providers. For each type of provider, the woman then had to answer 'yes' or 'no'. This means that a number of women who had more than one ANC visit, indicated they had also visited more than one type of provider. In some cases, women saw both traditional birth attendants and a doctor. Of all pregnant women who gave birth in the last five years, 66.2 percent had a check-up with a midwife or nurse and 55.9 percent with a medical doctor. Both categories are considered skilled health providers. A relatively small percentage of pregnant women rely on traditional birth attendants (11.2 percent) and community health workers (3.9 percent). Some 1.2 percent are attended by 'someone else.' In urban areas, most women (68.5 percent) see a doctor for ante-natal care, while in rural areas midwives or nurses are more visited (68.3 percent). Among Kuchi women, both doctors and midwives/nurses are about equally important. Note that for Kuchi women, 22 percent still rely on traditional birth attendants for ante-natal care.

Figure 9.13: Women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received any ante-natal care during their last pregnancy, by health care provider who gave ante-natal care, and by residence (in percentages)



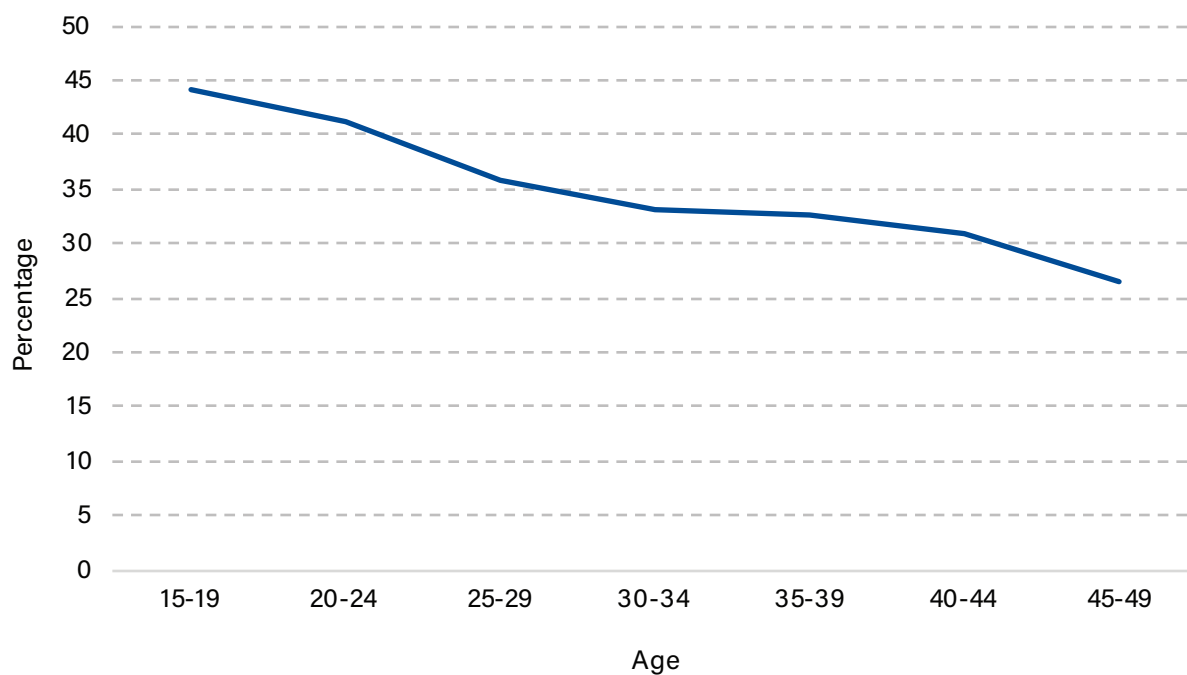
The 2015 Afghanistan Demographic and Health Survey (ADHS) found that 59 percent of women, who had a birth in the five-year period before the survey, had ante-natal care from a skilled provider during their last pregnancy (CSO, MoPH and ICF 2017). For the current analysis, if a pregnant woman indicated that she visited a doctor or midwife/nurse she was considered to be attended by a skilled provider. Of all women who gave birth in the last five years before the survey, 63.9 percent were attended by a skilled health provider. This figure comes very close to the ADHS finding.

Tetanus toxoid vaccinations

According to the WHO standards for maternal and neo-natal care all women giving birth and their new-born babies should be vaccinated to prevent maternal and neo-natal tetanus. If the woman is not vaccinated, or if her vaccination status is unknown, two doses of the tetanus vaccine should be given one month apart before delivery. To increase the expected duration of protection additional doses can be administered. If the woman had one to four doses of tetanus toxoid in the past, one dose should be given prior to childbirth. A total of five doses of the vaccine provides protection throughout the woman's childbearing ages (WHO s.d).

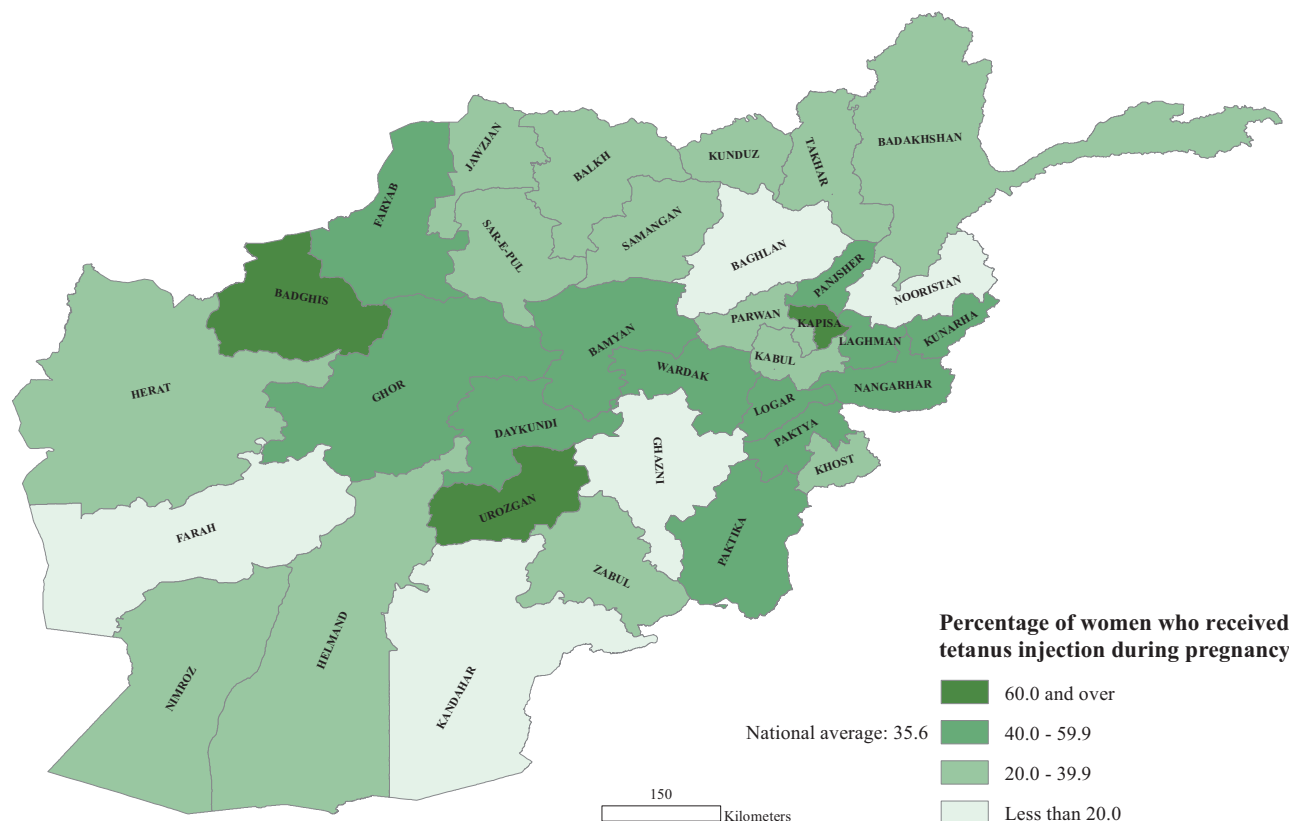
According to the ALCS 2016-17, 35.6 percent of women received tetanus injections during pregnancy. Little difference exists between urban and rural areas: 35.6 percent coverage in urban areas and 36.4 percent in rural areas. Kuchi women have considerably lower coverage (23.5 percent). *Figure 9.14* shows that tetanus vaccination among young women is much higher than among somewhat older women. Expectant mothers between 15 and 19 years old have a coverage of 44.2 percent. For each five-year age group, the coverage decreases: 35.7 percent for women 25-29 years old, 32.6 for women 35-39 years old and 26.4 for women 45-49 years old.

Figure 9.14: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received tetanus injection during their last pregnancy, by five-year age group



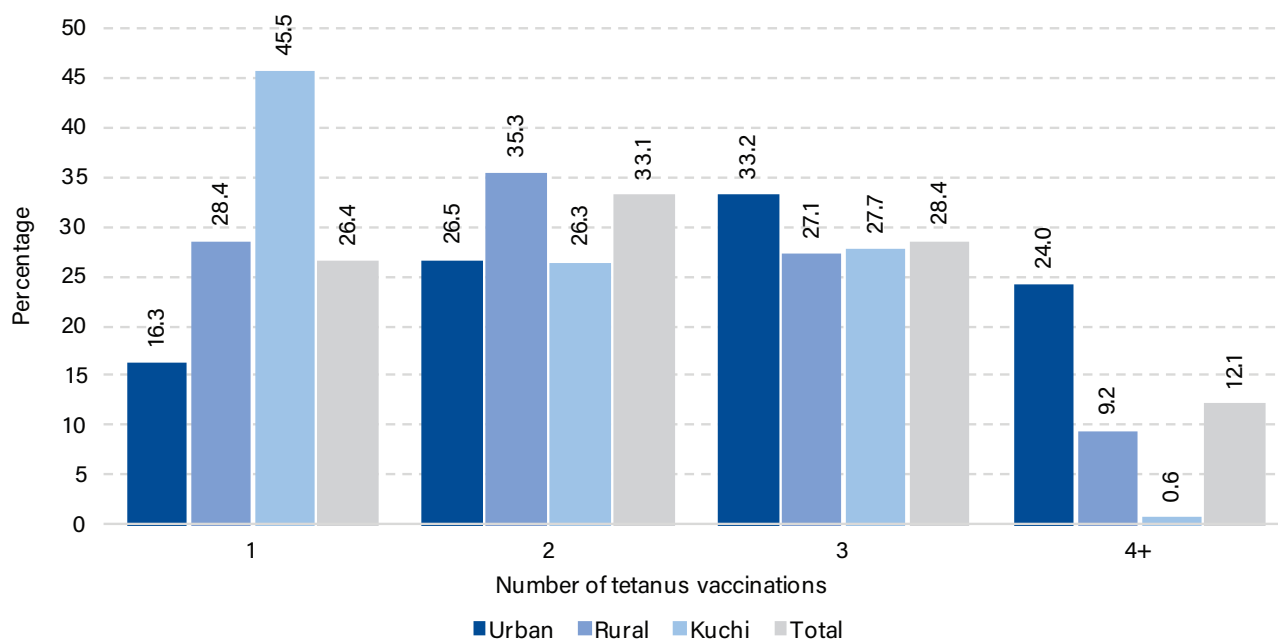
The percentage of women vaccinated against tetanus varies widely among the country's provinces (*see Figure 9.15*). Five provinces show a coverage of less than 20 percent: Kandahar, Ghazni, Baghlan, Nooristan and Farah. At the other end of the spectrum, three provinces have more than 60 percent of pregnant women vaccinated: Badghis, Urozgan and Kapisa.

Figure 9.15: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received tetanus injection during their last pregnancy, by province



The number of tetanus vaccinations a pregnant woman needs is dependent on the number of past vaccinations she received. *Figure 9.16* shows the percentage of pregnant women, who were vaccinated, by the number of reported doses received and type of residence. Among all vaccinated women, 26.4 percent received one dose, 33.1 percent received two doses, 28.4 percent three doses and 12.1 percent four doses. In the last few years important progress has been made in the provision of tetanus injections. In the NRVA 2012 it was observed that 34.9 percent of women received 2 tetanus injections or more. This has increased to 73.6 percent. Many Kuchi women only received one injection (45.5 percent). The number of women who got three or four injections is much higher in urban areas than in rural areas or among Kuchi women. Overall, women who received tetanus vaccination, got 2.4 doses on average. Women living in urban areas obtained 2.9 doses, women in rural areas 2.2 doses and Kuchi women 1.8 doses.

Figure 9.16: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who received tetanus vaccination during their last pregnancy, by number of vaccinations received, and by residence



9.4.2 Skilled birth attendance and place of delivery

Skilled birth attendance

To guarantee the health of the mother and the new-born child, each delivery should be assisted by a skilled birth attendant and should take place in a hygienic, healthy and safe environment. In a study on the effect of various childbirth care packages on neo-natal mortality due to intrapartum-related events, Lee et al. (2011) estimated that globally intra-partum-related neo-natal deaths could be reduced by 25 percent by universal skilled birth care.

SDG Goal 3 aims to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all ages. Skilled birth attendance is closely linked to two important targets for Goal 3, Target 3.1: *By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births* and Target 3.2: *By 2030, end preventable deaths of new-borns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births*. Indicator 3.1.2. (Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel) is one of the measures to monitor progress towards reaching these targets (see *Text Box 9.1*).

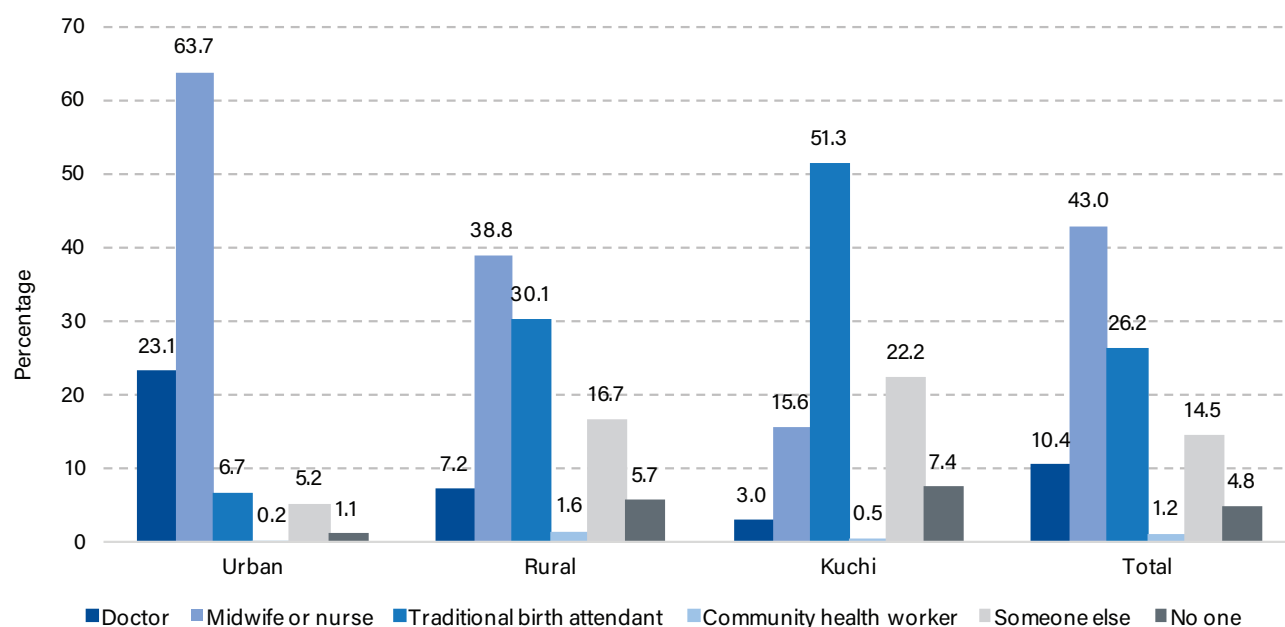
Text box 9.1: SDG indicator 3.1.2 – Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (in percentages)

The 'Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel' monitors actions that needs to be taken to achieve targets 3.1 and 3.2 of SDG-goal 3: *Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages*. ALCS 2016-17 found that 53.4 percent of all births are attended by skilled attendants. This is an improvement compared the ALCS 2013-14 (45.2 percent).

Afghanistan	53.4
Urban	86.8
Rural	46.0
Kuchi	18.5

In Afghanistan, 10.4 percent of deliveries are assisted by a doctor and 43.0 percent by a midwife or nurse (*Figure 9.17*). This means that still 46.6 percent of all births take place without a skilled health practitioner. More than a quarter of deliveries (26.2 percent) are assisted by traditional birth attendants and 1.2 percent by community health workers. The category 'someone else' is remarkably large (14.5 percent). Most likely most people in this category are friends or relatives. In the 2015 ADHS, 15 percent of all births were attended by relatives or friends.

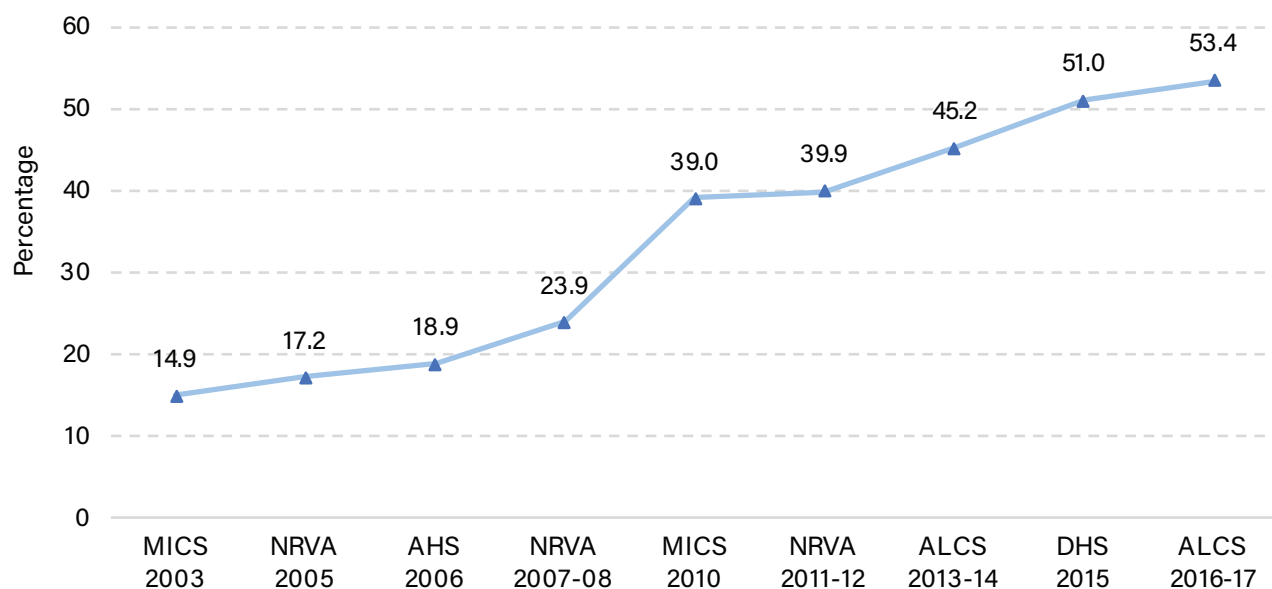
Figure 9.17: Women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, by residence, and by type of birth attendant (in percentages)



Large differences exist between rural, urban and Kuchi women in terms of birth attendance. In urban areas, the large majority of women are assisted by a skilled provider: 23.1 percent by a doctor and 63.7 percent by a midwife or nurse (totalling 86.8 percent). A skilled birth attendant is either a doctor or a trained midwife. In rural areas, skilled assistance during delivery is much lower: 7.2 percent by a doctor and 38.8 percent by a midwife or nurse. This means that less than half of rural deliveries are assisted by a skilled provider (46.0 percent). Many women in rural areas still rely on traditional birth attendants (30.1 percent) or 'someone else' (16.7 percent). More than half of all deliveries among Kuchi women are supported by traditional birth attendants and 22.2 percent by 'someone else.' Women who have to go through childbirth completely alone face many dangers. In rural areas 5.7 percent and among Kuchi women 7.4 percent give birth unattended.

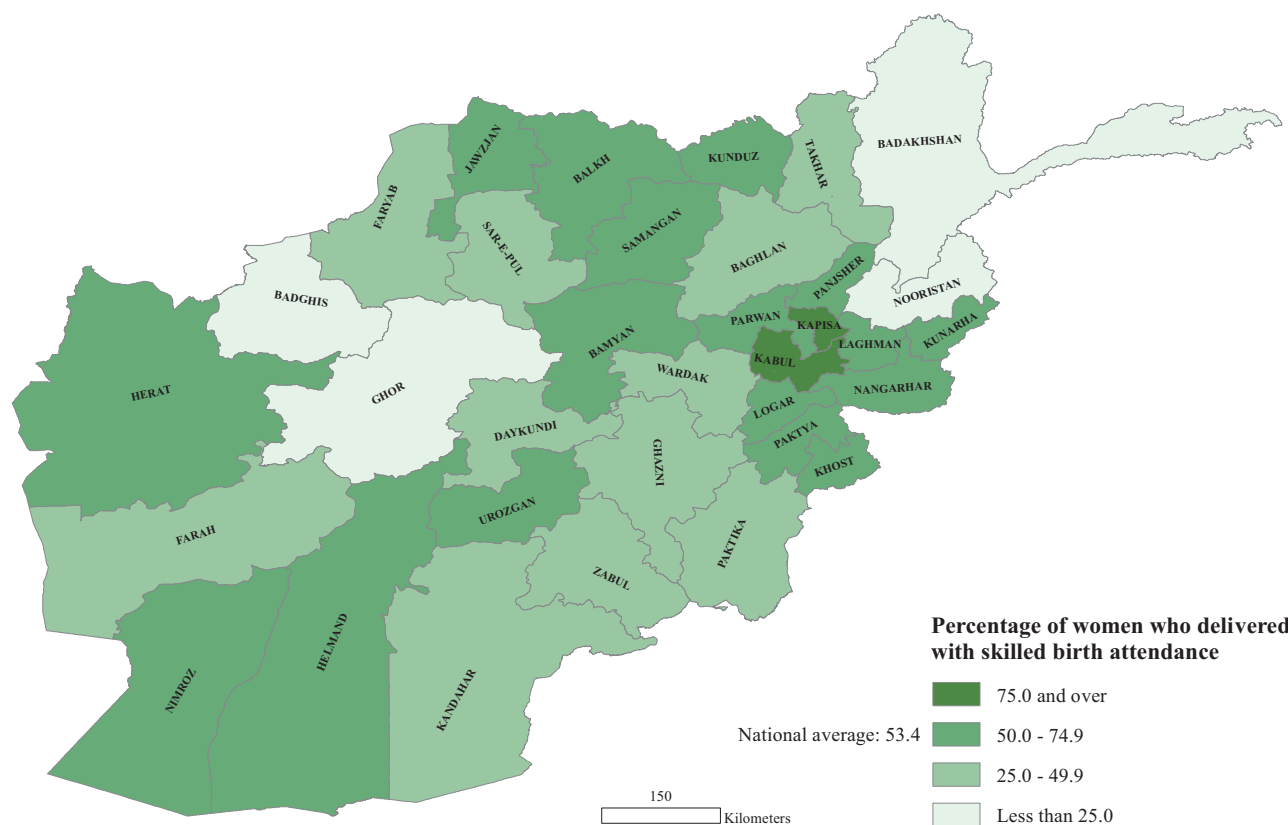
Figure 9.18 shows that over time significant progress is made regarding the provision of professional delivery care. In 2003, only 14.9 percent of all deliveries were assisted by a skilled birth attendant. Over the years, this has gradually increased. In the NRVA 2011-12 skilled birth attendance was 39.9 percent. Since then the skilled birth attendance grew further to 45.2 percent in the ALCS 2013-14 and to 53.4 percent in the current survey.

Figure 9.18: Percentage of women delivering with skilled birth attendance, by survey (2003-2017)



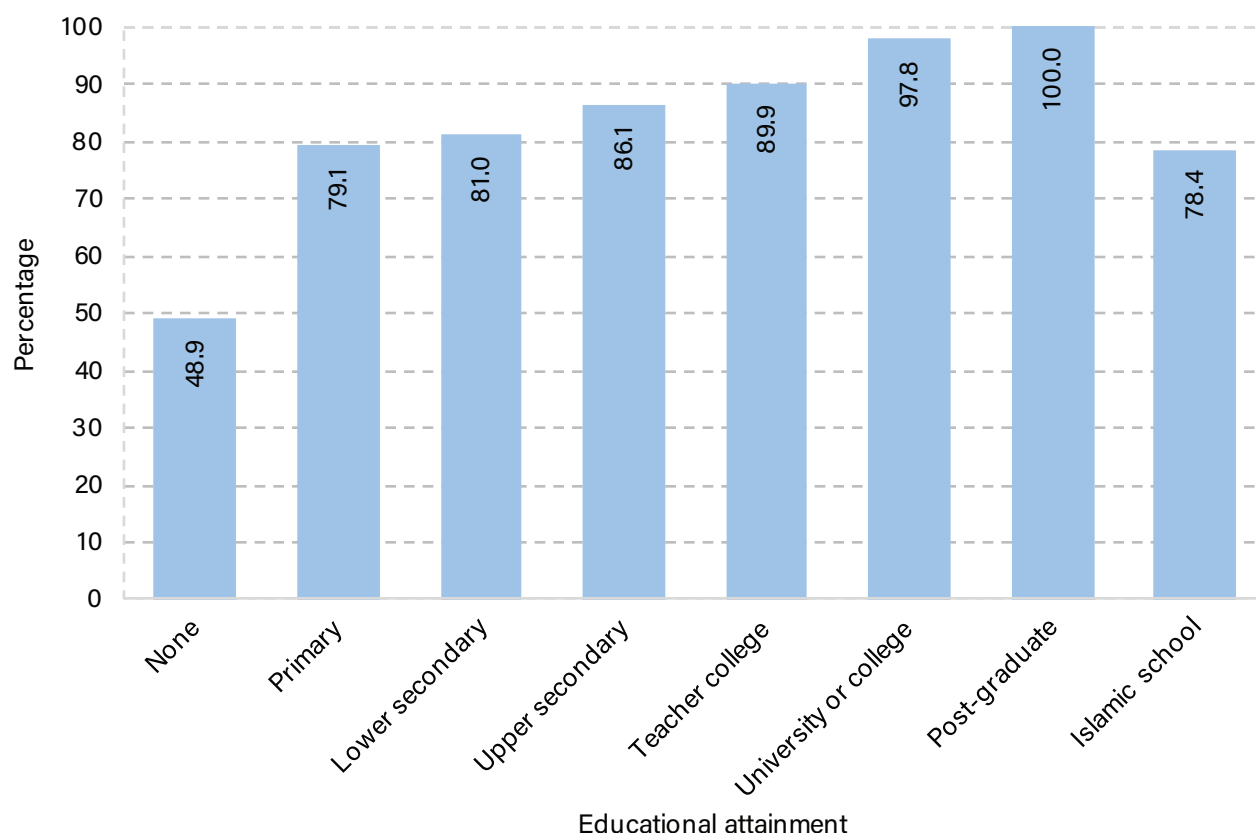
Despite this important progress, large discrepancies between the provinces remain. *Figure 9.19* clearly shows the amount of effort that is still needed in so many places to achieve universal safe childbirth. Only five provinces have a skilled birth attendance above 70 percent: Kabul, Kapisa, Jawzjan, Urozgan and Khost. Of all 34 provinces in Afghanistan, 15 have less than half of deliveries being assisted by skilled birth attendants.

Figure 9.19: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey with deliveries assisted by a skilled birth attendant, by province



Being assisted by a skilled birth attendant is closely related to the educational attainment of the mother. Women with no education have 30 percentage points less skilled attendance during delivery than women with primary education. Only 48.9 percent of women with no education can count on professional assistance during childbirth. The higher a woman's education the higher her chance of being assisted professionally. Note that women with a university degree have almost universal skilled birth attendance.

Figure 9.20: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who were assisted in delivery by a skilled birth attendant, by educational attainment



Place of delivery

Next to competent birth attendants, childbirth should take place in a safe, hygienic environment with emergency obstetric care at hand, if serious complications would occur. The study of Lee et al. (2011) estimated that intra-partum-related neo-natal deaths worldwide could be reduced by 85 percent by the availability of comprehensive emergency obstetric care and by 40 percent by the availability of basic emergency obstetric care. The absence of an environment with good obstetric care is also closely related to maternal deaths. In this respect, the place of delivery is paramount for safe childbirth.

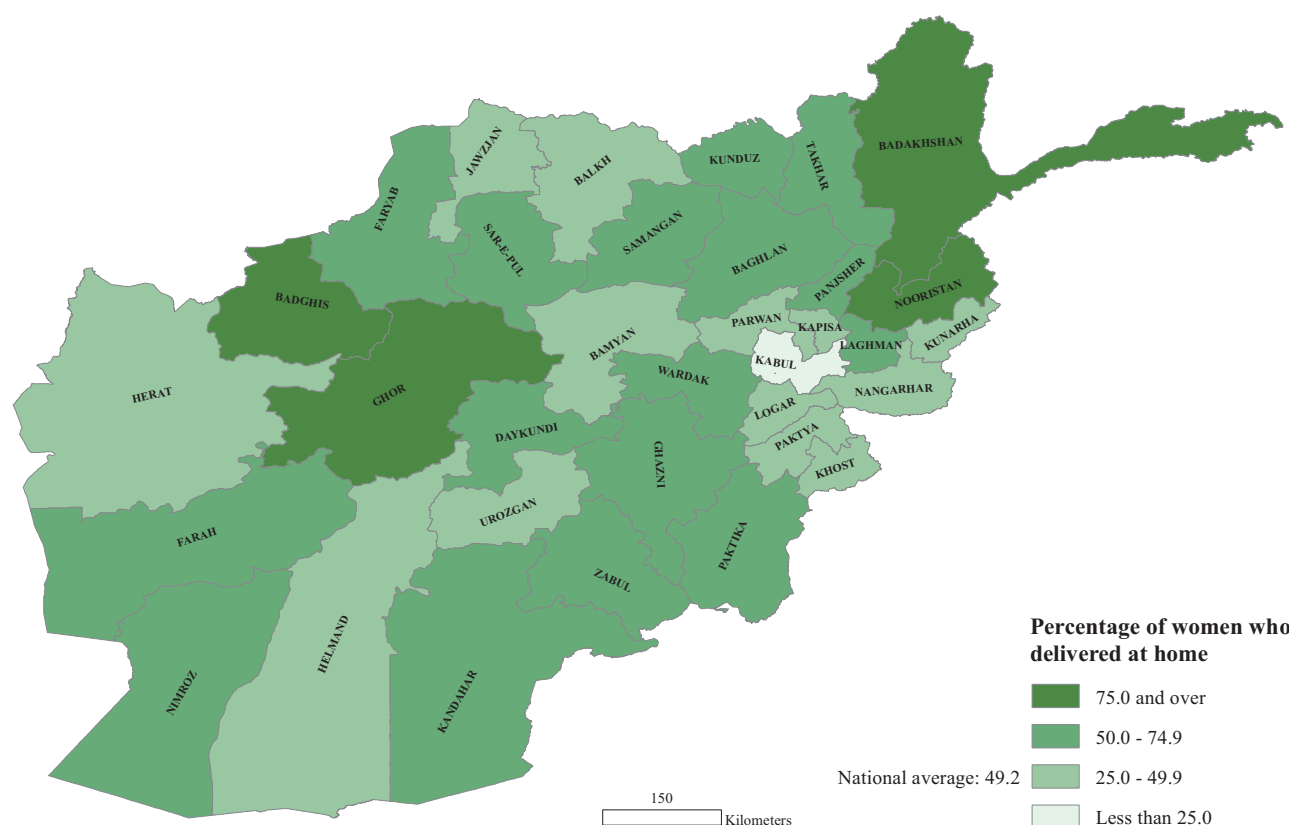
In Afghanistan 49.2 percent of all births still take place at home (*Table 9.11*). Large differences exist between the three types of residence. In urban areas, only 17.0 percent of all children are born at home, against 56.3 percent in rural areas and 82.9 percent in the Kuchi community. Currently, a total of 35.2 percent of all deliveries take place in public hospitals, but again, large differences exist between the three types of residence. Almost two thirds of all babies in urban environments are born in public hospitals, against less than 30 percent in rural areas and one in eight among the Kuchi population. Private health facilities and other public health facilities only cover a minority of all births, 5.0 and 10.3 percent of all births, respectively. In total 50.5 percent of births are institutional deliveries. Again, large differences exist between urban (82.7 percent) and rural residence (43.4 percent) and the Kuchi population (16.4 percent).

Table 9.11: Women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey, by place of delivery of last birth, and by residence

Place of delivery	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
At home	17.0	56.3	82.9	49.2
Public hospital	64.4	28.2	12.7	35.2
Other public health facility	6.4	12.0	2.5	10.3
Private health facility	11.9	3.2	1.2	5.0
Other	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.3

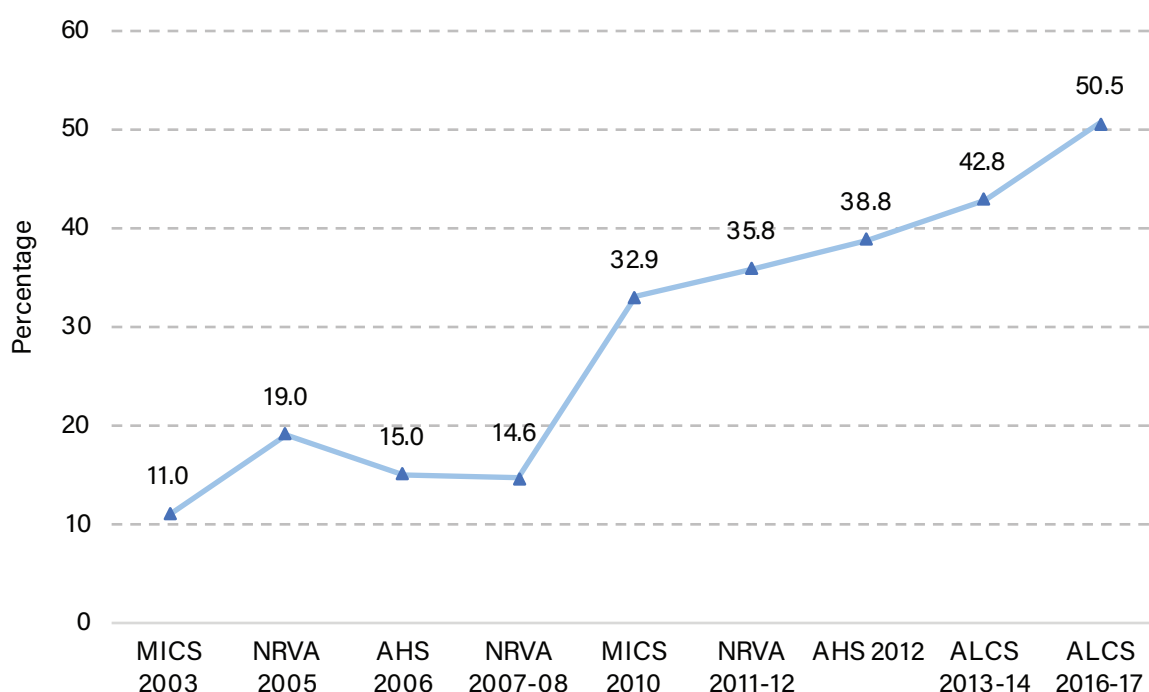
As home delivery may be a significant health risk for mother and child within most of Afghanistan's social and physical environments, it is important for public health interventions to indicate in what areas home delivery is most prominent. According to the ALCS 2016-17, in three provinces still more than 90 percent of women deliver at home: Ghor, Nooristan and Badghis. In 20 out of 34 provinces more than 50 percent of women go through childbirth at home (see Figure 9.21).

Figure 9.21: Percentage of women with a live birth in the five years preceding the survey who delivered at home, by province



Various surveys during the last 14 years show that initial progress towards high institutional delivery was difficult before 2010. The MICS 2003 reported that only 11.0 percent of women were having childbirth in an institutional environment. The next surveys (NRVA 2005, AHS 2006 and NRVA 2007-08) showed very little progress. Only after 2007-08 did the percentage of institutional delivery start growing rapidly. The MICS 2010 observed institutional delivery at 32.9 percent. Since then a constant, almost linear growth is observed (Figure 9.22). However, the graph shows that at the current rate of progress, it will still take about two decades to reach universal delivery in health institutes.

Figure 9.22: Percentage of women having institutional delivery, by survey



9.4.3 Family planning

Access to safe, voluntary family planning is a basic human right allowing couples to freely decide the number, timing and spacing of their children. The ALCS 2016-17 was not intended to conduct a full analysis on family planning. Only two questions were asked about family planning:

- Are you currently using any method to delay or avoid getting pregnant?
- Which methods are you using?

The interviewer then went through a list of contraceptive methods: sterilisation, intrauterine device (IUD), injections, implants, pill, condom, breastfeeding, periodic abstinence, other traditional methods and other modern methods. The information on family planning cannot be used to calculate population contraceptive prevalence rates or to describe the characteristics of women using birth control, because the questions were restricted to women who had a birth in the last five years before the survey and who were not pregnant at the time of the interview. The information contained in this section should therefore not be used as indicators of contraceptive use of all women in Afghanistan.

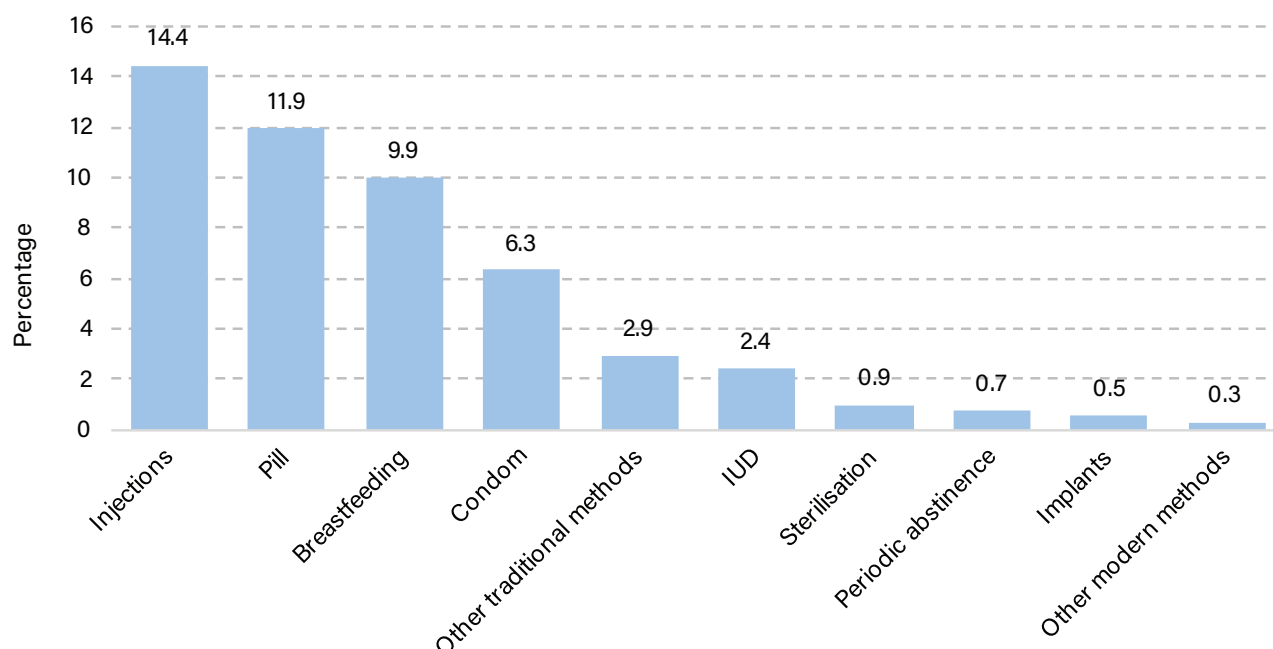
Among all ever-married women who were 49 years of age or younger, 92.3 percent had ever given birth and 7.7 percent were still childless. For those who had ever given birth, 76.8 had a child during the last five years. For 20.0 percent of these women, no information on contraceptive use was gathered because they indicated to be pregnant at the time of the survey. Among ever-married women in the ALCS who gave birth in the last five years, the methods most often used were injections with 14.4 percent of all women using this method and the pill used by 11.9 percent of all women (*Figure 9.23*). Breastfeeding can be used as a birth control method roughly for the first 6 months of a baby's life or until the mother starts menstruating again. Among the selection of women in the ALCS, 9.9 percent were deliberately using breastfeeding as a means of contraception. Implants (0.5 percent) and IUDs (2.4 percent) were less popular than condoms, which were used by 6.3 percent of women. Traditional methods were only sparsely used: periodic abstinence was practiced by 0.7 percent of women and 2.9 percent practiced other traditional methods.

According to the 2015 Afghanistan Demographic and Health Survey, 23.0 percent of currently married women were using contraception, with 20 percent using a modern method. Because of the selection of women to whom the

questions on contraception were asked, the percentage of contraceptive use in the ALCS was much higher: 49.3 percent of all eligible women reported they were using contraception, of whom 45.9 percent were using a modern contraceptive method. As in the ADHS 2015, modern methods consist of sterilisation, injectables, IUDs, contraceptive pills, implants, male condoms and lactational amenorrhea (breastfeeding). Modern contraceptive methods constituted 93.2 percent of all contraceptive methods used, which is the same as in the ADHS 2015 (93.1 percent).

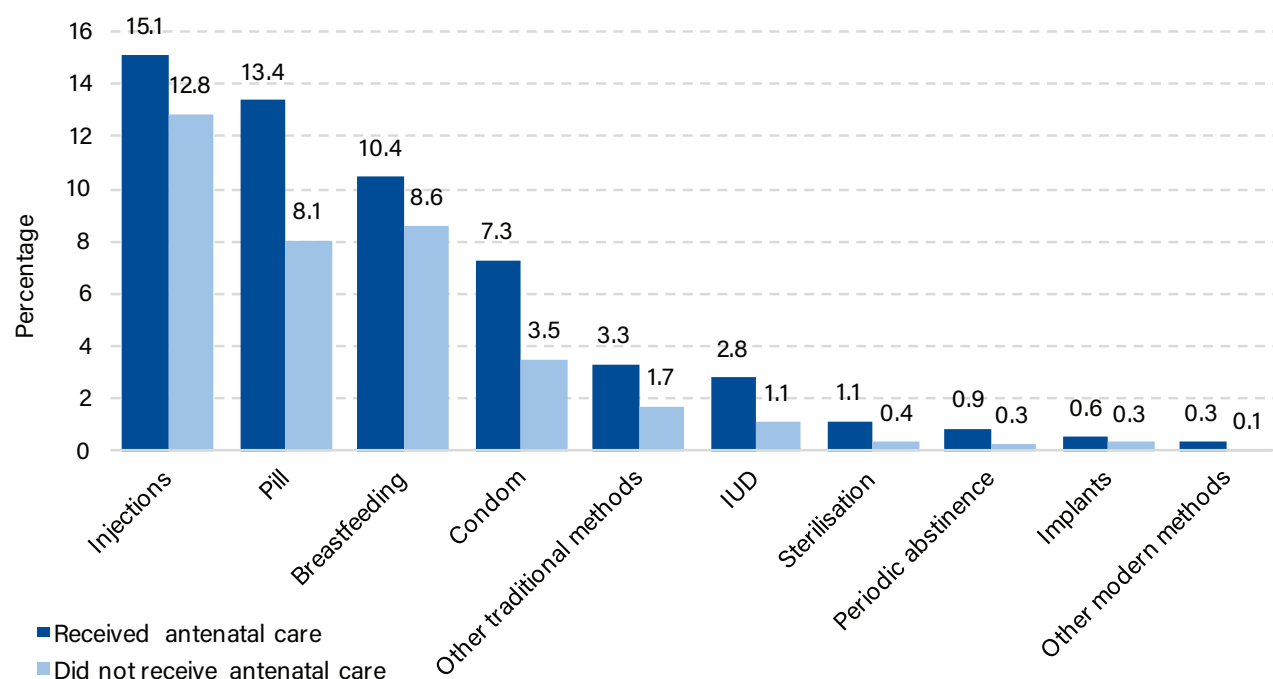
According to the ADHS 2015, family planning methods most frequently used by married women in Afghanistan were contraceptive pills (7.0 percent) and injectables (5.0 percent).

Figure 9.23: Percentage of women who had a child in the last five years and who were not pregnant and were using contraception, by type of contraception



Ante-natal care gives skilled providers an opportunity to communicate with women about safe motherhood, maternal and child health and the benefits of family planning. The ALCS 2016-17 allows to evaluate if women who obtained ante-natal care had higher contraceptive use. This is indeed the case. Contraceptive use of any method among women who had received ante-natal care was 54.4 percent, against 36.1 percent for those who did not receive ante-natal care. *Figure 9.24* shows that percentage use is higher for each method among women who received ante-natal care. The difference between those who did receive ante-natal care and those who did not is largest for the use of contraceptive pills, 13.4 percent against 8.1 percent.

Figure 9.24: Percentage of women with a birth in the last five years before the survey who currently use contraception, by type of contraception, and by use of ante-natal care



9.4.4 Child care

Vitamin A supplementation

Vitamin A deficiency is an important health problem in Afghanistan, for children below five years of age. According to the 2013 Afghanistan National Nutrition Survey (NNS), half of all children in the age-group 6-49 months (50.5 percent) and 11.3 percent of women of reproductive age had Vitamin A deficiency (MoPH and UNICEF 2013). Also, 45.8 percent of children 0-59 months and 10.8 percent of women of reproductive age had mild Vitamin A deficiency. According to the WHO norm, if more than 20 percent of children 6 to 59 months have a deficiency, then it is considered a severe public health problem. As such, with a value above 50 percent, Afghanistan has a serious Vitamin A health problem.

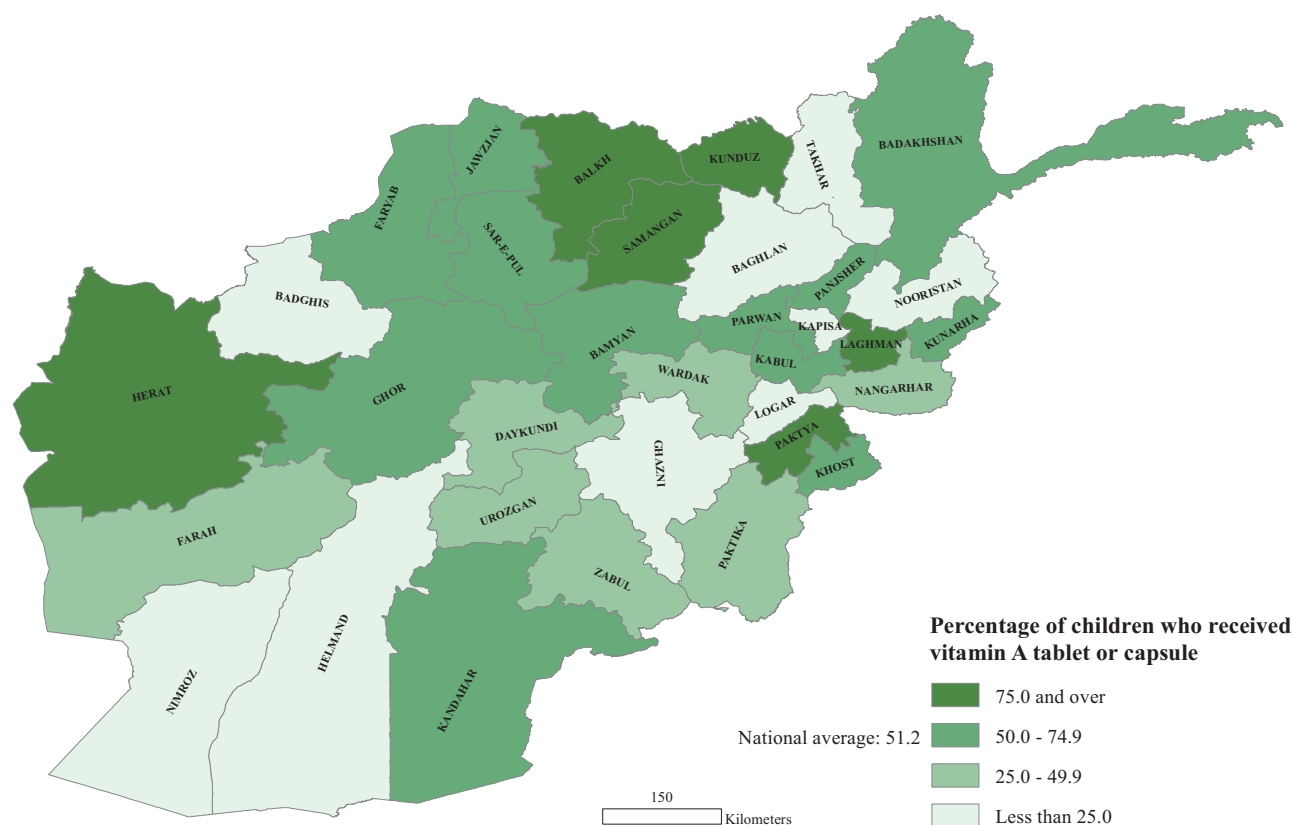
Vitamin A is a vital nutrient which plays a role in the normal development of the visual system, cell growth and blood cell production. Chronic Vitamin A deficiency disorders include childhood blindness, anaemia and weak resistance to infections, such as measles and diarrheal diseases. Various studies have shown that Vitamin A supplementation reduces mortality among small children and leads to a reduction in maternal mortality (WHO 2009). To combat Vitamin A deficiency in Afghanistan, Vitamin A supplements are distributed to families of young children. To measure the efficiency of this campaign a question was included in the ALCS 2016-17, on how many children under age five received a Vitamin A tablet or capsule in the last six months. This question was related to the question on how many children below age 5 the woman has.

Among all children below age five, 51.2 percent received a Vitamin A supplement during the period of six months before the survey. Children in urban areas received Vitamin A tablets or capsules at a higher rate (64.7 percent) than children in rural areas (48.8 percent) or among Kuchi children (33.7 percent).

The distribution of Vitamin A has decreased in recent years. In the ALCS 2013-14, 63.2 percent of children had received Vitamin A supplement, which is 12 percentage points higher than in the current survey. Also in the NRVA 2011-12 and in the NRVA 2007-08 it was reported that a higher percentage of children received Vitamin A supplement (59.8 percent and 69.4 percent, respectively).

For monitoring the program for the supply of Vitamin A, it is important to know the regional coverage of the distribution to those in need. *Figure 9.25* shows the percentage of children 0 to 59 months old who received Vitamin A tablets or capsules, by province. Large differences exist between the provinces in terms of distribution of Vitamin A, ranging from almost full coverage to virtually no distribution at all. In three provinces, mothers reported that almost none of their children get the Vitamin A supplement: Takhar, Badghis and Baghlan, while in two other provinces less than 20 percent of children were given the supplement (Nimroz and Ghazni). While slightly more than half of all young children living in Afghanistan received Vitamin A supplement, in 16 provinces less than half of children did so.

Figure 9.25: Percentage of children aged 0-59 months who received Vitamin A tablet or capsule in the last six months, by province



Birth registration

Birth registration is important for children's health and social protection. 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. Birth registration certifies a child's age and allows the proper management and monitoring of vaccinations and other health interventions. It also serves a number of other important purposes. Without birth registration there is uncertainty about the exact age of children and may, because of inadequate age verification, hamper the monitoring and control of child marriage, child labour, child military service and school enrolment. The government of Afghanistan, with assistance from the United Nations, is working to make birth registration universal.

The importance of birth registration is recognised in target 16.9 (*By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration*) of SDG Goal 16 (*Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels*). To monitor the implementation of this target, SDG indicator 16.9.1 (*The proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age*) is included in the list of indicators by the Statistical Commission (IAEG-SDGs 2017).

Text box 9.2: SDG indicator 16.9.1 – Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority (in percentages)

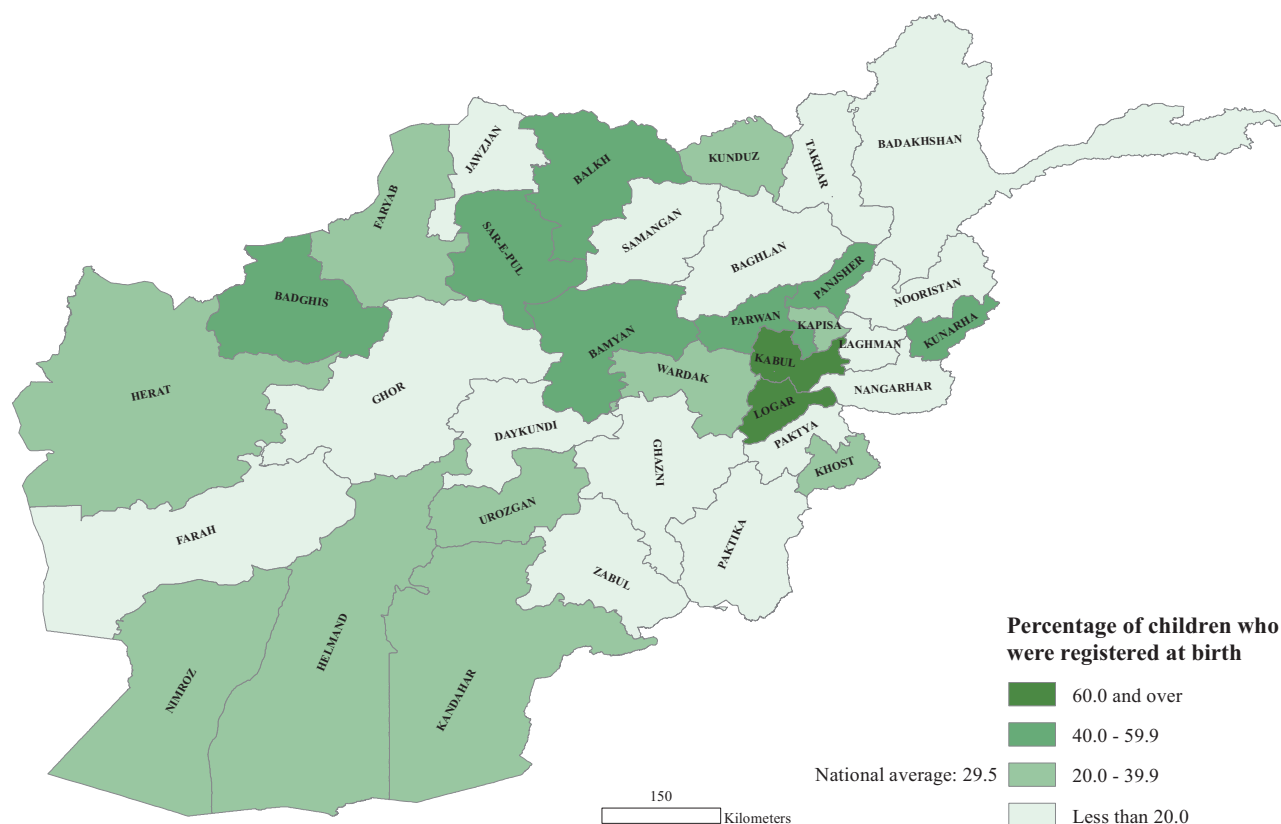
The proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority is an important indicator for SDG 16 (*Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels*). The functioning of the justice system and other government services is highly dependent on proper registration of all citizens:

Afghanistan	29.5
Urban	60.9
Rural	29.5
Kuchi	10.4

In the ALCS it was asked how many of the children born to the female respondent in the last five years received a birth registration at birth. Among all children younger than five years old, 29.5 percent had a birth registration. Only 10.4 percent of Kuchi children were registered at birth, 22.4 percent of rural children and 60.9 percent of children in urban areas had been registered. The question on birth registration was also asked in the NRVA 2011-12. At that moment, 35.2 percent of all births were registered. This result shows that birth registration in the country has taken a step back, as current registrations are 5.7 percent lower than in 2011-12.

Figure 9.26 shows that many provinces still have a long way to go to set up a well-functioning birth registration system. Nine provinces still have less than ten percent of children with a birth registration. Only five provinces have more than 50 percent coverage: Balkh, Parwan, Badghis, Logar and Kabul, which scores highest.

Figure 9.26: Percentage of children aged 0-59 months who received a birth registration at birth, by province



9.5 Disability

9.5.1 Measurement of disability

Over the years, the methodology to measure the prevalence of disability has changed considerably. The current notion is that to define and understand disability and to evaluate a person for disabilities, physical and mental conditions should be seen against the backdrop of overall physical and social functioning. There is no strict line between persons with a disability and those without a disability (WHO 2011). Under auspices of the United Nations Statistical Commission, the Washington group has come up with a set of six questions to determine a person's disability status. The basis for these questions is determined by principles of equal rights and social participation and equitable access to opportunities for persons with disabilities. The aim is to see to what extent persons with disabilities are able to participate in daily activities, such as employment, education, housing and family life compared to persons without disabilities. The activities chosen were: seeing, hearing, walking or climbing stairs, remembering or concentrating, self-care and communicating. The answer categories for each of the questions are the same and depend on the degree of difficulty the respondent has to perform each activity. The four possible responses are: 'No – no difficulty'; 'Yes – some difficulty'; 'Yes – a lot of difficulty' and 'Cannot do at all'.

The ALCS 2016-17 asked all six of the disability questions. If the person answered 'No – no difficulty' the next question on difficulties to perform a certain activity was asked. If the respondent (or the proxy respondent) answered to have some difficulties or a lot of difficulties, or indicated not to be able to do the activities at all, an additional question was asked what the cause of the limitation was.

The four answer categories to the six questions on disability correspond with four levels on the disability continuum:

- No disability: the person indicated 'No – no difficulty' with all six activities;
- Mild functional limitation: the person indicated that with one or more activities he/she had some difficulty, but reported no activity with lots of difficulty or which the person could not do at all;
- Moderate functional limitation: the person indicated that one or more activities he/she had a lot of difficulties with, but no activity he/she could not do at all;
- Severe functional limitation: the person indicated that one or more activities he/she could not do at all.

The Washington Group recommended that '*the sub-population disabled includes everyone with at least one domain that is coded as a lot of difficulty or cannot do at all*', or in other words, that '*moderate or severe functional limitation*' would define persons with disabilities (Washington Group 2010). In this report, the same division is used. In the Asian region, efforts to improve the position of persons with disabilities are governed by the Incheon Strategy to 'Make the Right Real'. This strategy also makes use of the same distinction, as does the World Report on Disability (UN-ESCAP 2012).

9.5.2 Prevalence and pattern of disability

In the analysis, a person is considered to have a disability, if he/she has one or more activities to which a 'lot of difficulty' or 'cannot do at all' is responded. Using this internationally accepted criterion, an estimated 924 thousand persons are considered to have a disability in Afghanistan. This implies a disability prevalence rate of 3.2 percent, with a small difference between the disability rate for men and women: 3.2 and 3.1 percent, respectively. Disability rates are higher in urban areas (4.3 percent) than in rural areas (2.8 percent) and among the Kuchi population (3.1 percent). It was found that in some provinces in the country, the reporting of disability was so extremely low, that it could only be caused by serious underreporting. According to the 2011 World Report on Disability, the global prevalence of disability stands at 2.9 percent (WHO 2011). Given Afghanistan's level of economic and social development one can expect that levels below one, or even two percent would be a serious underestimation of the real prevalence of disability. The ALCS data on disability show that 6 provinces have a prevalence below one percent and 15 provinces below two percent. As is the case in other Asian countries, social and cultural factors may prevent respondents to report on the disability conditions of other members of the household and in some cases even interviewers from asking the proper questions. The fact that levels of disability in a number of provinces are so low, indicates that the current estimate for the whole country of 3.2 percent may be an underestimation of the real level. This means that the prevalence presented here should be considered as conservative.

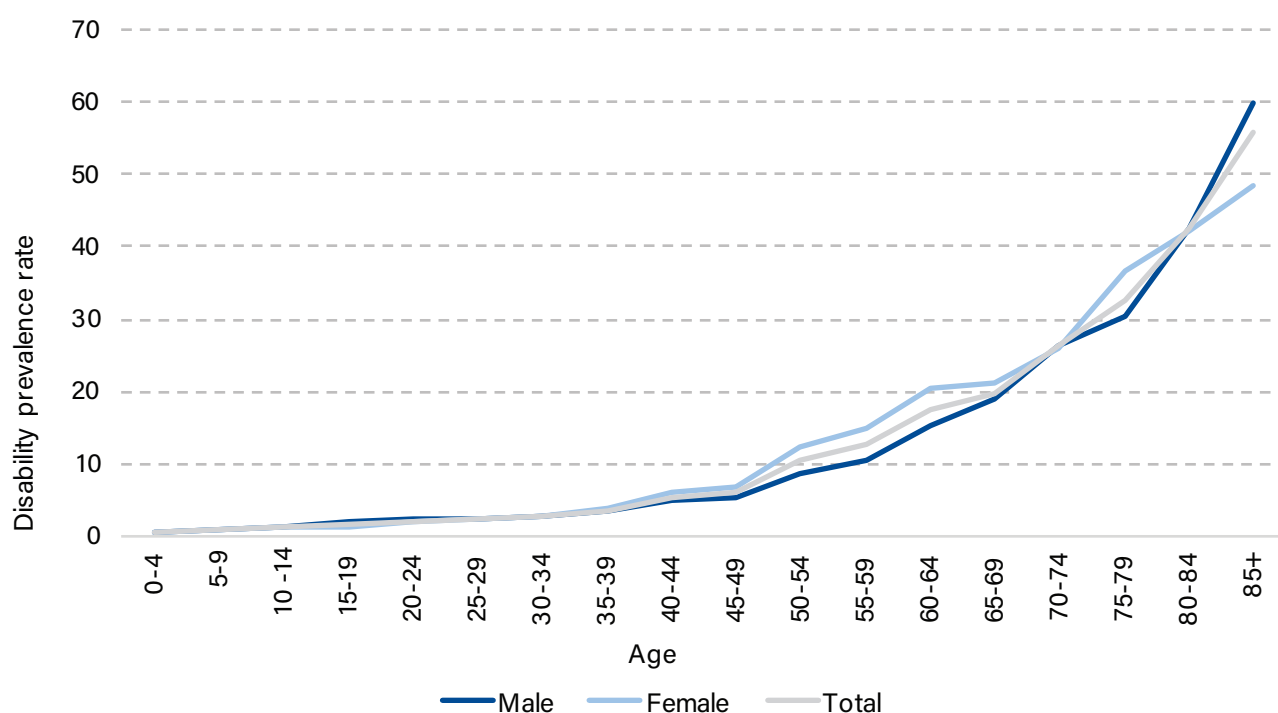
In 2005, the first national disability survey in Afghanistan was undertaken by Handicap International on behalf of the Government of Afghanistan. The survey preceded the methodology developed by the Washington Group and thus used a different way to detect the presence of persons with disabilities in the household. The survey used a set of 27 questions to determine whether a person had a disability (Handicap International 2006). The disability prevalence rate was found to be 2.7 percent, which is somewhat lower than the percentage found in the present ALCS. However, a direct comparison between both figures is difficult because of differences between the methodologies applied. The NRVA 2007-08 used a methodology to measure disability prevalence that was similar to the current ALCS. However, instead of all six activities proposed by the Washington Group, only five were investigated: seeing, hearing, walking, self-care and remembering. The NRVA used the same definition as used in the ALCS 2016-17, i.e. person is considered disabled if he/she reports minimum 'a lot of difficulty' on at least one of the activities. The study found that 1.6 percent of all persons were living with a disability, which is only half of the current level. Adding an extra question on functionality may have had some effect, but did not account for all of the differences observed. It is unclear whether the difference between the NRVA 2007-08 and the ALCS 2016-17 is due to real changes or to data quality.

The prevalence of disability in the population is highly age-dependent. *Table 9.12* presents the age-dependent disability rates, together with the disability gender parity index and *Figure 9.27* shows these disability rates graphically. The gender parity index is equal to the ratio of the age-specific disability rates for women, divided by those for men.

Table 9.12: Disability prevalence rate, by five-year age group, and by sex (in percentages); disability gender parity index, by five-year age group

Age	Male	Female	Total	Disability GPI
Total	3.2	3.1	3.2	0.98
0 - 4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.83
5 - 9	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.80
10 - 14	1.2	1.1	1.2	0.94
15 - 19	2.0	1.1	1.6	0.56
20 - 24	2.2	1.9	2.0	0.84
25 - 29	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.02
30 - 34	2.9	2.7	2.8	0.94
35 - 39	3.6	3.7	3.6	1.02
40 - 44	5.0	5.9	5.5	1.17
45 - 49	5.3	6.9	6.1	1.31
50 - 54	8.6	12.2	10.4	1.41
55 - 59	10.5	14.9	12.6	1.42
60 - 64	15.2	20.4	17.6	1.34
65 - 69	19.1	21.1	19.9	1.11
70 - 74	26.4	26.1	26.2	0.99
75 - 79	30.4	36.8	32.8	1.21
80 - 84	42.5	42.3	42.4	0.99
85+	60.1	48.6	56.0	0.81

Figure 9.27: Disability prevalence rate, by five-year age group, and by sex (in percentages)

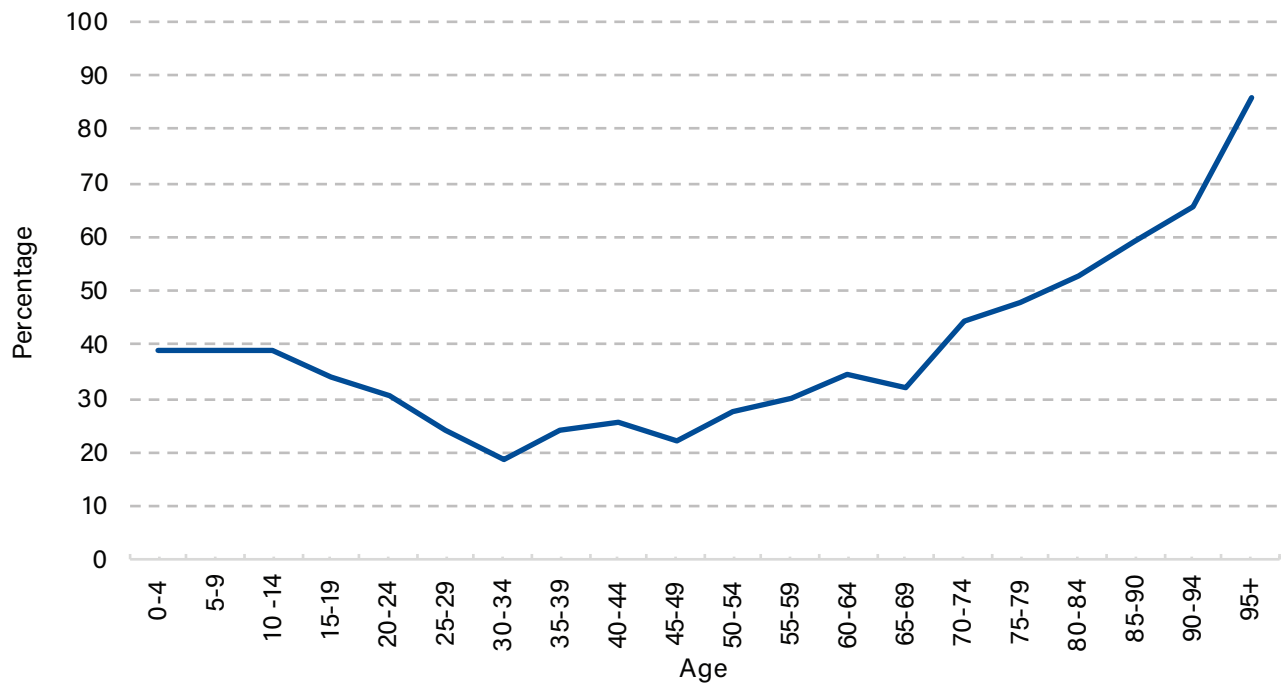


The figure clearly shows the very low disability rates in the youngest age group. For each subsequent age group there is a small increase in the disability rate, both for men and women. In age group 45-49 the disability rate stands at 6.1 percent for both sexes. After age 50 a rapid increase is observed. Between ages 65 and 69 one in five persons in Afghanistan has a disability. In the adjacent age group (70-74 years) this is already more than one in four. At the oldest joined age-group (85+) more than half of persons are living with a disability (56.0 percent).

Although there may be some sample variability, the gender parity index shows a pattern of age-specific gender differences in the prevalence of disability. At the younger ages, up to age 35, disabilities are higher among men than among women (the index below 1, except for age group 25-29). Between the ages of 40 and 70, the prevalence of disability is clearly higher for women than for men. This is also clearly reflected in the absolute number of persons with a disability in both broad age groups. Between ages 0 and 34, there are 170 thousand men and 139 thousand women with a disability, while between ages 40 and 69, there are 190 thousand men with a disability against 225 thousand women. It is unclear what causes this pattern and more in-depth research is needed.

Among persons with a disability, 33.1 percent indicated they had multiple disabilities. This percentage was slightly higher for males (33.4 percent) than for females (32.2 percent), however the differences are not statistical significant. Multiple disabilities were only slightly lower in urban areas (31.4 percent), compared to rural areas (33.7 percent) and among Kuchis (32.1 percent). Difference between urban and rural areas were found to be statistically significant, but not between urban and Kuchis or between rural and Kuchis. The age pattern of multiple disabilities shows a U-pattern (*Figure 9.28*). The proportion of people with a disability, who have multiple disabilities is quite high at younger ages (e.g. 38.7 for 0-4 years old), then drops to a minimum of 18.7 percent at age group 30-34 and afterwards increases to reach very high levels at the very old age groups. It is understandable that persons at older ages have multiple disabilities, but it is unclear why there is a drop from relatively high levels at the very young ages to a minimum around age 30. Perhaps a selection process is operating, in which children and young persons who have multiple disabilities die prematurely.

Figure 9.28: Percentage of persons with disabilities who have multiple disabilities, by five-year age group

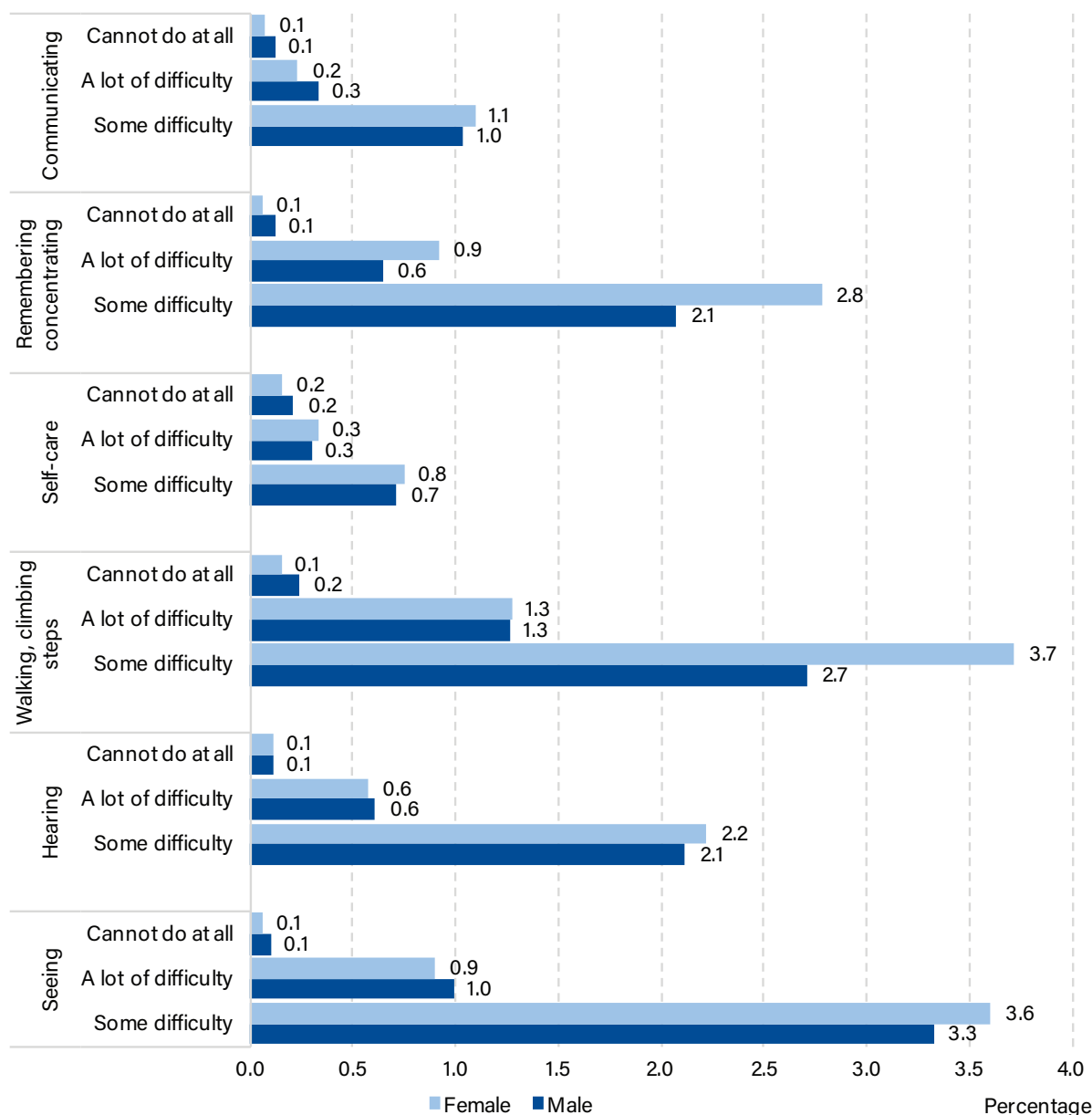


9.5.3 Types of disability

Figure 9.29 shows the percentage of persons by the degree of difficulties in performing the six activities indicated by the Washington Group for males and females. Percentages of mild limitations are, as expected, much higher than more serious limitations.

For each of the six activities women have higher percentages than men for mild functional limitations (some difficulty), while percentages for men and women for moderate and severe functional limitations are about the same. The activity with the highest moderate and severe limitations is 'Walking/climbing stairs' where the percentages for both sexes are 1.3 for lots of difficulties and 0.1 and 0.2 percent for severe limitations, for women and men, respectively. The second most frequent limitation is seeing.

Figure 9.29: Persons with specified functional limitations, by type of functional limitation, degree of difficulty in performing specified activities, and by sex (in percentages of the total population)



The survey information suggests that Afghanistan counts about 23 thousand blind persons, 32 thousand deaf persons, 56 thousand persons who are unable to walk or climb stairs, 52 thousand people who lack the ability of self-care, 27 thousand persons who cannot remember or concentrate and 28 thousand people who cannot communicate. Based on the responses given in the ALCS 2016-17, it is estimated that 113 thousand people in Afghanistan have a severe disability. Among people with a severe disability, the prevalence of multiple disabilities (moderate or severe) is very high: 70.6 percent of persons with a severe disability have multiple disabilities.

Table 9.13 shows the functional specific disability rates. These include persons who indicated they had lots of difficulties performing the function or could not do it at all. Walking, climbing steps is the activity for which the disability rate is highest (1.5 percent), followed by seeing (1.0 percent). Communication is the activity with the lowest connected disability rate (0.4 percent). Little difference in prevalence is observed between both sexes.

Table 9.13: Activity-specific disability prevalence rates, by sex (in percentages)

Disability	Male	Female	Total
Seeing	1.1	1.0	1.0
Hearing	0.7	0.7	0.7
Walking, climbing steps	1.5	1.4	1.5
Self-care	0.5	0.5	0.5
Remembering concentrating	0.8	1.0	0.9
Communicating	0.5	0.3	0.4

The reason why people become disabled is important information for policy makers, as it allows them to make evidence-based decisions on how to prevent disability among the population. In the ALCS, for persons who indicated they had a mild, moderate or severe limitation, it was asked what the cause of the limitations was. *Table 9.14* shows the causes given by the respondent for each of the six Washington Group activities by sex, but restricted to moderate or severe limitations. For all six activities, illness, congenital and old age are indicated as the most important causes of disability, for males and for females. The fourth most important cause was the rest category 'other' (11.2 percent). For many years, Afghanistan has been involved in armed conflicts and war. Among all causes of physical or mental limitations mentioned, 3.2 percent were caused by mines or explosives and 2.1 percent were conflict or war. Among men these were higher than among women, 5.1 percent against 1.1 percent for mines or explosives and 2.8 percent against 1.3 percent for conflict and war. According to the ALCS 2016-17, the number of people in Afghanistan with a disability because of war, explosions or landmines is around 120 thousand. However, this number should be considered a very conservative estimate due to the following reasons:

- As explained above, in a number of provinces, there is a serious underreporting of the levels of disability.
- The ALCS was not able to visit a number of places in the country, because of the volatile situation due to internal conflict. It can be expected that in these areas the number of people with disabilities due to armed conflict will be considerable higher.

Table 9.14: Six moderate or severe limitations, by sex, cause of limitation (in percentages)

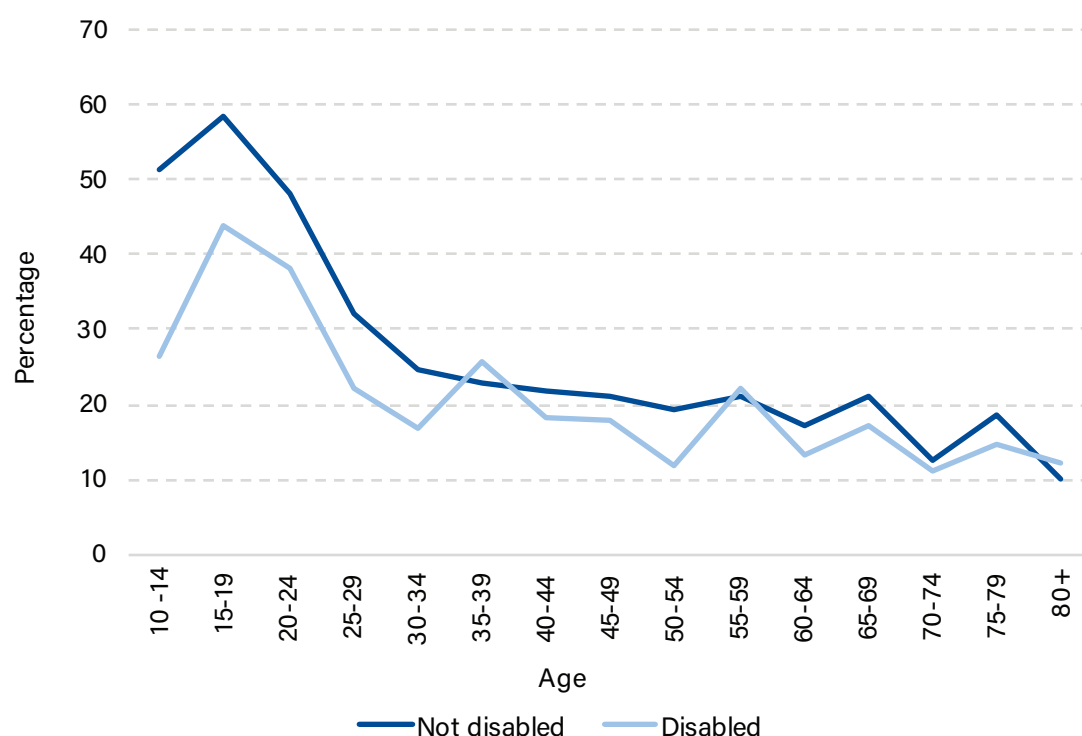
Sex, type of disability	Seeing	Hearing	Walking, climbing steps	Self-care	Remembering, concentrating	Communicating	All disabilities
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Traffic accident	1.1	1.2	2.8	2.5	1.0	1.8	1.8
Work accident	2.1	2.1	4.2	2.3	0.9	1.7	2.5
Other accident	4.9	4.9	5.8	6.7	4.0	6.3	5.3
Mines/explosives	2.2	1.8	5.9	2.5	1.3	3.0	3.2
Conflict/war	1.8	2.4	2.6	1.6	1.8	1.3	2.1
Congenital (by birth)	6.2	18.7	10.5	27.4	16.4	34.8	15.2
Illness	26.0	25.2	34.8	30.3	20.8	26.9	28.1
Old age	47.1	37.5	27.6	23.8	18.1	15.1	30.2
Drugs	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.0	1.0	2.5	0.5
Other	8.3	6.0	5.6	2.9	34.9	6.6	11.2
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Traffic accident	1.2	1.7	4.7	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.8
Work accident	3.2	2.7	5.9	2.3	1.7	2.4	3.7
Other accident	5.8	7.1	6.8	6.7	5.8	7.4	6.4
Mines/explosives	3.2	3.2	9.6	2.5	1.6	4.5	5.1
Conflict/war	2.9	3.3	3.9	1.6	1.8	0.9	2.8
Congenital (by birth)	7.3	18.9	12.7	27.4	23.4	36.1	18.1
Illness	21.1	19.4	26.0	30.3	17.7	22.6	22.3
Old age	47.2	37.7	25.5	23.8	21.9	14.1	30.0
Drugs	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.0	2.2	3.9	0.9
Other	7.5	5.7	4.6	2.9	21.9	6.2	7.9
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Traffic accident	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.1	1.7	0.7
Work accident	0.7	1.4	2.4	0.8	0.2	0.8	1.2
Other accident	4.0	2.5	4.6	7.4	2.5	4.5	4.0
Mines/explosives	1.1	0.2	1.8	0.5	1.0	0.7	1.1
Conflict/war	0.5	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.3
Congenital (by birth)	4.8	18.5	8.1	20.3	10.9	32.8	12.2
Illness	31.8	31.7	44.4	36.3	23.3	33.3	34.3
Old age	46.9	37.4	29.9	28.3	15.2	16.7	30.4
Drugs	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0
Other	9.2	6.2	6.7	4.3	45.1	7.3	14.8

9.5.4 Correlates of disability

As in many countries in the world, persons with a disability form a vulnerable group within Afghanistan. For instance, the percentage of children and young persons aged 5-18 who attend school is considerably lower among persons with a disability (74.7 percent) than among persons with no disability (87.4 percent). Another example is

the lower literacy among persons with a disability. *Figure 9.30* shows the age-specific literacy rates for persons with and without a disability. Generally, persons with a disability have considerably lower levels of literacy than persons without a disability. For some age categories this is not the case, but this may be due to the small sample variability. For all persons older than fifteen years, literacy among disabled persons is 19.7 percent while the overall literacy rate for persons without a disability is 35.6 percent. Many aspects of the vulnerability of persons with disabilities, such as the housing conditions of persons with disability, their position on the labour market, their economic position, reproductive health of women with disabilities and the type of household they are living in, can be investigated on the basis of the ALCS 2016-17. It lies outside the scope and possibilities of this report to go into all these aspects of disability in Afghanistan. Various aspects of the position of persons with a disability are examined in other chapters (labour force and education). Because of the vulnerable position of persons with a disability within Afghan society, a separate thematic report dedicated to this group would be useful.

Figure 9.30: Literacy rate, by five-year age group, and by disability status (in percentages)



10 HOUSING AND HOUSEHOLD AMENITIES

Summary. *Housing conditions of the Afghan population are overall poor. However, over the years covered by successive NRVA/ALCS surveys, housing standards and provision of housing amenities have generally improved for large parts of households, with big disparities between urban and rural communities and across provinces. The ALCS 2016-17 shows important improvements for some of the housing-related indicators and very limited progress, stagnation or even deterioration for others. The analysis in this chapter establishes a baseline for eight SDG indicators on the housing sector, which will allow monitoring progress in next ALCS rounds and for other statistical data sources.*

The ALCS established the SDG indicator 9.1.1 (the proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road) at 63 percent. The access of population to electricity (SDG indicator 7.1.1) has increased significantly compared to previous NRVA/ALCS rounds, to such an extent that almost all Afghan households (98 percent) have now access to electricity, at least for lighting purposes. A main cause of this rapid progress is the increase in the use of solar energy, especially in rural areas and among Kuchi communities. Solar energy is now used by 59 percent of the households, up from 2 percent in 2007-08.

Even if still very low in international perspective, the access of households to information and communication technology tools have also increased rapidly in the last years. SDG indicators on the use of mobile phones and internet show that about 43 percent of the Afghan population make now use of a mobile phone and about 4 percent uses internet.

Small improvements are observed in the decrease of the urban slum population – from 74 percent in 2013-14 down to 72 percent in ALCS 2016-17 – and in the reduced use of non-durable materials for housing constructions. Housing tenure is characterised by high-levels of owner-occupied dwellings (87 percent). Renting is increasing in urban areas, but only in Kabul this is considered a common practice. Almost 70 percent of Afghan households live in single-family houses. About 63 percent of the residential housing stock in the country has been constructed after 1997 and only less than 2 percent in the last three years.

The proportion of Afghan households using safe water in terms of access to improved drinking water sources increased impressively in the period between NRVA 2007-08 (27 percent) and ALCS 2013-14 (66 percent). However, ALCS 2016-17 reports a percentage of 64 percent, a two percentage points decrease in comparison to the previous round. Moreover, a water quality tests conducted in ten provinces during the survey with support of UNICEF, showed that more than half of the investigated water sources were contaminated with faecal matter and that water quality was often found to deteriorate between collection from the water source and consumption within the home. These findings – even if they are only indicative, because not representative at national or provincial levels – suggest that only 23 percent of the water consumed in Afghan homes of the ten provinces is free of contamination and that only 21 percent of households have access to safely managed drinking water services (SDG indicator 6.1.1). The proxy indicator that ALCS 2016-17 produces for this indicator – not considering eventual water contamination – as a representative figure for Afghanistan at national level is 36 percent.

The situation regarding access of households to improved sanitation facilities has significantly improved since the previous ALCS, increasing from 39 percent in 2013-14 to 53 percent in 2016-17. However, if considering only improved sanitation facilities not shared between households (basic sanitation services, as defined by the SDG indicator 6.1.2), this percentage reduces to 41 percent. In general, sanitation continues to be generally poor if compared to other countries in the region. The still widespread lack of basic infrastructure for sanitation in the country implies high risks of potentially fatal infectious diseases and is especially detrimental for the health and survival chances of children.

Overcrowding, as defined by UN-Habitat – dwellings with more than three persons per room – continue to be a concern for the improvement of housing conditions in Afghanistan. Overall, almost 44 percent of the Afghan population lives in overcrowded housing and the average number of persons per room is 3.2. Health conditions are further impaired by the use of solid fuels for cooking (in 75 percent of households) and heating (96 percent), with no substantial improvements in the last three years.

10.1 Introduction

Housing conditions and household amenities of people are a direct reflection of their living conditions and socio-economic development. Housing conditions and amenities may include the physical condition of dwellings and their age, the type of dwelling, the size of the dwelling in combination with the number of occupants, housing tenure, access of household members to water and sanitation facilities and other services, type of energy used, surrounding environment and availability of amenities. Insufficient income forces people to live in low quality dwellings. Inappropriate housing may have consequences towards lesser protection against diseases, difficulty to sleep and rest, problems for children to do school homework, fire hazards and family conflicts. Often, sanitation systems are insufficient, drinking water is unavailable or remote and evacuation and rescue may be difficult in case of emergency. In some poor neighbourhoods, garbage is not removed, thus creating the possibility of epidemics and other health problems. Poor neighbourhoods also often lack schools, playgrounds, sports and entertainment facilities, and may sometimes be unsafe.

Access to clean water, adequate sanitation and hygiene can reduce illness and death from diseases, and can contribute to poverty reduction and socio-economic development. The availability and characteristics of household amenities are also good indicators of socio-economic status or deprivation of basic needs for households and individuals. Lack of access to transport and communication makes it more difficult to find a job or to exert an independent economic activity. Difficulties in road access limits both access to work, health and social facilities and to recreation. Poverty of the household makes it sometimes impossible to pay for electricity or to be connected to the power network, thus depriving households of commodities as well as of the possibility to improve their living standard through productive activities that require electricity. Use of solid fuels increases air pollution and may hamper the health condition of household members.

Up-to-date information on housing is crucial for developing policies to address national and regional needs and to develop a comprehensive framework for monitoring the housing sector. These are key instruments for facilitating people to improve their living conditions and for ensuring sustainable development, in line with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The SDG 11 (*Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable*), identifies ten targets and 15 indicators. Among other, the targets aim at improving housing conditions and access to basic services of the population, transport systems, human settlement planning and management, integrated national and regional development planning of urban, peri-urban and rural areas, policies for mitigation and adaptation to climate change, and resilience to disasters.

Even with the improvements achieved in recent years in some of the housing sectors and despite different initiatives taken by the Government of Afghanistan and the international community, an important proportion of the Afghan population continues suffering from inadequate housing, shortages of safely managed drinking water and sanitation services, and other basic services and amenities. These forms of deprivation are present both in rural and urban areas, with sometimes large differences between provinces. In addition, an important number of internally displaced people and former refugees continue to live in informal settlements located in and around the major cities of the country, like Kabul, Herat, Mazar-e-Sharif, Jalalabad and Kandahar. More recent migration flows, mainly from Pakistan and Iran, have enlarged the informal communities around cities. Rapid urban growth has been re-fuelled by the repatriation of refugees, the arrival of IDPs and by the economic migration from rural areas. For this reason, in specific areas of the country, housing conditions are particularly poor and the number of slum dwellers has grown.

This chapter describes different housing characteristics, including the tenancy status (section 10.2.1), dwelling characteristics (section 10.2.2), water and sanitation (section 10.3.1) and various facilities and services usually related to the housing situation, such as sources of electricity and use of fuels for cooking, heating and lighting, but also available communication and information means. The chapter presents links to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and, whenever possible, indicators are computed according to their official metadata information to ensure international comparison.¹ The ALCS 2016-17 data on housing and household amenities provide eight SDG indicators on the following Goals:

- SDG 5: *Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls;*
- SDG 6: *Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all*
- SDG 7: *Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all;*

¹ United Nations Statistics Division, SDG indicators, metadata repository: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata>, updated on 17 July 2017.

- SDG 9: *Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation*
- SDG 11: *Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable*
- SDG 17: *Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development.*

Some indicators are also reported according to the former MDGs definitions, to allow comparability with previous rounds of NRVA and ALCS.

10.2 Tenancy and dwelling characteristics

10.2.1 Tenure

Housing tenure is an important aspect in the housing sector. It refers to the arrangement under which the household occupies the dwelling where its members live (United Nations 2017, para 4.556). It is often considered a proxy measure for income or wealth. Inadequate housing may include the absence of legal security of tenure.

Even though with a small decrease in comparison to the previous survey round, ALCS reports that the majority of Afghan households own the units where they live (around 87.2 percent in 2016-17 and 88.9 percent in 2013-14). The proportion of households who own a dwelling is considerably higher in rural areas than in urban areas (94.2 and 66.9 percent, respectively). *Table 10.1* shows the distribution of households by housing tenure in urban and rural areas and among Kuchis. The owned dwellings include the categories of inherited units or units provided by the family, purchased dwellings and dwellings constructed by the household.

Table 10.1: Households, by residence, and by housing tenure of the dwelling (in percentages)

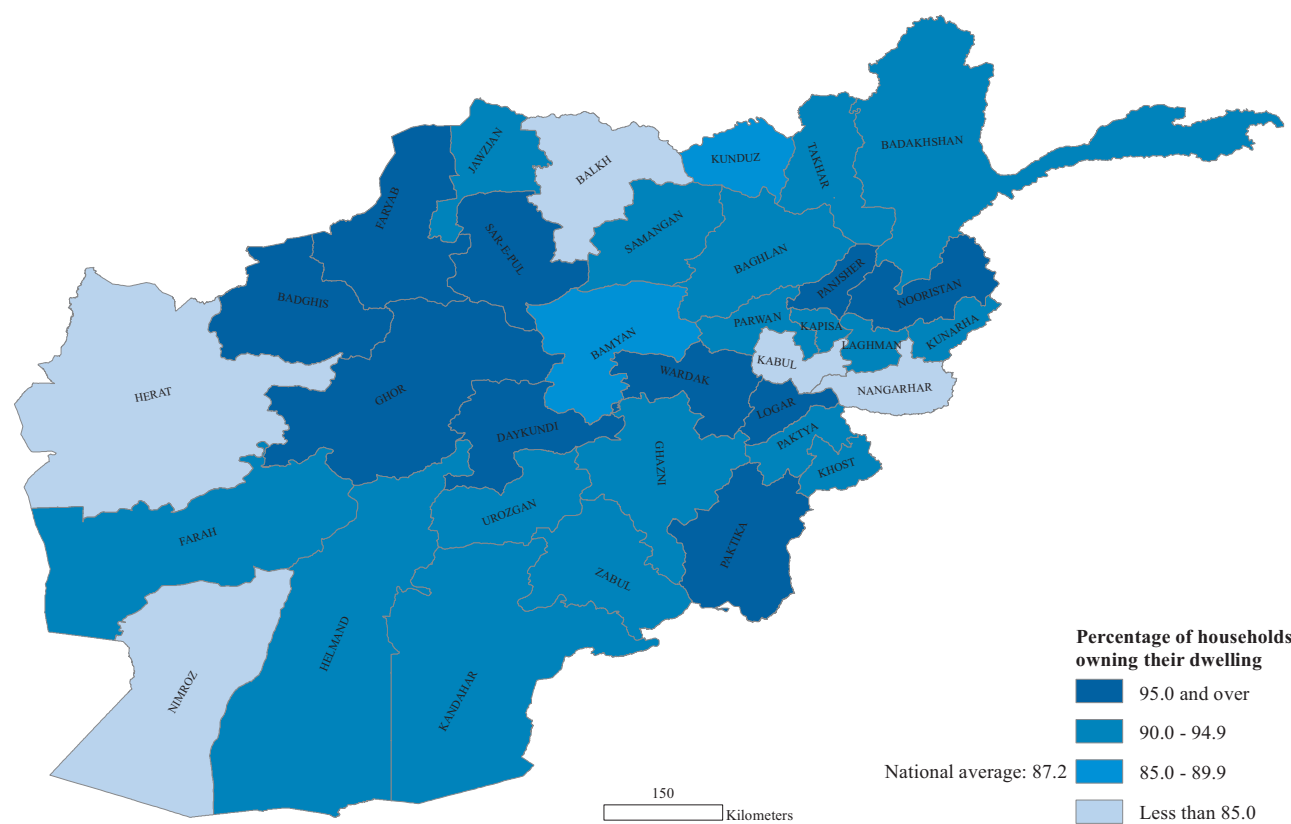
Residence	Inheritance or given	Purchased dwelling	Constructed dwelling	Tenant (renting)	Other temporary arrangement	Other arrangement	Total
Total	48.5	12.3	26.4	7.9	4.2	0.7	100.0
Urban	25.5	21.5	19.9	26.6	6.0	0.4	100.0
Rural	58.1	6.8	29.3	1.7	3.6	0.4	100.0
Kuchi	28.6	42.8	17.0	1.5	4.5	5.5	100.0

Within the group of households who own their dwelling, it is interesting to observe that the national percentage of inherited or housing units given has slightly decreased – and more so in urban areas – in comparison to the ALCS 2013-14 round, from 50.6 percent to 48.5. The percentage of households living in constructed dwellings is higher for the rural population, in comparison with the urban population. Renting has increased and is more common in urban areas, while it is insignificant in rural areas and among Kuchi groups. Households occupying temporary dwellings financed through a mortgage or through other arrangements, are everywhere small, but growing in comparison to ALCS 2013-14.

The percentage of purchased dwellings, even if stable at national level, has substantially increased among Kuchis, from 30.8 to 42.8 percent. Due to the nomadic characteristics of the Kuchis, housing data for this population group would require further analysis and interpretation, which goes beyond the aim of the present report.

At provincial level, Kabul presents an interesting characteristic: the percentage of households owning their dwelling is rather below the national average, about 64.9 percent. Indeed, 27.6 percent of Kabuli households are renting the units where they live, showing a more 'modern' attitude than in other provinces. On the other hand, predominantly rural provinces have in general values above the national average (*Figure 10.1*).

Figure 10.1: Percentage of households owning their dwelling, by province



10.2.2 Dwelling characteristics

About 68 percent of Afghan households live in single-family houses and one-fourth in dwellings that are part of shared houses. While the majority of single-family houses are located in rural areas, most of the shared houses are in urban areas, where their percentage has increased by about 3 percentage points in comparison with ALCS 2013-14. As expected, almost all the apartments are in urban areas, mostly in Kabul city. The percentages of tents and temporary shelters are significant only for the Kuchi population (*Table 10.2*).

Table 10.2: Households, by residence, and by type of dwelling (in percentages)

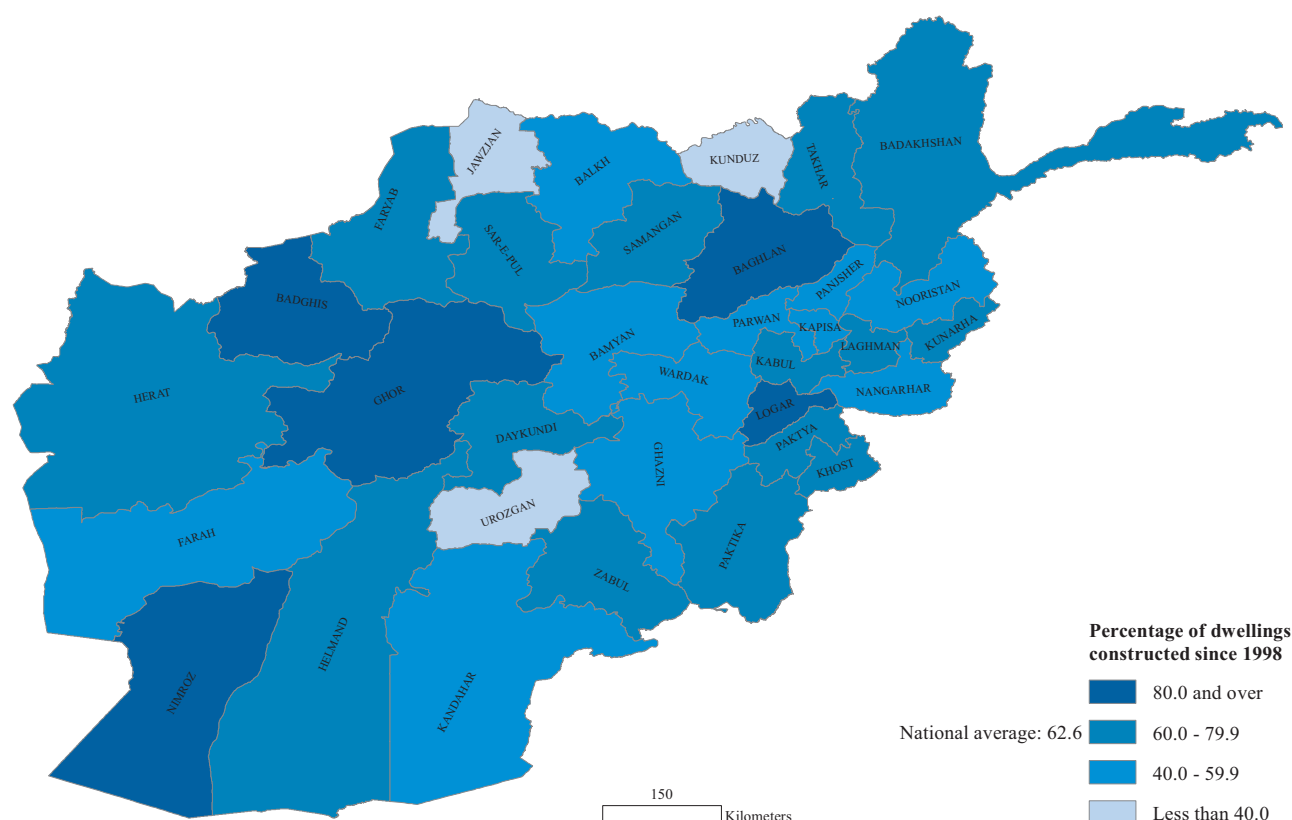
Residence	Single family house	Part of a shared house	Apartment	Tent	Temporary shelter / / shack	Other	Total
Total	68.3	25.6	0.5	4.5	1.1	0.1	100.0
Urban	51.9	46.0	1.2	0.1	0.7	0.1	100.0
Rural	78.7	20.1	0.2	0.0	0.9	0.1	100.0
Kuchi	5.2	0.9	0.2	88.0	5.8	0.0	100.0

Most of the dwellings inhabited by Afghan households have been constructed after 1997 (62.6 percent), of which 30.6 between 1997 and 2006, 20.4 percent between 2007 and 2011, 9.2 percent between 2012 and 2014, and only 2.4 percent were constructed in the period of two years preceding the survey.² These percentages do not include the

² The year or period of construction of dwellings is an important information to determine the age of the housing stock in a country, but such data are often lacking accuracy since occupants may not know or remember when their unit was built.

Kuchi dwellings identified as tents and those dwellings for which it was not possible to identify the year of construction. At provincial level, 27 provinces out of 34 have similar percentages of relatively recent dwellings (less than 20 years ago), close to the national average (between 40 to 80 percent). On the other hand, in Loghar, Baghlan, Ghor, Badghis and Nimroz almost all the dwellings have been constructed in the last 20 years, while in Kunduz, Urozgan and Jawzjan provinces the majority of households are living in older dwellings (*Figure 10.2*).

Figure 10.2: Percentage of dwellings constructed since 1998, by province



The predominant construction materials of external walls, roofs and floors of the dwellings in which the household live are relevant for assessing the permanency and durability of the construction. In Afghanistan, most of the materials used for constructing buildings and dwellings are not durable, considering that traditional mud houses continue to form the majority of housing in the country. Most houses have external walls made of mud bricks (66.6 percent in 2016-17 and 68.2 percent in 2013-14) and roofs constructed with wood and mud (71.5 percent in 2016-17 and 73.9 in 2013-14). Houses are constructed also with stones and mud, especially in rural areas and among the Kuchi population not living in tents (almost 20 percent at country level). Houses with concrete and fired brick walls are mostly located in urban areas and cover about 15 percent (10 percent according to ALCS 2013-14) of the entire housing stock of the country (*Tables 10.3, 10.4, 10.5*).

To improve accuracy on this variable, ALCS uses periods of time instead of years, but this data may be affected by errors in any case, especially at provincial level.

Table 10.3: Households, by residence, and by main construction material of external walls of dwellings (in percentages)

Residence	Fired brick / stone	Concrete	Mud bricks / mud	Stone / mud	Other	Total
Total	10.6	4.3	66.6	17.7	0.7	100.0
Urban	30.8	12.0	55.1	1.9	0.2	100.0
Rural	3.4	1.6	70.7	23.4	0.9	100.0
Kuchi	1.0	0.0	76.1	18.4	4.4	100.0

Table 10.4: Households, by residence, and by main construction material of the roof of dwellings (in percentages)

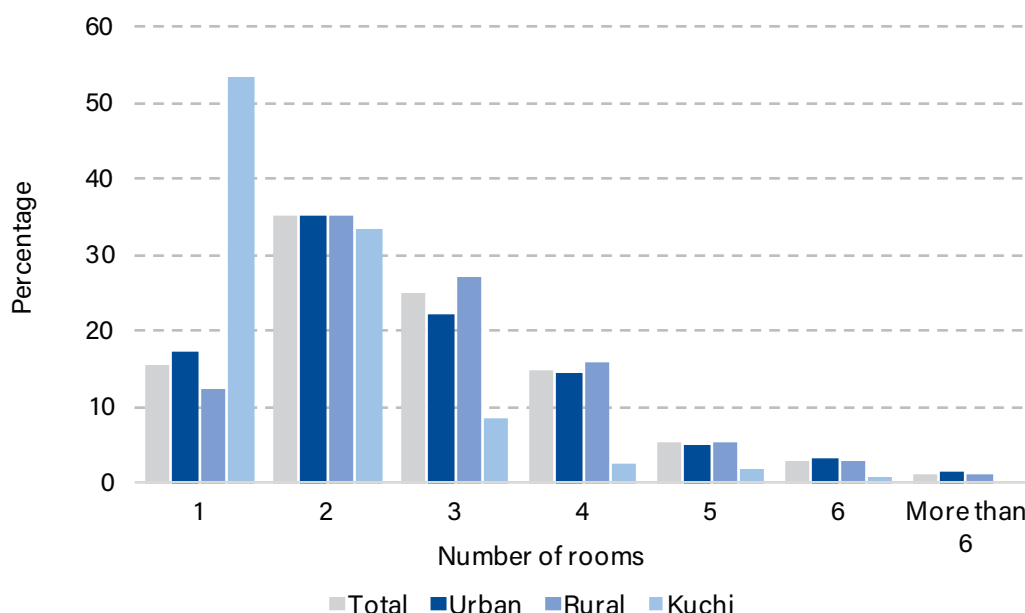
Residence	Concrete	Wood / wood with mud	Tin / metal	Girder with fired brick	Mud bricks	Other	Total
Total	5.7	71.5	0.3	9.6	12.5	0.4	100.0
Urban	18.7	52.1	0.3	23.6	4.9	0.3	100.0
Rural	1.2	78.4	0.2	4.6	15.2	0.4	100.0
Kuchi	0.0	69.9	0.0	1.5	21.8	6.9	100.0

Table 10.5: Households, by residence, and by main construction material of the floor of dwellings (in percentages)

Residence	Mud / earth	Concrete / tile	Other	Total
Total	82.1	17.5	0.4	100.0
Urban	50.1	49.3	0.5	100.0
Rural	93.5	6.2	0.3	100.0
Kuchi	97.5	1.0	1.5	100.0

The number of rooms is a variable that provides an indication of the size of a dwelling and can be used to determine crowding. Crowding in households indicates that the number of people residing in a household exceeds the capacity of the housing unit to provide adequate shelter and services for its members. *Figure 10.3* shows that many Afghan households have two rooms (35.0 percent), fewer have only one room (15.4 percent) and around half of Afghan households have three or more rooms available. The number of rooms per household is quite similar in urban and rural areas. The majority of Kuchi households lives in one tent (53.2 percent), but in about 33.2 percent of cases in two tents or rooms. The figures are very similar to those derived from the ALCS 2013-14 survey.

Figure 10.3: Households, by number of rooms in the dwelling, and by residence type (in percentages)



Due to the large size of households in Afghanistan (7.7 people on average in each household; see chapter 3) and limited space in most of the dwellings, numerous Afghans live in a situation of overcrowding.³ International standards consider overcrowding as one of the criteria for the classification of inadequate housing and for the definition of the concept of ‘slum household’. A slum household refers to a situation of deprivation, where household members face at least one of the following situations, as derived from the ‘adequate (and inadequate) housing’ definition of the Human Rights Council of the United Nations General Assembly (OHCHR 2013):

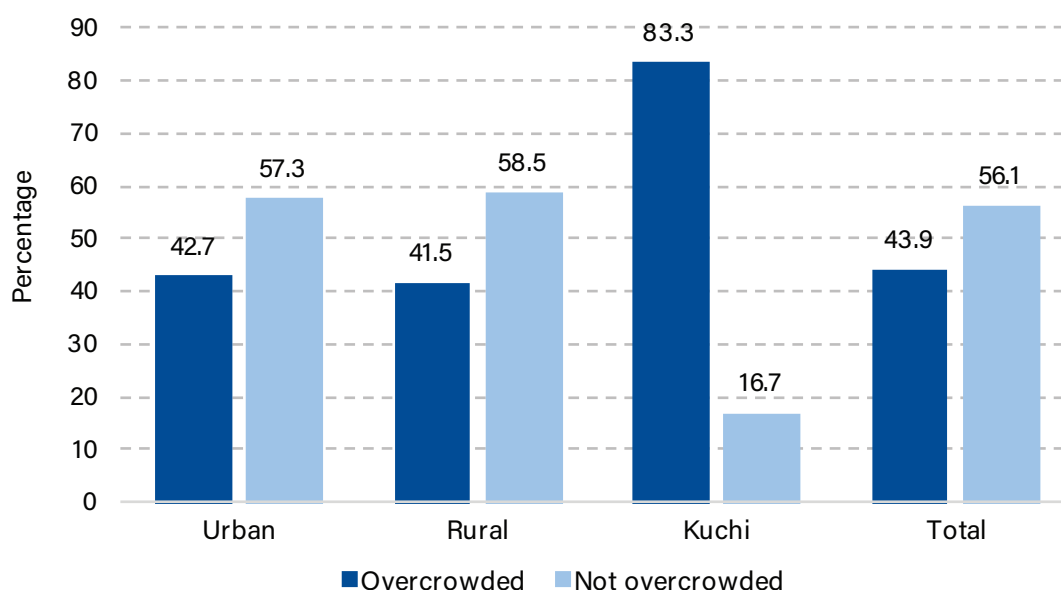
- Lack of access to improved water source;
- Lack of access to improved sanitation facilities;
- Lack of sufficient living area;
- Lack of housing durability;
- Lack of security of tenure.

By extension, the term ‘slum household’ refers to persons living in a household that lacks one or more of the above attributes (UN-Habitat 2003). This definition of ‘slum household’ – as an attempt to measure urban poverty – has been an indicator to track the progress of the Millennium Development Goal 7, target 7D (*To have achieved by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers*). It is also one of the indicators for monitoring the SDG 11, target 11.1 (*By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums*). While access to improved water sources and improved sanitation facilities are discussed in the next section of this chapter (Household amenities), living areas of the Afghan population, housing durability and security of tenure is presented below.

At national level, the average number of persons per room is 3.2, similar to what was reported for the ALCS 2013-14 (3.1 persons). Urban and rural areas have the same share, while for the Kuchi population, the rate is still around 5 persons per room. Overall, 43.9 percent of the Afghan population live in overcrowded housing conditions, according to the ALCS 2016-17, with no important disparities between rural and urban residents. Kuchi are again reported to live in more vulnerable conditions, with 83.3 percent living in overcrowded dwellings (*Figure 10.4*). The effects of overcrowding include an increased risk of transmission for a wide range of infectious diseases and harmful social behaviour, such as domestic violence and child abuse, and negative outcomes of education and child development.

3 UN-Habitat defines overcrowding dwellings with more than three persons per room (UN-Habitat 2007).

Figure 10.4: Population, by residence, and by overcrowding status (in percentages)



ALCS measures durability of dwellings based on the concept of permanency of structures: permanent main building materials of walls, roofs and floors of the units.⁴ External walls were considered made of durable materials if bricks, stones, concrete or cement were used; roofs when concrete with metal, wood, girder with bricks or mud bricks were used; floors when concrete or tiles were used. According to these criteria, 86.7 percent of the Afghan housing units used for residential purposes are non-durable. In terms of security of tenure – the right to effective protection by the state against forced evictions – ALCS considers as secure all households in possession of a legal document able to show ownership of the tenure, including a document of registration of the unit (qawala-sharayi), a document of purchase (qawala-urfee) or a different document that can be used as proof of secure tenure status. At national level, 47.5 percent of the households live in a situation of tenure insecurity.

Slums are an evident manifestation of non-adequate living conditions, are forms of housing inequalities, and are places where homeless people usually live. The SDG Goal 11 (*Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable*) aims at reducing urban dwellers living in slums and inadequate housing, and at enhancing resilience, because cities remain magnets for people seeking greater opportunities and a better life. The related SDG indicator 11.1 under this goal is the '*proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing*'. This indicator involves three components:

- Slum households: proportion of urban population living in slums;
- Informal settlement households: proportion of urban population living in informal settlement households; and
- Inadequate housing households: proportion of urban population living in inadequate housing.

ALCS 2016-17 provides the opportunity to identify slum households. The actual proportion of people living in urban slums is measured in the ALCS 2016-17 by a proxy represented by the urban population living in households with at least one of the characteristics listed above in relation to adequate housing, except for the security of tenure characteristic. It is internationally recommended not to include this component in the present stage of development of this SDG indicator. ALCS 2016-17 estimated that the slum population living in urban areas is about 5.0 million people, which 72.4 percent of the total urban population.⁵ The ALCS 2013-14 provided similar figures in terms of absolute numbers, even though UN estimates indicated a proportion of the urban population almost 10 percentage points lower in the same reference period.⁶

4 ALCS 2016-17 does not consider the state of repair of the dwellings in the measure of housing durability, nor the spatial locations, such as hazardous locations, locations near toxic waste, in flood plains, on steep slopes, close to dangerous communication networks (main roads, airports, rails, power lines).

5 Un-Habitat Afghanistan and the Government of Afghanistan estimated that around 70 percent of the urban dwellings are located in informal settlements (Government of the Republic of Afghanistan 2015).

6 Official United Nations site for the SDG indicators, <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database> reports that in 2014,

Text box 10.1: SDG indicator 11.1.1 – Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing (in percentages)

The proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing aims at documenting the limitations of people to the right to adequate housing. In Afghanistan, this indicator should be considered as a proxy to report on SDG indicators. ALCS 2016-17 recorded a national proportion of 72.4 percent of the urban population living in slums, while it was 73.8 in 2013-14, showing a slight improvement.

72.4 percent

10.3 Household amenities

Information on household amenities is important to understand the socio-economic conditions under which the population lives. ALCS 2016-17 was designed to collect a number of variables on household amenities such as the source of drinking water, access to drinking water, type of toilet facility, location of cooking facilities, type of used fuel for the purpose of cooking, heating and lighting and sources of electricity. All these aspects affect in a direct or indirect way the quality of life and the health status of household members. For instance, basic hygiene provided by safe drinking water and adequate sanitation are generally considered the most effective strategies to improve the health status of the population. Moreover, there is evidence that globally provision of adequate sanitation services, safe water supply and hygiene education represents an effective health intervention that reduces morbidity, mortality (particularly under-five mortality) and health costs. ALCS 2016-17 collected also relevant data on household assets, such as refrigerators, washing machines, cars, motorcycles, radio, TVs, mobile phones, internet connections owned by households. The sections below present information on only a limited number of household amenities. A complete analysis of the ALCS data on the housing sector would require more in-depth analysis, which goes beyond the purpose of this analysis report.

10.3.1 Water and sanitation

To enable global monitoring on drinking water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH)⁷, using official statistical data from countries, water and sanitation standards and norms are internationally developed by the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (JMP). The role of the JMP as the custodian of the SDG targets on drinking water (SDG target 6.1) and sanitation and hygiene (SDG target 6.2) has been recognised by the UN Inter-Agency & Expert Group on SDG Indicators, within the framework of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda. In continuity with the MDGs approach, data on water and sanitation are based on a classification of drinking water sources and sanitation facilities into improved and unimproved types. SDG targets added new information on service levels, slightly revised the classification of improved drinking water sources and further classified improved facilities into three categories: 'limited', 'basic' and 'safely managed' services. ALCS 2016-17 used the latest revised classifications and methods of computation of the indicators (WHO and UNICEF 2017), and implemented a first pilot exercise in ten Afghan provinces to measure the quality of drinking water consumed by household members. The pilot exercise was supported by UNICEF Afghanistan (see the sub-section on water quality below). SDG 6 calls on countries to *Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all* and includes target 6.1 (*By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all*) and target 6.2 (*By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations*).

the urban slum population in Afghanistan was 62.7 percent. This was probably due to the use of different population estimates.

7 www.washdata.org

The ALCS 2016-17 data were used for the first time to produce the official SDG indicators for Afghanistan that assess:

- the proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services; and
- the proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services.

These indicators should be regarded as robust estimates for the proportion of the Afghan population using improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities, and as proxy indicators in terms of availability of safely managed services in the country.

Drinking water

As mentioned above, the ALCS 2016-17 reports on the SDG indicator 6.1.1 (*Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services*), applying the newly developed categories for monitoring drinking water services: safely managed, basic, limited, unimproved, no service (see *Text box 10.2*).

Table 10.6 shows that overall only 36.0 percent of the Afghan population is using safely managed drinking water services, with huge disparities among population groups. People that live in rural areas and the Kuchi population have much less facilities – 25.1 and 3.9 percent, respectively – compared to the urban population (75.3 percent), for access to safely managed drinking water services. If water contamination is considered, these levels will reduce further and disparities among population groups will probably increase.

Table 10.6: Population, by residence, and by drinking-water service (in percentages)

Residence	Safely managed ^a	Basic services	Limited services	Un-improved	No service	Total
Total	36.0	26.6	1.3	22.1	14.1	100.0
Urban	75.3	15.6	0.5	4.8	3.7	100.0
Rural	25.1	30.2	1.3	26.6	16.8	100.0
Kuchi	3.0	28.5	4.3	40.4	23.8	100.0

^a Proxy indicator for drinking water from improved water sources located on premises, not considering water availability and eventual contamination assessed prior to its use by household members.

Text box 10.2: Classification of drinking water services

The WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (JMP) developed a new classification of drinking water services, based on several criteria:

- *Improved or unimproved type of drinking water source.* An improved drinking water source classification that has been refined over time. Improved sources are those that have the potential to deliver safe water by nature of their design and construction. These include piped supplies and non-piped supplies (such as boreholes, protected wells and springs, rainwater and packaged or delivered water, e.g. by tanker trucks). Unimproved drinking water sources that do not protect against contamination are unprotected springs and wells. The category 'no service' identifies surface water, such as rivers, streams, irrigation channels and lakes.
- *Accessibility on the premises*
- *Time required to collect drinking water, including queuing*
- *Availability when needed*
- *Absence of contamination*

Combining these criteria provides a graded classification of drinking water services, with the following categories:

Service level	Definition
Safely managed	Drinking water from an improved water source that is located on premises, available when needed and free from faecal and priority chemical contamination
Basic	Drinking water from an improved source, provided collection time is not more than 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing
Limited	Drinking water from an improved source for which collection time exceeds 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing
Unimproved	Drinking water from an unprotected dug well or unprotected spring
No service	Drinking water directly from a river, dam, lake, pond, stream, canal or irrigation canal

The proportion of population with access to the highest category of drinking water services – safely managed services – is the SDG indicator 6.1.1 for drinking water. This indicator is far more ambitious than the previous MDG indicator related to drinking water, which only referred to the access to improved sources of drinking water, corresponding to the categories of 'basic' and 'limited' services in the new classification.

Text box 10.3: SDG indicator 6.1.1 – Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services (in percentages)⁸

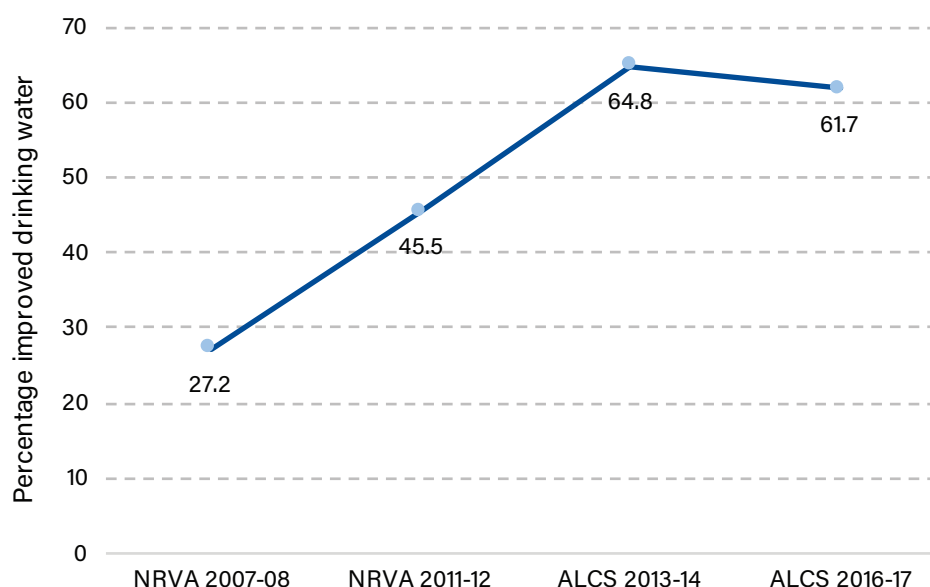
The 'Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services' is a new SDG indicator that aims at measuring and monitoring access to safe water in a more effective way in comparison to the approach followed by the MDG system, where the focus was on the improved and unimproved drinking water sources.

Afghanistan	36.0
Urban	75.3
Rural	25.1
Kuchi	3.0

⁸ The JMP estimated in 2015 that the proportion of the Afghan population with access to at least basic drinking water services was about 63 percent (www.washdata.org/data#!/afg). The corresponding percentage in the ALCS 2016-17 is 62.6 if the 'Safely managed' share is added to the proportion of 'Basic Services' (Table 11.6).

Regarding the sources of drinking water, ALCS 2016-17 estimates that 63.9 percent of the Afghan population has access to improved drinking water. This implies a slight, but statistically significant decrease in comparison to the figure estimated from the ALCS 2013-14 (66.4 percent).⁹ Previous NRVA and ALCS surveys showed continuous and strong improvements in terms of access to improved drinking water (*Figure 10.5*) and the present survey is the first that can not report any further improvement.

Figure 10.5: Proportion of population with access to improved drinking water, by survey (in percentages)^a



^a The graph shows the calculation of access to improved drinking water according to the definition applied in previous survey rounds – i.e. excluding tanker trucks from the category of improved drinking water sources – to maintain comparability.

In terms of type of water sources, hand pumps are the most used in the country among the protected sources, while wells and surface water are the most used sources among the unprotected types. The latter sources are particularly used by the Kuchi population. Piped water is almost non-existing in rural areas, where water is mainly collected from hand pumps, wells and springs. More than 40 percent of the population living in rural areas collects water from unimproved sources. This becomes more than 60 percent among Kuchi people (*Table 10.7*).

Table 10.7: Population, by residence, and by type of drinking water source (in percentages)

Residence	Piped into		Public tap	Hand pump	Spring or kariz		Well		Surface water	Tanker truck	Other	Total
	dwelling	compound			Protected	Unprotected	Protected	Unprotected				
Total	2.9	7.3	5.4	33.7	3.4	9.7	8.9	12.3	12.3	2.2	1.8	100.0
Urban	8.7	21.6	3.9	45.1	0.4	0.2	7.0	4.6	1.5	4.8	2.2	100.0
Rural	1.2	3.0	6.3	30.5	4.5	11.8	10.0	14.7	15.3	1.1	1.5	100.0
Kuchi	0.1	0.0	0.1	24.8	2.3	25.4	3.0	15.0	20.9	5.5	2.9	100.0

On average, households spend 9 minutes on collecting water from their water source. The round trip collection time is only 2 minutes for the urban population, but becomes 10 minutes in rural areas and 28 minutes for Kuchi people. Lack of indoor-piped water affects women and children disproportionately, considering that it is generally their responsibility to collect water. The average water-collection time hides a substantial variation at the provincial level, where the long distance to reach and return from the source of drinking water is often the cause of water contamination. Almost 25 percent of Kuchi population collect water from a long distance (*Table 10.8*).

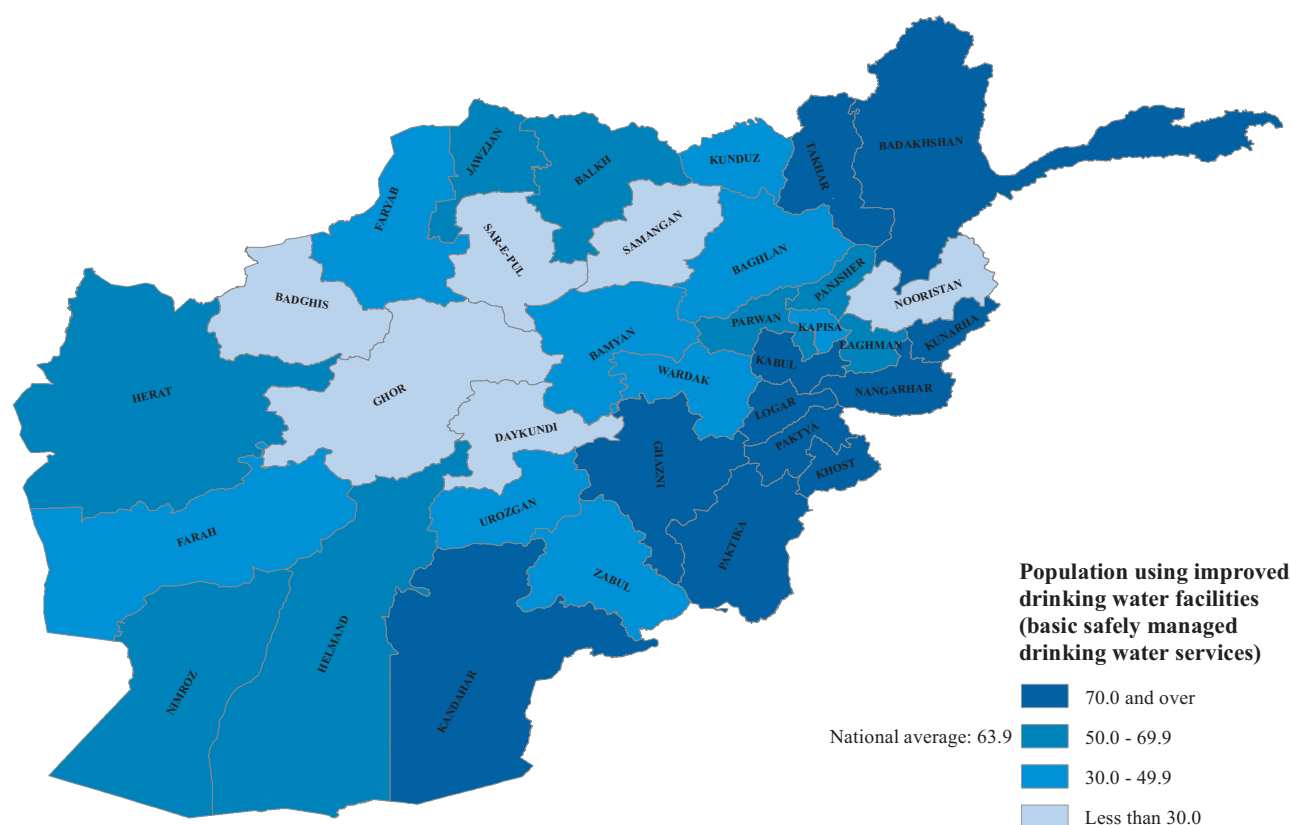
⁹ The figure 64.8 percent published in the ALCS 2013-14 Analysis Report did not included the source 'Tanker trucks', which is now considered an improved drinking water source by the SDG indicator.

Table 10.8: Households, by residence, and by return time to collect drinking water (in percentages)

Residence	0-30 minutes	More than 30 minutes	Total
Total	95.5	4.5	100.0
Urban	99.4	0.6	100.0
Rural	95.5	4.5	100.0
Kuchi	76.3	23.7	100.0

Large differences are observed between provinces, especially if we consider the areas of Kabul, its surroundings and the areas of the main cities, where most of the population has access to safe water. The access to safe water ranges from 9 to 30 percent in Samangan, Daykundi, Sar-e-Pul, Nooristan, Badgis and Ghor to more than 70 percent in Khost, Takhar, Logar, Kunarha, Ghazni, Paktika, Badakhshan, Kandahar, Nangarhar, Paktya and Kabul. In more rural and underdeveloped provinces, drinking water sources are scarcer, especially among Kuchi communities (Figure 10.6).

Figure 10.6: Percentage of population using improved drinking water sources, by province



Water quality

Safe drinking water is a basic human right and a requirement for good health. Hundreds of species of protozoa, bacteria and viruses can cause disease in humans. Many of these are transmitted through the faecal-oral pathway. Rather than monitor the presence of individual pathogens, faecal indicators are used to identify contamination. The bacteria species *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) is the most commonly recommended faecal indicator, and, following WHO guidelines, many countries – including Afghanistan – have set a standard that no *E. coli* should be found in a 100 mL sample of drinking water.

A water quality testing module was piloted in the last five months of the ALCS 2016-17 in ten of the 34 Afghan provinces,¹⁰ aiming to collect data on the quality of water consumed. The test involved checking for faecal indicator bacteria *E. coli* in drinking water. See *Text box 10.4* for the methodology that was applied in this water quality test. Taking the limited number of households and provinces involved in the test into consideration, the related findings are only indicative and not representative at national and provincial levels.

Text box 10.4: Water test methodology

The water quality testing was carried out in 307 clusters sampled for this survey. Three households were randomly selected from among the 10 households interviewed per cluster, with a total of 896 test results from household drinking water and 816 tests from a household's source of drinking water. With UNICEF support, the drinking water laboratory staff from the Ministry of Public Health and the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development trained the survey teams while CSO teams conducted field visits as part of the quality assurance for the water quality module.

Presence of *E. coli* in drinking water was assessed by filtering 100 mL of water through a 0.45 micron membrane filter (Millipore Microfil®) using a new low-cost filtration apparatus. The membrane filter was then placed on to Compact Dry *E. coli* growth media plates (Nissui). Incubation was achieved using specially-designed phase-changing incubators (developed by the University of Bristol, UK) to maintain a temperature of $\geq 30^{\circ}\text{C}$ even during the night. After 24 hours, the number of blue colonies, signifying the presence of *E. coli* colony forming units (cfu) were recorded and classified into the following risk categories: low risk (<1 per 100 mL), medium risk (1-10 per 100 mL), high risk (11-100 per 100 mL) and very high risk (>100 per 100 mL). If there were more than 100 colonies on the plate and in cases where the plate turned blue/green, this would be recorded as '101' to indicate 'too numerous to count'. The samples of household drinking water were taken from a glass of water members of the household usually drink. However, in case of source samples, water was first collected in sterile Whirl-Pak® bags (Enasco).

Table 10.9 reports the levels of contamination of drinking water obtained from the water source. Overall, 58.1 percent of drinking water sources were found to be contaminated with *E. coli*, with 27.0 percent considered as high or very high risk. Households using improved drinking water sources, including piped water and boreholes, were most likely to use a water source that was free from contamination. Faecal contamination was found in almost half of the improved sources used by households. Two out of three rural and Kuchi households (67.0 percent) in the ten provinces used water from a source that was contaminated (Table 10.9 and Figure 10.7).

10 Provinces included in the water quality pilot were Kabul, Kapisa, Nangarhar, Khost, Badakhshan, Samangan, Balkh, Daykundi, Kandahar and Herat.

Table 10.9: Households in selected provinces, by selected background variables, and by risk level of faecal contamination based on number of *E. coli* detected in source drinking water (in percentages)

Background variable	Risk level based on number of <i>E. coli</i> per 100 mL					Percentage of households with <i>E. coli</i> in source water
	Low <1	Medium 1-10	High 11-100	Very high >100	Very high >100	
Total (10 provinces)	42.0	31.1	20.2	6.8	100.0	58.1
Residence						
Urban	54.5	30.9	10.5	4.1	100.0	45.5
Rural and Kuchi	33.1	31.0	27.1	8.9	100.0	67.0
Type of drinking water source						
Piped	61.1	30.1	7.7	1.1	100.0	38.9
Boreholes	50.8	33.0	12.9	3.3	100.0	49.2
Protected wells and springs	33.5	22.0	41.3	3.2	100.0	66.5
Unprotected wells and springs	21.4	35.8	32.5	10.3	100.0	78.6
Surface water	1.9	9.8	48.4	39.9	100.0	98.2
Other	13.3	60.2	15.6	10.9	100.0	86.7
Drinking water source						
Improved	51.1	31.1	15.3	2.5	100.0	48.9
Unimproved	15.9	30.9	34.3	18.9	100.0	84.1
Sanitation facility						
Improved	48.8	28.2	15.9	7.1	100.0	51.2
Unimproved	28.3	36.3	28.9	6.5	100.0	71.7

In many households, water quality was found to deteriorate between collection from the water source and consumption within the home. Figure 10.7 shows that the proportion of households with *E. coli* detected in their drinking water increased between the source of drinking water (58.1 percent) and the glass within the home (76.9 percent). The largest increase was detected in the high level of contamination (11-100 *E. coli* per 100 mL) and likely reflects contamination during water storage and handling.

Figure 10.7: Water sources and households in selected provinces, by level of *E. coli* in drinking water (in percentages)

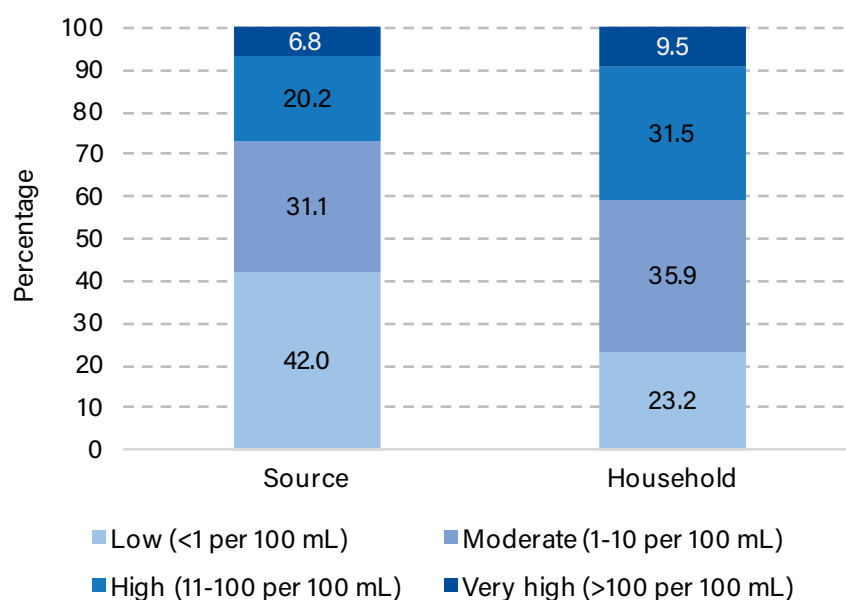


Table 10.10 reports the levels of contamination of drinking water obtained from a glass of water in the home. This reflects the quality of drinking water prior to consumption by household members. Drinking water from improved sources was often found to be contaminated by the time it is used within the home – just 23.2 percent was free from contamination. The majority of rural and Kuchi households (84.2 percent) and around two thirds of urban households (67.1 percent) were found to drink water that contained *E. coli*.

Table 10.10: Households in selected provinces, by selected background variables, and by risk level of faecal contamination based on number of *E. coli* detected in household drinking water (in percentages)^a

Background variable	Risk level based on number of <i>E. coli</i> per 100 mL					Percentage of households with <i>E. coli</i> in HH drinking water
	Low <1	Medium 1-10	High 11-100	Very high >100	Very high >100	
Total (10 provinces)	23.2	35.9	31.5	9.5	100.0	76.9
Residence						
Urban	32.9	39.1	21.5	6.5	100.0	67.1
Rural and Kuchi	15.9	33.4	38.9	11.8	100.0	84.2
Type of drinking water source						
Piped	38.3	40.6	15.9	5.2	100.0	61.7
Boreholes	25.4	42.2	26.7	5.7	100.0	74.6
Protected wells and springs	14.0	36.3	40.1	9.6	100.0	86.0
Unprotected wells and springs	15.1	25.3	47.6	12.0	100.0	84.9
Surface water	0.0	11.1	52.7	36.2	100.0	100.0
Other	10.0	38.4	42.4	9.2	100.0	90.0
Drinking water source						
Improved	27.6	40.7	25.9	5.8	100.0	72.4
Unimproved	11.1	22.9	46.6	19.3	100.0	88.9
Sanitation facility						
Improved	28.7	37.7	25.1	8.5	100.0	71.3
Unimproved	12.1	32.3	43.9	11.7	100.0	87.9

^a The sum of cells may not add up to 100.0 percent due to rounding of figures.

As mentioned above, the global indicator for tracking progress towards the SDG drinking water target (SDG 6.1) is *use of safely managed drinking water services*, defined as an improved drinking water source that is accessible on premises, available when needed and free from contamination. For the selected households in the ten provinces where the water quality test was conducted, the ALCS 2016-17 recorded whether households used sources located on premises, whether water sources provided sufficient water every day in the last month and, as described above, included direct measurement of microbiological quality of drinking water at both the source and the household level.

Table 10.11 and Figure 10.8 combine information on the location, availability and quality of drinking water for the ten provinces of Afghanistan where the test was conducted. In these provinces, 68.2 percent of households used a water service that was located within the dwelling or in the household's yard or plot ("accessible on premises") and 54.0 percent used a water service that was available in sufficient quantities during the last month ("available when needed"). Only 41.8 percent of households used a water source in which *E. coli* were not detected ("free from contamination"). Taken together the findings from the ALCS pilot show that just two out of ten households (21.0 percent) used safely managed services. Households in urban areas (36.7 percent) were more likely to use a water service that is safely managed compared with rural and Kuchi households (10.1 percent), in particular due to insufficient drinking water or water found to be contaminated with *E. coli*. The estimate of 21.0 percent of the households is a first attempt to estimate the proportion of the population using a safely managed drinking water service in Afghanistan, fully in line with the criteria established by the JMP for the SDG target 6.1. Such value is, however, not representative for the current ALCS round and it is obviously lower than the value estimated in the ALCS 2016-17 (36.0 percent), since the latter is not considering the quality of the water actually consumed by households in their housing units.

Figure 10.8: Percentage of households in selected provinces using improved drinking water sources, with water accessible on premises, available when needed, free from faecal contamination and safely managed

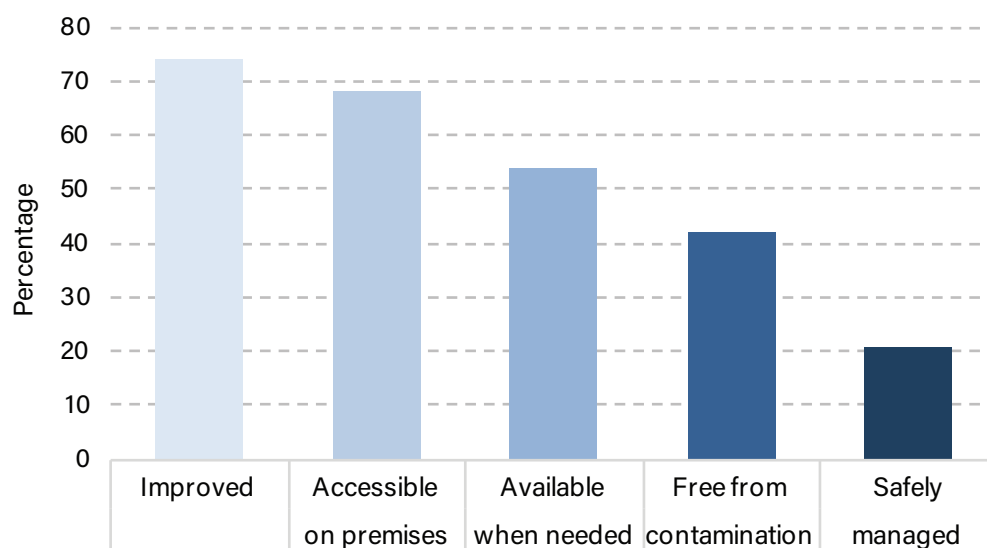


Table 10.11: Percentage of households in selected provinces that meet criteria of drinking water that is (a) improved, (b) accessible on premises, (c) available when needed, (d) free from faecal contamination and (e) safely managed, by residence

Residence	a. Improved	b. Accessible on premises	c. Available when needed	d. Free from contamination	e. Safely managed
Total (10 provinces)	74.0	68.0	54.0	41.8	21.0
Urban	91.8	73.4	84.4	54.5	36.7
Rural and Kuchi	61.6	64.3	32.8	33.1	10.1

Sanitation

Improved sanitation and the elimination of open defecation are among the key prerequisites for poverty alleviation and sustainable development in developing countries. Safe disposal of human excreta creates the first barrier to excreta-related diseases, helping to reduce transmission through direct and indirect – for example, animal and insect – routes. Globally, in 2015, about 5 billion people used an improved sanitation facility not shared with other households (basic sanitation services), while 600 million people (8 percent of the world population) used improved shared facilities. Many countries, including Afghanistan, remain far removed from covering at least 50 percent of the population with access to basic sanitation services.

The SDG 6 (*Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all*) includes an indicator for measuring the access to adequate sanitation and hygiene. This indicator 6.2.1 (*the proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services*) applies a stricter definition of adequate sanitation than the preceding MDG indicator related to sanitation. To be classified as adequate – ‘safely managed’ – services, households must use an improved sanitation facility that is not shared and where excreta are either safely disposed in situ or removed and treated off-site. This type of sanitation can be distinguished from lower levels of sanitation services. *Text box 10.5* defines the different levels of sanitation services and the criteria used to distinguish the categories.

Text box 10.5: Classification of sanitation service

The international classification of sanitation services, as recommended by the JMP, applies several criteria to identify the level of sanitation service provided.

- *Improved or unimproved type of sanitation facility.* An improved sanitation facility is defined as one that hygienically separates human excreta from human contact. These facilities include wet sanitation technologies (flush and pour flush toilets connecting to sewers, septic tanks or pit latrines) and dry sanitation technologies (ventilated improved pit latrines, pit latrines with slabs and composting toilets).
- *Sharing sanitation facilities with other households.* Having access to a private sanitation facility provides better service than sharing a facility with other households.
- *Management of excreta.* Excreta are safely managed if they are either safely disposed in situ or removed and treated off-site.

Combining these criteria provides a graded classification of sanitation services, with the following categories:

Service level	Definition
Safely managed	Use of an improved sanitation facility, not shared with other households, and where excreta are safely disposed in situ or transported and treated offsite
Basic	Use of an improved facility not shared with other households
Limited	Use of an improved facility shared between two or more households
Unimproved	Use of an unimproved source that does not protect against contamination
Open defecation	No service; human excreta disposed of in fields, forests, bushes, open bodies of water, beaches or other open spaces or disposed of with solid waste

The MDG indicator for 'improved sanitation' corresponds to the category of basic sanitation service in this classification. The SDG indicator 6.2.1 related to sanitation (*the proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services*) adds another level by taking into account the final disposal of excreta.

The ALCS 2016-17 captured information that allows calculating the proportions of the population using basic, limited and unimproved¹¹ sanitation services and the proportion without services (open defecation). *Table 10.12* provides the distribution of the population according to these levels of sanitation services. Information to calculate the proportion using safely managed sanitation services – used in the SDG indicator for sanitation – is not available.

Table 10.12 shows that 41.4 percent of the population uses basic sanitation services – improved facilities, not shared with other households – and 52.9 percent uses either basic or limited services – improved sanitation facilities, either shared or not shared. Applying the criteria of improved sanitation and shared facilities (see Text box 10.5) to the data from the previous ALCS, this latter figure suggests strong improvement in the access to improved sanitation services, up from 39.0 in 2013-14. As shown in Table 10.12, the national figure conceals large variation by residence, as the corresponding figures are as high as 83.2 percent for the urban population, 46.1 percent for the rural population and as low as 7.4 percent for Kuchis.

¹¹ In line with JMP definitions, improved types of sanitation facilities in the ALCS 2016-17 include covered pit latrines, ventilated improved pit latrines, flush toilets connected to a sewer system, to a septic tank or to a pit, and vault latrines. Unimproved sanitation facilities include uncovered pit latrines, open defecation and flush toilets and other facilities that do not ensure hygienic separation of human excreta from human contact.

Table 10.12: Proportion of population, by residence, and by level of sanitation service (in percentages)^a

Residence	Safely managed ^b	Basic	Limited	Un-improved	Open defecation	Total
Total	36.0	26.6	1.3	22.1	14.1	100.0
Urban	75.3	15.6	0.5	4.8	3.7	100.0
Rural	25.1	30.2	1.3	26.6	16.8	100.0
Kuchi	3.0	28.5	4.3	40.4	23.8	100.0

^a The sum of cells may not add up to 100.0 percent due to rounding of figures.

^b Data not available

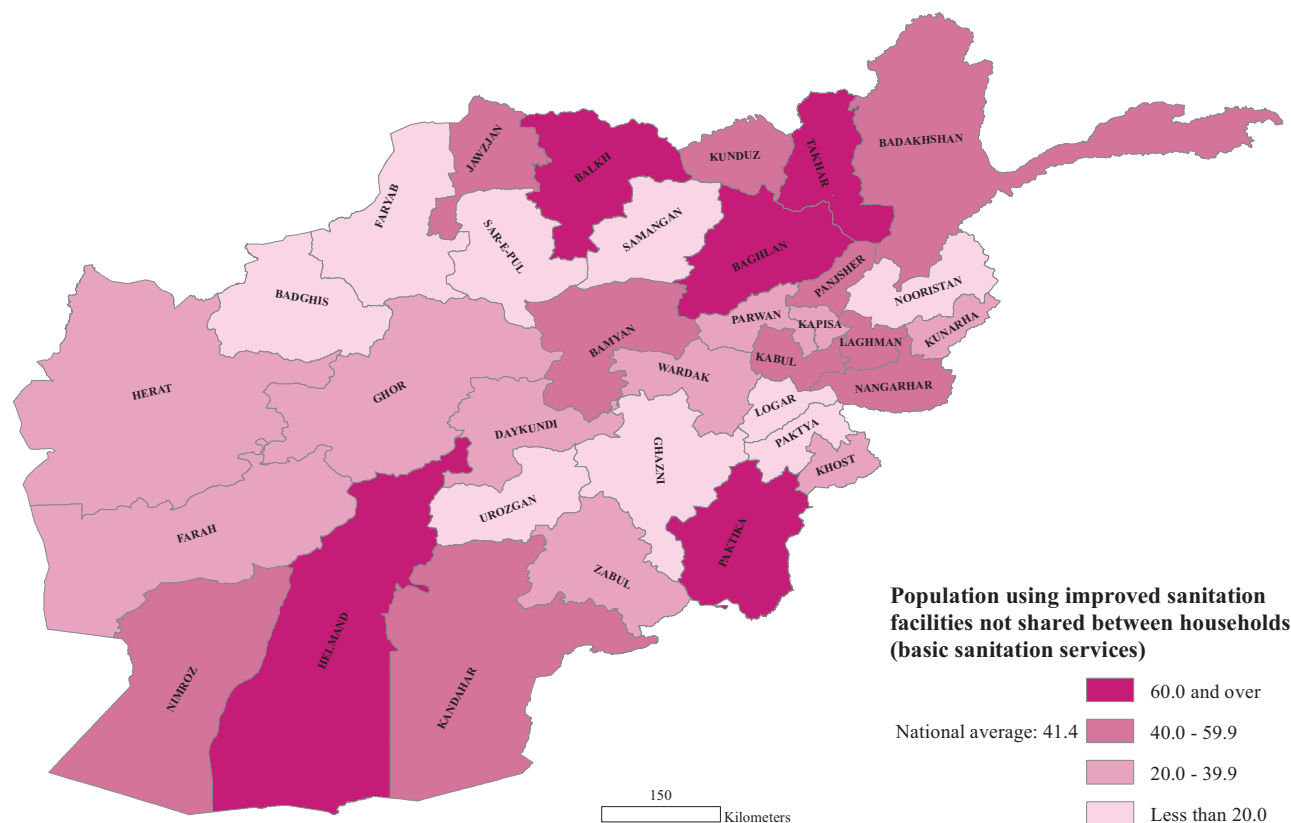
In the absence of information about management of human excreta, the proportion of the population that uses basic sanitation services is used as a proxy for the SDG indicator 6.2.1 (*Text box 10.6*). Overall, 56.5 percent of the urban population has access to basic sanitation services, compared to 38.3 percent of the population in rural areas. Results by province also show large differences. In nine provinces, less than 20 percent of the population has access to basic sanitation services and in ten provinces this proportion is higher but still below the national average of 41.4 percent. Only in the provinces of Balkh, Baghlan, Paktika, Takhar and Helmand, the percentages are more than 60 percent (*Figure 10.9*). In Kabul, the population with basic sanitation services is almost 50 percent.

Text box 10.6: Proxy indicator for SDG indicator 6.2.1 – Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services (in percentages)

ALCS 2016-17 provides information on basic sanitation services (use of improved facilities not shared with other households). The computation of the proportion of the population using safely managed sanitation facilities requires data on excreta disposal, which is not covered in this ALCS round.

Afghanistan	41.4
Urban	56.5
Rural	38.8
Kuchi	6.7

Figure 10.9: Percentage of population using improved sanitation facilities not shared with other households, by province



The most commonly used sanitation facilities in Afghanistan are open pit latrines (29.5 percent, 41.8 percent in 2013-14) and covered pit latrines (14.5 percent, 26.3 percent in 2013-14), while flush toilets are used only by 11.8 percent of the population (9.5 in 2013-14) (*Table 10.13*). There are distinct differences between urban and rural areas. In rural areas, for instance, almost 36 percent of the population uses open pit latrines (50.5 percent in 2013-14), while 33.7 of the urban households use flush toilets connected to a septic tank. Almost none of the Kuchi population has access to any sanitation facility. Open defecation covers 13.6 percent of the Afghan population at the national level.

Table 10.13: Population, by main toilet facility, and by residence (in percentages)

Main toilet facility	Urban	Rural	Kuchi	Total
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Pit latrine - with slab / covered pit	8.7	17.2	2.8	14.5
Pit latrine - without slab / open pit	15.1	35.9	7.4	29.5
Ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrine	13.7	6.9	0.0	8.2
Flush to piped sewer system	4.5	0.6	0.0	1.5
Flush/pour flush toilet to septic tank	33.7	1.1	0.0	8.8
Flush/pour flush toilet to pit	4.1	0.3	0.0	1.2
Flush/pour flush toilet to elsewhere	0.7	0.1	0.0	0.2
Single/double vault - with urine diversion	10.5	7.3	0.5	7.7
Single/double vault - without urine diversion	7.9	12.9	4.3	11.3
No facility - open field, bush	0.5	13.3	80.7	13.6
Other	0.4	4.4	4.3	3.5

10.3.2 Other household amenities

In addition to water and sanitation, the status of other household amenities reflects the household's quality of life as well. For instance, electric lights enable more reading, education and home production; new fuels and improved stoves provide a cleaner environment and better health; better conditions for cooking reduces women domestic drudgery and increases the time devoted to other activities; access to information and technology produce benefits to human development and is supportive for education and gender equality and instrumental to the implementation of development policies at national and local levels.

Road access

In Afghanistan, many rural and remote areas are cut off from markets and public services, and thus from economic opportunities, which lock many Afghan households in low-productivity activities and poverty. Experience from other countries shows that investment in primary and secondary rural roads tends to have positive effects on private sector productivity, poverty reduction, school enrolment, access to health services and economic growth. Better rural infrastructure also facilitates women's free movements and can lead to better women's empowerment.

The ALCS 2016-17 reported that at national level almost 30 percent of people have no access to any drivable road in their communities. Since almost all the households living in urban areas can access a drivable road close to their dwellings, such percentage refers almost only to the rural and Kuchi populations.

The '*proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road*' is the SDG indicator for the target 9.1 (*develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure, including regional and trans-border infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all*) of the SDG 9 (*Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation*). Its value is provided below for at national level, confirming that an important number of the Afghanistan rural communities are substantially isolated from the rest of the country.

Text box 10.7: SDG indicator 9.1.1 – Proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road (in percentages)

ALCS 2016-17 collected information from the sampled rural and Kuchi clusters about the nearest drivable road that could be accessed during all seasons. The computation of this indicator concerned all communities who reported the possibility to access at least one drivable road within a distance of two kilometres.

Rural and Kuchi: 63.1 percent

The SDG indicator 9.1.1 is generally derived from household surveys, even though recent experience has showed that the concept of 'all season road' is well-reported at national level, but difficult to be used to guide national roads investment planning. New methodologies are being investigated worldwide that make use of spatial datasets i) to identify the locations of urban communities, ii) to map street networks and iii) to collect information on their characteristics. The use of Geographic Information System (GIS) tools promises to be a valid tool for integrating the above mentioned three components.

In 2012, the Afghanistan Rural Access Project (ARAP) supported by the World Bank, started to experiment this new approach in Afghanistan, as a follow-on project to the National Rural Access Program, launched by the Government of Afghanistan in 2003 to support the rehabilitation of rural infrastructure and livelihoods. ARAP's development objective is to assist the government in enabling rural communities to benefit from all-season road access to basic services and facilities through the rehabilitation and maintenance of rural access infrastructure. The project is implemented by two agencies: the Ministry of Public Works (MPW) and the Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development (MRRD). Data provided by ARAP estimate that the share of rural population with access to an all-season road was 63.0 percent in October 2016;¹² thus confirming the robustness of the ALCS 2016-17 results.

12 <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/383031498491607403/pdf/ISR-Disclosable-P125961-06-26-2017-1498491590429.pdf>, page 5.

Sources of electricity

Lack of access to electricity profoundly limits economic development, constrains people's life chances and enhances poverty. Data from NRVA and ALCS surveys show that the proportion of Afghan households with access to electricity has strongly increased since 2007-08, and is still increasing. Starting from 42.4 percent, as reported by NRVA 2007-08, it covered 69.1 percent of all households in 2011-12, 89.5 percent in 2013-14 and now reached almost 97.7 percent. There are only marginal differences in coverage between urban and rural households (*Table 10.14*). However, the Kuchi population has access to electricity for only 86.1 percent.

Table 10.14 Population, by residence, and by access to different sources of electricity in the last month (in percentages)

Residence	Any source	Electric grid	Governm. generator	Private generator	Private dynamo	Community generator	Community dynamo	Solar	Wind	Battery
Total	97.7	30.9	0.2	1.4	1.0	0.5	6.7	59.4	0.5	10.8
Urban	99.5	91.9	0.5	4.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	15.7	0.2	7.9
Rural	97.8	12.7	0.1	0.6	1.4	0.7	9.3	73.2	0.6	11.3
Kuchi	86.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	70.8	0.3	17.1

The current SDG indicator 7.1.1 of the proportion of population with access to electricity shows that for Afghanistan access to electricity is nowadays provided for almost all households (*Text box 10.8*). However, the presence of an electricity connection in the Afghan household does not necessarily guarantee that the energy supplied is adequate in quality and reliability or affordable in cost, and it would be desirable to have more comprehensive information about the actual use of electricity.

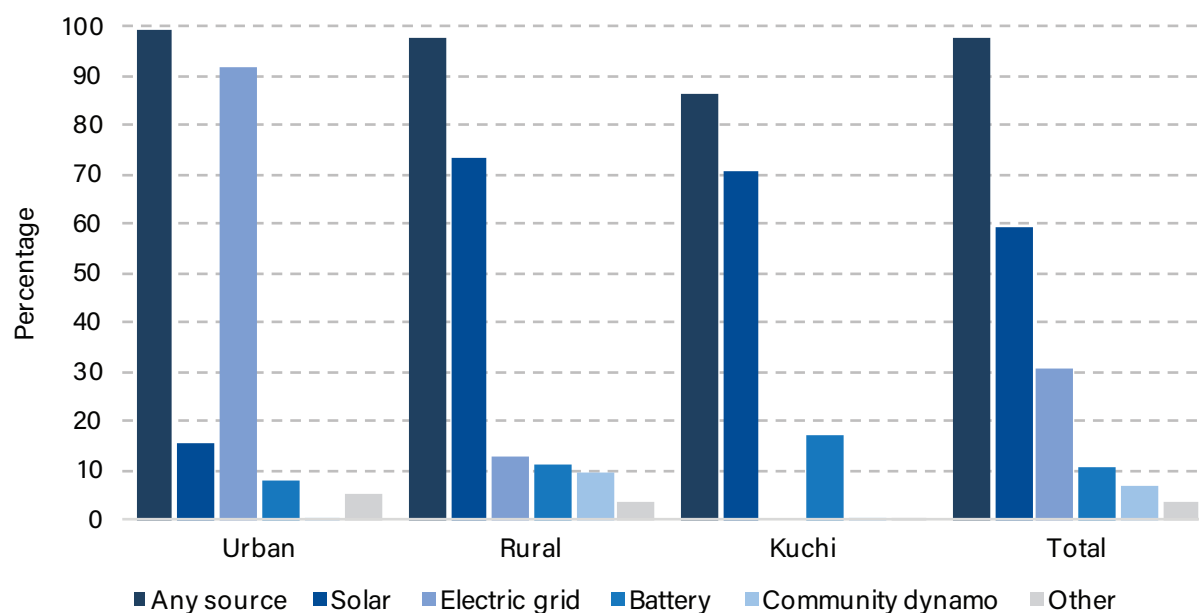
Text box 10.8: SDG indicator 7.1.1 – Proportion of population with access to electricity (in percentages)

The *proportion of population with access to electricity* is one of the SDG indicators for the target 7.1 (by 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services) for the achievement of the SDG 7 (Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all). This indicator addresses major critical issues in all the dimensions of sustainable development, including the improvement of living conditions of household members and the support for income generation of household-based activities.

Afghanistan	97.7
Urban	99.5
Rural	97.8
Kuchi	86.1

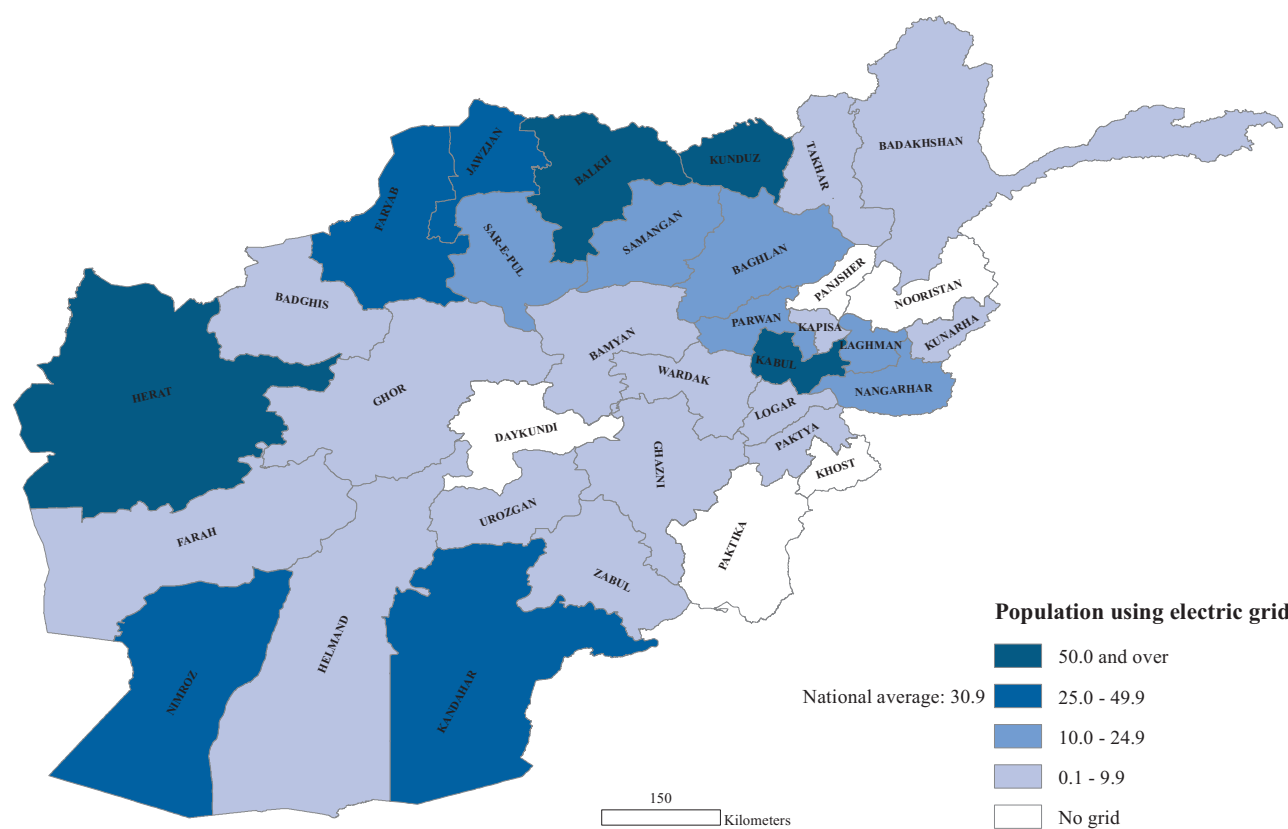
The rapid progress on access to electricity was possible thanks to the contribution of solar energy that has provided many Afghan households with electricity, especially in rural areas and among Kuchi communities. In the last three years, the proportion of rural and Kuchi population using solar energy has increased by 13 and 12 percentage points, respectively. The spread of solar power is a remarkable success story: NRVA 2007-08 recorded 2 percent of households with solar panels, NRVA 2011-12 recorded 22 percent, ALCS 2013-14 recorded 48 percent and solar energy is now used by 59.4 percent of the population at national level and by 73.2 and 70.8 percent by rural and Kuchi people, respectively. The electric grid is used by 30.9 percent of the population, a figure that has increased by 5 percentage points in a five years period (from 26 percent in 2011-12). This is the primary source of electrical power in urban areas, being used by 91.9 percent of inhabitants, compared to the rural areas where only 12.7 percent of people used this source. Batteries, being a moveable source, are important for the nomadic Kuchi, but their use is decreasing. Dynamos are mainly used in rural communities, while generators – either private or from the community or the government – are becoming rarely used (*Figure 10.10*).

Figure 10.10: Percentage of population with access to different sources of electricity, by residence



At provincial level, only in Paktika the percentage of households not using any kind of electricity is slightly below 90 percent. The households in the other provinces have access to electricity in a proportion between 90 and 100 percent. Solar energy is used by households in all provinces with highest prevalence in rural areas but with limited use in the provinces where the main Afghan cities are located. For instance, only 12.9 percent of households are using solar energy in Kabul province. On the other hand, large variations exist between provinces with regard to access of households to the national electric grid. *Figure 10.11* shows that only in four provinces at least 50 percent of households can connect to an electric grid (88.9 percent in Kabul province), and that in another four provinces this percentage is between 25 and 50 percent. The other provinces have only limited connection, with the exception of households located in towns. In the provinces of Daykundi, Paktika, Khost, Panjsher and Nooristan, no electric grid is available. Households living in these provinces can at least partially satisfy their electricity needs by making use of solar panels or dynamos.

Figure 10.11: Percentage of population with access to the electric grid, by province



Fuel for cooking, heating and lighting

While fuel used by households for lighting purposes is generally from clean sources, cooking and heating fuels have aroused increasing interest over the past twenty-five years, because wood harvesting has caused extensive deforestation, and because wood and charcoal burning produces greenhouse gases, that contribute to global warming. Moreover, cooking with biomass fuels on open fires also causes significant health problems. 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 on the presence of household members at home. Solid fuels such as wood, charcoal, crop residues or animal dung continues to be used by many households worldwide, for cooking and heating. Consequently, the household air pollution caused by such solid fuels is responsible for an important number of deaths and disabilities (WHO 2014).

The SDG indicator 7.1.2 (*Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology*) focuses on a new approach to monitor environmental and health risk factors (Bonjour et al. 2013). The aim is not only to identify and discourage the use of solid fuels, but also to consider how fuels interact with the household members and with the housing space, and which type of the technology is used for cooking, heating and lightening. The use of inefficient fuels for cooking is, for instance, a recurrent cause of death mainly among women and children in housing units. Given the importance of supporting the use of clean and safe household energy, the ALCS 2016-17 collected data on the use of solid and non-solid fuels.¹³

13 Solid fuels include biomass fuels, such as bushes, wood, charcoal, crops or other agricultural waste, animal dung and coal. Non-solid fuels include electricity and gas.

Text box 10.9: SDG indicator 7.1.2 – Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (in percentages)

The proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology is a second SDG indicator for the target 7.1 (by 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services), for the SDG 7. It is calculated as the percentage of population using clean fuels and technologies for cooking, heating and lighting. WHO Guidelines for indoor air quality highlight the importance of addressing both fuel and the technology for adequately protecting public health of households. However, the proportion of non-solid fuels, indicated as 'clean fuels' is also accepted as a valid measure to estimate safe fuel combustion in household environment

Cooking	25.2
Heating	4.2
Lighting	98.1

Table 10.15 shows the percentages of the population using solid and non-solid fuels, or no fuels at all, at national level and disaggregated by urban, rural and for the Kuchi population. Data show that in Afghanistan the use of solid fuels continues to be very common for cooking and heating, confirming the 76 and 95 percent, respectively, observed in the ALCS 2013-14. Lighting is derived almost completely from electricity and gas. A substantial proportion of Kuchi people continues to have no access to heating in winter time (17.9 percent).

Table 10.15: Population, by residence, and by use of non-solid fuels for cooking, heating in winter and lighting (in percentages)

Residence	Non-solid fuel			No Heating	No Lighting
	Cooking	Heating	Lighting		
Total	25.2	4.2	98.1	2.1	0.4
Urban	79.1	11.9	99.8	1.1	0.1
Rural	9.0	1.9	98.2	1.3	0.3
Kuchi	1.1	0.6	87.7	17.9	2.4

Information and communication means

Information and communication technology (ICT) has an impact on many aspects of the development process of a country, for instance on economic development, human capacity, gender equality, health, environment and education. It has also relevance for everyday life of people. Telephones, computers and internet allow people to exchange experiences and learn from each other, they can contribute to promoting women's empowerment and can support progress in education and in the cultural and economic growth of communities living in less developed areas.

The latest data on ICT development from ITU (ITU 2017) show a global continued progress in connectivity and the use of ICTs. There has been sustained growth in the availability of communications in the past decade, led by growth in mobile cellular telephony and, more recently, in mobile broadband. Growth in fixed and mobile-broadband infrastructure has stimulated internet access and use. The number of mobile-cellular subscriptions worldwide now exceeds the global population, although many individuals, especially in developing countries, still do not use a mobile phone. The number of mobile-broadband subscriptions worldwide exceeds 50 per 100 inhabitants, enabling improved access to the internet and online services. There are substantial digital divides between countries and regions, and between developed and developing countries, particularly least-developed countries. More than half of all households worldwide now have access to the internet.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognises that ICTs are instrumental in advancing the SDGs. In line with the MDG targets, the SDG framework includes seven indicators, six targets and four SDGs that are ICT-related. The four SDGs are number 4, 5, 9, 17: *Quality education, Gender equality, Industry, innovation and infrastructure* and *Partnerships for the goals*, respectively. The ALCS 2016-17 collected data for the SDGs 5 and 17, providing information on individuals owning a mobile telephone and using the internet.

Text box 10.10: SDG indicator 5.b.1 – Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex (in percentages)

The *proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex* is a newly developed ITU indicator that was approved by the World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Symposium (WTIS) in 2014. It is related to the target 5.b (*Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women*) for the SDG 5 (*Gender equality*). Its main objective is to measure and monitor the use of mobile phones among different population groups and to track gender equality since the mobile phone is a personal device that provides women with a degree of independence and autonomy. However, ALCS 2016-17 does not provide sex-specific mobile phone use.

Afghanistan	43.3
Urban	60.2
Rural	38.4
Kuchi	24.8

Mobile cellular telephones are becoming the predominant method of communication in many countries. Its use is therefore a fundamental indicator of the information society. Mobile cellular subscribers refer to users of such telephones with either post-paid subscriptions or pre-paid accounts. The use of mobile phones in Afghanistan is still low by international standards, even though ALCS 2016-17 data show that 43.4 percent of the total Afghan population aged 15 years and over use mobile phones for communication or broadband connection. This indicator was computed based on the latest ITU recommendations (ITU 2017) and SDG Guidelines.¹⁴ The residence distribution of individuals using a mobile phone shows around 60 percent in urban areas, 39 percent in rural areas and 25 percent among Kuchis. There is also a geographical variation as some provinces – such as Kabul, Panjsher, Kapisa, Logar and Paktya – score above the national average, while others like Nooristan and Farah show much lower proportions.

When compared to ALCS 2013-14, which considered the total population instead of the age group 15 years and above (former MDG indicator 8.15), this indicator shows that there are now in Afghanistan 6 mobile phones more per 100 persons than three years ago. The figures have increased by 6 to 7 percentage points both in urban and rural areas, even though large differences persist between urban, rural and Kuchi populations.

Global data on the use of the internet show that the digital divide between more and less connected countries remains a challenge, which needs to be addressed if inclusive information societies are to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. Digital divides are also evident within countries, for example, between urban and rural areas and between age groups. In many countries, urban residents and young people are more likely to be online than rural dwellers and the elderly. Women are less likely than men to make use of the internet in most countries, but are more under-represented online in developing countries, particularly in least developed countries, than in developed countries.

ALCS 2016-17 confirms that the use of internet in Afghanistan is still reserved for a small group of the population. Only 1.0 percent of households in the country have an internet connection in the dwelling and only 3.9 percent of the population 15 years of age and over used the internet in the 12 months before the survey. This figure was higher for the urban and male population (11.8 and 6.4 percent, respectively) than for the rural and female population (1.5 and 1.3 percent, respectively). This indicator was computed based on the latest SDG definitions, using the persons aged 15 years and over as the reference population. Even though ITU recommends collecting data on the use of internet during the three months before the interview, the ALCS asked for its use in the past twelve months. At provincial level, only people from Kabul reported to make a noticeable use of the internet (on average 12 percent, 20 percent of males and 5 percent of females), while in most other provinces use is still negligible.

14 United Nations Statistics Division, SDG indicators, metadata repository: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata>, updated on 17 July 2017.

Text box 10.11: SDG indicator 17.8.1 – Proportion of individuals using the internet (in percentages)

The *proportion of individuals using the internet* is an indicator of target 17.8 (*Fully operationalize the technology bank and science, technology and innovation capacity-building mechanism for least developed countries by 2017 and enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology*) for the Goal 17 (*Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development*). The indicator has been defined by the ITU as the proportion of individuals who used the internet from any location in the last three months.

Afghanistan	3.9	Urban	10.8
Male	6.4	Rural	1.5
Female	1.3	Kuchi	0.2

To ensure comparability with the previous ALCS round, the same indicator was also calculated by reporting Afghan internet users to the total population (former MDG indicator 8.16). The results provided a figure of 2.0 percent at national level, showing therefore little progress in comparison to ALCS 2013-14 (1.2 percent). Even though the use of internet or mobile phones may have been underreported, especially for women, it is clear that the use of information and communications technology is extremely scarce in Afghanistan, with relevant consequences on the economic development of the country and on the human development of Afghan people.

11 HOUSEHOLD CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES

Summary. Household and community assessments depict challenging and uncertain living conditions for a majority of the households in Afghanistan. Around half (51 percent) of all households reported a deterioration of the economic situation of the household in the year before the survey, while only 12 percent mentioned an improvement. Urban households more often reported a deterioration (57 percent) than rural and Kuchi households (49 percent).

Household shocks – risk events with negative outcomes that are outside people’s direct control – were experienced by 59 percent of households in the year preceding the ALCS 2016-17. With 64 percent, urban households more often experienced such shocks than rural households (56 percent), but less often than Kuchi households (68 percent). Urban households were particularly affected by household-specific shocks, such as bankruptcy, unemployment or loss of salary. Rural households particularly experienced shocks related to food- and farm prices and to agriculture conditions. Security-related shocks only affected 14 percent of households. However, households reported these mostly as having severe impact on their living conditions.

Next to residence, risk factors that influenced the vulnerability for experiencing household shocks included seasons, household size, the educational attainment, the economic activity status and the disability status of household heads, land ownership and poverty status. The most common strategies to cope with household shocks were decreasing expenditures (applied by 41 percent of households that experienced shocks), taking loans (38 percent), reducing the quality of diet (19 percent) and purchasing food on credit (10 percent).

A majority (66 percent) of households perceived the security situation in the district of residence in positive terms and 21 percent perceived the district as insecure. The perceptions on security show stark differences by residence: 26 percent of rural households and 30 percent of Kuchi households feel they live in an insecure district, but only 6 percent of urban households do so. A large majority of 72 percent of households are satisfied with the police and only 11 percent mentioned dissatisfaction with the police. Here too, urban households reported more often positive perceptions (90 percent) than urban and rural households (66 and 58 percent, respectively). Perceptions of male and female household representatives on the change in the household economic situation, district security and satisfaction with the police show a high degree of similarity.

The top-three priorities for community development mentioned by male and female household representatives, as well as by male Shura’s, are the improvement of drinking water (mentioned in 20 percent of the responses), improvement of the road infrastructure and improvement of security (each 17 percent). Drinking water, electricity supply and support to farming and livestock activities are particularly concerns for rural and Kuchi households, whereas road infrastructure and employment are particularly mentioned by urban households. Overall, priorities of men, women and Shuras tend to be similar. Downward trends in mentioning drinking water, electricity supply and health facilities reflect the improvements in these areas that are reported by the ALCS since 2011-12. On the other hand, the stark increase in mentioning security as the first development priority indicates the deteriorating situation in the country in the last few years.

11.1 Introduction

Afghanistan is a country with a high-risk profile, due to a combination of climatic and natural circumstances, economic, social and political instability and a recent history littered with conflicts. The various indicators based on the ALCS reveal that a large share of the Afghan population live in difficult circumstances, despite marked improvements in several areas. This last chapter brings together people’s perceptions regarding specific living conditions, challenges encountered by households, the strategies that households apply to deal with such challenges, as well as development priorities as expressed by male and female household representatives and male Shuras.

11.2 Perceptions on living conditions

A small set of questions was included in the ALCS questionnaire that addressed people's perceptions about

- the household's economic situation compared to a year before;
- the satisfaction with the police in the district; and
- the security situation in the district.

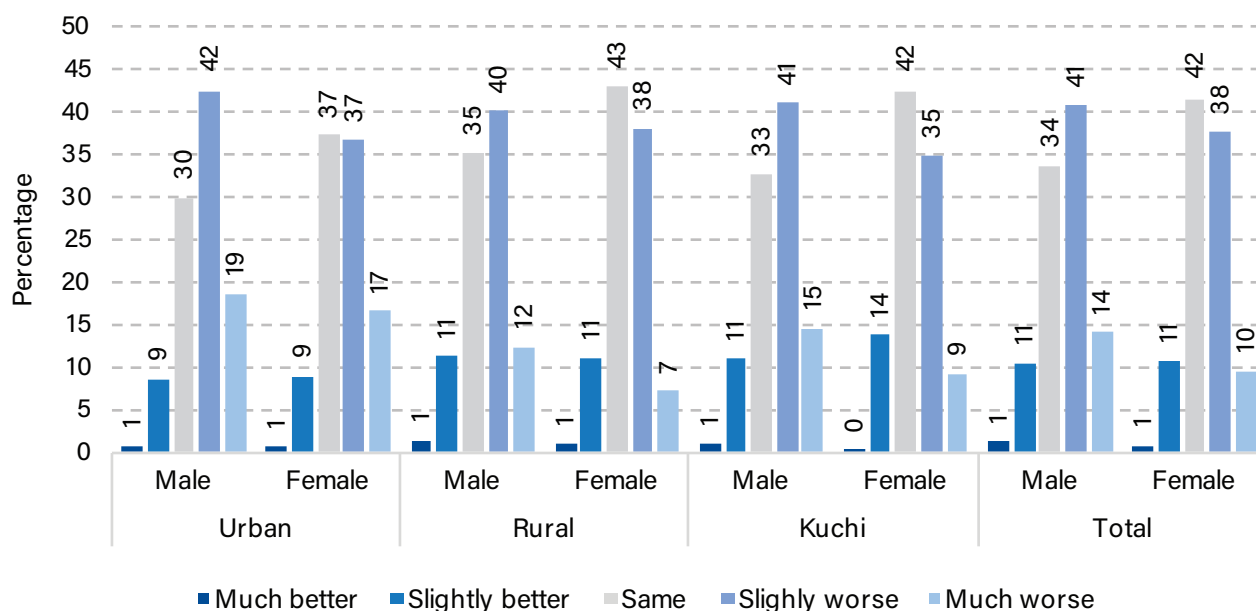
These questions were asked to the head of the household (usually a man) and the senior female household member, so that gender-specific assessments could be recorded.

11.2.1 Household economic situation

The household economic situation, as perceived by the Afghan households themselves, is worsening as illustrated by *Figure 11.1*. Around half (50.9 percent) of all male and female respondents together reported a deterioration of the situation, while only 12.0 percent mentioned an improvement. For urban households a deterioration was reported more often (57.0 percent) than for rural and Kuchi households (48.8 and 49.8 percent, respectively). Women were somewhat less pessimistic than men, with 47.1 percent of women believing the situation has deteriorated against 54.7 percent of men. It is also noteworthy that hardly anyone (around 1 percent) thinks that there has been a significant improvement. When seen in relation to the results presented in the poverty analysis (chapter 6), the perception of the change in the economic situation as seen by households corresponds with the measured poverty trend.

The perception of the change in the household economic situation has also deteriorated. Compared to the NRVA 2011-12, the proportion of households thinking their situation has worsened has substantially increased, especially in urban areas. At that time, around 33 percent of all households and 24 percent of urban households perceived slight or much deterioration in their economic situation. The more pronounced change in urban areas is again in line with a larger increase in urban poverty.

Figure 11.1: Perceptions of household representatives on household economic change, by residence, sex, and by direction of change (in percentages)



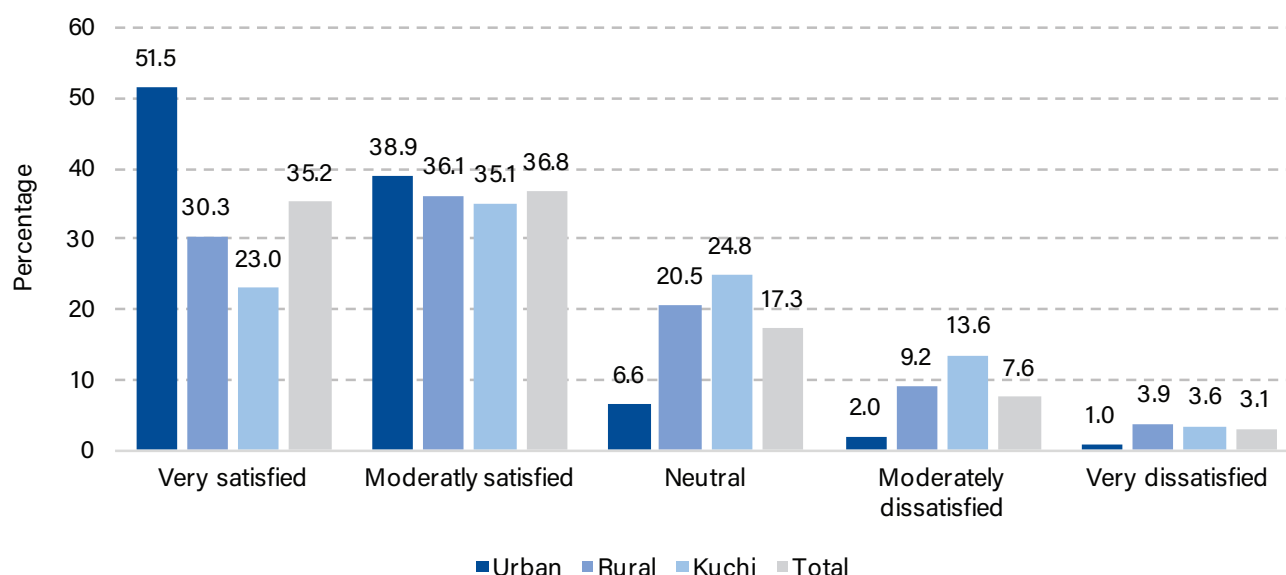
11.2.2 Satisfaction with the police in the district

In general, Afghan households are mostly satisfied with the police in their district. Men and women have a similar view regarding the police. Close to 70 percent of men and 72 percent of women are satisfied with the police. It is

also worth noting that a relatively small share of the households is dissatisfied with police, at 12 percent for men and 11 percent for women.

The level of satisfaction with the police also appears to be much higher in urban areas as 51.5 percent of urban household are very satisfied with the police, compared to 30.3 percent in rural areas and 23.0 percent of Kuchi households (*Figure 11.2*). This situation is countered by much less frequent statements of dissatisfaction by urban households than by rural and Kuchi households. Two percent of urban households are moderately dissatisfied compared to 9.2 and 13.6 percent of rural and Kuchi households, respectively; and one percent of urban household are very dissatisfied against around 4 percent of rural and Kuchi households).

Figure 11.2: Satisfaction of household representatives with the police in the district, by level of satisfaction, and by residence (in percentages)

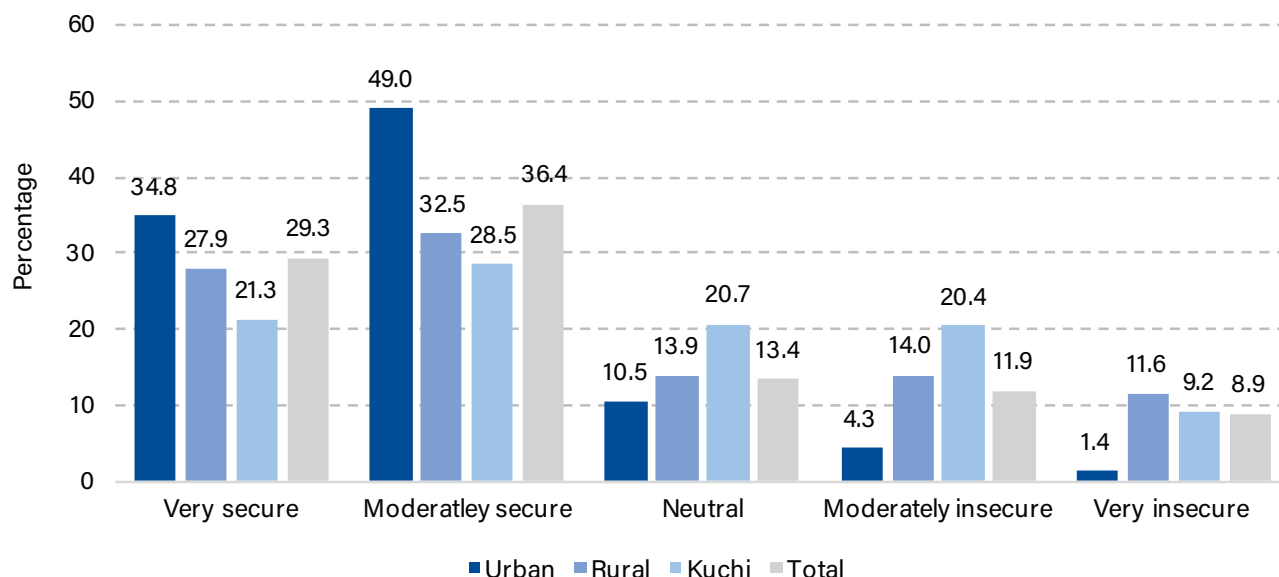


11.2.3 Perception of security in the district

The perception in Afghan households on the security situation in the district of residence is largely positive, as 65.7 percent of Afghan household representatives think the district they live in is either very or moderately secure. In turn, 20.8 percent of household representatives believe they live in an insecure area. These figures suggest a discrepancy between the media reporting on security and the how the largest share of people experience the situation or take it as a fact of life. From a gender perspective, the level of reported security is largely consistent across men and women.

The differences in security perception by residence are significant, as only 5.7 percent of urban households feel they live in an insecure district, whereas 25.6 percent of rural households and 29.5 percent of Kuchi households perceive their district as insecure (*Figure 11.3*). Again, the situation is countered at the other side of the spectrum as 83.8 percent of urban households report that they live in a relatively secure district compared to 60.5 percent of rural households and 49.8 percent of Kuchi households.

Figure 11.3: Assessment by household representatives of security in the district, by level of security, and by residence (in percentages)



11.3 Household shocks and coping strategies

11.3.1 Household shocks

Like in previous survey rounds, the present ALCS investigated into the shocks experienced by households in the 12 months preceding the interview. Household 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. *Text box 11.1* provides the classification of specific shocks into larger categories. In addition to recording the different types of shocks that were experienced by households, for each was asked whether the impact of the shock was light, moderate or severe.

For the 2016-17 round of the ALCS, the share of the households that reported having experienced shocks is close to 59 percent. This represents a significant decrease from the figures observed for the NRVA 2011-12 when 84 percent of households reported having experienced shocks. The type of shock most frequently reported by households relates to food- and farm prices shocks with 30.6 percent, followed by idiosyncratic shocks with 28.8 percent of households reporting such shocks. The third most frequent type of shocks reported by households were agricultural shocks (26.3 percent). In 2016-17, the least frequent shocks were related to natural disasters with 10.5 percent of households reporting being affected.

Text box 11.1: 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.

Idiosyncratic: bankruptcy of family business, serious illness or accident of 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.

Regarding residential differences, an interesting picture emerges, as urban households reported more often having experienced shocks than rural households, with 64.4 percent of urban households reporting shocks against 56.2 percent of rural households (*Table 11.1*). Kuchi households appear to be the ones most often affected by shocks with 68.3 percent reporting having experienced any household shock. It is also worth noticing that the most frequently reported type of shock by urban households was an idiosyncratic shock (with 40.5 percent reporting such shocks), whereas for rural households the most frequently reported type of shocks were agricultural shocks.

The loss of income due to bankruptcy, unemployment or loss of salary were most reported by urban households having experienced idiosyncratic shocks, whereas for rural households reporting agricultural shocks, the most common sub-category mentioned was reduced agricultural water.

Idiosyncratic shocks often have a large negative impact on the household, given the finding that 45 percent of households experiencing such shocks considered it a severe shock. In turn, agricultural shocks seem to have impacted households less, as they were mostly assessed as shocks with a moderate impact. Security-related shocks only affected 14 percent of households. However, these had the largest impact, as more than 60 percent of households having experienced such shocks reported these as severe. This is the category with the largest share of severe impact.

Figures 11.4 and 11.5 show the geographic distribution of household shares that experience idiosyncratic and drinking-water shocks, respectively. The provinces situated on the northern and western border of the country and those around and including Kabul are showing the largest incidence of idiosyncratic shocks. The provinces with the largest urban centres such as Kabul, Balkh, Nangahar and Herat are recording quite large percentages of households reporting idiosyncratic shocks and are consistently above the national average. Like for idiosyncratic shocks, the provinces on the borders of the country are showing larger shares of households reporting drinking water shocks with Nangahar, Kunarha and Baghlan showing the largest share in the country.

Percentage of households having experienced ideosyncratic shocks

- 45.0 and over
- 30.0 - 44.9
- 15.0 - 29.9
- Less than 15.0

National average: 28.8

150 Kilometers

Percentage of households having experienced a drinking water shock

- 45.0 and over
- 30.0 - 44.9
- 15.0 - 29.9
- Less than 15.0

National average: 18.2

150 Kilometers

There have been significant reductions in almost all the types of shocks since 2011-12. Table 11.1 shows large fluctuations, which partly describe the changing situation on the ground and which probably partly also reflect a changing perspective and reporting tendencies. A main difference with previous survey rounds is that in the ALCS 2016-17 the incidence of shocks is higher for urban households than for rural households.

Table 11.1: Percentage of households experiencing household shocks, by survey year, residence, and by type of shock

Survey year, residence	Any shock	Generic shock					Idiosyncra- tic shock
		Drinking water	Agricultural	Natural disaster	Security	Food and farm prices	
ALCS 2016-17							
Total	58.9	18.2	26.3	10.5	14.0	30.6	28.8
Urban	64.4	13.9	14.5	4.4	7.2	39.9	40.5
Rural	56.2	19.1	30.0	12.8	16.5	27.5	24.2
Kuchi	68.3	26.5	33.2	9.8	13.1	26.9	33.5
NRVA 2011-12							
Total	84	47	37	36	15	61	22
Urban	77	36	8	26	6	64	23
Rural	85	48	44	38	17	58	20
Kuchi	94	78	62	37	32	76	38
NRVA 2007-08							
Total	65	18	22	39	11	3	28
Urban	34	6	5	18	2	4	15
Rural	72	21	24	44	13	3	31
Kuchi	81	28	48	40	13	1	37
NRVA 2005							
Total	45	25	47	53	11	19	11
Urban	18	23	10	36	9	27	26
Rural	51	25	48	55	12	19	10
Kuchi	52	30	68	40	9	9	15

Regarding the generic shocks, the decrease of the incidence of drinking water shocks is remarkable, from 47.0 percent in 2011-12 down to 18.2 percent in 2016-17. When looking at the residence status, the sharpest decrease in drinking-water shocks occurred among Kuchi households, who now reported these shocks for only 26.5 percent of households, compared to 78.0 percent in 2011-12. The incidence of drinking water shocks also more than halved among both urban and rural households. These changes could illustrate the result of the large efforts and investments made in the supply and quality of drinking water. Chapter 10 on housing and amenities provides more insights into this matter.

A sharp decrease can also be seen in reporting natural disasters. For instance, very few households in urban areas (4.4 percent) declared having suffered shocks of this type, whereas in previous surveys these shocks were experienced frequently. Food and farm price shocks were also reported less, although their incidence remains relatively high in urban areas (40 percent), while a sharp decrease is observed for Kuchi households (from 76.0 to 26.9 percent from 2011-12 to 2016-17). Rural households reported much fewer shocks in food and farm prices. The overall incidence of security-related shocks of 14 percent reported in 2016-17 is similar to that in 2011-12, although Kuchi households reported a significantly lower incidence at 13 percent, down from 32 percent in 2011-12.

The most striking finding of the ALCS 2016-17 regarding household shocks is the increase of idiosyncratic shocks, from 22.0 to 28.8 percent of households at national level, and more particularly among urban households, from 23.0 to 40.5 percent. The most reported sub-category of idiosyncratic shocks is the loss of household income, with overall around 12 percent of households suffering this shock, up to 22 percent of households in urban areas. This situation can be related to the stark decrease in GDP outside the agriculture sector in 2016, as reported by the World Bank (World Bank 2017a).

A logistic regression was performed on the experience of one or more shocks by households in the past year, to identify the risk factors for experiencing household shocks. *Figure 11.6* presents the results in terms of odds ratios for different types of households. These odds ratios should be interpreted as the likelihood that a household with a specific characteristic will experience a shock compared to the reference household (indicated with a light-blue bar), while controlling for the effect of all other variables. For a detailed explanation of logistic regression, see Text box 3 in chapter 4.

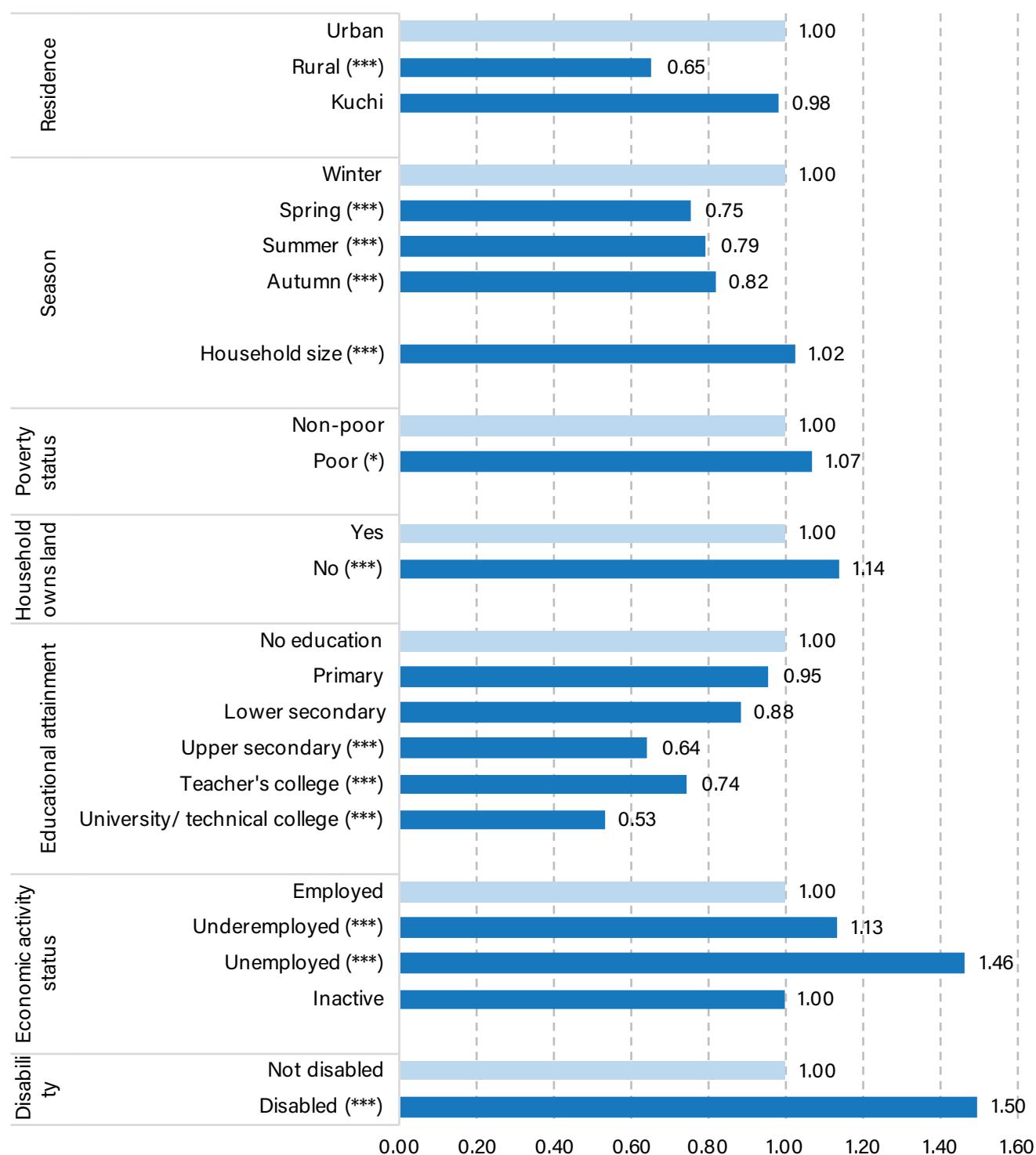
Figure 11.6 shows that rural households were 35 percent less likely to experience shocks than urban households when controlling for other variables. Seasonality also had a strong – and statistically significant – effect on the probability to experience shocks. Unsurprisingly, winter is the season than is associated with the highest probability. The likelihood is lowest in spring, when it is 25 percent lower than in winter.

Owning land appears to slightly protect households from suffering shocks, as households not owning land are 14 percent more likely to suffer from shock than households that own land. Household size has a significant impact on the probability to experience shocks as the likelihood increases with 2 percent for each additional household member. Poverty status has a relatively moderate impact on the likelihood of experiencing shocks, as poor households are only 7 percent more likely to experience shocks than non-poor households.

The characteristics of the head of household also appear to have an effect on the likelihood of experiencing household shocks. Of all the factors that appear to affect the probability of a household to experience shocks, the factor with the largest effect is disability: households with a head suffering a disability are 50 percent more likely to experience shocks. The second-most prominent factor that increases the probability to be affected by shocks is the economic activity status of household heads. Households of which the head of household is underemployed are 13 percent more likely to be affected by household shocks than households with an employed head. Households with an unemployed head are even 46 percent more likely to have experienced shocks.

Educational attainment of the head of household shows a clear pattern of inverse relationship with the likelihood of experiencing household shocks, although the results are not always statistically significant. In general, the higher the heads educational attainment, the lower the risk of experiencing shocks with households of heads with completed teacher college being a slight outlier in the general pattern. Households of which the head has a university degree are 47 percent less likely to suffer from shocks than households of which the head has no education.

Figure 11.6: Odds ratios of logistic regression on experiencing household shocks



Significance level: (***) significant at 99%, (**) significant at 95% (*) significant at 90%; R² = 0.0200

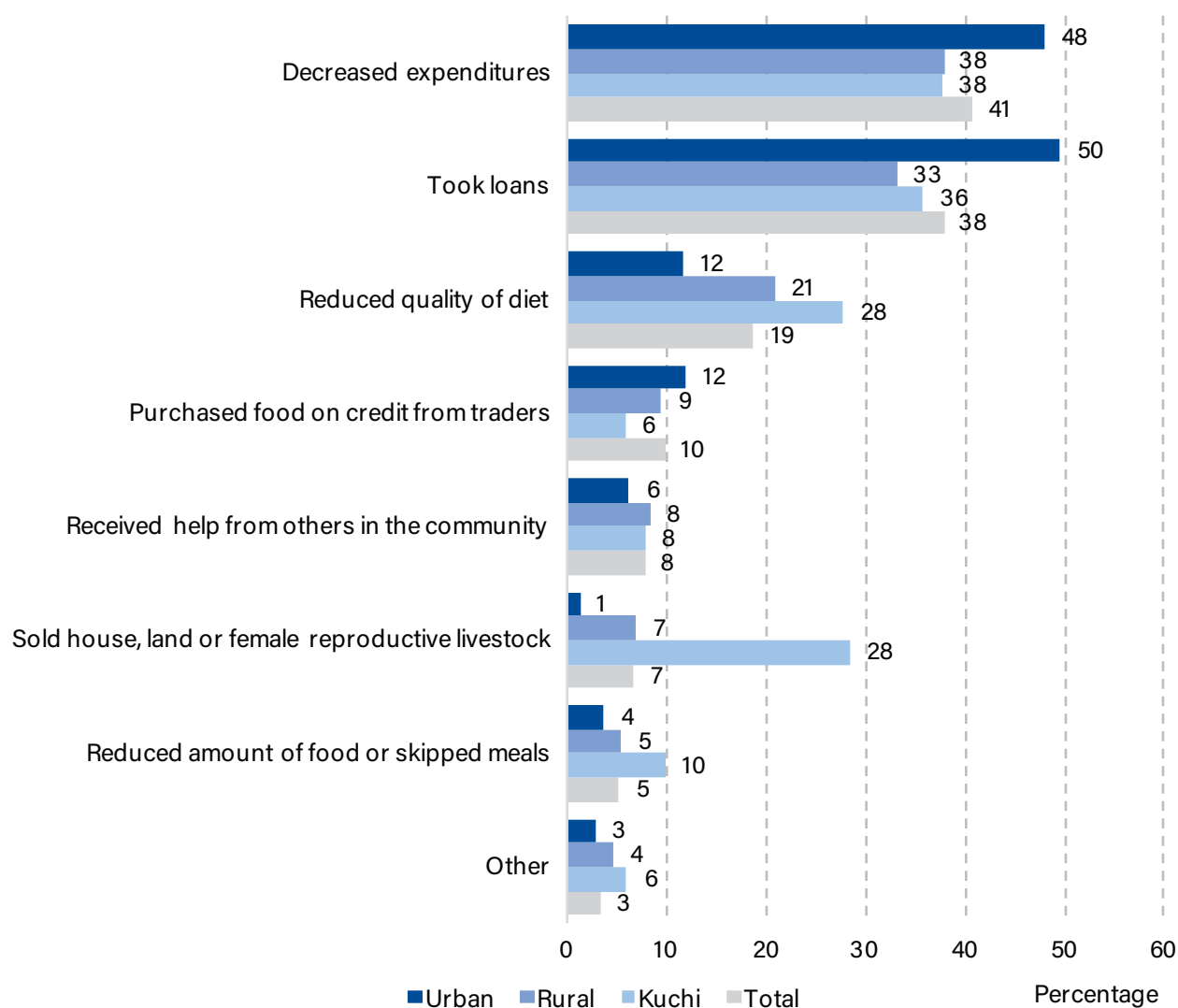
11.3.2 Coping strategies

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 coping strategies, depending on the nature and severity of shocks the household experienced. Of all households that experienced one or more shocks in the year before

the survey, 41.6 percent declared that they did not need to do anything and 58.4 percent applied any one strategy to cope with the shock or shocks. Rural households could relatively more often afford not to do anything, whereas urban households more often had to take measures.

The most common coping strategies were decreasing expenditures (41 percent), taking loans (38 percent), reducing the quality of diet (19 percent) and purchasing food on credit (10 percent) (Figure 11.7). Households that at any time decreased expenditures represent 7.3 million people. 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 also for rural households (11 percent). Despite the short-term mitigating effect of this strategy, it may severely undermine the longer-term capability of households 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 shock), increasing child labour (7 percent) and selling child brides (1 percent) (data not shown).

Figure 11.7: Households that experienced a household shock, by application of coping strategy, and by residence (in percentages)



Work-related strategies, such as working for relief programmes or joining the military are mentioned by an almost negligible share of households having experienced shocks (less than one percent) marking a sharp decrease from 2011-12. This could indicate that this kind of strategies are not available anymore or do not represent a viable strategy for households. The survey results suggest that some 212 thousand individuals have worked in food-for-work,

cash-for-work or income-generating programmes, close to half the number recorded during the NRVA 2011-12 (a decrease from 9.0 to 5.2 percent of households).

11.4 Community development priorities

The ALCS 2016-17 household questionnaire included questions about the government assistance that would most benefit the community. These questions were asked to the – mostly male – head of households and to the senior woman of the households, which allows a gender analysis of development priorities. In addition, the Shura questionnaire included the same set of questions, which makes it possible to assess the extent to which male Shura's represent people's perspectives on development.

The combined male and female household responses to the question about the first priority for community development shows three categories that stand out: improvement of drinking water (mentioned by 20.3 percent of the respondents), improvement of the road infrastructure (17.0 percent) and improvement of security (16.5 percent) (*Figure 11.8*). Drinking water issues¹ are particularly important for rural households (22.1 percent) and even more so for Kuchi households (34.9 percent), whereas only 12.1 percent of urban households mentioned this as the first development priority. On the other hand, improvement of road infrastructure² is more often mentioned by urban household representatives (23.4 percent), less often by their rural counterparts (15.8 percent) and hardly by Kuchi household representatives (1.5 percent). Security priorities³ are equally shared across residence at a level of around 17 percent.

A second tier of development priorities mentioned by male and female household representatives are employment, health facilities, electricity supply, farming and livestock issues, and education and training facilities,⁴ which overall represents between 10 and 5 percent of first development priorities. Notable residential differences are observed for provision of employment opportunities (mostly an urban concern), electricity supply (mostly a rural concern), farming and livestock support (as expected, mostly rural and Kuchi concerns).

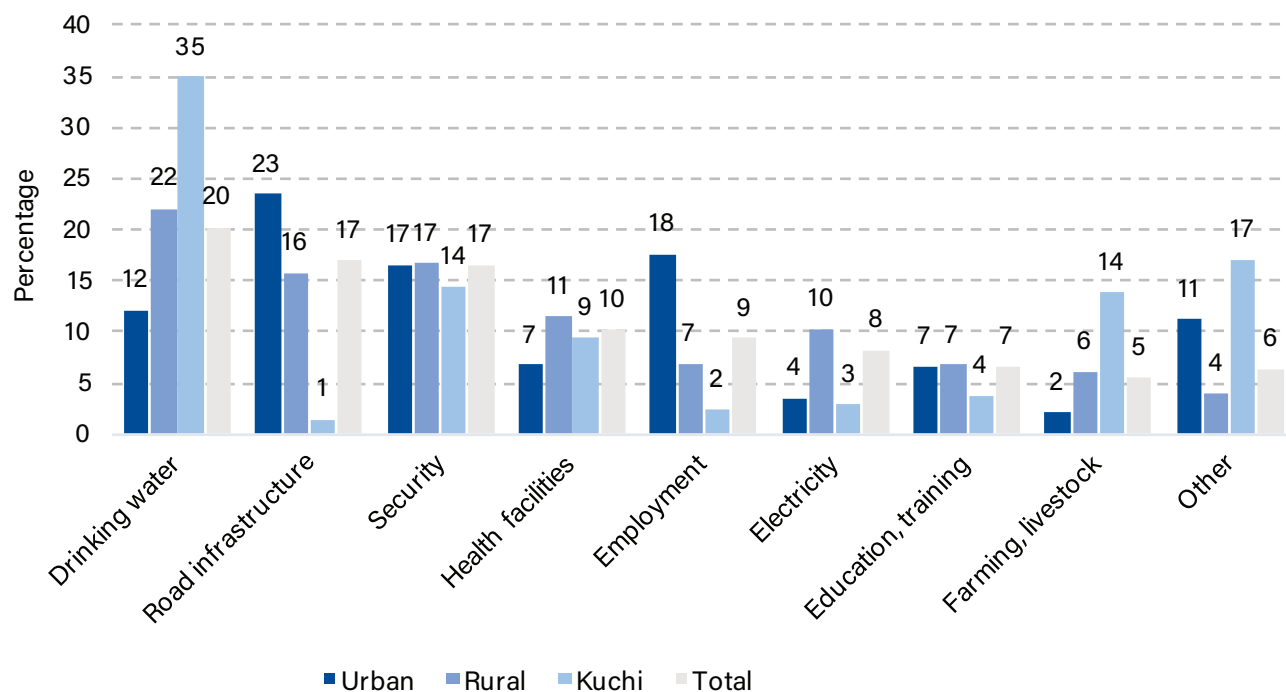
1 Quality and quantity of drinking water.

2 Repair and construction of local roads and bridge construction/rehabilitation.

3 Increased security, local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms and disarmament of local militia/commanders.

4 Employment: increased employment opportunities for women, for men and for both women and men, new/improved micro-credit schemes; Farming and livestock issues: rehabilitation of the irrigation system, improved agricultural services, improved veterinary services; Education and training facilities: new/improved local education facilities for girls, for boys, for both girls and boys, literacy training for women, for men and for both women and men, vocational skills training for women, for men and for both women and men.

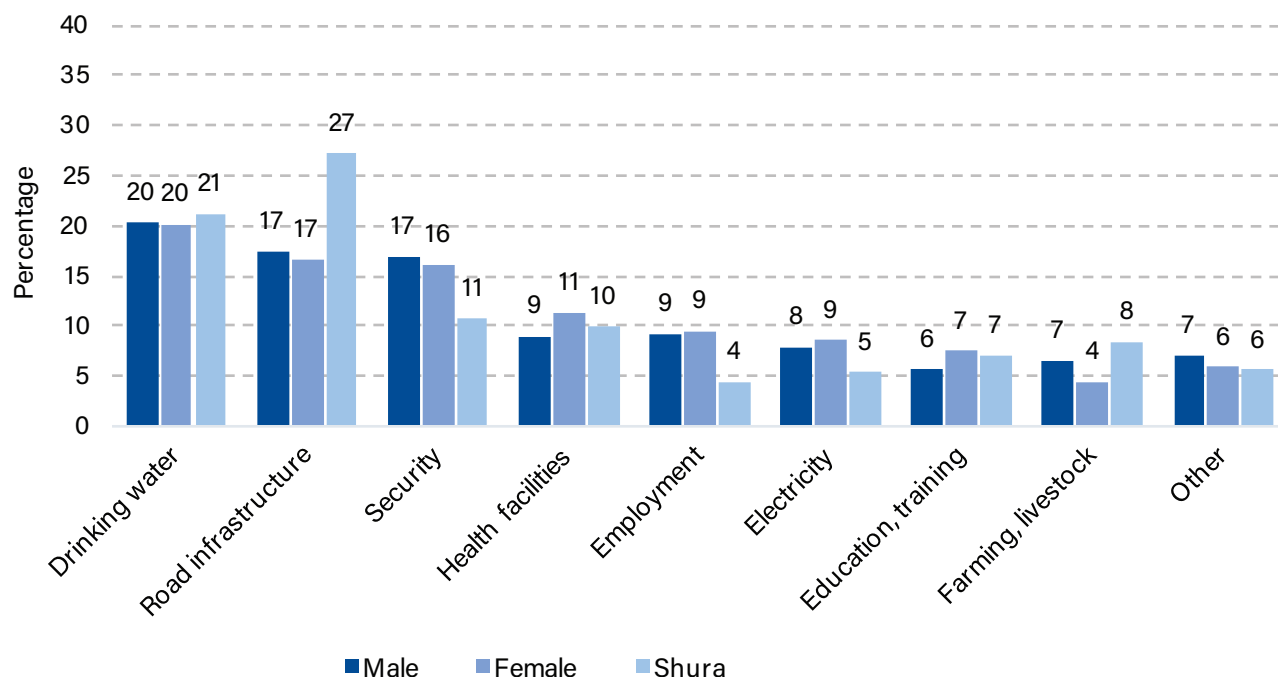
Figure 11.8: Distribution of first community development priorities^a of household representatives, by residence (in percentages)



^a Drinking water: quality and quantity of drinking water; Road infrastructure: repair and construction of local roads and bridge construction/rehabilitation; Security: increased security, local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms and disarmament of local militia/commanders; Employment: increased employment opportunities for women, for men and for both women and men, new/improved micro-credit schemes; Farming and livestock issues: rehabilitation of the irrigation system, improved agricultural services, improved veterinary services; Education and training facilities: new/improved local education facilities for girls, for boys, for both girls and boys, literacy training for women, for men and for both women and men, vocational skills training for women, for men and for both women and men. Other: new/improved housing, reformed/improved local justice systems.

Figure 11.9 shows the first development priorities of male and female household representatives and of male Shuras. The distributions of development priorities as mentioned by (male) household heads and senior household women are very similar. The only exception is the frequency of mentioning support to farming and livestock, which is more often mentioned by men (6.6 percent) than women (4.4 percent). To a large extent, the distribution of development priorities as mentioned by (male) Shuras resemble those of the household representatives. Notable deviations include the improvement of road infrastructure that is much often mentioned by the Shura's (27.2 percent) and particularly the urban Shura's (40.7 percent). On the other hand, the Shura's less often mentioned security (10.8 percent; urban Shura's 5.2 percent) and employment (10.8 percent) as priorities for community development.

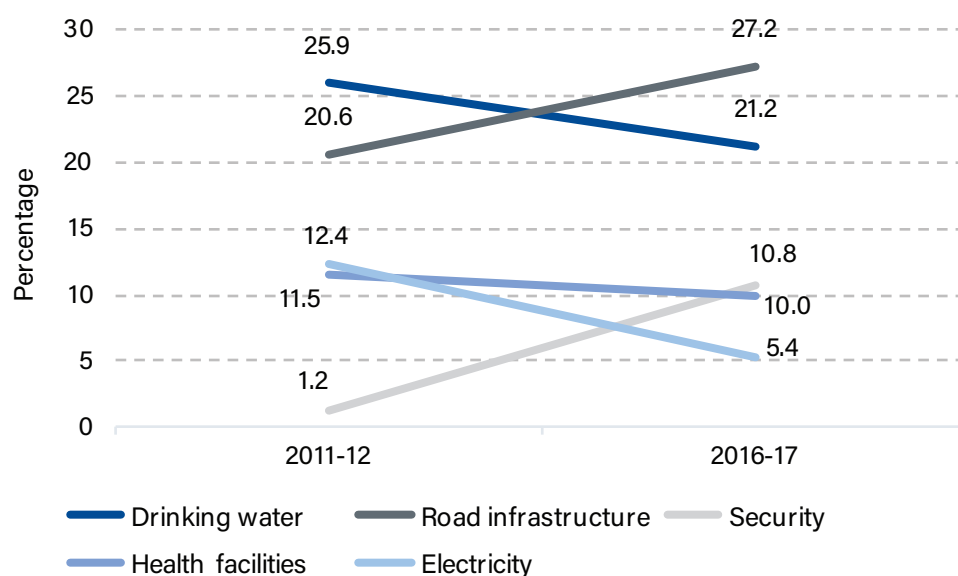
Figure 11.9: Distribution of first community development priorities^a of male Shuras and male and female household representatives (in percentages)



^a See footnote below Figure 11.8.

Figure 11.10 shows the trends in community development priorities that were considered the most important by the male Shura's in the 2011-12 and 2016-17 surveys. The decreases in mentioning health facilities and particularly drinking water and electricity supply, reflect the improvements recorded by the ALCS (see chapters 9 and 10). On the other hand, a sharp increase is observed in the frequency of mentioning security as a priority. This reflects the development of the security situation as presented in the Introduction (chapter 1). The increase in mentioning road infrastructure may be due to urbanisation and the lack of capacity to accommodate urban traffic in the main urban areas of the country.

Figure 11.10: Selected first community development priorities^a of male Shuras, by survey year (in percentages)



^a See footnote below Figure 11.8.

ANNEX I PERSONS INVOLVED IN ALCS 2016-17

I.1 CSO staff

Mohammad Sami Nabi	-	Project Leader / Head of Field Operation Department
Esmatullah 'Hakimi'	-	National Project National Coordinator
Ahmad Khalid 'Amarkhel'	-	Lead Statistician
Mohammad Muneer 'Jamshidi'	-	Survey Administration officer
Ahmad Sameer 'Samadi'	-	Data Checking Supervisor
Abdul Ahmad 'Sherzai'	-	Support Staff - Logistics
Mohammad Sadeq 'Sedqi'	-	Data Quality Checker
Mohammad Aman 'Rahimi'	-	Data Quality Checker
Nargiss 'Akbar'	-	Data Quality Checker
Farah Diba 'Yousufzai'	-	Coder
Mahnaz 'Noori'	-	Coder
Mohammad Waheed Ibrahimi	-	Database Director
Ahmad Zubair 'Sarwary'	-	Data Entry Director
Shakeeba 'Rahimi'	-	GIS Director
Mohammad Nahim	-	Driver

I.2 ICON Staff

Christophe Dietrich	-	Project Manager
Roberto Bianchini	-	Team Leader
Bart de Bruijn	-	Chief Analyst / Editor
Frank Eelens	-	Data Processing Expert
Tarana Feroz	-	Financial Manager
Samiullah Zazai	-	Driver

I.3 Steering Committee

H.E. Ahmad Jawed Rasuli, Director General CSO (from August 2017)
H.E. Sheer Mohammad Jami Zada, Acting President General CSO (to August 2017)
Prof. Hasibullah Mowahed, Deputy President General CSO
Mr. Ahmad Jan Naheem, Deputy Minister, Ministry of Public Health
Mr. Wali Mohammed Farhodi, Programme Manager - Rural Development, EU Delegation to Afghanistan
Mr. Amanullah Assil, Programme Officer, WFP-VAM
Mr. Haji Qudratullah H.R.P, Ministry of Rural Rehabilitation and Development
Mr. Chandra Sekhar Cherla, P&M Specialist, UNICEF
Mr. Gulam Rabani Haqiqat Pal, Head Statistical Department, Ministry of Agriculture, Irrigation and Livestock
Mr. Ahmad Shakil Hazem, Economy Policy Director, Ministry of Agriculture, Irrigation and Livestock
Mr. Esmatullah Ramzi, Advisor to the President General, CSO
Mr. Mohammad Sami Nabi, Head of Field Operation Department CSO
Dr. Christina Wieser, Economist, Poverty and Inequality Global Practice, World Bank (from 2016)
Dr. Silvia Redaelli, Economist, Economic Policy and Poverty Team, World Bank (to 2016)
And non-disclosed others

I.4 Technical Advisory Committee

H.E. Ahmad Jawed Rasuli, Director General CSO (from August 2017)
H.E. Sheer Mohammad Jami Zada, Acting President General CSO (to August 2017)
Prof. Hasibullah Mowahed, Deputy President General CSO
Mr. Esmatullah Ramzi, Advisor to the President General, CSO
Mr. Mohammad Sami Nabi, Head of Field Department, CSO
Ms. Thi Van Huang, Head WFP-VAM Unit
Mr. Amanullah Assil, Programme Officer, WFP-VAM
Dr. Christina Wieser, Economist, Poverty and Inequality Global Practice, World Bank (from 2016)
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Dr. Bart de Bruijn, Chief Analyst/Editor ALCS 2016-17, ICON
Mr. Christophe Dietrich, Senior Project Manager, ICON
Mr. Mohammad Muneer "Jamshidi", Secretary of the Technical Advisory Committee, CSO
And non-disclosed others

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1. Introduction – Nandini Krishnan and Christina Wieser (World Bank) and Bart de Bruijn (ICON)
2. Survey methodology and operations – Esmatullah 'Hakimi' and Ahmad Khalid 'Amarkhel' (CSO), Bart de Bruijn and Roberto Bianchini (ICON)
3. Population and households – Frank Eelens and Bart de Bruijn (ICON)
4. Labour market – Bart de Bruijn (ICON)
5. Agriculture – Ahmad Khalid 'Amarkhel' (CSO) and Bart de Bruijn (ICON)
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7. Food security – Amanullah Assil (WFP)
8. Education – Bart de Bruijn (ICON)
9. Health – Frank Eelens (ICON)
10. Housing and household amenities – Roberto Bianchini (ICON) and Esmatullah 'Hakimi' (CSO)
11. Livelihood challenges, coping strategies and development priorities – Christophe Dietrich (ICON)

ANNEX II SUBJECT COVERAGE IN NRVA 2007-08 TO ALCS 2018-19

Subject	NRVA/ALCS round				
	2007-08	2011-12	2013-14	2016-17	2018-19
Household structure	X	X	X	X	X
Housing and amenities	X	X	X	X	X
Livestock	X	X	Reduced	X	-
Agriculture	X	Reduced	X	Reduced	-
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	-	-	-
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, 2011-12, 2013-14 and 2016-17 have been implemented; round 2018-19 is scheduled.

ANNEX III ALCS 2016-17 QUESTIONNAIRES

III.I ALCS HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

 Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) 2016-17 	
Household questionnaire	
1. Household identification (Male questionnaire)	
Supervisor-filled information	Interviewer-filled information
1.1 Province name <input type="text"/> Code <input type="text"/>	1.8 Household number (1-15) <input type="text"/>
1.2 District name <input type="text"/> Code <input type="text"/>	1.9 Door number <input type="text"/>
1.3 Control and Enumeration Area code <input type="text"/>	1.10 Name of the head of the household <input type="text"/>
1.4 Cluster code <input type="text"/>	1.11 Name of the father of the household head <input type="text"/>
1.5 Residence code Urban 1 Rural 2 Kuchi 3	If respondent is not the head of household, fill 1.12 and 1.13
1.6 If 1.5 is 1 Urban nahia <input type="text"/> Code <input type="text"/>	1.12 Respondent's name <input type="text"/>
1.7 If 1.5 is 2 Village name <input type="text"/> Code <input type="text"/>	1.13 Respondent's line number (from roster) <input type="text"/>
2. Process monitoring	
All contents of this questionnaire are checked by < Supervisor and PSO > and document is ready for dispatch to CSO Kabul	
Supervisor	PSO
2.1 Checked this questionnaire? Yes No 1 2	2.2 Checked this questionnaire? Yes No 1 2
Ratification :	Ratification :
Signature :	Signature :
2.3 Supervisor's number <input type="text"/>	2.4 Regional supervisor's number <input type="text"/>
2.5 Date of interview a. Day <input type="text"/> b. Month <input type="text"/> c. Year <input type="text"/>	
2.6 Interview start time Hour <input type="text"/> Minute <input type="text"/>	2.7 Interview finish time Hour <input type="text"/> Minute <input type="text"/>
2.8 Interviewers' number a. Male interviewer <input type="text"/> b. Female interviewer <input type="text"/>	
2.9 Date of office editing Day <input type="text"/> Month <input type="text"/> Year <input type="text"/>	
2.10 Office editor's code <input type="text"/>	
2.11 Data-entry officer code (first) <input type="text"/>	
2.12 Data-entry officer code (second) <input type="text"/>	

3. Household roster											
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 household? For codes, see at right	3.4 How old is <name>? For children less than one year, write '00'	3.5 Is <name> male or female? 1=Male 2=Female	3.6 What is <name's> marital status? For codes, see at right If not married, go to 3.8	3.7 Line number of (first) spouse If not in this household, write '98'	3.8 Does <name's> father live in this household? 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 household? 1=Yes 2=No If No, go to next line	3.11 Line number of this mother	INTERVIEWER: List all people who usually live and sleep in this household, starting with the head of the household. Record all people who usually stay here, including babies and infants, and people who are not immediate kin.
01		0 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		

4. Housing and amenities

4.1	How would you describe your dwelling, is it <read answer options>?	Single family house 1 Part of a shared house 2 Apartment (shared or separate) 3 Tent 4 Temporary shelter/shack 5 Other 6	Go to 4.6
4.2	What is the main construction material of the exterior walls of the dwelling, in the main living area of the family?	Fired brick/stone 1 Concrete/cement 2 Mud bricks / mud 3 Stone/mud 4 Other 5	
4.3	What is the main construction material of the roof of the dwelling?	Concrete (with metal) 1 Wood / wood with mud 2 Tin/metal 3 Girder with fired brick 4 Mud bricks 5 Other 6	
4.4	What is the main construction material of the floor of this dwelling, in the main living area of the family?	Mud/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 9	
4.6	What is the arrangement on the basis of which your household currently occupies this dwelling?	Inheritance or from family 1 Purchased dwelling 2 Constructed dwelling 3 Caretaker 4 Mortgaging 5 Being 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? (If pay in goods or services, estimate the value per month)	Afs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	Go to 4.10
4.8	If you were to purchase this dwelling today, how much would it cost? IF DO NOT KNOW WRITE '88,888,888'	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
4.9	Do you have any document that shows the ownership of this dwelling?	Yes, qawala-sharayi (registered) 1 Yes, qawala-urfee (sale document) 2 Yes, another document 3 I don't know 4 No 5	
4.10	Do you have a municipal note book? IF VILLAGE HOUSEHOLD (NOT IN NAHIA), CIRCLE '2'	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 4.12
4.11	Do you pay safayi (sanitation) fees? IF VILLAGE HOUSEHOLD (NOT IN NAHIA), CIRCLE '2'	Yes 1 No 2	

4. Housing and amenities (continued)																																
4.12	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 Kitchen is in a separate room outside the dwelling 3 Cooking is done in the open 4 Other 5																														
4.13	How many rooms does your household occupy (exclude corridors, balconies)? FOR KUCHI HOUSEHOLDS LIVING IN TENTS, RECORD NUMBER OF TENTS	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>																														
4.14	Has your household had electricity at any time in the past month from any of these sources? INTERVIEWER: READ ALL OPTIONS a-i	<table border="0"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Yes</th> <th>No</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>a. Electric grid</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Government generator</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Private generator (engine)</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>d. Private dynamo (hydro)</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>e. Community generator (engine) ..</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>f. Community dynamo (hydro) ..</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>g. Solar</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>h. Wind</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>i. Battery</td> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Yes	No	a. Electric grid	1	2	b. Government generator	1	2	c. Private generator (engine)	1	2	d. Private dynamo (hydro)	1	2	e. Community generator (engine) ..	1	2	f. Community dynamo (hydro) ..	1	2	g. Solar	1	2	h. Wind	1	2	i. Battery	1	2
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f. Community dynamo (hydro) ..	1	2																														
g. Solar	1	2																														
h. Wind	1	2																														
i. Battery	1	2																														
4.15	What is the main source of energy used for lighting the dwelling?	No lighting in the house 1 Electricity 2 Gas 3 Candle 4 Fuel (oil, kerosene, etc.) 5 Other source 6																														
4.16	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 Gas 6 Electricity 7 Other 8																														
4.17	What is the main source of heating for this house in winter?	No heating in the house 1 Bushes (ping), twigs/branches, straw 2 Firewood 3 Animal dung 4 Crop residue, trash 5 Charcoal, coal 6 Gas 7 Electricity 8 Other 9																														
4.18	How much did this household spend in the last month for each type of fuel used in the household? (in Afghani) READ ALL QUESTIONS a-e IF HOUSEHOLD DID NOT SPEND ON A SPECIFIC TYPE OF FUEL, WRITE '0'	<table border="0"> <tbody> <tr> <td>a. Electricity</td> <td><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Gas</td> <td><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Fuel, oil</td> <td><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>d. Firewood</td> <td><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>e. Ping, straw, manure ..</td> <td><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/><input type="text"/></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	a. Electricity	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	b. Gas	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	c. Fuel, oil	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	d. Firewood	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	e. Ping, straw, manure ..	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>																				
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e. Ping, straw, manure ..	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>																															

4. Housing and amenities (continued)		
4.19	<p>What main toilet facility does your household use?</p> <p>Pit latrine - with slab / covered pit 1</p> <p>Pit latrine - without slab / open pit 2</p> <p>Ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrine 3</p> <p>Flush to piped sewer system 4</p> <p>Flush/pour flush toilet to septic tank 5</p> <p>Flush/pour flush toilet to pit 6</p> <p>Flush/pour flush toilet to elsewhere 7</p> <p>Single/double vault - with urine diversion .. 8</p> <p>Single/double vault - without urine diversion 9</p> <p>No facility - open field, bush 10</p> <p>Other, specify 11</p> <p>_____</p>	Go to 4.21
4.20	<p>Is the toilet facility shared with other households?</p> <p>Yes 1</p> <p>No 2</p>	
4.21	<p>What was the main source of drinking water for members of your household in the past month?</p> <p>Piped - into dwelling 1</p> <p>Piped - into compound 2</p> <p>Public tap / standpipe 3</p> <p>Hand pump, used on bore hole, tube well .. 4</p> <p>Spring or kariz - protected 5</p> <p>Spring or kariz - unprotected 6</p> <p>Well - protected 7</p> <p>Well - unprotected 8</p> <p>Surface water (river, stream, irrigation channel, lake, pond, lake, kanda) 9</p> <p>Tanker-truck 10</p> <p>Other, specify 11</p> <p>_____</p>	Go to 4.23 Go to 4.23
4.22	<p>How many minutes does it take to go this main source of water, get water and come back?</p> <p>IF WATER SOURCE IS IN THE HOUSE OR COMPOUND, WRITE '0'</p> <p>IF RESPONDENT DOES NOT KNOW, ASK FOR AN ESTIMATE</p> <p>Minutes <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></p>	
4.23	<p>How much did you pay (or will you pay) for water from this drinking water source for the last month? (in Afghanis)</p> <p>IF NO PAYMENT, WRITE '0'</p> <p>Afs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></p>	

5. Livestock					
5.1	Does any member of your household own any livestock at the present time - not including poultry?				Yes 1 No 2 Go to 5.13
5.2	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6
5.3	How many of the following animals - including offspring - does your household own today?	Did the household have more, the same or less of these <animals> compared to one year ago? Codes below	How many of these <animals> were vaccinated in the last 12 months? Codes below	What is the main use of these <animals>? Codes below	How many of these <animals> are productive females?
5.4					
5.5					
5.6					
IF ANY ANIMALS OF A SPECIFIC TYPE ARE OWNED, WRITE THEIR NUMBER IN 5.2 AND ASK QUESTIONS 5.3 to 5.6 IF NO ANIMALS OF A SPECIFIC TYPE ARE OWNED, WRITE '0' FOR QUESTION 5.2 AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT TYPE					
	a. Cattle (meat and dairy) <input type="text"/>	a. 1 2 3	a. 1 2 3	a. 1 2 3	a. <input type="text"/>
	b. Goats <input type="text"/>	b. 1 2 3	b. 1 2 3	b. 1 2 3	b. <input type="text"/>
	c. Sheep <input type="text"/>	c. 1 2 3	c. 1 2 3	c. 1 2 3	c. <input type="text"/>
	d. Oxen, yaks <input type="text"/>	d. 1 2 3	d. 1 2 3	d. 1 2 3	
	e. Camels <input type="text"/>	e. 1 2 3	e. 1 2 3	e. 1 2 3	
	f. Horses <input type="text"/>	f. 1 2 3	f. 1 2 3	f. 1 2 3	
	g. Donkeys <input type="text"/>	g. 1 2 3			
	Codes for 5.3 1 = More 2 = The same 3 = Less				
	Codes for 5.4 1 = None 2 = Some 3 = All				
	Codes for 5.5 1 = Sale of animals and animal products 2 = Use and consumption by own household 3 = Both sale and own use/consumption				
5.7	Did you have access to pasture land for these animals in the past year?				Yes, sufficient 1 Yes, but insufficient 2 No 3
5.8	Which different types of animal feed were used for these animals in the winter of 1394		Straw a Dried clover/alfalfa, hay b Cereal concentrate c Oil meals d Wheat bran e Food concentrate blocks f Salt g Other h Did not have animals in winter 1394 i		
	CIRCLE ALL FEED TYPES MENTIONED		Go to 5.10		
5.9	Which different types of animal feed were in insufficient supply then?		Straw a Dried clover/alfalfa, hay b Cereal concentrate c Oil meals d Wheat bran e Food concentrate blocks f Salt g Other h		
	CIRCLE ALL FEED TYPES MENTIONED				

5. Livestock (continued)			
5.10	Did your household obtain medicine for livestock, veterinary help or information on livestock in the past 12 months?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 5.12
5.11	What was the main type of veterinary service provider that your household used?	Government veterinary service 1 VFU (Veterinary Field Unit) 2 Other NGO veterinary service 3 Private veterinary service 4 Other 5	Go to 5.13
5.12	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 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	
5.13	Did your household sell any live animals in the past 12 months?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 5.15
5.14	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 <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> b. Oxen, yaks <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> c. Horses <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> d. Donkeys <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> e. Camels <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> f. Goats <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> g. Sheep <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> h. Chickens <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> i. Turkeys, ducks, geese, other birds <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
5.15	Did your household sell any animal products in the last month, like milk, meat, poultry, wool, cashmere, hides or eggs?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to next module
5.16	What quantity of <item> did you sell in the last month? ASK FOR EACH OF THE PRODUCE a-f MENTIONED IF ITEM NOT SOLD, WRITE '0' AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT ITEM	a. Milk Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> b. Butter, oil Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> c. Cheese Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> d. Krut Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> e. Yoghurt Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> f. Meat from sheep, goats, cattle, horses, etc. .. Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> g. Meat from poultry (chicken, geese, etc.) Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> h. Wool, cashmere Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> i. Furs, skins, hides, leather Pieces <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> j. Eggs Number <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	

6. Farming			
INTERVIEWER: Now, I would ask you some questions about land ownership and access to agricultural land in the spring harvesting season of 1394 (last year)			
6.1	Does any of your household members own any irrigated farmland - not including garden plots?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 6.5
6.2	How many jeribs of irrigated farmland - without garden - plot did your household own in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.3	Was any of this irrigated land rented-out, mortgaged-out, sharecropped-out or left to other households without compensation at that time?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 6.5
6.4	In the spring harvesting season of 1394, how much of this owned irrigated farmland did your household		
	a. Rent-out? (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	b. Mortgage-out (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	c. Sharecrop out (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	d. Leave to others without compensation (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.5	Did your household rent-in, mortgage-in or sharecrop-in any irrigated farmland in the spring harvesting season of 1394? Or did the household access other's land without paying compensation?	Yes 1 No 2 IF 6.5 AND 6.1 ARE 2 ('NO') → go to 6.28	Go to 6.7
6.6	In the spring harvesting season of 1394, how much irrigated farmland did your household		
	a. Rent-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	b. Mortgage-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	c. Sharecrop-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	d. Access land from others without compensation (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.7	How many jeribs of irrigated farmland - without garden plot - did members of your household together leave fallow in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.9
6.8	What was the main reason for not cultivating the irrigated farmland in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	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 / shifting cultivation 6 Other reason 8	
6.9	How many jeribs of irrigated farmland - without garden plot - did members of your household together cultivate in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.28
6.10	Altogether, did your household in the spring harvesting season of 1394 cultivate more, the same or less irrigated farmland area compared to 1393?	More 1 Same 2 Less 3	
6.11	What was the main source of irrigation for the majority of the irrigated land you cultivated during the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Irrigated river, canal, dam 1 Irrigated deep-well pump 2 Spring 3 Kariz 4 Nawara 5 Absialab, snow melt 6 Other 7	
6.12	For the spring harvesting season of 1394, did you have sufficient irrigation for your irrigated crops?	Yes 1 No 2	

6. Farming (continued)

6.13	In terms of total value, what was the most important crop your household harvested in the spring harvesting season from 1394 on irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE</small>	If '95', go to 6.19
6.14	How much of this <most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.15	What was the second most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the spring harvesting season in 1394 from irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE IF NO SECOND CROP, WRITE '00'</small>	If '00', go to 6.19
6.16	How much of this <second-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.17	What was the third most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the spring harvesting season in 1394 from irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE IF NO THIRD CROP, WRITE '00'</small>	If '00', go to 6.19
6.18	How much of this <third-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.19	How many jeribs of irrigated land did your household cultivate in the winter harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> <small>IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'</small>	If '00', go to 6.28
6.20	In terms of total value, what was the most important crop your household harvested in the winter harvesting season of 1394 from irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE</small>	If '95', go to 6.26
6.21	How much of this <most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.22	What was the second most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the winter harvesting season in 1394 from irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE IF NO SECOND CROP, WRITE '00'</small>	If '00', go to 6.26
6.23	How much of this <second-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.24	What was the third most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the winter harvesting season in 1394 from irrigated farmland?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <small>CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE IF NO THIRD CROP, WRITE '00'</small>	If '00', go to 6.26
6.25	How much of this <third-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
6.26	For the winter harvesting season of 1394, did you have sufficient irrigation for your irrigated crops?	Yes 1 No 2	
6.27	Did your household cultivate a nursery or trees to produce wooden beams?	Yes 1 No 2	

Codes for 6.13, 6.15, 6.17, 6.20, 6.22 and 6.24 (Crops harvested from irrigated land)

00 = No second or third crop (only for 6.15, 6.17, 6.22, 6.24)	7 = Alfalfa/clover/other fodder	15 = Beans	23 = Other fruits
1 = Wheat	8 = Millet	16 = Eggplant	24 = Nuts
2 = Maize/sorghum	9 = Cotton	17 = Tomato	25 = Other crop (not fruit, not vegetable)
3 = Barley	10 = Opium	18 = Onions	95 = Harvest failed completely (only for 6.13 and 6.20)
4 = Rice	11 = Cumin	19 = Okra	
5 = Flax	12 = Saffron	20 = Other vegetables	
6 = Sugar cane/beet	13 = Kourgit	21 = Fruit from trees	
	14 = Potatoes	22 = Melon/watermelon	

6. Farming (continued)			
6.28	Does any of your household members <u>own</u> any rain-fed farmland - not including garden plots?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 6.32
6.29	How many jeribs of rain-fed farmland - without garden - plot did your household own in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.30	Did your household rent-out, mortgage-out or sharecrop-out any of this rain-fed farmland in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 6.32
6.31	In the spring harvesting season of 1394, how much of this owned rain-fed farmland did your household		
	a. Rent-out? (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	b. Mortgage-out (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	c. Sharecrop out (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	d. Leave to others without compensation (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.32	Did your household rent-in, mortgage-in or sharecrop-in any rain-fed farmland in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Yes 1 No 2 IF 6.32 <u>AND</u> 6.28 ARE 2 ('NO') →	Go to 6.34 go to 6.44
6.33	In the spring harvesting season of 1394, how much of this owned rain-fed farmland did your household		
	a. Rent-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	b. Mortgage-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	c. Sharecrop-in (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
	d. Access land from others without compensation (IF NONE, WRITE '0.0')	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/>	
6.34	How many jeribs of rain-fed farmland - without garden plot - did members of your household together leave fallow in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.36
6.35	What was the main reason for not cultivating the rain-fed farmland in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Lack of water 1 No budget for cultivation 2 Conflict over water or land 3 Security concerns 4 Land not fertile / shifting cultivation .. 5 Other reason 6	
6.36	How many jeribs of rain-fed farmland - without garden plot - did members of your household together cultivate in the spring harvesting season of 1394?	Jeribs <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '0.0', go to 6.44
6.37	Altogether, did your household in the spring harvesting season of 1394 cultivate more, the same or less rain-fed farmland area compared to 1393?	More 1 Same 2 Less 3	
CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE			

6. Farming (continued)

6.38	In terms of total value, what was the most important crop your household harvested in the spring harvesting season of 1394 from rain-fed farmland?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> CODES BELOW	If '95', go to 6.44
6.39	How much of this <most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	
6.40	What was the second most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the spring harvesting season in 1394 from rain-fed farmland?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> CODES BELOW IF NO SECOND CROP, WRITE '00'	If '00', go to 6.44
6.41	How much of this <second-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	
6.42	What was the third most important crop (in total value) your household harvested in the spring harvesting season in 1394 from rain-fed farmland?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> CODES BELOW IF NO THIRD CROP, WRITE '00'	If '00', go to 6.44
6.43	How much of this <third-most important crop> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	

Codes for 6.38, 6.40 and 6.42 (Crops harvested from rain-fed land)

00 = No second or third crop (only for 6.40 and 6.42)	3 = Maize / sorghum	7 = Melon / watermelon
1 = Wheat	4 = Cotton	8 = Other crop
2 = Barley	5 = Flax	95 = Harvest failed completely (only for 6.37)
	6 = Cumin	

6.44	Did anyone in your household have access (owing or other access) to a garden plot in 1394?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 6.51
6.45	To how many jeribs of garden plot did your household have access in 1394?	Jeribs <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	
6.46	How many jeribs of garden plot were altogether cultivated or tended by members of your household in 1394?	Jeribs <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> IF NONE, WRITE '0.0'	If '00', go to 6.51
6.47	In terms of total value, what was the most important crop or fruit your household harvested in 1394 from the garden plot?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE	If '95', go to 6.51
6.48	How much of this <most important crop or fruit> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	
6.49	What was the second most important crop or fruit (in total value) your household harvested in 1394 from the garden plot?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> CODES AT BOTTOM OF PAGE IF NO SECOND CROP, WRITE '00'	If '00', go to 6.51
6.50	How much of this <second-most important crop or fruit> did your household harvest then?	Kgs. <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	

Codes for 6.47 and 6.49 (Crops or fruits harvested from garden plot)

0 = No second-most important crop (only for 6.49)	5 = Apples	11 = Nuts
1 = Grapes, later sold as fresh grapes	6 = Pomegranates	12 = Maize / sorghum
2 = Grapes, later sold as raisins	7 = Peaches	13 = Alfalfa/clover/other fodder
3 = Apricots, later sold as fresh apricots	8 = Figs	14 = Shakarpara
4 = Apricots, later sold as dried apricots	9 = Plums	15 = Other
	10 = Other fruit	95 = Harvest failed completely (only for 6.47)

6. Farming (continued)		
6.51	INTERVIEWER: DID THE HOUSEHOLD CULTIVATE ANY FARM LAND IN THE SPRING HARVESTING PERIOD IN 1394, ON EITHER IRRIGATED OR RAIN-FED LAND?	<div>CHECK 6.9 AND 6.36</div> <div>Yes 1</div> <div>No 2</div>
		Go to M7
6.52	What was the main traction power your household used for ploughing in the 1394 spring harvesting season?	<div>Tractor / other machine 1</div> <div>Ox or other animal 2</div> <div>Human power 3</div>
6.53	For the 1394 harvesting season, how many kilo of fertiliser did your household use for farming?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
6.54	For the 1394 harvesting season, how many kilo of fertiliser did your household need for farming?	Kgs. <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
6.55	For the total 1394 harvesting, how much did your household spend on the following farming inputs?	<div>Afghanis</div> <div>WRITE '00' IF NO SPENDING</div> <div>a. Land rent <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>b. Seeds <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>c. Irrigation water <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>d. Fertilisers (UREA/DAP) <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>e. Pesticides and herbicides <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>f. Labour costs (e.g. for weeding) <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>g. Machine/tractor rent <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div> <div>h. Other costs for land preparation, tillage and harvesting <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></div>

7. Household assets

7.1	How many of the following items does your household own? IF NONE, WRITE '0'										
	Item	Item code	No. of pieces		Item	Item code	No. of pieces		Item	Item code	No. of pieces
	a. Refrigerator	1	<input type="text"/>		g. Gas heater	7	<input type="text"/>		m. VCR/DVD	13	<input type="text"/>
	b. Washing machine	2	<input type="text"/>		h. Sewing machine	8	<input type="text"/>		n. Computer	14	<input type="text"/>
	c. Vacuum cleaner	3	<input type="text"/>		i. Iron	9	<input type="text"/>		o. Bicycle	15	<input type="text"/>
	d. Meat grinder	4	<input type="text"/>		j. Electric fan (stand)	10	<input type="text"/>		p. Motorcycle	16	<input type="text"/>
	e. Bread oven (dash)	5	<input type="text"/>		k. Radio, tape recorder	11	<input type="text"/>		q. Car	17	<input type="text"/>
	f. Stove / gas balloon	6	<input type="text"/>		l. TV	12	<input type="text"/>		r. Tractor / thresher	18	<input type="text"/>
	Total items A <input type="text"/>				Total items B <input type="text"/>				Total items C <input type="text"/>		
7.2	Grand total of A+B+C <input type="text"/>										
<p>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.</p>											
7.3	Item			7.3	7.4	7.5					
7.4	No.	Description	Code	Did you buy this <item> in the last 12 months?	How much did you pay for this <item>?	According to current prices, what do you think you could get if you sold it?					
7.5				1=Yes 2=No If 7.3 is '2', go to 7.5	If 'Don't know', write '9,999,999' Go to next item	If 'Don't know', write '9,999,999'					
	01	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	02	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	03	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	04	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	05	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	06	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	07	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	08	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	09	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	10	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	11	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	12	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	13	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					
	14	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>					

7. Household assets (continued)

7.3	Item			7.3	7.4	7.5
7.4	No.	Description	Code	Did you buy this <item> in the last 12 months?	How much did you pay for this <item>?	According to current prices, what do you think you could get if you sold it?
7.5				1=Yes 2=No	If 'Don't know', write '9,999,999'	If 'Don't know', write '9,999,999'
				If 7.3 is '2', go to 7.5	Go to next item	
	15	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	16	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	17	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	18	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	19	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	20	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	21	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	22	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	23	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	24	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	25	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	26	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	27	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	28	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	29	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	30	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

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7. Household assets (continued)

<p>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</p>			
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?
	a. Mobile phones	a. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	a. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	b. Carpets (qalin) (expensive best quality hand-woven)	b. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	b. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	c. Gilim, satrangi, namad, fash (other carpet- products)	c. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	c. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	d. Blankets	d. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	d. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	e. Satellite dishes	e. <input type="text"/>	e. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	f. Solar panels	f. <input type="text"/>	f. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
	g. Kitchen utensils (dishes / pots and pans)		g. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
7.8	<p>CHECK QUESTION 7.6.a; IF HOUSEHOLD HAS A MOBILE PHONE, ASK 7.8, OTHERWISE GO TO 7.9</p> <p>Could we please ask you to give us your phone number? <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/></p> <p>This will only be used to contact you in case we have forgotten something and will be entirely confidential.</p>		
7.9	How many male household members have used the Internet in the past 12 months?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
7.10	How many female household members have used the Internet in the past 12 months?	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
7.11	Do you have a connection to the Internet in your dwelling?	<p>Yes 1</p> <p>No 2</p>	

8. Household income	
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8.1 8.2	8.1 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 9	8.2 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? Percent IF 100 PERCENT, GO TO 8.9
8.3 8.4	8.3 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 8.9	8.4 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? Percent
8.5 8.6	8.5 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 8.9	8.6 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? Percent
8.7 8.8	8.7 Which activities provided the fourth most important source of money income for this household? FOR CODES, SEE BELOW IF NO FOURTH SOURCE, WRITE '00' AND GO TO 8.9	8.8 What was approximately the share of income from these activities in the total household income? Percent
8.9	What was approximately the total amount of money income from <ACTIVITY MENTIONED IN 8.1> in the last year?	

Codes for 8.1, 8.3, 8.5, 8.7 (Income-generating activities)

Agriculture and livestock

- 1=Production & sale of field crops and by-products (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=Shepharding 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
65=Pension
66=Dowry
67=Begging

9. Household expenditure (continued)

		Afghanis	
Can you please tell me what the household spent in the last YEAR for the following: ALWAYS WRITE '0' IF NOTHING PAID			
9.22	House construction and repair (materials and labour)	9.22
9.23	Education fees (tuition for school, college, university)	9.23
9.24	School uniforms	9.24
9.25	Textbooks	9.25
9.26	Pens, pencils and notebooks (school supplies)	9.26
9.27	Other stationery	9.27
9.28	Repair, maintenance and tires for motor vehicles	9.28
9.29	Airfares	9.29
9.30	Men's clothing (excluding shoes)	9.30
9.31	Women's clothing (excluding shoes)	9.31
9.32	Children's clothing (excluding school uniforms and shoes)	9.32
9.33	Men's shoes	9.33
9.34	Women's shoes	9.34
9.35	Children's shoes	9.35
9.36	Fines or debt payments	9.36
9.37	Weddings and funerals, haj	9.37
9.38	Annual celebrations and charitable donations (khair-o-khairat)	9.38
9.39	Prescription glasses and other vision products?	9.39
9.40	Hearing aids, canes and prosthetic devices?	9.40

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9. Household expenditure (continued)				
	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.			
9.41	In the last 12 MONTHS , how many members of your household stayed in a hospital overnight?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	If '0', go to 9.52	
9.42	Who was/were the household member(s) that stayed overnight at a health facility? <div style="float: right; text-align: right; font-size: small;"> INTERVIEWER: LIST NAME(S) AND LINE NUMBERS OF IN-PATIENTS IN 9.43 IF MORE THAN THREE IN-PATIENTS, USE AN ADDITIONAL SHEET </div>			
9.43	Line number of hospitalised person(s) Name of hospitalised person(s)	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
9.44	How many times was <name> admitted in the health facility in the last 12 months?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
9.45	For what type of disease was treatment or service provided during <name's> latest stay in hospital? <div style="float: right; text-align: right; font-size: small;"> CODES BELOW IF 'OTHER' (16), SPECIFY DISEASE </div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
9.46	Where did <name> most recently stay overnight for health care? IF 'OTHER' (4), SPECIFY TYPE OF HOSPITAL	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <small>CODES ARE BELOW</small>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <small>CODES ARE BELOW</small>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <small>CODES ARE BELOW</small>
9.47	How much was paid for the following services received during <name's> last stay in the hospital?	Afghanis	Afghanis	Afghanis
	a. Registration fees	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
	b. Fees to the doctor / consultation fees	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
	c. Laboratory tests and X-ray	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
	d. Drugs and supplies	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
	e. Food	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
	f. Transportation	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>
9.48	ALWAYS WRITE '0' IF NOTHING PAID If I am right, the total amount spent for <name> was Afs <mention total>, is that correct?	ADD UP THE COSTS OF 9.47 a TO f AND ASK QUESTION 9.48 <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> </div>		
		IF NOT CORRECT, PROBE FOR RIGHT ANSWERS AND CORRECT		

Codes for 9.45 (Type of disease) Infectious and parasitic diseases 1 = Tuberculosis (TB) 2 = Intestinal infectious disease (diarrhea) 3 = Malaria 4 = Neoplasms (tumors) Endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases 5 = Diabetes 6 = Nutrition 7 = Mental / behavioural disorders	Diseases of the circulatory system 8 = Hypertensive diseases 9 = Heart disease Respiratory system diseases 10 = Acute Respiratory Infections 11 = Asthma 12 = Diseases of the digestive system 13 = Diseases of the genitourinary system 14 = Pregnancy, delivery, post-natal 15 = Injury, poisoning, other external influences 16 = Other diseases, specify	Codes for 9.46 (Health facility) 1 = Public hospital (in Afghanistan) 2 = Private hospital (in Afghanistan) 3 = Military hospital (in Afghanistan) 4 = Other in Afghanistan 5 = Abroad
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9. Household expenditure (continued)

9.49	Other than money, were any gifts or services given for the services received during <name's> latest hospitalisation?	Yes 1	No 2	Yes 1	No 2	Yes 1	No 2
		If 2, go to 9.51		If 2, go to 9.51		If 2, go to 9.51	
9.50	What would you estimate was the total value of this contribution (in Afghanis)	Afghanis [][] , [][]		Afghanis [][] , [][]		Afghanis [][] , [][]	
9.51	Where did the money come from that was used to pay for the costs of <name's> latest hospital stay?	[] Codes below		[] Codes below		[] Codes below	
		Codes for Q51 (Money source) 1 = Salary or other regular income 2 = Savings 3 = Loan, borrowing 4 = Sale of house, land or reproductive livestock		5 = Sale of household assets 6 = Renting out or mortgaging land 7 = Other, specify _____ 8 = No costs were made			

9.52	Now I would like to ask some questions about the household members who consulted a health care provider in the PAST MONTH , but did NOT stay overnight		
	In the past MONTH , 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 M10
9.53	Who was/were the household member(s) that visited a health facility last month without staying overnight?	INTERVIEWER:	LIST NAME(S) AND LINE NUMBERS OF OUT-PATIENTS IN 9.54 IF MORE THAN THREE OUT-PATIENTS, USE AN ADDITIONAL SHEET
9.54	Line number of out-patient(s)	[][]	[][]
	Name of out-patient(s)	_____	_____
9.55	For what type of disease was treatment or service provided during <name's> latest visit without overnight stay in the past month?	[][]	[][]
	CODES BELOW IF 'OTHER' (16), SPECIFY DISEASE	_____	_____
9.56	Where did <name> receive this care?	[][]	[][]
	IF 'OTHER' (8), SPECIFY TYPE OF HOSPITAL	CODES ARE BELOW _____	CODES ARE BELOW _____

Codes for 9.55 (Type of disease)

Infectious and parasitic diseases
 1 = Tuberculosis (TB)
 2 = Intestinal infectious disease (diarrhea)
 3 = Malaria
 4 = Neoplasms (tumors)
 Endocrine, nutritional and metabolic diseases
 5 = Diabetes
 6 = Nutrition
 7 = Mental / behavioural disorders

Diseases of the circulatory system
 8 = Hypertensive diseases
 9 = Heart disease
 Respiratory system diseases
 10 = Acute Respiratory Infections
 11 = Asthma
 12 = Diseases of the digestive system
 13 = Diseases of the genitourinary system
 14 = Pregnancy, delivery, post-natal
 15 = Injury, poisoning, other external influences
 16 = Other diseases, specify

Codes for 9.56 (Health facility)

1 = Public clinic / health post
 2 = Public hospital
 3 = Private clinic
 4 = Private hospital
 5 = Military health facility
 6 = Private pharmacy
 7 = Hospital/clinic abroad
 8 = Other, specify

9. Household expenditure (continued)

9.57	How much was paid for the following services received during <name's> last visit in the past month?	Afghanis	Afghanis	Afghanis
	a. Registration fees	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
	b. Fees to the doctor / consultation fees	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
	c. Laboratory tests and X-ray	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
	d. Drugs and supplies	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
	e. Food	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
	f. Transportation	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
9.58	ALWAYS WRITE '0' IF NOTHING PAID If I am right, the total amount spent for <name> was Afs <mention total>, is that correct?	ADD UP THE COSTS OF 9.57 a TO f AND ASK QUESTION 9.58		
		[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]	[][] , [][][]
		IF NOT CORRECT, PROBE FOR RIGHT ANSWERS AND CORRECT		
9.59	Other than money, were any gifts or services given for the care/treatment received in the past one month?	Yes No 1 2	Yes No 1 2	Yes No 1 2
		If 2, go to 9.61	If 2, go to 9.61	If 2, go to 9.61
9.60	What would you estimate was the total value of this contribution (in Afghanis)	Afghanis [][] , [][][]	Afghanis [][] , [][][]	Afghanis [][] , [][][]
9.61	In the past one month, did <name> obtain any medicine? NOT INCLUDING DRUGS MENTIONED ABOVE	Yes No 1 2	Yes No 1 2	Yes No 1 2
		If 2, go to next person	If 2, go to next person	If 2, go to next person
9.62	Who prescribed this medicine to <name>? DO NOT READ THE ANSWERS CODES BELOW	1 2 3 4 5 6 If 'Other' (6), specify _____	1 2 3 4 5 6 If 'Other' (6), specify _____	1 2 3 4 5 6 If 'Other' (6), specify _____
9.63	Where was the medicine for <name> obtained? DO NOT READ THE ANSWERS CODES BELOW	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 If 'Other' (7), specify _____	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 If 'Other' (7), specify _____	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 If 'Other' (7), specify _____
9.64	How much was paid for all the medication obtained for <name> over the past one month? IF MEDICINES WERE OBTAINED FREE OF COSTS, WRITE '0'	Afghanis [][] , [][][]	Afghanis [][] , [][][]	Afghanis [][] , [][][]

Codes for 9.62 (Medicine prescription)

- 1 = Doctor
- 2 = Midwife
- 3 = Nurse
- 4 = Community Health Worker
- 5 = Private pharmacist
- 6 = Other, specify

Codes for 9.63 (Where medicine obtained)

- 1 = Public clinic / health post
- 2 = Public hospital
- 3 = Private clinic
- 4 = Private hospital
- 5 = Military health facility
- 6 = Private pharmacy
- 7 = Other, specify

10. Household shocks and coping strategies			
10.1	<p>In the last 12 months, has the household experienced any events that had strongly negative effects on the members of the household?</p> <p>Yes 1</p> <p>No 2</p> <p>EXPLAIN THAT SUCH EVENTS COULD BE RELATED TO, FOR EXAMPLE THE LIVELIHOOD OF THE HOUSEHOLD, HEALTH OF HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS, SECURITY OR LIVING CONDITIONS</p>		Go to 10.5
10.2	10.2 Please, tell me what was the type of these events.	10.3 What was the severity of this shock?	
10.3	CIRCLE UP TO THREE HOUSEHOLD SHOCKS	ASK FOR ANY OF THE CIRCLED SHOCKS	
		1 = Light, 2 = Moderate, 3 = Severe	
	a. Reduced drinking water	a.	1 2 3
	b. Reduced agricultural water	b.	1 2 3
	c. Unusually high level of crop pests or diseases	c.	1 2 3
	d. Severe loss of opium production	d.	1 2 3
	e. Unusually high level livestock diseases	e.	1 2 3
	f. Reduced availability of grazing areas	f.	1 2 3
	g. Reduced availability of Kuchi migration routes	g.	1 2 3
	h. Natural disaster (earthquakes, landslides, avalanches)	h.	1 2 3
	i. Extreme weather conditions, negatively affecting crops or income earning	i.	1 2 3
	j. Large influx of returnee households	j.	1 2 3
	k. Unusually high increases in food prices	k.	1 2 3
	l. Unusual decrease in farm gate prices	l.	1 2 3
	m. Strongly reduced household income (e.g. loss of employment or salary, bussiness bankruptcy)	m.	1 2 3
	n. Serious illness, accident or death of working household member	n.	1 2 3
	o. Serious illness, accident or death of other household member	o.	1 2 3
	p. Loss of house, land or livestock	p.	1 2 3
	q. Insecurity, violence, theft	q.	1 2 3
10.4	<p>What did the household do to cope with any of these shocks?</p> <p>DO <u>NOT</u> MENTION THE OPTIONS, BUT PROBE FOR ANSWERS</p> <p>CIRCLE ALL ANSWERS THAT WERE MENTIONED</p> <p>Any other strategy that you can think of?</p>		
	<p>a. Did not need to do anything to compensate</p> <p>b. Reduced quality of diet</p> <p>c. Reduced amount of food or skipped meals</p> <p>d. Decreased expenditures</p> <p>e. Purchased food on credit from traders</p> <p>f. Took loans</p> <p>g. Received help from others in the community</p> <p>h. Sold assets</p> <p>i. Rented out or mortgaged land</p> <p>j. Sold house, land or female reproductive livestock</p> <p>k. Worked on relief programmes</p> <p>l. Joined military</p> <p>m. Dropped children from school</p> <p>n. Increased child labour</p> <p>o. Sold child brides</p> <p>p. Begging</p> <p>q. Other, specify</p>		

10. Household shocks and coping strategies (continued)																					
10.5	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 10.7																		
10.6	How many members of your household worked in the following programmes/projects? IF NO MEMBERS WORKED IN SPECIFIC PROGRAMME, WRITE '0'	a. Food-for-work <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table> b. Cash-for-work <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table> c. Income-generating <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.7	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																			
10.8	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																			
10.9	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																			
10.10	Is this household currently displaced because of violence or insecurity in the usual place of residence?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 10.12																		
10.11	In which province in Afghanistan did this household live before displacement?	Province <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table> <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.12	Since 1381 (2002), has this household <u>returned</u> from displacement from outside or inside Afghanistan?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 10.20																		
10.13	From which province in Afghanistan or from which country did this household return?	Province/country <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table> <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.14	Did the household live in a village, in a town or in a camp for refugees or displaced persons there?	Village 1 Town 2 Camp 3																			
10.15	When did the household flee to that place?	Shamsi year <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.16	When did the household come to this present place?	Shamsi year <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.17	Was the household assisted by UNHCR or another agency or was it deported or did it return spontaneously?	Assisted by UNHCR or other agency 1 Deported 2 Returned spontaneously 3																			
10.18	In which country or province in Afghanistan did this household live before displacement?	Province/country <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table> <table border="1" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"><tr><td></td><td></td></tr></table>																			
10.19	Did the household live in a village or a town or in a camp for refugees or displaced persons then?	Village 1 Town 2 Camp 3																			

10. Household shocks and coping strategies (continued)

		10.20	10.21	10.22
Development priority		From what government assistance to this community would your household benefit most?	What would be the second priority for your household for government assistance to this community?	What would be the third priority for your household for government assistance to this community?
INTERVIEWER:	CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PRIORITY EACH			
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	Construction or repair of local roads	4	4	4
e	Bridge construction/rehabilitation	5	5	5
f	New/improved local health facilities	6	6	6
g	New/improved local education facilities for girls	7	7	7
h	New/improved local education facilities for boys	8	8	8
i	New/improved local education facilities for girls&boys	9	9	9
j	New/improved housing in community	10	10	10
k	Improved agricultural services	11	11	11
l	Improved veterinary services	12	12	12
m	New/improved micro-credit schemes	13	13	13
n	Increased employment opportunities for women	14	14	14
o	Increased employment opportunities for men	15	15	15
p	Increased employment opportunities for women&men	16	16	16
q	Literacy training for women	17	17	17
r	Literacy training for men	18	18	18
s	Literacy training for both women&men	19	19	19
t	Vocational skills training for women	20	20	20
u	Vocational skills training for men	21	21	21
v	Vocational skills training for both women&men	22	22	22
w	Electricity provision	23	23	23
x	Reformed/improved local justice systems	24	24	24
y	Increased security	25	25	25
z	Disarmament of local militia/commanders	26	26	26
aa	Local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms	27	27	27
ab	Other, specify	28	28	28
If second priority is 'Other', specify:				
If third priority is 'Other', specify:				

11. Education													
11.1	11.2	11.3	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.9	11.10	11.11	11.12	11.13	
CIRCLE LINE NUMBER IF THE PERSON IS 6 YEARS OR OLDER	For persons 6 years of age and over												
	Can <name> read and write?	Did <name> have any home schooling or literacy school?	Did <name> follow any technical or vocational training in the past 12 months?	Did <name> ever attend school?	What was the main reason that <name> never started school? Go to next person	What is the highest level of formal school <name> attended?	What is the highest grade <name> completed? If no grade completed, write '00'	Did <name> ever attend school / other education in 1395? If 'No', go to 11.11	During the 1395 school year, which level and grade did <name> attend?		What was the main reason that <name> did not attend school in 1395?	Did <name> ever attend school / other education in 1394? If 'No', go to next person	During the 1394 school year, which level and grade did <name> attend?
									Level	Grade			
1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	1=Yes 2=No	For codes see below	For codes and grades see below	1=Yes 2=No	For codes see below	Level	Grade	1=Yes 2=No	For codes see below	
01	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
02	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
03	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
04	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
05	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
06	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
07	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
08	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
09	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
10	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
11	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		
12	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2				1 2			1 2		

Codes for 11.7, 11.8, 11.10, 11.13 (Education level & grade)		Codes for 11.6 and 11.11 (Reason for non-attendance)	
1=Primary (1-6)	5=University (13-16) or Technical college (13-14)	01=No school/school too far	11=Schooling too expensive
2=Lower secondary (7-9)	6=Post-graduate (17-19)	02=Child too young	12=School temporarily not functioning
3=Upper secondary (10-12)	7=Islamic school (1-14)	03=Family didn't allow	13=Security concerns
4=Teacher college (13-14)		04=Family didn't allow	14=Had insufficient exam results (kankor)
		05=School didn't allow	15=Other reason

12. Labour							
ASK QUESTIONS 12.2 TO 12.19 FOR HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER (LEAVE LINES OF PERSONS UNDER 14 BLANK)							
12.1 CIRCLE LINE NUMBER IF THE PERSON IS 14 YEARS OR OLDER	12.2 In the last week, did <name> work for any business, organisation or person that does not belong to this household? 1 = Yes 2 = No	12.3 In the last week, did <name> do any farm work on own land or land of others - such as cultivating, harvesting crops, land preparing - or tend any livestock or poultry? 1 = Yes 2 = No	12.4 In the last week, did <name> do any non-agricultural work, on own account or in a business that belongs to this household, e.g. in trading, running a shop, driving a taxi, tailoring, carpentry, carpet weaving, making handicrafts, etc.? 1 = Yes 2 = No	12.5 In the last week, did <name> produce any durable goods - such as clothes, carpets, kelims, furniture, etc. - for own use by household members? 1 = Yes 2 = No	12.6 1 = ANY ONE OF QUESTIONS 12.2 TO 12.5 IS 'YES' 2 = ALL QUESTIONS 12.2 TO 12.5 ARE 'NO' If 'Yes', go to 12.13	12.7 Did <name> perhaps do any of these activities; even just for only one hour? 1 = Yes 2 = No, not even one hour If Yes go to 12.13	12.8 Although <name> did not work last week, does he/she have work from which he/she was temporarily absent? 1 = Yes 2 = No If 'No', go to 12.10
01	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
02	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
03	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
04	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
05	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
06	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
07	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
08	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
09	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
10	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
11	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
12	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2

12. Labour (continued)									
HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER (LEAVE LINES OF PERSONS UNDER 14 BLANK)									
Line no.	12.1	12.9	12.10	12.11	12.12	12.13	12.14	12.15	
		What is the main reason that <name> was absent from work in the last week? Go to next 12.20 For codes, see below	Was <name> available for work in the last week if it had been offered?	If 12.7 is 'No' (Person is not working) Did <name> try to find work or start a business in the last four weeks? If 'Yes', go to 12.20 1 = Yes 2 = No	What is the main reason that <name> did not look for work in the last month? Go to 12.20 Codes, see at right	How was <name> working, as: 1=Day labourer 2=Salaried worker, private sector 3=Salaried worker, public sector 4=Self-employed without paid employees (e.g own-account farmer, share cropper, shop owner, street vendor, tailor) 5=Self-employed with paid employees 6=Unpaid family worker	How many days did <name> work in the last week?	How many actual hours per day did <name> on average work in the last week?	
01			1 2	1 2					Codes for 12.12 (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 = Family doesn't allow 14 = Other
02			1 2	1 2					
03			1 2	1 2					
04			1 2	1 2					
05			1 2	1 2					
06			1 2	1 2					
07			1 2	1 2					
08			1 2	1 2					
09			1 2	1 2					
10			1 2	1 2					
11			1 2	1 2					
12			1 2	1 2					

Codes for 12.9 (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)

12. Labour (continued)									
HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS 14 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER (LEAVE LINES OF PERSONS UNDER 14 BLANK)									
12.1		12.16	12.17	12.18	12.19	12.20	12.21		
Line no.		What were the main products produced or services delivered by the business or organisation in which <name> worked the last week? E.g producing wheat, raising livestock, retail sale of bread, primary school education, providing health care, police services, construction of buildings, transportation, local government	What were the main tasks and duties performed by <name> in the last week? E.g. farming land, tending chickens, selling shoes in a shop or on the street, teaching at primary school, guarding premises, bookkeeping, laying bricks, managing a sales department	Is <name> willing to work more hours per week than he/she is presently doing? 1 = Yes 2 = No	Does <name> have time to work more hours in a week, if offered? 1 = Yes 2 = No	Does <name> by him/herself or together with someone else have an account at a bank or another financial institution? If No, go to next person	In the past 12 months, has <name> used a mobile phone to pay bills or to send or receive money?		
01				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
02				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
03				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
04				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
05				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
06				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
07				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
08				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
09				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
10				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
11				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
12				1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	

13. Migration										
13.1	13.2	13.3	13.4	13.5	13.6	13.7	13.8	13.9	13.10	
Line no.	In which province of Afghanistan or in which country was <name> born? Write the name of the province or country of birth If place of birth differs from place of interview, go to 13.4	Did <name> at any time live outside <province of interview>? If 'No', go to 13.7 1 = Yes 2 = No	When did <name> leave the <place of birth>? Write Shamsi year	When did <name> come to live in this <province of interview>? Write Shamsi year	What was the main reason that <name> came to live in <province of interview>? For codes, see below	13.7		13.8	13.9	
						CIRCLE LINE NO. IF <NAME> IS 2 YEARS OR OLDER IF CIRCLED, CONTINUE IF NOT CIRCLED, GO TO 13.9	CIRCLE LINE NO. IF <NAME> IS 12 YEARS OR OLDER IF CIRCLED, CONTINUE IF NOT CIRCLED, GO TO NEXT PERSON		Did <name> spend one month or more away from the household for seasonal work in the past 12 months? 1 = Yes 2 = No	
01		1 2				01			01	1 2
02		1 2				02			02	1 2
03		1 2				03			03	1 2
04		1 2				04			04	1 2
05		1 2				05			05	1 2
06		1 2				06			06	1 2
07		1 2				07			07	1 2
08		1 2				08			08	1 2
09		1 2				09			09	1 2
10		1 2				10			10	1 2
11		1 2				11			11	1 2
12		1 2				12			12	1 2

Codes for 13.6 (Reason to come live in this place)		
1 = Moved because parents/family moved	5 = Fled from violence	9 = To receive health care
2 = To find work / better work	6 = Conflict about land or house	10 = Natural disaster
3 = To get married	7 = Joined family at new place of residence	11 = Other reason
4 = Returned from displacement	8 = To attend education	

14. Water testing

14.1	In the last month, has there been any time when your household did not have sufficient quantities of drinking water?	Yes 1 No 2 Don't know 3	
14.2	Is the household selected for the water quality test?	Yes 1 No 2	END
14.3	Could you please provide me with a glass of the water that members of this household usually drink?	Yes 1 No 2	END
14.4	Was a water sample collected?	Yes 1 Label sample H-XXXX-YY , where XXXX is the cluster number and YY is the household number Conduct water test within 30 minutes No 2	END
14.5	Is the drinking water collected from a source within the dwelling/compound or from somewhere outside?	Source in the dwelling or compound 1 Source elsewhere 2	Goto 14.8
14.6	Could you show me (or the female interviewer) the source, so I (she) can take a sample from there as well?	Yes 1 No 2	Goto 14.9
14.7	Was water sample from the source collected by the interviewer him(her)self in the dwelling or compound?	Yes 1 Label sample S-XXXX-YY , where XXXX is the cluster number and YY is the household number Conduct water test within 30 minutes No 2	Goto 14.9
14.8	Please explain me where this water collection point is located Was a water sample from the source collected by the supervisor (or interviewer) elsewhere? ANSWER TO BE PROVIDED BY SUPERVISOR	INTERVIEWER: INFORM THE SUPERVISOR WHERE TO GO TO TAKE THE WATER SAMPLE FROM THE SOURCE Yes 1 Label sample S-XXX-YY , where XXX is the cluster number and YY is the household number Conduct water test within 30 minutes No, source too far away 2 No, source is the same as for other household for which a sample was already taken 3 No, other reason, specify 4	Goto 14.9
14.9	Is the household selected for blank testing? Instructions required for selection	Yes 1 No 2	END
14.10	OBTAIN A SAMPLE OF STERILE/MINERAL WATER FROM YOUR SUPERVISOR Was a blank water sample collected from the supervisor?	Yes 1 Label sample B-XXXX-YY , where XXXX is the cluster number and YY is the household number Conduct water test within 30 minutes No, specify reason 2	END END

Results of water testing			
<p>FOLLOWING 24-48 HOURS OF INCUBATION, THE RESULTS FROM THE WATER QUALITY TESTS SHOULD BE RECORDED</p> <p>RECORD THE 3-DIGIT COUNT OF BLUE COLONIES FOR THE HOUSEHOLD AND SOURCE SAMPLE</p> <p>- IF 101 OR MORE COLONIES ARE COUNTED, RECORD '101'</p> <p>- IF IT IS NOT POSSIBLE TO READ RESULTS / RESULTS ARE LOST, RECORD '998'</p>			
14.11	Result of household water test	Number of blue colonies in 100 ml.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
14.12	Result of source water test	Number of blue colonies in 100 ml. IF NO SOURCE SAMPLE WAS TAKEN, RECORD '997'	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
14.13	Result of blank water test	Number of blue colonies in 100 ml. IF NO BLANK SAMPLE WAS TAKEN, RECORD '997'	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>



Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) 2016-17



20. Household identification (Female questionnaire)

INTERVIEWER: COPY INFORMATION FROM MODULE 1 (HOUSEHOLD IDENTIFICATION, MALE QUESTIONNAIRE)

<p>20.1 Province name <input style="width: 150px;" type="text"/> Code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.2 District name <input style="width: 150px;" type="text"/> Code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.3 Control and Enumeration Area code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.4 Cluster code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.5 Residence code Urban 1 Rural 2 Kuchi 3</p> <p>20.6 If 1.5 is 1 Urban nahia <input style="width: 150px;" type="text"/> Code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.7 If 1.5 is 2 Village name <input style="width: 150px;" type="text"/> Code <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.13 Interview start time Hour <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/> : Minute <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p>	<p>20.8 Household number (1-15) <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.9 Door number <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.10 Name of head of household <input style="width: 180px;" type="text"/></p> <div style="background-color: #cccccc; height: 80px; margin: 5px 0;"></div> <p>20.11 Line number of senior female respondent <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.12 Line number of male respondent in case of absence of female household members <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p> <p>20.14 Interview finish time Hour <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/> : Minute <input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/><input style="width: 30px;" type="text"/></p>
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MODULES 21 TO 24 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

IN CASE OF ABSENCE OF ANY RESPONSIBLE FEMALE HOUSEHOLD MEMBER OR IF THERE IS NO FEMALE INTERVIEWER A MALE HOUSEHOLD MEMBER SHOULD BE ASKED TO ANSWER QUESTIONS OF MODULES 20, 22.A, 23 AND 24 ONLY. IN THESE CASES, THE LINE NUMBER OF THE MALE RESPONDENT SHOULD BE FILLED IN QUESTION 20.12 ABOVE

MODULES 22.B AND 25 SHOULD BE ADMINISTERED TO ELIGIBLE WOMEN INDIVIDUALLY

21. Missing household members

INTERVIEWER,
SAY:

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.	Write the name of each missed household member	What is the relationship of <name> to the head of household?	How old is <name>?	Is <name> male or female?	What is <name's> marital status?	Line number of (first) spouse	Does <name's> father live in this household?	Line number of this father	Does <name's> mother live in this household?	Line number of this mother
For codes, see below			For codes, see below		For codes, see below		For codes, see below		For codes, see below	
For codes, see below			For codes, see below		For codes, see below		For codes, see below		For codes, see below	
CON- TINUE FROM LAST NUM- BER										

Codes for 21.3 (Relationship to head of household)

02 = Wife or husband	06 = Father or mother	10 = Other relative
03 = Son or daughter	07 = Nephew or niece	11 = Unrelated member
04 = Son-/daughter-in-law	08 = Brother or sister	
05 = Grandchild	09 = Brother-/sister-in-law	

Codes for 21.6 (Marital status)

1 = Married	4 = Engaged
2 = Widowed	5 = Never married
3 = Divorced or separated	

22.A General living conditions			
MODULES 22 TO 24 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	How many chickens does this household own today?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	IF '0', GO TO 22.8
22.2	Is this number more, the same or less than one year ago?	More 1 The same 2 Less 3	
22.3	How many of the chickens that the household has now are vaccinated?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.4	How many of the chickens are productive hens?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.5	How many live chickens did the household sell in the last 12 months?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.6	How much chicken meat did the household sell in the last month?	Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.7	How many chicken eggs did the household sell in the last month?	Number <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.8	How many other poultry, such as geese, turkeys or ducks, does this household own today?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	IF '0', GO TO 22.15
22.9	Is this number more, the same or less than one year ago?	More 1 The same 2 Less 3	
22.10	How many of this other poultry that the household has now are vaccinated?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.11	How many of this poultry are productive animals?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.12	How many live poultry did the household sell in the last 12 months?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.13	How much poultry meat did the household sell in the last month?	Kg. <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.14	How many poultry eggs did the household sell in the last month?	Number <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.15	What has the household spent in the last month for:		
	a. Cosmetics and beauty supplies	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
	b. Personal grooming (beauty parlours, haircuts, etc) for women and girls (NOT MALES)	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
	c. Baby powder milk	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
	d. Cerilac baby food	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
	e. Diapers	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
22.16	What has the household spent in the last year for tahwiz/s hoyest (talisman for health)?	<input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	

22.B General living conditions (continued)		
22.17	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
22.18	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
22.19	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
CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE		

22.B General living conditions (continued)				
22.20 22.21 22.22	Development priority	22.20 From what govern- ment assistance to this community would your household benefit most?	22.21 What would be the second priority for your household for government assistance to this community?	22.22 What would be the third priority for your household for government assistance to this community?
	INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PRIORITY EACH			
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	Construction or repair of local roads	4	4	4
e	Bridge construction/rehabilitation	5	5	5
f	New/improved local health facilities	6	6	6
g	New/improved local education facilities for girls	7	7	7
h	New/improved local education facilities for boys	8	8	8
i	New/improved local education facilities for girls&boys	9	9	9
j	New/improved housing in community	10	10	10
k	Improved agricultural services	11	11	11
l	Improved veterinary services	12	12	12
m	New/improved micro-credit schemes	13	13	13
n	Increased employment opportunities for women	14	14	14
o	Increased employment opportunities for men	15	15	15
p	Increased employment opportunities for women&men	16	16	16
q	Literacy training for women	17	17	17
r	Literacy training for men	18	18	18
s	Literacy training for both women&men	19	19	19
t	Vocational skills training for women	20	20	20
u	Vocational skills training for men	21	21	21
v	Vocational skills training for both women&men	22	22	22
w	Electricity provision	23	23	23
x	Reformed/improved local justice systems	24	24	24
y	Increased security	25	25	25
z	Disarmament of local militia/commanders	26	26	26
aa	Local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms	27	27	27
ab	Other, specify	28	28	28
<p style="text-align: center;">If second priority is 'Other', specify:</p> <p style="text-align: center;">If third priority is 'Other', specify:</p>				

23. Food consumption					
23.1	How many household members were resident and ate at least dinner regularly in the household during the last 7 days?		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
23.2	How many meals were eaten by guests from the household cooking pot in the last 7 days? WRITE '0' IF NO GUESTS ATE IN THE HOUSE IN THE LAST 7 DAYS		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
23.3	How many times have meals been eaten outside of the home (not from household food) by household members in the last 7 days?		<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
23.4	How many meals were eaten by household members <u>yesterday</u> ? a. Children under five years of age <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> b. Boys, aged 5 to 17 years of age <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> c. Girls, aged 5 to 17 years of age <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> d. Adult men, aged 18 to 64 years of age <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> e. Adult women, aged 18 to 64 years of age <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> f. Elderly, 65 years of age and over <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>				
INTERVIEWER, READ OUT: I would like to ask you about different foods that your household members and any guests have eaten in the last 7 days. First, I will ask questions for general food types and after that for specific food items. We are also interested in how you obtained the food.					
23.5	23.5		23.6		
23.6	How many days in the past 7 days has your household has eaten the following food types? IF '0' SKIP 23.6 AND GO TO NEXT FOOD TYPE		What was the main source of this item? For codes, see below		
	a. Cereals (bread, wheat, rice, maize, etc.)	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	b. Tubers (potatoes, sweet potatoes, etc.)	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	c. Pulses (beans, lentils, peas, etc.)	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	d. Vegetables	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	e. Fruits	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	f. Meat, off all type, fishes and eggs	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	g. Dairy (milk, yogurt, cheese, other milk products, excluding milk in tea)	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	h. Sugar, honey, sweets	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
	i. Oil, fats, butter	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 20px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>		
<table style="width: 100%; border: none;"> <tr> <td style="width: 60%; vertical-align: top;"> Codes for 23.8 (Food source) 1 = Purchase 2 = Own production 3 = Bartered / payment in kind </td> <td style="width: 40%; vertical-align: top;"> 4 = Borrowed / taken on credit 5 = Received as gift 6 = Food aid 7 = Other </td> </tr> </table>				Codes for 23.8 (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
Codes for 23.8 (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				
CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE					

23. Food consumption (continued)

INTERVIEWER, READ OUT: I would like to ask you about all the different foods that your household members and any guests. Now, I will ask similar questions, but for specific food items.

Also, we are interested how much of each food item the household used in the last 7 days.

Food item	23.7	23.8	23.9
	How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days?	What was the main source of this item?	What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
	If '0', go to next item	For codes, see below	
Bread and cereals			
Rice, high quality	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Rice, low quality	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Wheat flour	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Purchased nan	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Pieces
Barley	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Maize (corn)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Beans	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Mung	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Chick peas	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Lentils	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pasta, macaroni	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Other bread and cereals	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Meat and fish			
Beef	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Veal	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Mutton	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Goat	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Chicken	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Liver	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Dried meat	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Fish	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Other meat and fish	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs

Codes for 23.8 (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

CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE

23. Food consumption (continued)			
Food item	23.7	23.8	23.9
	How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days?	What was the main source of this item?	What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
	If '0', go to next item	For codes, see below	
Milk, cheese and eggs			
Milk (fresh)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Milk (powdered)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Yogurt	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Curd (chaka)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Krut (dried)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Dogh	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Ghee	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Butter	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Cheese	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Eggs (number)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Number
Other dairy products	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Oils and fat			
Vegetable oil, cotton oil or sesame oil	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Animal fat	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Other oils and fat	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Vegetables			
Potato	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Sweet potato	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Onion	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Tomato	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Okra	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Spinach	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Cauliflower	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Pieces
Eggplant	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Carrots	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pumpkin, squash	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Cucumber	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Codes for 23.8 (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			
CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE			

23. Food consumption (vegetables continued)			
Food item	23.7	23.8	23.9
	How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days?	What was the main source of this item?	What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
	If '0', go to next item	For codes, see below	
Radish	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Turnip	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Cabbage	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Leek	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Hot pepper	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Wild leafy vegetables	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Coriander	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Mint	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Dried tomatoes	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Dried vegetables	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pickled vegetables	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Green beans	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Other vegetables	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Specify:			

Fruit and nuts			
Apple	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Grapes	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Melon, watermelon	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Peach	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Fresh apricots	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Dried apricots	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Orange, citrus	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Plum	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pomegranate	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pear	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Banana	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Pieces
Raisins	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Fresh mulberries	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs

Codes for 23.8 (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
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CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE

23. Food consumption (fruits and nuts continued)			
Food item	23.7	23.8	23.9
	How many days did you eat this item in the last 7 days?	What was the main source of this item?	What was the amount used in the last 7 days?
	If '0', go to next item	For codes, see below	
Dried mulberries	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Mangoes	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Walnuts (without shells)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Pistachio (without shells)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Almonds (without shells)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Other fruit	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Sugar and sweets			
White sugar	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Brown sugar	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Honey	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Chocolates, candy, sherinigack	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Beverages			
Black tea	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Green tea	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Bottled/canned beverages, mineral water (liters)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Liters
Other beverages	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Liters
Spices			
Salt	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> . <input type="text"/> Kgs
Black pepper	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Ginger and garlic	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Tomato sauce	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Mixed spices	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Other spices	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Grams
Codes for 23.8 (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			
CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE			

23. Food consumption (continued)			
23.10	In the past 7 days, were there any days when you did not have enough food or money to buy food?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to 23.12
23.11	In the past 7 days, how many days had your household to: WRITE '0' IF STRATEGY WAS NEVER USED a. Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods <input type="checkbox"/> b. Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative <input type="checkbox"/> c. Limit portion size at mealtimes <input type="checkbox"/> d. Restrict consumption by adults in order for small children to eat <input type="checkbox"/> e. Reduce number of meals eaten in a day <input type="checkbox"/>		
23.12	In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your house because of lack of resources to get food?	Never 1 Some time (1-10 times) 2 Often (more than 10 times) 3	
23.13	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	Never 1 Some time (1-10 times) 2 Often (more than 10 times) 3	
23.14	In the past four weeks did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything at all because there was not enough food?	Never 1 Some time (1-10 times) 2 Often (more than 10 times) 3	

24. Disability (to be asked for all household members)												
24.1 Line no.	24.2 Does <name> have difficulty seeing, even if wearing glasses?	24.3 What was the cause of this problem?	24.4 Does <name> have difficulty hearing, even if using a hearing aid?	24.5 What was the cause of this problem?	24.6 Does <name> have difficulty walking or climbing steps?	24.7 What was the cause of this problem?	24.8 Does <name> have difficulty with self-care, such as washing all over or dressing?	24.9 What was the cause of this problem?	24.10 Does <name> have difficulty remembering or concentrating?	24.11 What was the cause of this problem?	24.12 Because of a physical, mental or emotional health condition, does <name> have difficulty communicating, for example understanding others or others understanding him/her?	24.13 What was the cause of this problem?
	If 1, go to 24.4		If 1, go to 24.6		If 1, go to 24.8		If 1, go to 24.10		If 1, go to 24.12		If 1, go to next person	
FOR CODES: SEE AT BOTTOM OF PAGE												
01	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
02	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
03	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
04	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
05	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
06	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
07	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
08	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
09	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
10	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
11	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	
12	1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4		1 2 3 4	

Codes for 24.2/4/6/8/10/12 (Severity of disability)		Codes for 24.3/5/7/9/11/13 (Cause of disability)		Codes for 24.12 (Cause of disability)	
1=No - no difficulty	2=Yes - some difficulty	3=Yes - a lot of difficulty	4=Cannot do at all	5=Conflicts/war	6=Congenital (by birth)
				7=Illness	8=Old age
					9=Drugs
					10=Other



25. Maternal and child health

INTERVIEWER: ASK THESE QUESTIONS SEPARATELY TO EVERY WOMAN WHO HAS EVER BEEN MARRIED AND WHO IS 49 YEARS OR LESS (CHECK THE HOUSEHOLD ROSTER)																
25.1 Line no.	25.2 WHAT IS THE RESULT OF THE INTERVIEW WITH THIS WOMAN?	25.3 What is your marital status?	25.4 What is the name of your husband? COPY LINE NUMBER OF HUSBAND FROM ROSTER	25.5 Does (Did) your husband have more wives?	25.6 At what age were you married the first time?	25.7 Have you ever given birth? I mean, even if a child that ever cried or breathed or showed any signs of life, but lived only hours or minutes?	25.8 Did you give birth in the last 5 years? CHECK ROSTER FOR ANY CHILDREN UNDER-5 FOR THIS WOMAN	25.9 What was the month and year of the last birth you had? (even if the child died)?	25.10 Did you see anyone for ante-natal care during pregnancy?	25.11 How many times did you receive ante-natal care during your last pregnancy?	A doctor	A midwife or nurse	A traditional birth attendant	A Community Health Worker	Someone else	
		If 2 or 3, go to 25.5. For codes, see below	If husband is not a household member, write '98'	1 = Yes 2 = No		If 2, go to next eligible woman 1 = Yes 2 = No	If 2, go to next eligible woman 1 = Yes 2 = No	RECORD MONTH AND YEAR IN SHAMS! CALENDAR M Y Y Y	1 = Yes 2 = No Don't know	98 = Don't know						
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
				1 2		1 2	1 2		1 2 8		1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	
		Codes for 25.2 (Interview result) 1 = Completed 2 = Not at home 3 = Refused			Codes for 25.3 (Marital status) 1 = Married 2 = Widowed 3 = Divorced or separated											

25. Maternal and child health

[illegible]

III.2 ALCS MALE SHURA QUESTIONNAIRE

	Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) 2016-17	
Male Shura questionnaire		
1. Community identification		
1.1	Province name	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: flex-end;"> Code <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> </div>
1.2	District name	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: flex-end;"> Code <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> </div>
1.3	Control and Enumeration Area code	<input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>
1.4	Cluster code	<input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>
1.5	Residence code	Urban 1 Rural 2 Kuchi 3
1.6	If 1.5 is 1 Urban nahia	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: flex-end;"> Code <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> </div>
1.7	If 1.5 is 2 Village name	<input style="width: 100%;" type="text"/> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: flex-end;"> Code <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> </div>
1.8	Geographic information	
1.9	Latitude Range: 29.35 to 38.40 N <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
1.10	Longitude Range: 60.31 to 75.00 E <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
1.11	Altitude (m.) Range: 200 to 4500 m. <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
2. Process monitoring		
2.1	Date of interview Day <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> Month <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> Year <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
2.2	Interviewers' number Male interviewer <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
2.3	Supervisor's number	<input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>
2.4	Regional supervisor's number	
2.5	Date of office editing Day <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> Month <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> Year <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/> <input style="width: 20px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	
2.6	Office editor's code	
2.7	Data-entry officer code (first)	
2.8	Data-entry officer code (second)	

3a. Access																											
3.1	What is the landscape characteristic of the largest part of the 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 A DRIVABLE ROAD IS IN THE COMMUNITY, WRITE '0'	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> km.																									
3.3	Is the nearest drivable 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 <table style="width: 100%; text-align: center; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Hamal</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Sawr</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Jawza</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Saratan</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Asad</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Sunbula</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Mizan</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Aqrab</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Qaws</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Jady</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Dalwa</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">Hoot</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">1</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">2</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">3</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">4</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">5</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">6</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">7</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">8</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">9</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">10</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">11</td> <td style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">12</td> </tr> </table>	Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Saratan	Asad	Sunbula	Mizan	Aqrab	Qaws	Jady	Dalwa	Hoot	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Hamal	Sawr	Jawza	Saratan	Asad	Sunbula	Mizan	Aqrab	Qaws	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 a Government road project b WFP food-for-work road improvement c Other food-for-work road project d NSP road construction programme e NGO road construction project f Military road construction g Other h None i																									
3.6	Has there been a change in road access to this community 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?	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 200px; height: 25px;"></div>																									
3.8	Where is this place located?	Local community market 1 District market in the same province 2 District market in other province 3 Provincial market 4	Go to 3.10 Go to 3.9.b Go to 3.10																								
3.9	a. What is the name of that province? a. Province name b. What is the name of that district b. District name	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 150px; height: 20px; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 150px; height: 20px;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px; display: inline-block; margin-bottom: 5px;"></div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px;"></div>																								
	Transport type:	a. Foot/animal	b. Bicycle	c. Car / taxi																							
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	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div> If '1' or '7', 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 <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>																							
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 <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 20px; display: inline-block;"></div>																							
<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%; vertical-align: top;">Codes for 3.10a-c (Time to reach food market)</td> <td style="width: 40%; vertical-align: top;"> 1 = Less than 1 hour - market in or near community 2 = 1 hour or more, but less than 2 hours 3 = 2 hours or more, but less than 4 hours </td> <td style="width: 40%; vertical-align: top;"> 4 = 4 hours or more, but less than 6 hours 5 = 6 hours or more, but less than 12 hours 6 = 12 hours or more 7 = Cannot reach market (e.g. no road) </td> </tr> </table>					Codes for 3.10a-c (Time to reach food market)	1 = Less than 1 hour - market in or near community 2 = 1 hour or more, but less than 2 hours 3 = 2 hours or more, but less than 4 hours	4 = 4 hours or more, but less than 6 hours 5 = 6 hours or more, but less than 12 hours 6 = 12 hours or more 7 = Cannot reach market (e.g. no road)																				
Codes for 3.10a-c (Time to reach food market)	1 = Less than 1 hour - market in or near community 2 = 1 hour or more, but less than 2 hours 3 = 2 hours or more, but less than 4 hours	4 = 4 hours or more, but less than 6 hours 5 = 6 hours or more, but less than 12 hours 6 = 12 hours or more 7 = Cannot reach market (e.g. no road)																									

3b. Access					
Type of health facility	3.13 How long did it take to reach the nearest <facility> on foot or animal in the last month? (one-way travel) For codes, see at right	3.14 How long did it take to reach the nearest <facility> by car in the last month? (one-way travel) If '7', go to 3.16	3.15 What was the cost of one-way transport by car from this community to this <facility> in the last month? (cost for one person)	3.16 Are the following types of staff present in the nearest <health facility>? 1=Yes 2=No 3=Don't know	Codes 3.13 and 3.14 (Time to reach health facilities) 1 = Less than 1 hour - health facility in or near community 2 = 1 hour or more, but less than 2 hours 3 = 2 hours or more, but less than 4 hours 4 = 4 hours or more, but less than 6 hours 5 = 6 hours or more, but less than 12 hours 6 = 12 hours or more 7 = Cars cannot reach health facility (e.g. no road to health facility)
Health post (house of community health worker, CHW)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Afghanistan <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	Female CHW 1 2 3 Male CHW 1 2 3	CHW is Community Health Worker
Public clinic (Basic or Comprehensive health centre)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Afghanistan <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	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	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Afghanistan <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	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	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Afghanistan <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	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	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Afghanistan <input type="text"/> , <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	Female CHW 1 2 3 Male CHW 1 2 3	

3b. Access (continued)					
Type of education	3.17	3.18	3.19	3.20	
				How many of these <education type> facilities are public or government schools?	How many of these <education type> facilities are private or NGO schools?
	Is a <education type> present in or near the community? If 'No', go to 3.20 1=Yes 2=No				
Primary education, mixed / shift boys-girls	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Primary education, girls only	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Primary education, boys only	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Lower secondary education, mixed / shift boys-girls	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Lower secondary education, girls only	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Lower secondary education, boys only	1 2	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<div> <div>Labour Wage in afs</div> <div> <div>Skilled Labour</div> <div>Unskilled labour</div> </div> </div>					

4. Projects			
No.	4.1	4.2	
	Has the following infrastructure or programme (a-n) been created or completed in this community during projects in the 12 months? IF ANSWER IS 'No' ('2'), SKIP QUESTION 4.2 AND CONTINUE WITH NEXT PROGRAMME	Under what programme was this activity or infrastructure financed? What is the main financing source of this activity?	
	Yes No	For codes, see at bottom of page	
a	Road / bridge construction or rehabilitation1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
b	Drainage structures (bridges, culverts, washes, retaining walls)1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
c	Flood/river protection wall1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
d	Irrigation infrastructure - improved/construction; dams, washes, intakes, etc.1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
e	Water supply / construction of wells with hand pumps1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
f	Reforestation/tree nurseries / orchard/fruit tree rehabilitation 1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
g	Electricity - micro-hydro, diesel generator1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
h	Micro-finance project1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
i	Health facility construction or rehabilitation1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
j	School construction or rehabilitation1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
k	Literacy / vocational training1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
l	Shelter project for returnees1 2	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
m	Income generation project - women1 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 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	
--	--

4.3	Is there an animal farm in this community?	Yes 1 No 2	Go to M5
4.4	What type of animal farm is this?	Cattle farm 1 Chicken farm 2 Cheep farm 3 Karaqul farm 4 Fishery 5 Other type 6	
4.5	Is this a government or a private farm?	Government 1 Private 2	

5. Community development priorities

Development priority	5.1	5.2	5.3
INTERVIEWER: CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD PRIORITY EACH	What is the first priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	What is the second priority that this community would like to see the Afghan Government address?	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 Construction or repair of local roads	4	4	4
e Bridge construction/rehabilitation	5	5	5
f New/improved local health facilities	6	6	6
g New/improved local education facilities for girls	7	7	7
h New/improved local education facilities for boys	8	8	8
i New/improved local education facilities for girls&boys	9	9	9
j New/improved housing in community	10	10	10
k Improved agricultural services	11	11	11
l Improved veterinary services	12	12	12
m New/improved micro-credit schemes	13	13	13
n Increased employment opportunities for women	14	14	14
o Increased employment opportunities for men	15	15	15
p Increased employment opportunities for women&men	16	16	16
q Literacy training for women	17	17	17
r Literacy training for men	18	18	18
s Literacy training for both women&men	19	19	19
t Vocational skills training for women	20	20	20
u Vocational skills training for men	21	21	21
v Vocational skills training for both women&men	22	22	22
w Electricity provision	23	23	23
x Reformed/improved local justice systems	24	24	24
y Increased security	25	25	25
z Disarmament of local militia/commanders	26	26	26
aa Local land or housing dispute settlement mechanisms	27	27	27
ab Other, specify	28	28	28

III.3 ALCS MARKET PRICE QUESTIONNAIRE

		Afghanistan Living Conditions Survey (ALCS) 2016-17			
Market price questionnaire					
1. Identification - market location					
1.1	Cluster code	<input type="text"/>		1.7	Geographic information
1.2	Province name	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1.8	Device ID code
1.3	District name	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1.9	Latitude
1.4	Control and Enumeration Area	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Range: 29.35 to 38.40 N	<input type="text"/>
1.5	Urban Nahia	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	1.10	Longitude
1.6	Village name	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Range: 60.31 to 75.00 E	<input type="text"/>
2. Process monitoring					
2.1	Date of interview	Day <input type="text"/>	Month <input type="text"/>	Year <input type="text"/>	
2.2	Interviewers' number	<input type="text"/>			
2.3	Supervisor's number	<input type="text"/>		2.4	Regional Supervisor's number
2.5	Date of office editing	Day <input type="text"/>	Month <input type="text"/>	Year <input type="text"/>	
2.6	Office editor's code	<input type="text"/>			
2.7	Data-entry officer code (first)	<input type="text"/>			
2.8	Data-entry officer code (second)	<input type="text"/>			

3. Prices

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
Bread and cereals			
3.1	Purchased nan	Piece	<input type="text"/>
3.2	Barley	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.3	Maize (corn)	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.4	Beans	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.5	Mung	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.6	Chick peas	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.7	Lentils	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.8	Pasta / macaroni	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
Meat and fish			
3.9	Beef	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.10	Veal	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.11	Mutton	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.12	Goat	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.13	Chicken	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.14	Liver	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.15	Dried meat	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.16	Fish	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
Milk, cheese and eggs			
3.17	Milk (fresh)	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.18	Milk (powdered)	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.19	Yogurt	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.20	Curd (chaka)	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.21	Krut (dried)	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.22	Dogh	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.23	Ghee	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.24	Butter	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.25	Cheese	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.26	Egg	One	<input type="text"/>
Spices			
3.27	Salt	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.28	Black pepper	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.29	Ginger and garlic	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.30	Tomato sauce	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.31	Mixed spices	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
Vegetables			
3.32	Potato	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.33	Sweet potato	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.34	Onion	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.35	Tomato	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.36	Okra	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.37	Spinach	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.38	Cauliflower	Piece.	<input type="text"/>
3.39	Eggplant	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.40	Carrots	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.41	Pumpkin / squash	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.42	Cucumber	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.43	Radish	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.44	Turnip	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.45	Cabbage	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.46	Leek	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.47	Fresh pepper	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.48	Wild leaves	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.49	Coriander	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.50	Mint	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.51	Dried tomatoes	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.52	Dried vegetables	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.53	Pickled vegetables	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.54	Green beans	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
Oils and fat			
3.55	Animal fat	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.56	Vegetable/cotton/sesame oil	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.57	Other oil and fat	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
Sugar and sweets			
3.58	White sugar	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.59	Brown sugar	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.60	Honey	Kg.	<input type="text"/>
3.61	Candy, chocolates, sherinigack	Kg.	<input type="text"/>

3. Prices (continued)

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
Fruit and nuts			
3.62	Apple	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.63	Grapes	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.64	Melon / watermelon	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.65	Peach	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.66	Fresh apricots	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.67	Dried apricots	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.68	Orange/citrus	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.69	Pomegranate	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.70	Plum	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.71	Pear	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.72	Banana	Dozen	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.73	Raisins	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.74	Fresh mulberries	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.75	Dried mulberries	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.76	Mangoes	Piece	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.77	Walnuts (with shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.78	Walnuts (without shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.79	Pistachio (with shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.80	Pistachio (without shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.81	Almonds (with shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.82	Almonds (without shells)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>

	Item	Unit	Cost per unit
Beverages			
3.83	Black tea	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.84	Green tea	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.85	Bottled/canned beverages, mineral water	Liter	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
Other commodities			
3.86	Wheat - local (farm-gate)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.87	Wheat - local (market)	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.88	Wheat - imported	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.89	Wheat flour - local	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.90	Wheat flour - imported	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.91	Rice - high quality	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.92	Rice - high quality	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.93	Liquid gas	Kg.	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.94	Kerosene	Liter	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.95	Diesel	Liter	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.96	Gasoline/petrol	Liter	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>
3.97	Dry bread	Gram <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> Piece	<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>

ANNEX IV SAMPLE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

IV.1 Introduction

The sampling design of the ALCS 2016-17 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 2016-17 survey round was a stratified, two-stage cluster approach. The sample distribution is sufficiently close to the national urban-rural distribution that separate analysis for these populations is justified.

IV.2 Sample frame

The pre-census household listing that was conducted by CSO in 2003-05, updated in 2009, was used as the sampling frame. For seven provinces, the sampling frame consisted of the Socio-Demographic and Economic Survey (SDES) household listings: Bamyan (data collected in 2010), Ghor and Daykundi (both with data collected in 2012), Kapisa and Parwan (both with data collected in 2014), Kabul (data collected in 2013) and Samangan (data collected in 2015). Prior to the fieldwork, the selected enumeration areas (EAs) – urban and rural – were visited for a mapping update of the households, based on 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 ALCS 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 maintained as the standard in the 2016-17 ALCS.

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. For an optimal sample allocation across the provinces, a balance was obtained between proportional allocation and equal-size allocation with a Kish power allocation of $I = 0.25$. This assured sufficient weight for provinces with small populations, while improving the comparability of results across the provinces. Since the provincial sub-samples were fairly equally distributed over 12 survey months, the four seasons also become separate analytical domains. The Kuchi stratum was only collected in summer 2016 and winter 2016-17 (Shamsi calendar 1395) in view of the practical difficulty of locating migrating communities in spring and autumn.

1 For conversion of Shamsi season dates, see Annex Concepts and definitions.

IV.5 Cluster size and number of clusters

The cluster size in the ALCS 2016-17 was maintained at ten households. 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 field-workers – especially female staff – 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 one Shura and one Market price interview) is the maximum that can be achieved in two days time.

The cluster size of ten, in combination with 35 strata and a total sample size of 21 thousand, implies on average 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, EAs were selected as primary sampling units (PSUs) in the first sampling stage, based on the probability proportional to size (PPS) of the EA. 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. 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 in 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 districts excluded from 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 one community with nine clusters.

Table IV.1 Districts excluded from sample frame for the reserve sample

Province	District	Province	District
Kapisa	07 Alasay	Ghazni	18 Ajristan
	06 Tagab		10 Nawur
Wardak	04 Chaki Wardak	Helmand	12 Baghran
	08 Jaghatu		06 Garm Ser
	05 Sayydabad		09 Musa Qala
	02 Nerkh		07 Nawzad
Logar	06 Khar War	Urozgan	08 Sangin Qala
	07 Azra		04 Shahid-e-Hassas
Badghis	05 Bala Murghab	Jawzjan	05 Khas Urozgan
	07 Ghormach		05 Qush Tepa
Nangarhar	13 Kot	Kandahar	11 Darzab
	21 Hesarak		14 Shorabak
	19 Sher Zad	Kandahar	16 Reg (Shiga)
	11 Pachir Wagam		13 Miyanishin
	10 Deh Bala		12 Nesh
	22 Dur Baba		15 Maruf
	18 Lalpoor	Kunarha	13 Chapa Dara
Zabul	07 Daichopan		15 Nari
	10 Shemel Zayi		11 Ghazi Abad
	11 Kakar (Khak-e-Afghan)	Laghman	03 Alishing
Baghlan	11 Tala Wa Barfak		06 Bad Pakh
	02 Dahana-e-Ghuri	Paktya	09 Jani Khel
	09 Burka		03 Zurmat
Farah	06 Bala Buluk		05 Wuza Jadran
	10 Gulistan	Sar-e-Pul	04 Sozma Qala
	11 Pur Chaman		03 Kohistanat
Faryab	04 Almar		
	07 Qaisar		
	10 Kohistan		

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. For in total 171 clusters (8.1 percent of the original 2,100 clusters), the coverage shifted in time or replacement clusters were selected. In addition, 34 clusters, representing 340 households, were not implemented and not replaced. Figure 2.1 in chapter 2 shows in which districts the survey was implemented according to the sample design, and in which districts less 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 with about two weeks to capture the full sample.
- The Kuchi sample was implemented in summer and winter 1395.

The *Table IV.2* presents the number of households interviewed by season. In total 19,838 households were covered.

Table IV.2 Interviewed households, by season (Shamsi calendar)

Season	Households	Percent
Winter	5,509	27.8
Spring	4,078	20.6
Summer	5,186	26.1
Autumn	5,065	25.5
Total	19,838	100.0

Non-response within clusters was very limited. Only 1,019 (5.1 percent) of the households in the visited clusters were not available or refused or were unable to participate. In 1,017 of these cases households were replaced by reserve households listed in the cluster reserve list, leaving 2 households unaccounted for (0.01 percent).

IV.8 Calculation of sampling weights and post-stratification

Sample weights are the scaling factors that are required to inflate the sampled households to the number of households that they represent in the survey. The use of stratification in the ALCS 2016-17 sample design requires that sample weights are separately calculated for each stratum. Due to imperfections in the survey implementation, the design weights are adjusted to achieve optimal representation of the survey results. This section separately addresses the calculation of the sampling weights for the resident population and that for the Kuchi population.

IV.8.1 Resident population

Calculation of the design weight

The first step in calculating the sample weights is calculating the weights that would inflate the sampled households to the number of households in the sampling frame. This calculation follows from the selection probability of the households, as defined in the sampling design.

In the two-stage sampling design of ALCS 2016-17, the PSUs were the EAs as defined in the sample frame, made up of the 2009-updated household listing and the available household listings from the SDES. The selection of PSUs in the first sampling stage was implemented in accordance with:

- stratification by province
- an optimum allocation distribution for provinces, which minimises the standard error
- selection with probability proportional to the number of households (PPS).

The probability of selecting a PSU in stage 1 is

$$p_1 = c_s * h_{ps} / H_{s09}$$

Where p_1 is the probability of selecting PSU (or EA) p in stratum s , c_s is the number of clusters selected in stratum s , h_{ps} is the number of households in EA p from stratum s and H_{s09} is the number of households in stratum s as reported in the sampling frame.

For EAs encompassing two or more villages, a second sampling stage was introduced to reduce travel time and costs. The selection of the village to be included was done with probability proportional to the number of households, with

$$p_2 = m_{vs} / h_{ps}$$

where p_2 is the probability of selecting one village out of all villages in EA p in stratum s , m_{vs} is the number of households in that village and h_{ps} is the number of households in EA p from stratum s . For EAs without village segmentation, $m_{vs} = h_{ps}$ and $p_{vp} = 1$.

The Ultimate Sampling Units in the survey were households. The sampling design specified a fixed number of 10 households per selected EA. Therefore, the probability of selecting a household in an EA or in the selected village in the EA in the third sampling stage is

$$p_3 = 10 / m_{vs}$$

The overall probability of selecting a household is the product of the selection probabilities in each stage for any stratum.

$$p_{123} = p_1 * p_2 * p_3 = (c_s * h_{ps} / H_{s09}) * (m_{vs} / h_{ps}) * (10 / m_{vs}) = 10 * c_s / H_{s09}$$

The design weight for each sampled household is the reciprocal of the selection probability, thus

$${}_d w_{hs} = 1 / p_{123} = H_{s09} / 10c_s$$

where ${}_d w_{hs}$ is the design weight for households in stratum s . The weighted sample total – the sum of the products of sampled households and their respective design weights – is equal to the total population of households in each stratum in the sample frame:

$$\sum h_{ps} * {}_d w_{hs} = H_{s09}$$

Calculation of non-coverage adjustment factors

Two main reasons exist in survey taking for exclusion of households in the collected data:

- Non-response – households not willing to be interviewed or not available for being interviewed
- Non-coverage – households that cannot be reached if areas are inaccessible because of reasons such as the local security situation or road conditions.²

Non-response in ALCS is not a major issue: overall non-response was 5.1 percent. Very few household refuse to collaborate in the survey and most of the non-response was due to non-available households. As ALCS adopted the strategy of addressing non-response by substituting households from a reserve list, there is no need to adjust for non-response.

Non-coverage, on the other hand, was a more serious problem in the survey, especially because of the security situation in the country. Non-coverage was partly addressed by replacing inaccessible clusters by clusters from a reserve list. Since a number of inaccessible clusters could not be replaced during the fieldwork of ALCS, the sampled households weighted by the design weight ($\sum h_{ps} * {}_d w_{hs}$) do not add up to the total population of households H_s in the sample frame. To compensate for non-covered households, the design weight was adjusted with a non-coverage adjustment factor. To obtain the non-coverage adjustment factor, first the non-coverage rate was calculated. This is the ratio between the number of actually interviewed households and the number of sampled households:

$$n_{cs} = i h_s / {}_s h_s$$

where n_{cs} is the non-coverage rate in stratum s , $i h_s$ is the number of interviewed households in stratum s and ${}_s h_s$ is the number of sampled households in stratum s . The adjustment factor for non-coverage in stratum s (${}_n w_{hs}$) is the reciprocal of the non-coverage rate nc :

$${}_n w_{hs} = 1 / n_{cs}$$

The sample weight that is required to scale-up the sampled households to the total population of households in the

² In addition, some surveys exclude some areas on beforehand because the relevance of information from these – e.g. very thinly populated areas – does not compensate the costs of getting there.

sample frame ($_{dn}w_{hs}$) now becomes the product of the design weight and the non-coverage factor. For each stratum s this is:

$$_{dn}w_{hs} = _d w_{hs} * _n w_{hs}$$

The newly weighted sample total $\sum h_{ps} * _{dn}w_{hs}$ is again equal to the sample frame population H_{s09} .

Calculation of post-stratification factors

Additional expansion factors are required to re-scale the number of households in the sample frame to the number in the period in which the survey was conducted. As in the previous survey round, the estimated number of households was derived from the CSO population projections by province (P_{s14}).³ For the settled households, the provincial population was divided by the average household size for that province, which was obtained in the current survey by applying $_{dn}w_s$ (the combined design weight and non-coverage factor) in order to reduce distortion by sampling and coverage effects.

Since the re-scaling of the number of households is done at province level, this normalisation exercise implies post-stratification of the sample. The re-scaling factors are calculated as the ratio between the CSO estimate of the number of households in 2016-17 (Shamsi calendar 1395) in a stratum and the number of households in the sampling frame:

$$_r w_{hs} = H_{s16} / H_{s09}$$

and the combined sampling weight becomes

$$_{dnr}w_{hs} = _{dn}w_{hs} * _r w_{hs}$$

Seasonal distribution

Because the interview implementation was not entirely uniform across seasons (quarters), uncorrected annual estimates would place a relatively small weight on the season that had a small effectuated sample (spring), 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. This adjustment is implemented as:

$$w_{hsq} = (1 / _{dnr}w_{hs}) * 0.25 * P_{s16} / _{dnr}p_{sq}$$

where w_{hsq} is the factor that standardises across seasons (quarters) and $_{dnr}p_{sq}$ is the sampled population in stratum s and season q , weighted by the weights for the sampling design, non-coverage and re-scaling. 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 according to the CSO 2016-17 population estimate.

The final household sampling weight hw_{hsq} is the product of all weighting factors:

$$hw_{sq} = _{dnr}w_{hs} * w_{hsq}$$

3 The CSO 1395 population projections coincide with the mid-survey population.

Individual weights

In order to obtain the expansion factor for individuals the following calculation was made:

$$iw_{hsq} = hw_{hsq} * hs_{hsq}$$

the term hs_{hsq} being the household size of household h in stratum s and quarter q .

IV.8.2 Kuchi population

The Kuchi sample was designed on basis of the 2003-04 National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK-2004). For this separate Kuchi 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 divided between the summer (40 clusters) and winter (20 clusters) periods in 1395 (2016).

In the absence of up-to-date information about the actual number of Kuchis and the political sensitivity of addressing this issue, the present position taken by CSO is that the Kuchi population is stable at a number close to 1.5 million people.

Apart from the sampling frame, the restriction to two seasons and the absence of the need to accommodate population growth, the procedures for the calculation of the sampling weights for the Kuchi stratum are the same as those for the resident population.

IV.8.3 Weights variables

The values of the final household sample weight hw_{hsq} and individual sample weight iw_{hsq} are included in the ALCS 2016-17 dataset as weight variables `hh_weight` and `ind_weight`, respectively. The weight variable `hh_weight` expands household-level data to the total population of households and individual-level data to the total population of individuals. The weight variable `ind_weight` expands household-level data to the total population individuals.



ANNEX V USE OF CAPI, GPS AND GIS IN THE ALCS 2016-17

V.1 Technical assessment

V.1.1 Introduction

This document is a technical assessment on the use of an integrated approach for data collection in the ALCS 2016-17 of:

- a. Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI)
- b. Global Positioning System (GPS)
- c. Geographic Information System (GIS).

CAPI, GPS and GIS were used to collect data at community level for the male Shura questionnaire and for the Market price questionnaire. It was the first time that mobile and wireless technologies were applied to statistical household surveys in Afghanistan and their use in the ALCS 2016-17 was considered as a pilot for subsequent ALCS rounds and other surveys managed by CSO.

The decision to test new technologies in the ALCS 2016-17 round was based on an evaluation conducted on the ALCS 2013-14 round, where paper questionnaires were used for the Shura data and geographic coordinates were collected by handheld GPS devices. The assessment of the ALCS 2013-14 concluded that the quality of Shura data collected by paper forms was sometimes poor with an important number of missing values and that GPS coordinates were often wrongly acquired by supervisors, in many cases wrongly recorded in the questionnaires during field activities or wrongly entered by operators during the data-entry process. Therefore, the ALCS 2013-14 data were only partially geocoded and the analysis of survey data could not include geographic aspects.

The ALCS 2016-17 survey methodology included electronic compilation of the Shura and Market price questionnaires for the sampled clusters into smartphones devices of four inches size. For each of the two questionnaires, the ALCS team developed a CAPI application in Dari, Pashtu and English languages, with the free Census and Survey Processing System (CSPro) suite, version 6.2. The applications were designed to include automatic skip patterns, mechanisms of validation of the response and drop-down menus to select the appropriate options. For different reasons, in a small number of survey clusters, supervisors used paper versions of the questionnaires instead of CAPI applications and reported such deviations to the ALCS team at the CSO Headquarters. CAPI applications included the collection of geographic coordinates of the locations where ALCS supervisors conducted community interviews and recorded data on prices, using Global Positioning System (GPS) functionalities included in the smartphones.

ALCS data-checkers were responsible for reviewing and tabulating weekly synchronised CAPI data stored in the central database to detect eventual inconsistencies and missing values, and to provide immediate feedback to the supervisors in the field via mobile phones. For assessing coverage errors, data-checkers used GPS data that were exported from the central database into a GIS environment to visualise the locations where data were collected.

The CSPro applications were composed of a *community identification* section where the supervisor recorded the administrative and geographic codes, cluster number and type of cluster classified as urban, rural, or Kuchi. The application was programmed to acquire geographic coordinates automatically, and to validate the interview only after the acquisition of such coordinates. The application did not allow to edit completed interviews, nor to access collected data in the smartphones.

Supervisors were trained to acquire GPS coordinates within the boundaries of their cluster maps prepared by the CSO GIS Unit. The mobile data entry application was designed to collect GPS coordinates for 60 seconds, from four satellites, at least, in a range of valid coordinate measures pre-loaded in the application. GPS data were acquired in decimal degrees with six decimal digits for latitude and longitude using the Geographic Coordinate System WGS84, providing namely a precision of 0.11 m in absence of positional errors and/or errors derived from the instrument or

from an incorrect use of the device. The positional accuracy of GPS readings was 5 meters, approximately.

Using an integrated approach between CAPI, GPS and GIS, the ALCS team was able to monitor data quality, survey coverage and, generally, the performance of supervisors. Overall, the use of new technologies in ALCS data collection and field monitoring demonstrated important potentials to improve data quality and to reduce data-collection time. It has also provided the opportunity to experience and find solutions to deal with challenges, such as unreliable electricity supply for mobile devices in some areas, damage of smartphones, limited capacity of the backstopping team to perform data quality and coverage assessments in real time, reluctance of some supervisors to use mobile devices in unsecure areas. Therefore, in some provinces, and in some areas of provinces, paper questionnaires were used by supervisors instead of electronic forms.

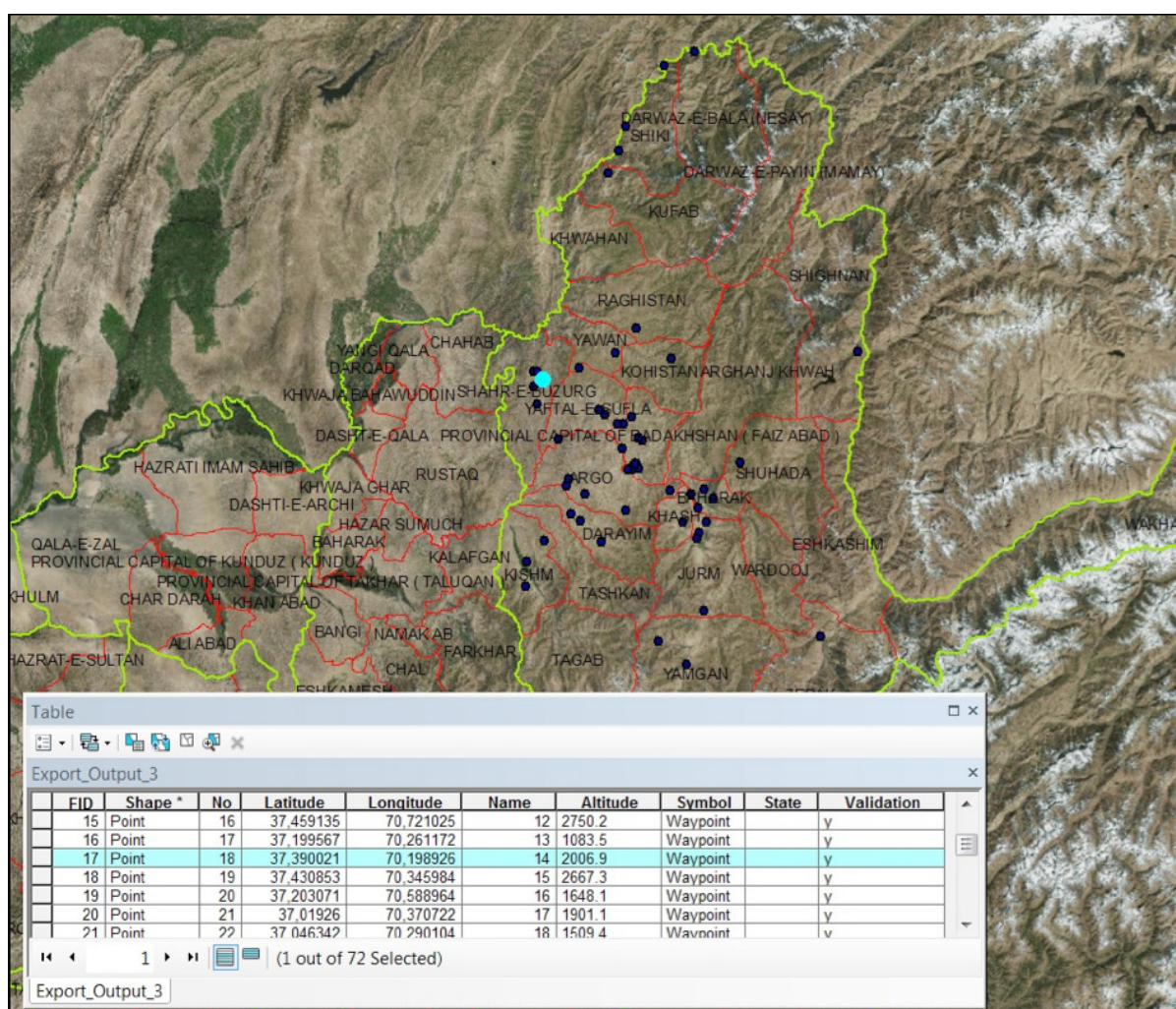
V.1.2 Main findings of the assessment

Out of the 1,929 clusters in 342 Districts of Afghanistan for which data were collected by the ALCS 2016-17, about 95 percent of Shura information and about 93 percent of market price data were collected electronically with smartphones. The two percent difference was probably due to the fact that in few cases supervisors considered it not relevant to collect data on prices if a market was not located in the selected clusters. Even though the analysis of missing values is behind this assessment, data received in the server showed that their numbers were very minimal, thanks to the edit rules included in the CAPI application that minimised the possibility for supervisors to leave blank fields on the electronic questionnaires.

The assessment on the integrated approach used for the ALCS 2016-17 considered instead the level of correctness and accuracy of the acquired geographic coordinates, latitude and longitude, for the data collected electronically. The evaluation was conducted on the Shura data only. In order to draw some statistics on the use of GPS functions in the survey, each GPS reading collected with the CAPI application for each cluster was visualised in a GIS environment (*Figure V.1*) and classified according to the following codes:

- 1 = Coordinates located correctly within the clusters assigned to supervisors;
- 2 = Coordinates located outside the clusters assigned to supervisors but within 200 m, on the fly, from the nearest boundary of their assigned clusters;
- 3 = Coordinates located outside the clusters assigned to supervisors at a larger distance than 200 m, on the fly, from the nearest boundary of their assigned clusters;
- 4 = Coordinates located in clusters different from the assigned clusters;
- 5 = Coordinates not acquired or acquired without the required accuracy.

Figure V.1: Example of geographic coordinates visualised in a GIS environment (1 cluster selected)



The results are reported in the table below:

Table V.1: Geographic coordinates of sampled clusters, by location (in percentages)

	Coordinates (see above classification)					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Male Shura Questionnaire	63.4	18.8	13.2	0.0	4.6	100.0

The analysis of the data presented above allowed some first conclusions on the positive achievements and provided information on the main challenges faced in the ALCS 2016-17. The main findings are summarised below:

- Considering that CSO used mobile and geo-spatial technologies for the first time, the geo-coding of survey data showed to be overall successful, providing more than 80 percent of the data geo-coded according to the acceptable standards (categories 1 and 2);
- No cases were observed for coordinates located in a different cluster than the one assigned (category 4);
- Supervisors did not always conduct interviews within the boundaries of their assigned sampled cluster. In almost 20 percent of cases, community interviews took place in locations not far from their assigned areas, probably because of the nearby location of the premises where the interviews were organised (category 2);
- In about 13 percent of cases (category 3), supervisors conducted interviews in a place different from the one assigned. The ALCS team was able to monitor some of those cases and asked the supervisors to repeat the

interviews in the right areas. In other cases, it was observed that paper maps prepared by the CSO GIS Unit did not allow supervisors to get oriented in the field, especially in some rural and mountainous areas. In a few cases, supervisors collected data in their place of residence. In such events, the ALCS team took severe measures against such supervisors.

- In less than 5 percent of cases (category 5), Shura data were collected in areas where GPS signal was weak, because of the presence of trees, or because supervisors did not follow entirely the instructions received.

V.2 Main lessons learned

The overall results of this assessment, even if limited to the Shura data and to the geographic aspects of the CAPI data collection, show a very high potential on the use of an integrated approach CAPI, GPS and GIS for future rounds of ALCS and probably for most of the future statistical surveys of CSO, under specific conditions. Its use in the ALCS 2016-17 was limited to the Shura and to the Market price questionnaires in order to ensure a sustainable introduction of new technologies at CSO on the production of statistical data, and because of the limited resources available in terms of staff and financial means. Overall, CAPI, when adequately planned and tested, and integrated with GPS functions and GIS tools, can ensure better data quality and a more timely release of statistical data if a day-by-day monitoring of field activities is appropriately managed centrally by CSO.

In more detail, a number of actions should be taken into consideration for improving its use in future statistical surveys. These are:

- More tests of the CAPI application should be conducted in different areas of the country;
- More practical training should be organised for supervisors/interviewers, and a specific training should be organised also for CSO regional offices for planning direct support to supervisors/interviewers at provincial level;
- More effective and continuous management and monitoring should be organised by CSO centrally, at the Headquarters in Kabul;
- Field maps should be improved especially for rural and mountainous areas, and uploaded on the mobile devices;
- Supervisors' performance should be monitored regularly before and during data collection periods;
- The screen of mobile devices should be between 5 and 7 inches size;
- Using GIS and GPS functionalities, a tracking field application should be developed, to follow movements of the field staff during data collection activities.

ANNEX VI POPULATION TABLES

Table VI.1: Population, by five-year age group, and by residence, sex (in thousands)

Age group	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	3,494	3,423	6,917	10,586	10,152	20,738	756	701	1,457	14,837	14,276	29,113
0-4	515	493	1,008	1,884	1,850	3,734	144	144	288	2,543	2,486	5,029
5-9	516	474	990	1,844	1,701	3,545	151	128	279	2,511	2,303	4,814
10-14	502	466	969	1,523	1,360	2,883	105	89	194	2,131	1,915	4,045
15-19	434	418	853	1,117	1,061	2,178	77	58	134	1,627	1,537	3,165
20-24	333	368	701	836	871	1,707	51	54	105	1,220	1,294	2,513
25-29	248	290	538	740	796	1,536	43	60	103	1,032	1,145	2,177
30-34	172	173	345	520	499	1,019	42	40	82	735	711	1,446
35-39	178	169	346	454	464	918	34	37	72	666	670	1,336
40-44	134	134	268	363	382	745	29	24	53	526	540	1,066
45-49	109	121	229	326	352	678	20	26	46	455	498	954
50-54	94	99	194	255	267	522	22	15	36	371	381	752
55-59	68	73	141	201	181	383	12	9	22	281	263	545
60-64	68	58	125	188	165	353	10	9	20	265	232	498
65-69	49	35	84	144	87	231	6	2	9	200	125	324
70-74	30	23	54	101	63	165	4	4	7	135	90	225
75-79	18	11	29	45	27	72	3	1	4	66	39	105
80-84	16	11	27	27	18	44	1	1	3	44	30	74
85+	11	6	17	19	9	28	1	1	1	30	16	46

Table VI.2: Population, by five-year age group, and by residence, sex (in percentages)

Age group	Urban			Rural			Kuchi			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
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
0-4	14.7	14.4	14.6	17.8	18.2	18.0	19.0	20.5	19.7	17.1	17.4	17.3
5-9	14.8	13.9	14.3	17.4	16.8	17.1	20.0	18.2	19.1	16.9	16.1	16.5
10-14	14.4	13.6	14.0	14.4	13.4	13.9	13.9	12.6	13.3	14.4	13.4	13.9
15-19	12.4	12.2	12.3	10.5	10.5	10.5	10.1	8.2	9.2	11.0	10.8	10.9
20-24	9.5	10.8	10.1	7.9	8.6	8.2	6.7	7.8	7.2	8.2	9.1	8.6
25-29	7.1	8.5	7.8	7.0	7.8	7.4	5.7	8.5	7.0	7.0	8.0	7.5
30-34	4.9	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	5.6	5.7	5.6	5.0	5.0	5.0
35-39	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.3	4.6	4.4	4.5	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.6
40-44	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.4	3.8	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.7
45-49	3.1	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.5	3.3	2.7	3.6	3.2	3.1	3.5	3.3
50-54	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.9	2.1	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.6
55-59	1.9	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.8	1.9
60-64	1.9	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.6	1.7
65-69	1.4	1.0	1.2	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.3	0.6	1.3	0.9	1.1
70-74	0.9	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.6	0.8
75-79	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4
80-84	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3
85+	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2

Table VI.3: Population, by province, main age group, and by sex (in thousands)

Province, age group	Male	Female	Total	Province, age group	Male	Female	Total
Total	14,837	14,276	29,113	Laghman	247	233	480
0-14	7,184	6,704	13,888	0-14	124	120	244
15-24	2,847	2,831	5,678	15-24	50	44	94
25-39	2,432	2,526	4,958	25-39	39	38	77
40-64	1,899	1,915	3,814	40-64	27	29	55
65+	475	300	774	65+	7	3	10
Kabul	2,339	2,288	4,627	Panjsher	79	76	155
0-14	1,006	932	1,937	0-14	33	29	62
15-24	515	547	1,061	15-24	21	20	41
25-39	407	422	829	25-39	10	11	22
40-64	323	328	651	40-64	11	12	24
65+	89	60	149	65+	4	3	7
Kapisa	226	242	468	Baghlan	480	469	949
0-14	97	108	205	0-14	234	224	459
15-24	54	57	111	15-24	87	100	187
25-39	33	33	67	25-39	87	79	166
40-64	35	37	71	40-64	56	58	114
65+	7	7	14	65+	16	7	23
Parwan	361	359	720	Bamyan	234	219	453
0-14	166	161	327	0-14	106	98	204
15-24	81	77	157	15-24	51	49	100
25-39	52	57	109	25-39	35	35	70
40-64	48	57	105	40-64	33	32	65
65+	14	8	21	65+	9	5	14
Wardak	323	318	641	Ghazni	658	631	1,290
0-14	149	159	308	0-14	296	273	570
15-24	65	52	117	15-24	134	123	257
25-39	52	55	107	25-39	112	120	232
40-64	46	44	90	40-64	84	93	178
65+	12	8	20	65+	31	21	52
Logar	252	241	493	Paktika	246	197	443
0-14	141	134	276	0-14	118	85	203
15-24	23	24	47	15-24	44	36	80
25-39	54	53	106	25-39	53	45	98
40-64	28	27	54	40-64	28	28	56
65+	6	4	10	65+	3	3	6

Table VI.3: Population, by province, main age group, and by sex (in thousands) (cont.)

Province, age group	Male	Female	Total	Province, age group	Male	Female	Total
Nangarhar	888	806	1,694	Paktya	307	255	562
0-14	502	433	935	0-14	158	126	284
15-24	125	128	252	15-24	57	47	104
25-39	138	146	285	25-39	46	46	93
40-64	106	87	193	40-64	38	34	72
65+	17	11	28	65+	8	2	10
Khost	317	299	616	Sar-e-Pul	299	292	592
0-14	170	152	322	0-14	147	139	286
15-24	57	55	112	15-24	51	56	107
25-39	52	50	102	25-39	49	52	101
40-64	33	38	71	40-64	41	40	80
65+	5	3	9	65+	12	5	17
Kunarha	236	221	458	Ghor	368	383	751
0-14	123	116	239	0-14	195	218	413
15-24	46	43	89	15-24	45	50	95
25-39	33	30	63	25-39	83	80	162
40-64	28	30	58	40-64	39	32	72
65+	6	4	10	65+	5	3	8
Nooristan	76	75	151	Daykundi	228	240	468
0-14	37	37	74	0-14	108	108	217
15-24	11	12	23	15-24	44	56	100
25-39	13	16	29	25-39	35	38	73
40-64	13	9	22	40-64	30	31	61
65+	2	1	3	65+	9	7	17
Badakhshan	507	486	993	Urozgan	201	177	379
0-14	235	225	459	0-14	90	85	175
15-24	99	102	201	15-24	45	29	74
25-39	88	84	172	25-39	37	32	69
40-64	67	65	133	40-64	25	27	51
65+	18	10	28	65+	5	4	10
Takhar	513	486	999	Zabul	203	157	360
0-14	237	219	456	0-14	117	76	194
15-24	107	105	212	15-24	17	17	34
25-39	82	78	160	25-39	47	47	93
40-64	67	72	139	40-64	18	14	32
65+	20	12	32	65+	4	3	7

Table VI.3: Population, by province, main age group, and by sex (in thousands) (cont.)

Province, age group	Male	Female	Total	Province, age group	Male	Female	Total
Kunduz	547	532	1,080	Kandahar	665	614	1,279
0-14	259	255	514	0-14	374	318	692
15-24	115	108	223	15-24	98	101	199
25-39	85	88	173	25-39	114	113	226
40-64	74	72	147	40-64	68	72	141
65+	14	9	23	65+	11	10	21
	204	190	394				
Samangan				Jawzjan	279	269	548
0-14	101	92	193	0-14	129	116	245
15-24	39	37	75	15-24	54	51	105
25-39	29	31	60	25-39	47	52	99
40-64	29	26	55	40-64	39	42	80
65+	7	4	10	65+	11	9	19
Balkh	686	700	1,386	Faryab	580	579	1,159
0-14	298	307	605	0-14	288	271	559
15-24	161	151	312	15-24	111	116	227
25-39	104	115	219	25-39	75	84	159
40-64	92	107	198	40-64	86	90	176
65+	32	20	52	65+	22	17	38
Helmand	500	476	976	Farah	307	287	594
0-14	294	279	572	0-14	164	148	312
15-24	85	77	162	15-24	54	54	107
25-39	69	75	144	25-39	52	52	103
40-64	44	43	87	40-64	31	31	62
65+	8	2	10	65+	6	3	9
Badghis	353	344	697	Nimroz	107	106	212
0-14	173	163	336	0-14	56	56	112
15-24	61	62	123	15-24	20	21	41
25-39	58	65	123	25-39	15	16	31
40-64	50	45	96	40-64	13	12	24
65+	11	8	19	65+	2	1	4
Herat	1018	1,029	2,047				
0-14	459	442	902				
15-24	223	227	450				
25-39	148	185	333				
40-64	148	151	299				
65+	40	24	64				



ANNEX VII POVERTY MEASUREMENT METHODOLOGY USING ALCS 2016-17

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. Adhering to international best practice, the poverty line was set following the “Cost of Basic Needs” (CBN) approach. The CBN method 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. The measurement of poverty based on the ALCS 2016-17 is obtained by updating the poverty line set using the NRVA 2007-08. More specifically, the CBN approach defines a consumption bundle deemed to be adequate for meeting basic consumption needs and estimates the cost of acquiring this bundle. The consumption bundle includes goods that a person consumes (i) to be adequately nourished and (ii) to fully participate in the society he/she lives in. The food component of the poverty line is anchored to a caloric requirement for maintaining body weight and sustaining activity levels, consistent with local food tastes and consumption patterns. In addition, a non-food component is added, consistent with the spending patterns of the poor. Together they provide an estimate for an absolute poverty line – explicitly fixed at a specific level of welfare – allowing for poverty comparisons across individuals.

Updating the original poverty line, as opposed to setting a new one, preserves the comparability of poverty estimates over time, thereby allowing an analysis of changes in poverty. In particular, to allow for comparisons between the three survey years for which data on welfare are available (NRVA 2007-08, NRVA 2011-12 and ALCS 2016-17¹), the measure of welfare used to rank households (i.e. the consumption aggregate) should be constructed following the same methodology used for the baseline year. This ensures that the “updated” poverty line captures the same level of wellbeing identified by the original poverty line but is evaluated at the prices obtained from the current survey.

VII.2 Building the consumption aggregate using ALCS 2016-17

The first step in estimating a poverty line is to construct the consumption aggregate. The process of constructing the consumption aggregate follows the approach of setting the poverty line using information from the NRVA 2007-08 as well as NRVA 2011-12. In particular, the same consumption aggregate sub-components were defined, namely

- i. food component;
- ii. non-food component);
- iii. consumer durables; and
- iv. housing.

We provide a brief methodological overview on how each of these subcomponents was constructed.

VII.2.1 Food component

As in previous rounds, the ALCS 2016-17 includes a very detailed food consumption module in which female respondents are asked about household consumption (quantities/units consumed) for 92 food items, divided into nine food groups, over the past seven days. Food consumption data include food which was 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 expenditures on food consumption were obtained combining food items’ consumption (quantities)

1 ALCS 2013-14 did not include a consumption module and direct poverty estimates are not available. Rather, in 2013-14 a survey-to-survey imputation was conducted to estimate poverty at the national level.

with their respective prices, obtained from the District Price Survey (DPS) questionnaire which was administered in conjunction with the ALCS 2016-17.²

The consumption modules of NRVA series and ALCS 2016-17 were designed to

- account for seasonal products, hence adapting instruments to the year-round nature of the survey;
- include a great variety of products consumed by households; and
- cover food items that do not contribute to the caloric intake of Afghans meaningfully, but were nevertheless consumed by households such as water and spices.

For each of the nine food categories, a residual (or “other”) food category item was included. 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 for items in each food group as done in the consumption aggregate in 2007-08. Since not every food item was available in all districts and markets at all times of the year from the DPS, missing prices were imputed, based on information for the closest available prices, to obtain a complete price matrix.

A final component of total food consumption is the total value of meals consumed outside home, i.e. in restaurants, prepared food purchased from the marketplace, etc. The ALCS 2016-17 collected this information in module 9 of the male household questionnaire by asking “What did the household spend in the last month for food and drinks consumed outside the home”, and accordingly, the total value of food away from home was included in the estimation of total food consumption.

VII.2.2 Non-food component

Total expenditure on non-food items was constructed by aggregating expenditures on goods and services from several sections of the ALCS. The non-food aggregate covers a wide and heterogeneous range of items such as expenditures on energy, education, transportation and clothing. Following standard practice, the non-food aggregate does not include certain expenditures, namely those that are either (i) lumpy in nature; (ii) used for investment purposes; and (iii) unrelated to household wellbeing. Examples of expenditures include expenditure on weddings, celebrations, funerals and Haj; expenditures on the construction of dwellings; and expenditures on health. Non-food items with reference periods other than the past month, were converted to monthly values.

VII.2.3 Consumer durables

Following the baseline methodology and international best practice, purchases of durable goods³ are considered lumpy expenditures and are therefore converted to a “rental equivalent” or “user cost”, which reflects the opportunity cost of money tied up in durable goods, their lifetime and their depreciation. To estimate the “user cost” of consumer durables, we consider the date of purchase, as well as the cost of the item and assume a lifetime of ten years (with a flat-line depreciation of ten percent per year), and an interest rate of four percent, implying an effective discount rate of fourteen percent. An average Afghan household shows a “user cost” of 819 Afghanis per month for durable goods, which accounts for about five percent of total household expenditures in 2016-17.

2 The DPS questionnaire covers the prices of all food items in the consumption module and a few other items, such as grains and fuels. DPS data were collected during the ALCS survey visits to the PSUs. Field 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 neighbouring district – were guided by key informant interviews within each community. Price information was matched to household-level food consumption by location and month of the interview.

3 Durable goods include: refrigerator, washing machine, vacuum cleaner, meat grinder, bread oven, stove/gas balloon, gas heater, sewing machine, iron, electric fan, radio/tape recorder, TV, VCR/DVD, computer, bicycle, motorcycle, car, tractor/thresher, mobile phones, carpets (khalin), gilim, blankets, satellite dishes, solar panels and kitchen utensils. Compared to 2011-12: refrigerator, stove/gas balloon, sewing machine, iron, radio/tape recorder, TV, VCR/DVD, satellite phone, electric fan, bicycle, motorcycle, car and tractor/thresher.

VII.2.4 Housing

As is the case for consumer durables, the contribution of housing to household welfare is captured in the consumption aggregate by estimating its monthly rental value. Following the same approach adopted for the baseline in 2007-08, the rental value of housing is either captured by households' reported rent or – if a household does not report rent – estimated by fitting a hedonic pricing model, i.e. by regressing information available on housing characteristics on housing values.

The majority of households did not report values on paid rent (i.e. owners of housing rather than renters), but about half of all households in the ALCS 2016-17 report the value of their dwelling (i.e. owners). For these households, a hedonic housing model is estimated which predicts the value of the dwelling based on the characteristics of the dwelling. A hedonic housing model relates the housing price to factors such as size, location, construction materials, etc. To account for potential heterogeneity in the underlying pricing model, separate regressions are estimated for urban, rural and tent dwellings.

Following the same practice as in the baseline, the actual or predicted housing values are converted to a monthly rent by imposing a relationship based on interest and depreciation rates. In particular, for 2016-17 a depreciation rate of 1.5 percent and an interest rate of 2.5 percent are used.⁴ *Table VII.1* shows the medians of actual and predicted housing values from the three dwelling groups.

Table VII.1: Median of reported and predicted housing value, by residential dwelling type (in Afghanis)

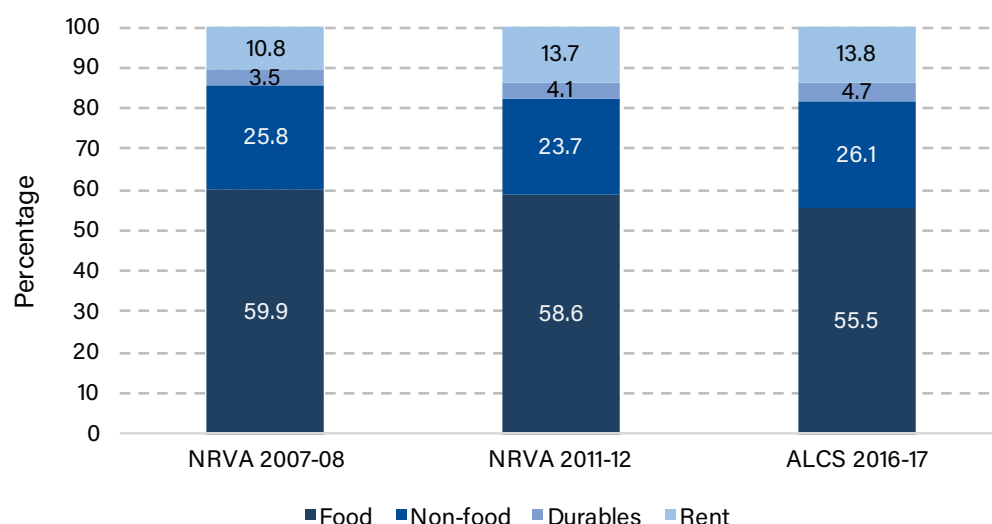
Dwelling type	Housing value	
	Reported	Predicted
Urban dwelling	1,000,000	1,259,346
Rural dwelling	200,000	261,127
Tent	12,000	19,424

VII.2.5 Analysis of the consumption aggregate

The consumption aggregate based on the ALCS 2016-17 is constructed as the sum of the food and non-food expenditures, as well as the monthly user values of durables and housing. The relative share of each component to the total varies across survey years (see *Figure VII.1*). In 2016-17, we see a significant decline in food shares, which typically happens in cases where food expenditures remain constant or grow in real terms but spending on non-food grows as the economy grows. In Afghanistan's case, however, the decline in food shares is caused by a stagnation or decline in expenditures due to the deterioration of welfare.

⁴ Different alternatives were considered, but the discount rate of four percent provides the best approximation to the actual rent values reported by the sub-sample of households renting their dwelling in urban areas.

Figure VII.1: Consumption aggregate, by survey, and by consumption component (in percentages)



Despite the fact that we construct the consumption aggregate at the household level, we assess welfare at the individual, rather than the household level. That is, we want to know the percentage of the *population* below a certain poverty threshold. Since we do not have data on individual consumption, we convert household expenditure to per-capita terms using the household size as a deflator to account for differences in household size and composition.⁵

The Cost of Basic Needs approach allows us to anchor poverty to a fixed level of welfare, which facilitates comparison of expenditures over time. However, households face different price levels depending on where they live. Prices levels in urban Kabul, for example, are different from price levels in rural Farah and we must take such differences in the cost of living into account when comparing standards of living across locations or over time using a fixed measure of welfare. As food prices rose much faster than non-food prices, different indexes were used for food and non-food expenditures. Food prices were adjusted by calculating a spatial and temporal food price index from the Market Price Survey⁶ and non-food expenditures were temporally adjusted using the non-food CPI.⁷

VII.3 The poverty line

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 measuring poverty using ALCS 2016-17 is to produce poverty estimates that are comparable to those estimated in 2007-08 and 2011-12. More specifically, the ALCS 2016-17 poverty line should reflect the same level of wellbeing identified by the 2007-08 baseline official poverty line, as well the one updated in 2011-12.

The poverty line consists of two components: the food poverty line and an allowance to account for basic non-food needs. The consumption aggregate is the basis for measuring wellbeing, whereas the poverty line is the benchmark for assessing whether an individual can attain a minimum required level of wellbeing. In other words, if the per-capita, real (or price-adjusted) expenditure is less than the poverty line, the individual is considered to be poor.

⁵ This approach does not take into account economies of scale within the household and assumes equal distribution of household consumption among all members.

⁶ The food price index chosen for adjusting food consumption is the Laspeyres price index at the spatial aggregation area-quarter level. The Laspeyres index comprises prices in each region-quarter unit with a base reference.

⁷ Due to the absence of a non-food CPI for all provinces of Afghanistan, non-food expenditures were only adjusted temporally.

VII.3.1 Food poverty line

According to the CBN 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.2). In the case of Afghanistan, the food poverty corresponds to the cost of attaining 2,100 kilocalories based on the typical consumption pattern of the relatively poor.⁸

Table VII.2: NRVA 2007-08 basic needs basket^a, by main food category (in kg. per person per day)

Food category	Quantity
Grains and bread	0.4317
Meat	0.0179
Dairy	0.1030
Oil	0.0281
Vegetable	0.1565
Fruits	0.0414
Sweets and sugar	0.0235
Beverages	0.0064
Spices	0.0187

^a The basic need basket is composed of 84 food items, which were grouped into main food categories in this table.

To update the food poverty line, the basic-needs basket estimated in 2007-08 was priced using information from the 2016-17 District Price Survey. Therefore, households' food consumption in quantities was first converted to kilocalories using a caloric conversion table. This reference bundle contains 2,377 calories. We then estimate the cost of obtaining 2,100 calories if those calories were obtained following the same consumption patterns as found in the food bundle of the reference population. The estimated cost of this food bundle is 1,188 Afghanis per capita, per month⁹, which represents the average cost of purchasing the basic-needs food basket in 2016-17.

VII.3.2 Non-food component of the poverty line

In order to fully reflect basic needs, the poverty line also includes an allowance for non-food basic needs, which are essential to sustain the minimum living standards of the poor. Setting the non-food poverty line is more challenging than determining the food poverty line, because there is no minimum threshold for non-food expenditures, such as the minimum caloric intake for food needs. Therefore, the non-food component of the poverty line is typically estimated as the median non-food expenditure of individuals with food consumption around the food poverty line.¹⁰

The non-food poverty line in 2016-17 is estimated by inflating the 2007-08 non-food poverty line in each region and quarter, using the non-food CPI to obtain the price level of non-food expenditures in quarter one of the ALCS 2016-17 survey. This inflation of non-food thresholds from their 2007-08 benchmark levels using non-food inflation rates as measured by the official CPI, differs from the methodology implemented in 2011-12. This change in methodology is, however, implemented in the interest of increased transparency, and in line with international good practice. To ensure comparability across time, all methodological changes undertaken in 2016-17, were implemented across all survey years.¹¹

8 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.

9 The poverty line is expressed in real terms – accounting for cost of living differences – and is costed in terms of prices for quarter 1 (spring-summer 2016) and region 1 (Central urban region). Due to the fact that we spatially and temporally adjust food expenditures (real food expenditures), the food poverty line is the same for all Afghans, whereas it differs across regions and over quarters in nominal terms.

10 The subsample of households used for non-food allowance estimation in Afghanistan was selected with the two-fold objective of guaranteeing a sufficient sample size for each of the 14 regions and of obtaining an equal representation of households whose food expenditure was just above and just below the food poverty line. In particular, the definition of the relevant sub-sample is selecting 10 percent of the sample above and 10 percent of the sample below the poverty line.

11 Three important changes were implemented:

VII.3.3 Setting the national poverty line

The overall poverty line is the sum of the food poverty line and the non-food allowance. The national average poverty line based on ALCS 2016-17 is 2,064 Afghanis 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 real per-capita consumption falls below the poverty line. In 2016-17, 54.5 percent of Afghanistan's population was poor, which corresponds to approximately 15.9 million Afghans who were not able to meet their basic needs.

Table VII.3: Poverty indicators in Afghanistan

Poverty indicator	Value	Standard error	95% Confidence limits	
			Lower	Upper
Poverty headcount rate	54.5	0.8	52.9	56.1
Poverty gap	14.9	0.3	14.3	15.6
Poverty gap squared	5.6	0.2	5.2	5.9

-
- In the interest of increased transparency and in line with international good practice, non-food thresholds are inflated from their 2007-08 benchmark levels using non-food inflation rates as measured by the official CPI;
 - Improvements and changes in the survey questionnaire have required small changes in the definition of the welfare measure, which have been consistently revised for all survey years; and
 - CSO has made the decision in the interest of transparency to include all provinces in national estimates, while indicating clearly provinces for which estimates are deemed to be of inadequate quality due to the security situation or concerns about data quality.
- These revisions imply that current estimates may differ from previously released numbers.

ANNEX VIII FOOD SECURITY ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

Within ALCS 2016-17, data were collected on household expenditure, quantities and type of foods, and number of days certain foods were consumed over a seven-day recall period. 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 recall 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 on the basis of the 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 of age. In considering the winter months, upon consultation with FEWS NET Afghanistan, the calorie requirement in seven provinces – Badakhshan, Nooristan, Panjsher, Bamyan, Ghor, Ghazni and Daykundi – is adjusted for five winter months (November-March), for Badghis four months, four provinces – Nangarhar, Laghman, Kunar and Khost – for two months, 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. 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		Calculation of calories required	
a) $K_h = \sum_n \{(QF1) \times F1c + (QF1) \times F1c + \dots\}$		c) $K_r = \sum_N \{(Ha1) \times A1r + (Ha2) \times A2r + \dots\}$	
b) $K_{pc} = (K_h / HHsize) / T$		d) $K_{rpc} = (K_r / N_h)$	
where:		where:	
K_h	= Kilo calories <i>available</i> per household over specific period	K_r	= Kilo calories <i>required</i> per household per day, by age group and gender
$QF1$	= Food quantity consumed per household over a specific period	$Ha1$	= Number of persons in age category in the household
n	= Number of food items	N	= Number of age-group categories, by sex
$F1c$	= Calorie content of the food item	$A1r$	= Calories required by the age group and sex
K_{pc}	= Calories available per person per day	K_{rpc}	= Calories required per person per day
$HHsize$	= Number of persons per household	N_h	= Number of persons per household
T	= Period food was consumed		
Deficit/Surplus	e) $K_{sp} = K_{pc} - K_{rpc}$	K_{sp} = 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 are not available. It is a composite score based on dietary diversity, food frequency (i.e. the 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.

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 the ALCS 2016-17 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 can 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 the staff involved in the survey at each 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 a practical and acceptable balance within the bounds of existing resources and constraints. *Table IX.1* gives an overview of the measures relevant to ALCS 2016-17 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 the survey. Ad-hoc consultations were organised to accommodate emerging information needs.
- Although the ALCS 2016-17 was designed before SDG meta data were available, many SDG indicators were anticipated and relevant data collection incorporated in the updated questionnaires.
- Survey results and draft chapters and annexes of the ALCS 2013-14 report were shared with relevant stakeholders for review and comments (November-December 2017).
- 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 the ALCS 2016-17

Dimension	Description	
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 characterised by the merit of those purposes, in terms of the mandate of the agency.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CSO is the mandated agency to produce national statistics for Afghanistan; the ALCS 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. The ALCS 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 the ALCS. The ALCS is the only national survey capturing information about seasonality. The ALCS is the only national survey capturing information about the nomadic Kuchi.
b. Completeness	The degree to which the data serve data users as completely as possible, taking restricted resources into account.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ALCS is the only survey producing representative information for the entire population of Afghanistan, including the nomadic Kuchi (presently estimated at 5.0 percent of the total population). Being a multi-purpose survey, information demands are not covered in as much detail as desired. However, the rotating principle applied in ALCS assures that with a relevant rate of recurrence, desired information is provided in successive survey rounds.
c. Accuracy	The degree to which the data correctly estimate or describe the quantities or characteristics that the survey was designed to measure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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). A wide range of activities was implemented to enhance data accuracy (see the sub-section on management of data accuracy). CSO applies population estimates that are likely far removed from actual population figures. To the extent that this is the case, absolute numbers presented in this report will be incorrect. It is likely that percentage distributions – the large majority of results presented in this report – will reflect the actual situation much better. The ALCS 2016-17 introduced CAPI for Shura and market-price data. The procedures reduced data-collection errors and included the collection of geographic coordinates of the locations, which provided the opportunity to evaluate whether survey data were collected at the right location.
d. Comparability	The degree to which statistics are comparable over space and time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Questionnaires, definitions and methodologies are harmonised with international recommendations and national practices. Thus, ALCS implements internationally recommended methodologies for poverty, food-security, WASH and SDG assessments, and complies with procedures implemented in UNICEF-MICS, DHS and Labour Force Surveys for health, demographic and labour market indicators. Comparability over time is one of the key criteria in the ALCS. However, this criterion is negotiated by others, like comparability with other data sources and evolution of conceptual thinking. Consequently, the ALCS is an instrument in continuous development, receptive for changes if improvement is sufficiently warranted and ensured. When new definitions or methodologies are introduced, as much as feasible the possibility of mapping new on old results is assured.

e. Coherence	The degree to which data from a single statistical programme, and data brought together across statistical programmes, are logically connected.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Even if proposed by the ALCS team, 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 ALCS 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.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ completion of data collection and the release of the ALCS 2016-17 report was 12 months. Taking into consideration international standards related to the timeliness of statistical surveys, and given the complexity of the survey and CSO's experience in survey taking this is a brief period. For a number of data users the survey results have already lost considerable value. ▪ In order to bridge the gap between data collection and dissemination, a Mid-term and a Highlights report were produced with a selected number of key indicators
g. Accessibility	The availability of information and the suitability of the form in which the information is available.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The ALCS 2016-17 report is 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 ALCS 2016-17 report provides meta data, including information about questionnaires, sampling design, survey procedures, concepts and definitions, methodologies applied for labour-market, poverty, food-security, SDGs and quality assurance. ▪ CSO adheres to a micro-data access

- 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.
- The survey 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 ALCS Steering Committee and Technical Advisory Committee to ensure the soundness of the overall project strategy and technical components.

b. Management of completeness

- The ALCS 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.
- The survey instruments, the training and field procedures were tested prior to the start of the fieldwork in previous rounds of the survey. As the ALCS 2016-17 questionnaire contained a few new items, the translated questionnaires were subjected to a pre-test by CSO staff.
- 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 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 training, during each survey quarter 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.
 - Regional Statistical Officers checked completed questionnaires on a sample basis.
 - Regional Statistical Officers supervised general field operations.
 - Key ALCS staff from CSO Headquarters performed quarterly field monitoring missions.
 - A programme for rapid quality assessment was developed and implemented to identify and remedy problems in data collection in real time.
- The ALCS 2016-17 introduced CAPI for Shura and market-price data. The procedures reduced data-collection errors and included the collection of geographic coordinates of the locations, which provided the opportunity to evaluate whether survey data were collected at the right location.
- Data-processing activities and procedures included the following:
 - Monthly provincial batches of completed questionnaires were manually checked upon receipt at CSO Headquarters for completeness and major integrity problems. In case of serious shortcomings, questionnaires were referred back to the field.
 - Data capture in CSDPro software consisted of first data entry and dependent verification through double entry. This in principle eliminated any data errors due to typing mistakes.
 - Checks in CSDPro were performed to identify and remedy essential data structure and data integrity problems.
 - An extensive programme of consistency- and range checks, data correction and imputation in CSDPro was implemented before the raw dataset was delivered.
 - Comprehensive data-editing programmes were implemented in Stata to perform further consistency, range and plausibility checks during the analysis phase by highly-qualified data analysts.
 - 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.

- ALCS 2016-17 results were triangulated with previous survey rounds and 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

- Advice was sought with international experts and agencies (UNICEF, UN-Habitat, WFP, FAO, World Bank), as to better harmonise ALCS data collection and analysis with international standards and keep it up-to-date with new developments. This particularly related to the introduction of new SDG indicators.
- Consultations with national stakeholders were organised to explore comparability between ALCS and other data sources, as well as strategies to improve comparability.
- In each phase of survey implementation, comparability with previous rounds of ALCS was a key consideration.

e. Management of coherence

- In the absence of formalised procedures in CSO, ALCS 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.
- Coherence management would require government agencies and other stakeholders to give regular feedback to CSO on how data are used.
- In addition, the number of stakeholders that support CSO in data analysis should increase.

f. Management of timeliness

- Data collection and data processing were done in parallel to minimise the period between completion of both activities.
- Mid-term data corrections and analyses were conducted to reduce the analysis time in the period after data collection.
- Monitoring procedures were designed and implemented to monitor progress in data collection and data processing.
- In order to bridge the period between data collection and dissemination, a Mid-term and a Highlights report were produced (in February 2017 and January 2018, respectively) with a selected number of key indicators.

g. Management of accessibility

- The ALCS 2016-17 report is available in Dari, Pashtu and English, as to broaden ALCS's effective audience.
- The ALCS 2016-17 report is available both on the CSO website and in printed form.
- Selected tables at national and provincial level are available on the CSO website.
- The ALCS 2016-17 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 labour-market, poverty, food-security and WASH assessment and quality assurance.
- ALCS data will be made available to data users in line with CSO's micro-data access policy.

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 key indicators. Since the sample design of ALCS 2016-17 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	SDG/MDG indicator	Value	Standard error	Relative error	Confidence limits	
						Lower	Upper
Labour force participation rate	Working-age population (14+)		53.9	0.4	0.7	53.2	54.7
Unemployment rate	Economically active population, 14+	SDG 8.5.2	23.9	0.4	1.8	23.1	24.7
Youth unemployment rate	Economically active population, 15-24		30.7	0.7	2.3	29.3	32.1
Employment-to-population ratio	Working-age population (14+)	MDG 1.5	41	0.4	0.9	40.3	41.8
Underemployment rate, as percentage of the labour force	Economically active population, 14+		15.6	0.3	2.2	14.9	16.3
Underemployment rate, as percentage of employed	Employed population, 14+		20.5	0.5	2.2	19.6	21.4
Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment	Employed population, 14+	MDG 1.7	80.2	0.6	0.7	79.1	81.3
Manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment	Employed population, 14+	SDG 9.2.2	18.1	0.5	2.5	17.2	19
Proportion of women in managerial positions, total	Senior managers	SDG 5.5.2	4.3	2.4	56	-0.5	9
Proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training (NEET)	Youth, aged 15-24	SDG 8.6.1	42	0.5	1.2	41	42.9
Poverty headcount rate	Total population	SDG 1.2.1	54.5	0.7	1.3	53.1	55.9
Poverty gap	Total population below poverty line	MDG 2.1	14.9	0.3	1.8	14.4	15.5
Squared poverty gap	Total population below poverty line		5.6	0.1	2.4	5.3	5.8
Gini index	Total population		0.3	0	0	0.3	0.3
Proportion of food-insecure population	Total population	MDG 1.9	44.6	0.7	1.6	43.1	46
Percentage of households owning irrigated land	All households		37.9	0.7	1.7	36.6	39.2
Percentage of households owning rain-fed land	All households		19.4	0.5	2.8	18.3	20.5
Percentage of households owning garden plot land	All households		13.1	0.5	3.5	12.2	14

Percentage of households with access to irrigated land	All households		41.4	0.7	1.7	40	42.7
Percentage of households with access to rain-fed land	All households		20.5	0.6	2.7	19.4	21.6
Percentage of households with cattle	All households		38.6	0.6	1.6	37.3	39.8
Percentage of households with goats	All households		23.8	0.7	2.8	22.5	25.1
Percentage of households with sheep	All households		26.5	0.7	2.6	25.2	27.8
Net primary attendance rate	Population of primary-school age (7-12)		56.2	0.8	1.5	54.5	57.8
Net secondary attendance rate	Population of secondary-school age (13-15)		35.7	0.7	2	34.4	37.1
Net tertiary attendance rate	Population of tertiary-school age (16-18)		9.7	0.4	4.5	8.8	10.6
Participation rate of youth in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months	Youth, aged 15-24	SDG 4.3.1	28.5	0.6	2.1	27.4	29.7
Adult literacy rate	Population aged 15 and over		34.8	0.6	1.7	33.6	35.9
Youth literacy rate	Population aged 15-24		53.6	0.8	1.5	52	55.2
Percentage women with at least one ante-natal visit	Women with a live birth during 5 years preceding the survey	MDG 5.5	70	0.4	0.6	69.1	70.9
Percentage of women with at least four antenatal visits	Women with a live birth during 5 years preceding the survey	MDG 5.5	16.3	0.4	2.2	15.6	17
Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	Women with a live birth during 5 years preceding the survey	SDG 3.1.2 / MDG 5.2	53.4	0.5	0.9	52.4	54.3
Percentage of pregnant women who received tetanus injection during pregnancy	Women with a live birth during 5 years preceding the survey		35.6	0.5	1.3	34.6	36.5
Disability prevalence rate	Total population		3.2	0.1	1.6	3.1	3.3
Percentage of households owning their dwelling	All households		87.2	0.5	0.5	86.3	88.1
Percentage of dwellings constructed since 1998	All households		62.6	0.6	0.9	61.4	63.8

Percentage of population in over-crowded dwellings	Total population		43.9	0.6	1.4	42.6	45.2
Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing	Urban population	SDG 11.1.1	72.4	1.5	2	69.4	75.4
Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services	Total population	SDG 6.1.1	36	0.8	2.2	34.4	37.6
Proportion of population using improved drinking water sources	Total population	MDG 7.8	61.7	0.8	1.3	60	63.4
Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services	Total population	SDG 6.2.1	41.4	0.7	1.7	40	42.8
Proportion of population with access to electricity	Total population	SDG 7.1.1	97.7	0.2	0.2	97.3	98.1
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology for cooking purposes	Total population	SDG 7.1.2	25.2	0.7	2.7	23.8	26.6
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology for heating purposes	Total population	SDG 7.1.2	4.2	0.3	7	3.6	4.8
Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology for lighting purposes	Total population	SDG 7.1.2	98.1	0.2	0.2	97.7	98.5
Proportion of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road	Rural population	SDG 9.1.1	63.1	1.3	2	60.5	65.7
Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone	Total population aged 15 years and over	SDG 5.b.1	43.3	0.4	0.8	42.6	44.0
Number of internet users per 100 population	Total population aged 15 years and over	SDG 17.8.1	3.9	3.0	78.3	-2.2	9.9

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 ALCS has a large sample size, random errors are a-priori not considered to be an issue of much 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 ALCS 2013-14 included the 2003-05 pre-census household listing, updated in 2009, and the 2003-04 National Multi-sectoral Assessment of Kuchi (NMAK-2004). Whereas the former was reasonably up-to-date for the survey in 2013-14, the latter was outdated and it is likely that in the intervening period considerable changes occurred with respect to the number and geographic distribution of Kuchi households. 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 2016-17 that is different to the one represented in the NMAK list. The different Socio-Demographic and Economic Surveys that were implemented since 2010 in Bamyan, Ghor, Daykundi, Kapisa, Parwan, Samangan and Kabul provided more up-to-date sampling frames for the ALCS.

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 ALCS 2016-17 occurred to the extent that sampled clusters were not visited, or that sampled households in selected clusters were not interviewed. Out of the 2,102 originally scheduled clusters, 294 (14 percent) were not visited. For 196 of these non-visited clusters, 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 – 1,021 households (5.1 percent of the total) could not be interviewed because – mostly – they were not found or because they refused or were unable to participate. For 1,019 of these non-response households (5.1 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 14.0 percent.

With regard to item non-response, the variables in the ALCS household, Shura and Market price 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,¹ missing values were 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 IX.4.2 gives information about missing values for selected variables after data editing. This overview reflects the finding that generally the percentage of missing values is low.² For household-level variables the level of missing values is typically close to 0 percent. Variables with a percentage missing higher than 5 are usually about which people are ignorant or those that relate to income and expenses, which people may prefer not to disclose. The proportion of missing values in individual-level variables is more varied, but levels of more than 5 percent are exceptional.

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 CSPro editing programme that was developed to identify and, where possible, correct omissions and errors in the survey data, consisted of two components: one addressing structure errors, dealing with database integrity and identification problems and another addressing contingency problems, dealing with inconsistent, missing, out-of-range and implausible data.

- Structure errors. This programme component performed 43 different checks. Most of these, produced error rates below 1 percent. The remaining checks with error rates above 1 percent related to:
 - a. Administrative problems (missing supervisor codes, incorrect or missing person line numbers), which could be corrected;
 - b. Missing modules. The information from these missing modules could not be retrieved.
- Contingency errors. This programme component performed close to 800 different checks. Most of these produced error rates below 1 percent. Checks with an error rate of 5 percent or more and related to:
 - a. Missing data from female modules that could not be administered – these could not be corrected.
 - b. Household income information – partly corrected.
 - c. Information on size of agricultural land and crop production – partly corrected.
 - d. A variety of other variables – partly corrected.

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.

The ALCS 2016-17 used first data entry and dependent verification through double entry. 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 large number of consistency- and range checks were performed and where possible identified errors or missing values were automatically imputed, based on logical inference.

A second main thrust of data editing was done as part of the analysis phase by highly qualified data analysts. Although apparent data errors still exist in the final dataset, these are assumed to be few and mostly statistically insignificant.

1 All household identification variables – Province code (q_1_1), District code (q_1_2), Control and Enumeration area code (q_1_3), Cluster code (q_1_4), Residence code (q_1_5), Nahia code (q_1_6), Village code (q_1_7) and Household number (q_1_8), as well as interview date variables (q_2_5a-c) and individual-level variables Relationship to the head of household (q_3_3), Age (q_3_4), Sex (q_3_5) and Marital status (q_3_6).

2 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).

IX.4.2 Missing values

Table IX.3 Provides information about the percentage of missing values for selected variables after data editing. Variables were purposely selected from all household-questionnaire modules and cover both key and secondary variables.

Table IX.3: Percentage missing values for selected variables^a

Variable	Base population	Percent missing values
Household-level variables		
Construction material of walls (4.2)	19,355	0.2
Period of construction of the dwelling (4.5)	19,355	0.1
Number of rooms in the dwelling (4.13)	19,838	0.6
Main source of cooking fuel (4.16)	19,838	0.2
Expenditure on firewood (4.18.d)	19,838	0.1
Type of toilet facility used (4.19)	19,838	0.2
Main source of drinking water (4.21)	19,838	0.8
Household owning livestock (5.1)	19,838	0.0
Number of goats vaccinated (5.4.b)	5,065	0.5
Type of veterinary service provider (5.11)	3,822	0.0
Sold any animal (5.13)	19,838	0.0
Households owning irrigated farm land (6.1)	19,838	0.0
Jeribs of irrigated land owned (6.2)	8,407	0.1
Jeribs of irrigated land cultivated (6.9)	9,200	0.2
Main crop produced on irrigated land (6.13)	7,444	0.2
Amount of most important crop produced (6.14)	7,391	0.4
Amount spent on fertilizer (6.55.d)	9,912	0.8
Number of mobile phones owned (7.6.a)	19,838	0.1
First household income source (8.1)	19,838	0.1
Second household income source (8.3)	19,838	0.1
Expenditure on food at home (9.1)	19,838	0.1
Number of hospitalised household members (9.41)	19,838	0.2
Reduced drinking water quantity shock (10.2.a)	10,330	0.0
Male assessment of economic situation (10.7)	19,838	0.4
Number of chicken owned (9.1)	19,838	0.0
Female assessment of economic situation (22.17)	19,838	1.5
Meals eaten by children under 5 (23.4.a)	14,477	0.6
Number of days consumed cereals (23.5.a)	19,838	0.1
Number of days consumed wheat flour (23.7.c)	19,838	0.1
Number of days consumed white sugar (23.7.bz)	19,838	0.1
No food or money for food (23.10)	19,838	0.2
Household had insufficient drinking water (26.1)	2,893	0.9

Individual-level variables		
Worked in business, organisation (12.2)	83,788	0.9
Person worked last month (12.6)	83,788	0.9
Days worked in past week (12.14)	34,772	2.1
Industry (12.16)	34,583	2.9
Place of birth (13.2)	155,680	0.7
Literacy (11.2)	121,829	0.9
Attended formal school (11.5)	121,829	0.8
Highest education grade completed (11.8)	52,422	2.1
Currently attending school (11.9)	41,178	1.7
Seeing disability (24.2)	155,680	0.3
Woman ever had a live birth (25.7)	17,163	3.6
Birth attendance (25.17)	17,163	4.6
Male Shura variables		
Distance to nearest road (3.2)	1,928	0.0
Place of food market (3.8)	1,928	0.0
Time to reach health post on foot (3.14.a)	1,928	19.3
Time to reach public clinic on foot (3.14.b)	1,928	0.1
Improved drinking water quantity as priority (5.1)	1,928	0.1
Market price variables		
Price of purchased nan (3.2)	1,797	6.7
Price of potatoes (3.32)	1,797	0.5
Price of mutton (3.11)	1,797	4.6
Price of wheat flour (3.90)	1,797	6.7

^a Based on unweighted observations, after editing

ANNEX X CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

Adult. Person aged 18 or over.

Adult literacy rate. The percentage of literate persons aged 15 years and over.

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 post-natal period, and in the identification, management and referral of complications in women and newborns. Both trained and untrained traditional birth attendants (TBA) are excluded.

Basic drinking water service. Drinking water from an improved source, provided collection time is not more than 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing.

Basic sanitation service. Use of an improved facility not shared with other households.

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.

Composite household. A household where at least one household member was not related to one or more other members of the household.

Contraceptive prevalence rate. The percentage of currently married women aged 15 to 49, who are currently using, or whose sexual partner is currently using, at least one method of contraception, regardless of the method used.

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.

Demographic dividend. The economic growth potential that can result from shifts in a population's age structure, mainly when the share of the working-age population (15 to 64) is larger than the non-working-age share of the population.

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. Three different measures can be calculated: total dependency ratio (the sum of those aged under 15 plus those aged 65 and over per 100 aged 15-64), child dependency ratio (those aged under 15 per 100 aged 15-64), and old-age dependency ratio (those aged 65 and over, per 100 aged 15-64).

Disability. In the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF), disability is used as an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions, denoting the negative aspects of the interaction between an individual (with a health condition) and that individual's contextual factors (environmental and personal factors).

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. Persons 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.

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. 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, which cover a number of households that can be enumerated in a census by one enumerator.

Extended household. A non-nuclear household consisting of persons who are all related through blood, marriage or adoption.

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 female to male values of a given indicator. A gender parity index equal to 1 indicates parity between females and males.

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 official age group for the same level of education.

Gross intake ratio. The total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total number of children of school-entry age.

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.

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 Diet Diversity Score (HDDS). A measure of dietary diversity, based on the number of food groups are consumed during a week reporting period. Households that over a seven-day period consumed foods from four or fewer food groups out of eight are classified as having low dietary diversity.

Immigrant. A person who has entered a country and took up residence there for at least one year.

Immigration. The act of crossing an international border into a country and taking up residence in the country for at least one year.

Improved drinking water source. Improved drinking water sources are those that have the potential to deliver safe water by nature of their design and construction. These include piped supplies and non-piped supplies (such as boreholes, protected wells and springs, rainwater and packaged or delivered water, e.g. by tanker trucks). Unimproved drinking water sources that do not protect against contamination are unprotected springs and wells.

Improved sanitation facility: A sanitation facility that hygienically separates human excreta from human contact. These facilities include wet sanitation technologies (flush and pour flush toilets connecting to sewers, septic tanks or pit latrines) and dry sanitation technologies (ventilated improved pit latrines, pit latrines with slabs and composting toilets).

Inactive population or persons not in the labour force. All persons aged 14 and over who are 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.

Informal employment. In ALCS, informal employment is defined by the following categories of status in employment: own-account workers, day labourers or unpaid family workers.

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-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.

In-patient care. The care for 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.

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 (IDP). A person 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 generalised 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).
Kuchi. Nomadic pastoralists living in Afghanistan as nomads or semi-nomads.

Life expectancy at birth. The average number of years that a new-born baby is expected to live if the mortality condition of the year corresponding to the life table remains constant.

Life-time migrant. A person who at least once changed residence across an administrative border – either national or international – since birth.

Limited drinking water service. Drinking water from an improved source for which collection time exceeds 30 minutes for a round trip, including queuing.

Limited sanitation service. Use of an improved facility shared between two or more households.

Literacy gender parity index. The ratio of the literacy rate of women to the literacy rate of men.

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.

Logistic regression. A statistical method for analysing a dataset in which there are one or more independent variables that determine an outcome. The outcome is measured with a dichotomous variable (in which there are only two possible outcomes).

Maternal death. The death of a woman while pregnant or within 42 days of the termination of pregnancy, irrespective of the duration of the pregnancy, from any cause related to, or aggravated by, the pregnancy or its management, but not including those from accidental or incidental causes.

Maternal mortality ratio. The number of pregnancy-related deaths during a given time period per 100,000 live births during the same time period.

Median: The value that divides a sorted list of numbers in two equal parts.

Migration. The act of crossing an administrative border and taking up residence elsewhere for at least a year.

Net attendance rate. 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.

Net intake rate in primary education. The number of children of school-entry age who enter the first grade of primary school as a percentage of the total number of children of school-entry age.

Nuclear household. A household that consist entirely of a single family.

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.

Old-age 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.

Old persons. Persons aged 65 or over.

Out-migrant. A person who left an administrative area and took up residence elsewhere in the same 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 same country for at least one year.

Out-patient care. The care that is being given to a patient at a hospital or other facility when the patient is not being admitted to the facility.

Overcrowded dwelling. Dwelling in which more than three persons live per room.

Own-account workers. 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. A measure of poverty that 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.

Prevalence. All the new and old cases of an event, disease, or disability in a given population and time.

Primary completion rate. The total number of new entrants in the last grade of primary education (grade six), regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the number of children of the theoretical entrance age to the last grade (age 12).

Primary education. Encompasses education at grades 1-6. Primary school age is the age at which children receive primary education.

Pyramid (population- or -age). Graphical illustration showing the distribution of population by age group. The shape

of the illustration is similar to a pyramid when the population is growing.

Quality assurance. Any method or procedure for planning, 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 – at a specific point in recent time, in ALCS 2016-17 defined as migration in the last two years before the interview.

Recent migration. Migration – either internal or international – since a specific point in recent time, in ALCS 2016-17 defined as migration in the last two years before the interview.

Returnee. A person who has returned from displacement either within the country (former IDP) or to another country (former refugee or asylum seeker).

Repetition rate. The number of repeaters in a given grade in the current school year as a percentage of the number of pupils attending the same grade in the previous school year.

Reproductive age. Women in age 15-49 years.

Rural area. Area defined as rural at the level of Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) of the master sample, by the Central Statistics Organization. The definition is based on administrative criteria.

Rural population. The population living in rural areas.

Safely managed drinking water. Drinking water from an improved water source that is located on premises, available when needed and free from faecal and priority chemical contamination.

Safely managed sanitation. Use of an improved sanitation facility, not shared with other households, and where excreta are safely disposed in situ or transported and treated offsite.

School life expectancy. The average number of years that a child is likely to spend in the educational system. Specifically, it is defined as the total number of years of schooling that a child entering the school system could expect to receive in the future, assuming that the probability of his or her enrolment is equal to prevailing participation rates. It indicates the average duration of schooling in years, not the number of grades reached.

Sex ratio. The number of males for every 100 females in a population.

Sex ratio at birth. The number of male births per 100 female births.

Season. Seasons are defined according the Shamsi calendar:

1395	
Spring	20 March to 20 June 2016
Summer	21 June to 21 September 2016
Autumn	22 September to 20 December 2016
Winter	21 December 2016 to 20 March 2017

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. Official age ranges for primary and secondary education are 6-11, 12-17, respectively.

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 new-borns. 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

Squared poverty gap. A poverty measure that represents the distance between the consumption levels of the poor and the poverty line, but applies an increasing weight to greater distances below the poverty line, thus capturing the “severity” of poverty.

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.

Total Fertility Rate. The total number of children born or likely to be born to a woman in her life time if she were subject to the prevailing rate of age-specific fertility in the population.

Tertiary education. Encompasses teacher college (grades 13-14), technical college (grades 13-14), university (grades

13-16) and post-graduate education (grades 17-19).

Tourist industry. The sub-sectors of the economy that are included in the tourist industry are ISIC Rev.2 Major groups 628 – Retail sale on markets and streets of food and beverages, 631 – Restaurants, cafés and other eating and drinking places, 632 – Hotels, guest houses, camps and other lodging places, 711 – Land transport if the related occupation is ISCO-08 code 832 (Car, taxi, van and motorcycle drivers), 941 – Movie and other entertainment services, 942 – Libraries, museums, botanical and zoological gardens, and other cultural services not elsewhere classified, and 949 – Amusement and recreational services not elsewhere classified.

Transition rate to secondary school. The number of children attending the last grade (grade six) of primary school during the previous school year who were in the first grade of secondary school during the current school year, as a percentage of the total number of children attending the last grade of primary school during the previous school year.

Transition rate to tertiary school. The number of children attending the last grade (grade twelve) of secondary school during the previous school year who were in the first grade of tertiary school during the current school year, as a percentage of the total number of children attending the last grade of secondary school during the previous school year.

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 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.

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.

Urban area. Area defined as urban at level of Primary Sampling Units (PSUs) of the master sample, by the Central Statistics Organization. The definition is based on administrative criteria.

Urban population. Population living in urban areas.

Vulnerable employment. Employment characterised by relatively precarious circumstances such as a lack of formal work arrangements and access to benefits or social protection programmes, as well as low remuneration. Own-account workers and contributing family workers are the statuses in employment that are considered vulnerable employment. In ALCS, day labourers are included as well.

Whipple index. A method to measure the tendency for individuals to inaccurately report their actual age or date of birth. Respondents to a census or survey sometimes report their age or date of birth to make it seem more culturally favourable, for example to appear younger, or to be born on a date that is considered luckier than their actual date of birth. The index score is obtained by summing the number of persons in the age range 23 and 62 inclusive, who report ages ending in 0 and 5, dividing that sum by the total population between ages 23 and 62 years inclusive, and multiplying the result by 5. Restated as a percentage, index scores range between 100 (no preference for ages ending in 0 and 5) and 500 (all people reporting ages ending in 0 and 5).

Working age. Age 14 and over.

Youth literacy rate. The percentage of literate persons aged 15–24 years.

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